Definitional concepts of bullying

and aggression

from traditional platforms

to

cyber repertoire

Thesis presented

by

Dorothy W. C Grigg

For the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Psychology Department

Goldsmiths, University of London

Preface

The arguments and discussions presented in this thesis are as a result of a four year examination of the debates surrounding bullying and cyber-bullying and the conclusions drawn are based on several studies that examined and evaluated the prototypes of bullying and cyber-bullying.

The term cyber-bullying has been used by a wide range of researchers to describe multiple types of negative interactions among internet and mobile phone users, particularly among teenagers. Cyber-bullying definition is faced with challenges and debates due to its borrowed definitional concepts from traditional bullying which in itself is faced with debates and challenges.

The concept of bullying argues power imbalance, repetition of negative acts and intention of negative acts. These concepts are nevertheless general criteria for ascertaining proactive and sometimes reactive, goal directed sub-types of aggression such as abuse, stalking and harassment. Nevertheless, these concepts, although present in these sub-types of aggression (e.g. abuse, stalking and harassment), have not been explicitly analysed in the way that they have been examined in bullying and cyber-bullying literature. This does not however, exclude the fact that they are criteria for ascertaining abuse, harassment and stalking. These concepts have also not been explicitly compared and contrasted with regards to the respective sub-types of aggression, at least not as of the time of this research and not to the author's knowledge. It is in light of clarifying these concepts and elucidating the core criteria for bullying and cyber-bullying from the general concepts of proactive and sometimes reactive types of aggression that this research was conducted.

Table 0.1 briefly illustrates the agreement in the criteria that are currently used in identifying various sub-divisions of aggression.

Table 0.1: Similarities in the definitions of aggression sub-types

General concept of proactive and (sometimes) reactive forms of aggression by researchers

Sub-types	Repetition	Power imbalance	Intention	Citation
Bullying	E.g. Repeated, continuous.	E.g. Perceived or actual power imbalance (e.g. from a more powerful person to a less powerful person).	E.g. Intentional, wilful.	Crothers et al. (2010, p.329); Olweus (1993).
Harassment	E.g. Repeated negative acts.	E.g. Job related consequences for non- corporation.	E.g. Implied threats, intended to oppress.	Tepper & White (2011, p.83).
Stalking	E.g. Repeated, persistent.	E.g. Impose unwanted contact and communication.	E.g. Wilful, malicious following.	Meloy and Gothard (1995, p.258); Nobles et al. (2009, p.477) Mullen et al. (1999, p.1244).
Abuse	E.g. Repeated	E.g. Mis-use of power by one person over another.	E.g. Intentional actions that cause or create serious risk of harm.	Daly et al. (2011, 348); WHO (2004); Article. 26.3 (in Baskerville, 2012, p. 35); Department of Health, Social Services and Public Safety.

As shown in Table 0.1, bullying, harassment, stalking and abuse have repetition, intention and power imbalance elements in their definitions. However the bullying and cyber-bullying literature mainly pays attention to these criteria when in fact, they are the same criteria that are used in understanding instances of harassment, abuse and stalking. This thesis further throws more light on the understanding of the criteria that are necessary for measuring instances of bullying and cyber-bullying.

The research is presented in a way that it ought not to be of interest solely to researchers and investigators of bullying and cyber-bullying but to researchers of aggression

generally, due to the clarification of certain criteria that are specific to harassment, abuse and stalking.

The thesis first examines aggression in the broad sense, then focuses on proactive and reactive forms of aggression. The literature systematically highlights the differences and similarities in abuse, stalking, harassment and bullying, so that bullying and cyber-bullying can be understood by their own specific criteria.

Understanding and reading the thesis: The general aggression literature was introduced so as to get adequate background of the concept of intention, power imbalance and repetition. This was followed by the different motivations of aggression where harassment, stalking, abuse and bullying were introduced as proactive types of aggression. These aggression sub-types were further broken down in terms of their similarities and according to various researchers' definition in the different sub-divisions of aggression literature. The conceptualisation and perception of bullying and cyber-bullying were evaluated, tested and analysed having established the concept of repetition, intention and power imbalance in the different sub-types of aggression. The samples that were used to arrive at conclusions and suggestions were of varied backgrounds (e.g. primary pupils, secondary school students, and members of the public) and thus contributed to the general perception, definition and concept of bullying and cyber-bullying.

Acknowledgement

This is a declaration that the work presented in this thesis is

owned and written

by

Dorothy C. W. Attah- Grigg

Abstract

This research was conducted with the major purpose of contributing to the understanding of definitions, perceptions and concepts of cyber aggression with particular emphasis on cyber-bullying. Seven studies were conducted in total. The term 'cyber-bullying' was examined in focus groups and individual interviews (Study 1: N = 32; 8–54 years old). Qualitative thematic findings showed that the term is ambiguous and highlighted the need for further examination of its general use and perception within online aggression.

Typical exemplars that were common to cyber-bullying were examined (Study 2: N=136; 18-30 years old) and rated for centrality (Study 3: N=132, 18-30 years old) using the prototype approach by Rosch, 1972, Rosch, 1975. Intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) validated the exemplars. Hypotheses that exemplars would correlate with their given (Study 2) frequencies and mean ratings were accepted. Typical/central cyber-bullying exemplars were also determined (Study 4: N=89, 18-30 years old) in a recall and recognition memory task experiment, following the hypotheses that central exemplars of cyber-bullying would be recalled more than non-central exemplars of cyber-bullying.

Furthermore, motivating factors of cyber-bullying were examined (Study 5: N=10; 14-18 years old) using Grounded Theory (GT). GT revealed clusters of goaded and groundless motivators of cyber-bullying. Further validation of prototypes were carried out in a commonality triangulation (Study 6: N=114, 18-30 years old). Core exemplars of cyber-bullying from generated GT themes were determined in terminological categorisation study (Study 7: N=132, 18-30) where CB was differentiated from cyber-harassment, cyber-abuse and cyber-stalking. The implications of the findings including the need for various preventative measures (e.g. psychosocial therapies) to be applied to instances of bullying/victim and cyber-bullying/victim were suggested.

LIST OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF APPENDICES

Chapter-One

Literature Review: Aggression and its sub-types

1.0 Introduction

This thesis examines the concepts and definitions of different forms of online aggression and how they are interpreted in relation to their traditional forms. Particular emphasis is drawn to the definition, perception and concept of cyber-bullying due to the increasing literature on this within the general area of the use and abuse of Information Communication Technology (ICT).

Prior to the increase in cyber-bullying literature, which was brought about by the surge and use of smartphones and the internet, different forms of traditional aggression (e.g. stalking, harassment, abuse and bullying) were investigated by researchers in their specific aggression research domain (e.g. aggression: Buss, 1961; Björkqvist, 1994; bullying: Olweus, 1973, Smith, 2003; harassment: Leskinen, Cortina & Kabat, 2011; Berkowitz, 1993; stalking: Mullen, Pathé, Purcell & Stuart, 1999). Individual schools of thought follow set criteria that guide their explications and elucidations of their respective areas of aggression research. For instance, identifications of different types of stalkers open avenues for the application of possible punitive or therapeutic measures that are contingent on the investigated type(s) of stalking (Mullen et al., 1999; Pathé & Mullen, 1997). Also, understanding the different roles that bystanders play in bullying contexts elucidates necessary counter group actions necessary to tackle and prevent bullying in schools and among adolescents (Salmivalli, Kärnä & Poskiparta, 2009; Thompson & Smith, 2011; Olweus, 1997). However, most online aggression research being conducted now have a major focus on the term 'cyber-bullying' even when such investigated phenomena suggest other forms of aggression (e.g. in Dursun &

Akbulut, 2010; Akbulut & Çuharda, 2011; Ryan, Kariuki & Yilmaz, 2011; Li, 2007; 2010; Willard, 2007a, 2007b, 2007) like stalking, heated arguments, sexual harassment and other negative acts that are differentiated in the traditional aggression domain by their respective researchers (e.g. Mullen et al., 1999; Settles, Buchanan & Colar, 2011; Berkowitz, 1993).

With the increasing popularity of online aggression, more research is reported on online bullying than on other forms of aggression which are also present in the online environment (e.g. online griefing: Chesney, Coyne, Logan & Madden, 2009; cyber-abuse: Mishna, McLuckie & Saini, 2009a; Mishna, Cook, Saini, Wu & MacFadden, 2009b; online harassment: Wolak, Kimberly, Mitchell, Finkelhor 2007; cyber-stalking: Regehr, 2010; Sheridan & Grant, 2007; Oglivie, 2000). Whilst it is not debatable that bullying acts occur through the use of ICT, it is debatable that some reported acts of ICT-based bullying are other forms of aggression that need to be acknowledged individually in cyber aggression literature. It is acknowledged that there are studies that have differentiated types of online aggression alongside their antecedents (e.g. Jones, Mitchell, Wolak & Finkelhor, 2013; Pyzlaski, 2011; Sheridan & Grant, 2007; Smith, Mahdavi, Carvalho, Fisher, Russell & Tippett, 2008; Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004a; 2004b). However with regards to those that have not, investigating other forms of aggression under the umbrella of cyber-bullying may limit the possibility of relevant (effective) preventative measures contingent on the specific aggression sub-type and may also impede on the bid to clarify cyber-bullying concepts.

This assertion is made because cases of cyber-harassment (i.e. sex based) and serious cases of stalking via ICT have reportedly faced criminal consequences (Sheridan & Grant, 2007). Cyber-bullying is not criminalised in the United Kingdom; however there are laws which schools must follow to ensure preventative measures and duty of care to students (Marczak & Coyne, 2010). There are also growing research on preventative measures on cyber-bullying to reduce online bullying incidents among primary and secondary school

students (e.g. Salmivalli et al., 2009; Salmivalli, 2010; Thompson & Smith, 2011). Therefore it is important that negative acts specific to cyber-bullying are reported for effective preventative measures. Another implication for the general use of the term is that it may also limit educational and informational sources with regards to other forms of aggression literature in cases of research specific matters.

Sub-types of aggression specific to the area of interest of this thesis are harassment, stalking and abuse which are comparable to bullying with regards to their definitional concepts of intention, repetition and sometimes systematic abuse of power (e.g. Monks, Smith, Naylor, Barter, Ireland & Coyne, 2009; Anderson & Bushman 2002; Smith & Sharp, 1994). These definitional concepts will be discussed with examples where necessary, so as to clarify some emerging lines of arguments. In order to examine these acts of online aggression, it is worth examining analogous acts in their traditional forms so as to determine how their concepts have changed or perhaps remained the same in terms of their applications in the online environment. It is not being argued that all reported cases of cyber-bullying fall short of thorough consideration in terms of their plausibility in the online standpoint. Rather it is emphasised that sub-types of traditional aggression need to be revisited and each concept clearly understood for current and future research in the online aggression domain and to ensure effective preventative measures contingent on specific aggression sub-types. Thus an initial insight on this shift in trend is to explore traditional and online forms of aggression.

It is the aim of this chapter to understand the traditional sub-categories of aggression and how they have shifted from traditional platform to the cyber-environment through the use of ICT. A further aim is to examine definitions and concepts surrounding the sub-types of traditional forms of aggression such as harassment, bullying, stalking and abuse, with particular emphasis placed on their social implications. Prevalence rates, age and gender differences will also be discussed as well as preventative measures. Further, the trend from

traditional means of communication to the cyber-environment will be explored so as to determine how aggressions resulting from daily communication are now being demonstrated online. Thus, this chapter will be a foundation for the chapters to come, particularly Chapter Three where various sub-types of aggression that are mentioned in this chapter will be examined in their online forms. The words 'traditional' or 'face-to-face' in this thesis mean aggression that does not take the form of ICT unless otherwise stated. The terms 'online', 'cyber' and 'ICT' will be used interchangeably in this thesis to mean situations that are different from the face-to-face phenomenon.

1.1   Traditional Aggression

Communication or interaction with one another is a possible foundation for aggression because there has to be a medium in which aggression can be manifested. As people interact and communicate within their various environments either on a daily basis or on any given situation, it is expected that situations such as disagreement, miscommunication and misunderstanding would likely occur. Some forms of misunderstanding can be easily resolved whilst others may result in an abuse of some certain edge or power that one person has over another person (Smith & Sharp, 1994). Whilst this is the norm, it does not necessarily mean that the abuse of power by one person on another person or a group of people is socially acceptable.

Bandura (1983, p.2) defines aggression as *"behavior that results in personal injury and physical destruction. The injury may be physical, or it may involve psychological impairment through disparagement and abusive exercise of coercive power."* In a fairly recent definition of aggression however, Anderson and Bushman (2002, p.25) define aggression as *"any behavior directed toward another individual that is carried out with the proximate (immediate) intent to cause harm. In addition, the perpetrator must believe that the*

19

behavior will harm the target and that the target is motivated to avoid the behaviour". Both definitions clarify that there has to be more than one person (the instigator and the target), there has to be the act that hurts someone else (prototype of aggression), and the feeling of hurt has to result from the act of aggression (consequence). There is also an indication that the act has to be intentionally carried out (e.g. Anderson & Bushman) and there has to be at least some form of coercive power (e.g. Bandura).

Bearing these vital points regarding aggression definition by researchers, the World Health Organisation (WHO: 2004, in an extraction of the definition of extreme cases of aggression i.e. violence WHO, 1996, 2000) defines aggression as *intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against a target that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm*, *mal-development or deprivation*. The definition given by the WHO (2004) clarifies further the consequences of the hurt that a target is likely to face, which may lead to death or psychological harm. Nevertheless, all the given definitions suggest that an aggressive act is intended and carried out with some form of power imbalance against an intended target, who as a consequence of the aggressive act(s), feels fear and gets hurt either physically or psychologically.

Research on aggression has been viewed from both theoretical and empirical perspectives. Historically, aggression can be understood as a direct form of attack that is intended to hurt a target to his or her face (Buss, 1961; Bandura 1983; Heinemann, 1972). In current aggression literature however, direct forms of aggression have been distinguished from indirect types which are considered to be attempts to hurt others with or without face-to-face conflict (Björkqvist, 1994; Björkqvist, Österman, Lagerspetz, 1994).

Different terminologies have been used to explain and define direct and indirect methods of aggression. 'Overt' and 'active' have been used for direct forms of aggression and 'relational', 'covert' and 'passive' for indirect forms of aggression (Björkqvist, 1994;

Crick, 1995; Feshbach, 1969; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Underwood, 2003). The distinction between direct and indirect aggression seems simplistic as pronounced; however it is a complex situation to interpret given that many terms are being used to differentiate these two forms of aggression depending on the context of their interpretations by various researchers. It has been emphasised however, that the applications of each of these terms differ slightly in the sense that there is no ideal correlation between their operational definition and proposed terminologies (Card, Stucky, Sawalani & Little, 2008). Nevertheless, some studies have supported the distinctiveness of these terminological constructs of aggression in their various relative and related research applications (e.g. Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Little, Jones, Henrich & Hawley, 2003; Young, Nelson, Hottle, Warburton & Young, 2010). For example, whilst some studies have differentiated three types of aggression: direct, indirect; and verbal (e.g. Glascock, 2008), others have emphasised two types of aggression – direct and indirect, where verbal aggression has been argued to exist in both (direct and indirect) forms (Coyne & Archer, 2004). An examination of each terminology in line with current literature suggests differences in the individual type of aggression.

1.1.1 Direct aggression

With the exception of extreme direct cases of war; and inter/intra-country violence, direct aggression takes the form of physical pushing, shoving, kicking, sexual and theft related attacks (Buss, 1961; Card et al., 2008); to direct verbal attacks such as insults, sarcasm, name calling and threats (Infante & Rancer, 1996). Direct aggression is also referred to as overt, active and social aggression (Blake & Kim, 2011). In direct types of aggression, the aggressor relates openly with his or her targets in order to exhibit aggressive acts which may result in feelings of humiliation, hurt or injury to the target(s) (Berkowitz, 1993; Infante &

Rancer, 1996). Thus direct aggression may result in cases of violence and such consequences as described by the WHO (2004) and by Bandura (1983).

It has been reported that direct forms of aggression are more prominent in males than in females; and have also been strongly related to externalising problems such as low pro-social behaviours and poor peer relations (Card et al., 2008). It has been counter-argued however, that most of the findings that have favoured males on demonstrated acts of direct physical aggression have not used the most appropriate measures to ascertain and legitimise their results (Björkqvist, 1994; Björkqvist et al., 1994). According to Björkqvist et al. (1994) aggression was observed only in male dominated settings such as all boys' school and in the school playground which is a common place for physical sporting games that could result in direct physical (aggression) situations. As argued by Björkqvist et al. most aggression studies focused mainly on the aggressive nature of males, without including female participants in their studies (e.g. Heinemann, 1972; Olweus, 1978; 1993). Nevertheless, following growing debates on gender roles in aggression, some studies which have utilised both male and female participants have found that females are more direct aggressors (e.g. towards boys) than males are (towards girls) (Artz, Nicholson & Magnuson, 2008).

1.1.1.1 Overt aggression

Crick (1995) describes overt aggression as hitting, pushing and verbal threats, with intent to harm others through physical means. Overt aggression has been likened to active forms of aggression where the perpetrators take the active role of tormenting his or her target(s) rather than being passive in the act of aggression (e.g. Giunta, Pastorelli, Eisenberg, Gerbino, Casterllani & Bombi, 2009). Giunta et al. (2009) refer to overt aggression as the participation in violent gang action and other support of group action(s). Giunta et al. further expressed overt aggression as the exhibition of violent behaviour during a quarrel or being involved in

fights between people or rival groups. Whilst the instances given by Giunta et al. are an indication of direct forms of aggression, the authors did not explicate this further in line with the term 'overt' aggression. They also leave the debate open as to whether overt aggression is specifically a group-oriented kind of aggression. Giunta et al. however acknowledged kicking, hitting and punching as physical aggression. Additionally, Crick's (1995) description of overt aggression included direct verbal threats, which Giunta et al. (2009) had excluded in their examination of overt aggression. All the same, the consequences for overt aggression are the same as mentioned in direct forms of aggression.

1.1.2   Indirect aggression

Tremblay (2000) defines indirect aggression as a *''behavior aimed at hurting someone without the use of physical aggression''* (p. 20). Indirect forms of aggression can be carried out on a one-to-one basis through face-to-face confrontation or via a third party (Björkqvist, 1994; Tremblay, 2000). Indirect aggression can take the form of gossiping, social ostracism and spreading of rumours (Björkqvist et al., 1994). Similarly, Lagerspetz, Björkqvist and Peltonen (1988) asserted that in indirect forms of aggression, the perpetrators manipulate others or make use of the social structure in order to hurt or attack their targets. For example, spreading false rumours, saying bad things behind a person's back and making up false/bad stories about a person all contribute to indirect forms of aggression. Indirect forms of aggression are ways of disguising the aggressors' intent to harm his or her targets, and there is a tendency for indirect aggressors to remain anonymous to their targets (Taki, Slee, Hymel, Pepler, Sim & Swearer, 2008).

1.1.2.1   Relational aggression

Relational types of aggression are indirect in nature and refer to a non-physical manipulative behaviour intended to cause harm to others (Blake & Kim, 2011). These acts include, but are

not limited to withdrawing friendship; gossiping; practical jokes; intentionally ignoring a particular person; spreading rumours; sabotaging and social exclusion of others (Blake & Kim, 2011; Crick, 1995). According to Blake and Kim (2011) indirect, relational and social aggression refer to types of aggression that inflict harm by damaging the interpersonal relationships, self-esteem and social status of victims through exclusionary and socially manipulative tactics.

Crick (1995) placed relational aggression at an opposing end to direct forms of aggression, and described it as a social manipulation of others that has the tendency to damage their friendship. Although Crick (1995) posited indirect aggression as being on the opposing side to direct aggression, it is arguable given the context of the author's description that a direct statement such as 'stay away we won't play with you' if said to a target, can be classed as social exclusion. In other words, it is disputable to place social manipulation or ostracism in opposition to direct forms of aggression, because it can also take the form of direct verbal aggression. It is not being suggested that these elements inherent in relational aggression as pointed out by Crick are not evident in indirect forms of aggression, rather it is emphasised that they are not exclusive to indirect aggression repertoire.

1.1.2.2   *Social aggression*

Underwood, Galen and Paquette (2001) describe social aggression as a non-confrontational induced behaviour provoked by annoyance that entails social manipulation such as character defamation and social exclusion. Behaviours that are intended to cause psychological hurt by manoeuvring the target's interpersonal relationships and social status through verbal and nonverbal methods are classed under the term of social aggression (Blake & Kim, 2011). Descriptions of nonverbal aggression include and are not limited to posturing, gesturing, turning one's back towards the target, disdainful facial countenance and unfriendly eye gazes

(Ahmed, 2011; Xie, Swift, Cairns & Cairns, 2002). It has been reported that targets of these types of aggression feel bad about themselves and feel afraid for their safety despite not having experienced physical violence (Blake & Kim, 2011; Taki et al., 2008).

1.2 Motives for aggression

With reference to the definition of aggression by Anderson and Bushman (2002), Bandura (1983) and WHO (2004); and going by the types of aggression that have been discussed, it is understood that aggression is a behaviour which excludes the possibility of merely a feeling of anger. It is also deciphered that aggression is carried out with intention therefore excludes accidental situations; and it is aimed at hurting others which separates it from the feeling of assertiveness. Thus, waving what is not classed as aggression aside in line with the given definitions, two possibilities for aggression as defined have been identified as *reactive* and *proactive* possibilities (Vitaro, Gendreau, Tremblay & Oligny, 1998; Tremblay, 2008).

1.2.1 Reactive aggression

Reactive types of aggression are performed in retaliation to having been hurt, angered, or upset by the intended target. Reactive aggressive acts can be understood with instances of homicide where cases of those involved in the perpetrating acts have claimed self-defence (James & LeBreton, 2005; Frost, Ko & James, 2007). However, in cases that do not involve life and death situation such as that of homicide, reactive aggression has been suggested to include fights, quarrels and damaging of property (Vitaro et al., 1998; Tremblay 2000; Tremblay, 2008).

Cramer (2006) asserted that those who aggress towards others may not know or realise the extent to which their behaviours hurt others as their knowledge of the consequences of their behaviours would have resulted in shame, anxiety and guilt. Whilst Cramer's viewpoint is plausible in the areas where positive social norms take precedence, it

could be argued that Cramer did not put into consideration the possibility of a self-defence mechanism which may result as a consequence of provocative victims (Frost et al., 2007). In this case as pointed out by Frost et al. the feeling of shame, anxiety and guilt may not necessarily whelm the instigators. However, in cases where social norms are viewed as restrictive and repressive of one's freewill, then it is arguable that using aggression to liberate oneself in terms of self-defence may not be an acceptable behaviour in the society at large.

Reactive aggression has been linked with lower social competence and other psychosocial adjustment problems due to the involvement of impulsive responses, emotional dysregulation, or deficits in socio-cognitive problem-solving skills (Card & Little, 2006; Card et al., 2008). Day, Bream and Paul (1992) asserted that children who demonstrate reactive aggression perform badly at school and display more internalising symptoms like feelings of unhappiness and pay less attention in class. It has also been argued that experience of child abuse is a likely cause of some people's aggressive behaviours towards others, because they had been aggressed towards in the form of childhood maltreatment (Stevenson, Bottoms & Diamond, 2010).

1.2.2 *Proactive aggression*

Unlike in reactive forms of aggression where the perpetrator acts due to provocation, the proactive aggressor acts premeditatedly and requires neither provocation nor anger (Brendgen, Vitaro, Boivin, Dionne & Perusse, 2006; Mathiesen & Crick, 2010). There are different sub-types of proactive goal-directed aggression and they work alongside intimidation and threats (Brendgen et al., 2006; Mathiesen & Crick, 2010). Examples of these sub-types are harassment, stalking, abuse and bullying which are further discussed as they are the main focus of this thesis.

1.3   Harassment

Harassment is an example of a proactive goal-directed form of aggression that involves any repeated behaviour that is set to upset, torment and disturb intended targets (Berdahl, 2007; Leskinen, Cortina & Kabat, 2011). Harassment can take the form of persistent and unwanted sexual advances that the target has not demanded for. It can be specifically targeted at someone due to his or her race, religion, sexuality (homophobic harassment) and/or gender in order to undermine his or her self-worth (Berdahl 2007; Leskinen et al., 2011; Schultz, 2003). Some instances of harassment can include forced and involuntary initiated conversation, and making suggestive connotations and annotations towards a particular target (Raver & Nishi, 2010).

It has also been argued that harassment cases can be difficult to address because it is often difficult to get witnesses (Berdahl, 2007; Leskinen et al., 2011; Schneider, Swan & Fitzgerald, 1997). For example in cases of work place harassment, employees may feel loyal to their employers and may not stand as witnesses because of the fear of losing their jobs. Harassment cases are also often self-reported because it involves and depends on how an individual perceives that he or she has been a victim of harassment (Berdahl, 2007; Leskinen et al., 2011; Schneider et al., 1997).

1.3.1   Sexual harassment

Sexual harassment is defined as unwanted sex-based attitude and conduct that are used as a condition of advantage to someone else or used to create a hostile environment for a particular person (Settles et al., 2011). Sexual harassment can take the form of unwanted sexual advancement and unwanted sexual comments (Settles et al., 2011). Its prototypes include, but are not limited to the display of offensive sexist material, initiating a sexual discussion, continuous demands for dates, whistling at someone, calling or hooting at

someone that finds such actions offensive (Street, Gradus, Stafford & Kelly, 2007). Sexual harassment can also involve sexual advancement such as physical touches; sexual oppression and using threats within one's power for sexual gains (Settles et al., 2011; Buchanan, Settles & Woods, 2008).

1.3.2 Racial harassment

Racial harassment is targeting a particular person because of his or her race or ethnic background (Harrick & Sullivan, 1995; Buchanan et al., 2008). It may be in the form of actions and words that are deliberately carried out to degrade the target (Buchanan et al., 2008). It is carried out in order to demonstrate differential treatment against a target by race (Harrick & Sullivan, 1995). Sometimes, being a member of some 'marginalised' ethnic groups (e.g. black ethnicity) is a precursor to being more prone to sexual harassment than other ethnic groups (Beal, 1970; King, 1988). This argument was only partially supported by Settles et al. (2011), who found that some Black men are more marginalised than their White counterparts in the workplace due to not being sexually cooperative.

1.3.3 Other forms of harassment

Other forms of harassment such as gender, religion, homophobic and disability-based harassment exist. Gender harassment involves treating someone differently because of their gender (Schneider et al., 1997; Settles et al., 2011). This different treatment could take the form of suggestive verbal and nonverbal implied comments (Settles et al., 2011). Gender harassment has been known to occur in both males and females and it is often repeated with the intention to torment and cause low self-esteem to the target (Schneider et al., 1997).

Religion based harassment is similar to other types of harassment but aimed at a person due to his or her religious beliefs. The Public Service Union in Scotland (UNISON: 2008) describes religion based harassment as comments made and suggested regarding a

person's religion and/or mode of dressing that are able to impede on his or her religious practises.

Homophobic-based harassment includes passing nasty comments and gestures at a target because of their sexual orientation such as being gay, lesbian, bisexual or transgender (McMahon, Reulbach, Keeley, Perry & Arensman, 2012; UNISON, 2008).

With respect to these different types of harassment and how they relate to the aggression literature that is reviewed in this thesis, the acts that are carried out by those who harass their targets are intentional; involve direct forms of confrontation and have been reported to have psychological implications on the targets (Berdahl, 2007; Schneider et al., 1997).

1.4 Stalking

Stalking is another form of goal-directed proactive type of aggression which is defined as *"repeated and persistent attempts to impose on another person unwanted communication and/or contact"* (Mullen et al., 1999, p.1244). Stalking has been described as the collection of behaviours whereby a person imposes upon another person repeated unwanted communication and intrusion with (sometimes) severe psychological consequences. It can take the form of repetitive unwanted forms of communication (e.g. phone calls) and following and spying on the person with whom the perpetrator has no current relationship (Pathé & Mullen, 1997; Mullen, et al., 1999; Purcell, Pathé & Mullen, 2004; Schultz, 2003; Zona, Sharma & Lane, 1993). It has been reported that stalking is often carried out with the intention to force a relationship with unwilling targets (Shultz, 2003; McEwan, Mullen & Purcell, 2010).

1.4.1 Different types of stalking

There are different types of stalking and they range from *simple obsessional stalking* where a person particularly aims for his or her target with hatred due to perceived rejection on their part; to *erotomania* stalking which is usually common in women and involves the delusional belief that someone, especially a man, in a particular powerful position is in love with them (Zona et al., 1993). It was reported by the United Kingdom Home Office (1997) that most stalkers are former partners and only very few mentally ill cases of stalking are recorded. Other types of stalking such as rejected, intimacy seeking, predatory, incompetent and resentful stalking have also been identified (Mullen et al., 1999; McEwan et al., 2010) which highlights and adds to previous work by Zona et al. (1993).

In order to identify the different types of stalking, McEwen et al. (2010) examined 200 participants committed under Section 21A of the Victim Crimes Survey Act (1958 in McEwan et al., 2010) on multiple intensive behaviours. They examined the form of communication employed by the reported perpetrators and the unwanted contacts they made. Communications contingent upon the prototypes of stalking behaviour reported are unwanted telephone calls, written correspondence, mobile phone messages as well as ordering and cancelling of goods and services. Unwanted contacts involved spying on the targets, following the targets, approaching the targets' property as well as entering into the homes of the targets.

It has been pointed out that instigators of stalking behaviours do so in order to amend scores and/or rekindle a relationship that has ended (e.g. Shultz, 2003; Mullen et al., 1999); or as a result of the need to seek vengeance or carry out sexual attacks (Zona et al., 1993; Mullen et al., 1999). With respect to these different types of stalking and how they relate to the aggression literature that is reviewed in this thesis, the acts that are carried out by perpetrators of stalking are intentional; involve direct and indirect forms of aggression and

have been reported to cause distress and psychological harm to those who are victims of such behaviours (Mullen et al., 1999; Roberts & Dziegielewski, 1996).

1.5 Abuse

Abuse is a maltreatment of a person by another person, it can take the form of physically hitting, pushing, shoving a person, to emotionally neglecting and preventing basic human rights such as food, education, free movement, privacy and free speech (Berzenski & Yates, 2011; Robenhurst, Thomsen & Milner, 2012; Oshri, Rogosh, Burnette & Cichetti, 2011). The United Nations recognises the family as fundamental decision makers, parents and guardians have the power to ensure a good standard of education among other basic needs to children (Article. 26.3, in Baskerville, 2012, p. 355). When basic rights are denied a child, then this act of denial can be classed as child abuse (e.g. Baskerville, 2012; UK Protection of Freedoms Act, 2012). These rights are not limited to children and education alone, but also apply to those who are looked after, such as dependent full-time housewives; husbands that are also dependent on their wives; elderly people in care homes and people living with disabilities (Swahnberg, Davidsson-Simmons, Hearn & Wijma, 2012). Abuse can also include treating a particular person or group of people with disrespect, such that it significantly affects the person's way and quality of life to the extent of causing actual suffering (World Health Organisation: WHO, 2004).

1.5.1 The categories of abuse

Abuse can take any forms of direct aggression as listed earlier. It can be physical, emotional or a combination of both. In physical abuse a person is directly hit, pushed, shoved and verbally assaulted or attacked; whilst in emotional abuse a person is more likely to be undermined and made to feel bad about his or herself (Swahnberg et al., 2012; Berzenski & Yates, 2011; Oshri et al., 2011). Research has found that emotional abuse is strongly associated with anxiety and

depression; and the combination of physical and emotional maltreatment is strongly associated with substance abuse, risky sexual behaviour and acts of violence (Berenzki & Yates, 2011). Also, the effects of abuse on children and adolescents have been associated with substance misuse and dependency such as alcohol and cannabis (Oshri et al., 2011). Oshri et al.'s (2011) investigation of 259 maltreated and 156 non maltreated seven to 15 year olds showed that childhood maltreatment resulted in externalising problems in preadolescence and ultimately adolescent cannabis dependency and cannabis abuse.

With respect to the different categories of abuse and how they relate to this thesis, the acts that are carried out by those who abuse their targets are intentional; repeated, involves direct and indirect forms of aggression and have been reported to have psychological and physical consequences for the targets (Berenski & Yates, 2011; Swahnberg et al., 2012).

1.6 Bullying

Bullying is defined as *"an aggressive, intentional act or behaviour that is carried out by a group or an individual repeatedly and over time against a victim who cannot easily defend him or herself"* (Olweus, 1993). The bullying literature became prominent following the work of Olweus (1973, 1978) which gained recognition as a result of research investigations into aggressive behaviours (e.g. mobbing) in schools. Prior to Olweus' research on bullying, mobbing was a form of aggression which was common among school children and was reported by Heinemann (1972, in Salmivalli, 2010) as an aggressive group process. As put by Salmivalli (2010, p.117) *"the phenomenon was described as a group of children ganging up on one and the same victim, harassing and tormenting him/her repeatedly. The term mob had been used even before to refer to unorganized, emotional, often antisocial and/or aggressive crowds"*.

Olweus' (1973; 1978; 1993) investigation was prompted by the reported suicide of some Norwegian school boys and the need to further understand reported acts of mobbing so as to devise tailored preventative measures. According to Olweus bullying is when a person is *"exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other persons"* (p.10). Bullying is predominantly a school phenomenon with growing concerns among researchers. Olweus (in Smith, Morita, Junger-Tas, Olweus, Catalano & Slee, 1999, p.21) asserted that *"it is a fundamental democratic right for a child to feel safe in school and to be spared the oppression and repeated, intentional humiliation implied in bullying"*.

Olweus' (1978; 1993; 1996) work brought about a campaign against bullying and as a result bullying literature began to gain a wide interest amongst researchers, albeit with rising debates regarding its definition, concept and perception (Salmivalli, Kaukiainen, Kaistaniemi, & Lagerspetz, 1999; Salmivalli, Lagerspetz, Björkqvist, Österman, & Kaukiainen, 1996; Smith et al., 1999; Smith, Cowie, Olafsson, & Liefooghe, 2002, Smith, Ananiadou & Cowie, 2003; Smith & Sharp, 1994).

Initially, the definition of bullying gained lots of criticisms due to its focus on direct forms of aggression; and thus over time gained some modifications that capture both direct and indirect forms of aggression (e.g. Salmivalli et al., 1996; Smith & Sharp, 1994). At this initial stage of debate, there were no rising concerns regarding where the actions actually take place (e.g. school environment) as researchers during this initial stage all carried out bullying investigations within the school environment (e.g. Smith & Sharp, 1994; Smith et al., 1999; Smith & Shu, 2000).

Smith and Sharp (1994, p.2) redefine bullying as *"a systematic abuse of power"* which not only embrace direct forms of aggression (mainly all boys school) as investigated by Olweus (1978; 1993; 1996) but also indirect forms of aggression which is also common in mixed schools. Following some redefinitions of bullying (e.g. Farrington, 1993; Smith &

Sharp, 1994) and a scrutiny of the sort of acts that have been reported in bullying relationships, the field of bullying became a field of interest and researchers began to argue that similar bully-like behaviours are also common in adults and not just particular to 'children' phenomenon or (just) the school environment (e.g. Ireland, 1999; Coyne, Craig & Smith-Lee, 2004; Ireland & Snowden, 2002; Monks et al., 2009; Monks & Coyne, 2011).

Stalking, abuse and harassment which were criminalised through constitution (e.g. Protection from Harassment Act 1997, Children & Young Person's Act, 1933 amended as Protection of Freedoms Act 2012: NSPCC, 2012) are included in bullying literature using the definition provided by Smith & Sharp (1994) as a reason for their inclusion in the (bullying) literature (e.g. Monks et al., 2009). According to Monks and Coyne, *"bullying is not a term that is widely used in all of these contexts to describe these behaviours (i.e. harassment and abuse), in some, the term 'abuse' or 'harassment' is commonly used. However it is argued in this book that although historically work in these areas come from different research traditions and backgrounds and has used different terminologies, essentially we are talking about behaviours which involve similar features, antecedents and outcomes. We do not argue that a traditional based definitions of the term 'bullying' should necessarily be used to label all these behaviours in these different contexts, but we do argue that by considering them as having commonalities, we can then draw together findings from often very separate research traditions, looking at theory and practice which may better inform our understanding of these behaviours".*

In an examination of how the bullying literature has expanded to broadly accommodate other forms of proactive direct and indirect aggression, Olweus (2005) in an updated elucidation of bullying agreed that abuse can happen in a bullying situation, albeit in line with the features and antecedents of bullying as argued by Monks and Coyne (2011). According to Olweus *"I use the term peer abuse as a label of the phenomenon* (here the

author meant bullying). *What sets it apart from other forms of abuse such as child abuse and wife abuse is the context in which it occurs and the 'relationship' characteristics of the interacting parties"* (p.2). In understanding the roles of the relationship and interacting parties as asserted by Olweus, Salmivalli (2010, p.113), stated that *"placing bullying in its group context helps to better understand the individuals' motivation to bully, the lack of support provided to the victims, the persistence of bullying, and the adjustment of victims across diverse contexts. Finally, the group view is helpful in developing effective interventions against bullying"*.

Like direct aggression, bullying acts can include physical force or power, which is repeated and have an imbalance of power against the target (Smith & Brain, 2000; Olweus, 2005; Monks et al., 2009). It can also involve repeated direct or indirect intimidation or threat which can be verbal or nonverbal aggression (Olweus, 1993; Farrington, 1993; Salmivalli et al., 1996; Salmivalli et al., 1999). In Olweus' elucidation of bullying, the 'repetition' concept highlights the seriousness of the phenomenon. However, in Salmivalli's perspective, the group phenomenon highlights the seriousness of the action going by her assertion and earlier investigations by Heinemann (1972) work; *"thinking of how the group is involved in bullying is in a way "returning to the roots"* (Salmivalli, 2010, p.113). Salmivalli (2010, p.113) thus redefines bullying as *"a sub-type of aggressive behavior, in which an individual or a group of individuals repeatedly attacks, humiliates, and/or excludes a relatively powerless person"*. According to Salmivalli (2010) the progressive nature of bullying literature, highlights the *imbalance of power* where perpetrator(s) *repeatedly* and without provocation cause(s) harm to a specific target.

1.6.1 Types of bullying

As a sub-type of aggression, bullying can take both direct and indirect forms such as social manipulation, social ostracism, direct verbal and nonverbal and physical aggression, same as

types of aggression as earlier discussed. Bullying is differentiated from other types of aggression due to the type of interaction between the parties and the group phenomenon inherent in the negative actions (Olweus, 2005; Smith & Sharp, 1994; Salmivalli et al., 1996; Salmivalli, Kärnä & Poskiparta 2009; Salmivalli, 2010).

1.6.2 Bullying in the social environment

Conceptually, the bullying cycle (Olweus, 2001), the participants' role approach (Salmivalli, 2001; Salmivalli et al., 1996; Salmivalli et al., 2009) and bullying as a group process (Sutton, Smith & Sweetenham, 1999) can help in the understanding of how bullying operates. These approaches highlight that the victim is a target of systematic harassment usually identified via nominations by peers; and the bully is actively taking the initiative for the bullying behaviours. According to Salmivalli et al. (1996) those who usually support the bullying act do so in form of laughing and making other encouraging remarks or gestures. The participants' roles include that of the *victims, bullies, assistants of the bully, reinforcers of the bully, defenders of the victim,* and *outsiders*. This approach highlights bullying as a social phenomenon where people can take different roles which may negatively or positively reinforce the bullying situation (Salmivalli et al., 1996). These roles can include assisting the bully in his or her bullying behaviour, reinforcing the bullying act, not participating in the bullying act and not stopping it either (outsiders); defending the victim in order to stop the bullying act; and rendering social and emotional comfort to the victim(s) (Salmivalli et al., 1996; Salmivalli, 2001; Salmivalli, 2010).

Bystanders of bullying situations are those that witness bullying acts. Research on the role of bystanders has indicated that in 85% of bullying incidents, bystanders are involved in teasing the victim, egging on the bully, or not intervening (Craig & Pepler, 1997). Staying inactive sometimes may be translated as an approval of the aggressive act, either by the

perpetrator or by the target (Salmivalli et al., 1996). However, this may not actually be the case, because sometimes bystanders worry that they may be making the situation worse or perhaps become the next target (Salmivalli et al., 1996; Salmivalli et al., 2009). Additionally, in some cases, the perpetrator may assume depending on the response (or not) by bystanders that they could carry on with the bullying behaviour. In cases of rumour spreading for example, the people involved often do not notice that they contribute to the bullying act if they pass on humiliating information without any comment or perhaps with a follow up comment (Salmivalli, 2010; Salmivalli et al., 1996).

Olweus (2001) also describes a cycle of bullying as acting or not-acting in a bullying situation by differentiating typical roles involved in instances of bullying: *bullies; followers; supporters; passive supporters; disengaged onlookers, possible defenders* and *defenders of the victim*. Research has shown that those students who defend the victim exhibit high levels of affective empathy and at least the boys show cognitive empathy and well developed skills of social and moral cognition (Gini, Albiero, Benelli & Altoè, 2007; Nickerson, Mele & Princiotta, 2008). Supporters of the victim(s) show a high level of understanding for cognitive, emotional, and moral states of others and low levels of moral disengagement (Gini, 2006). It has also been reported that defenders can have a high social status in their class (Salmivalli et al., 1996), show high levels of agreeableness and emotional stability (Kumpulainen, 2008; Tani, Greenman, Schneider & Fregoso, 2003); high self-esteem and report many altruistic feelings (Lodge & Frydenberg, 2005). It has also been pointed out that those who bully others, contrary to the argument that they lack social skills are in fact quite skillful in their relationships with others so as to achieve their goals (Sutton et al., 1999; Perren & Alsaker, 2006).

1.7 General motivators in aggression domain

There are various causes and correlates of aggression as there are also mixed reports regarding the causes and correlates of aggression. Some researchers have argued that parental style, social economic status, socio-biological factors; poverty, single parenthood and reconstructed marriages are predictors of aggression (Campbell, Shaw, Gillion, 2000; Deater-Deckard & Dunn, 1999; Prior Sanson, Smart & Oberklaid, 2001; Escasa, Casey & Gray, 2011; Kumpulainen, 2008; Little et al., 2003). Farrington, Barnes and Lambert (1996) following an examination of 411 eight to 40 years old males, reported that family influence is only a small predictor (6%) of aggression. Support for Farrington et al. includes Bor, Najman, O'Callaghan, Williams and Anstey's (2001) longitudinal examination of 5000 mothers and children which indicated that aggression more strongly predicted delinquency in children (age 5) than poverty, maternal education, family structure and gender.

Other ways of understanding likely causes and correlates of aggression can be viewed from psychoanalytical and learning processes (e.g. Freud, 1920; Skinner 1963; Watson, 1913). According to Freud, for instance, aggression is carried out as a form of catharsis, in order to make up for life desires that a person cannot accomplish. What seemed like an empirical support for Freud's work was proposed by Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, and Sears (1939, p.11) who argued that *"the occurrence of aggressive behaviour always presupposes the existence of frustration and, contrariwise, that the existence of frustration always leads to some form of aggression."* Thus frustration in Dollard et al.'s argument can be related to the concept of Freud's catharsis explanation of the causes of aggression release due to some repressed feelings. Bandura (1973, p.40) opposed the concept of *'inner drives and forces'* and among other researchers (e.g. Tedeschi & Felson, 1994; Brenner, 1971; Zillman, 1979) argued that Freud's work did not allow for testable hypotheses.

Bandura (1961) argued instead that aggression is modelled and learnt. This assertion was made following a *bobo doll* experiment that suggested that children exposed to an aggressive adult model acted more aggressively than those who were exposed to a non-aggressive adult model. Bandura (1986) further asserted that anyone who comes in contact and interacts with children can have an impact on the way they (children) react and handle situations. Just like the criticisms of Freud (1920) and Dollard et al.'s (1939) work, Bandura's assertions were met with criticisms on the basis that no person was hurt in the *bobo doll* experiment and that the behaviours were often playful and instructed (e.g. Ferguson, 2010).

There are other propositions which followed along the line of Bandura's argument that aggression can be learned through watching and engaging in similar behaviours as others (Anderson & Bushman 2002; Huesmann, 1986; 1988). In one study, Aronson, Wilson and Akert (2005) posit that media such as television (e.g. violent games and movies) are an influencing factor for younger people. Aronson et al.'s argument has also been criticised on the basis that there is no long term relationship between playing violent video games and youth aggression (e.g. Ferguson 2011). There are also smaller effects of violent video games on aggression as have been found with television violence on aggression (e.g. Freedman, 1984).

It could be argued that modelling and the media influence on aggressive behaviour is contingent upon the type of violent games and the time spent in playing the game; and arguably the disposition of the person watching the game. For example, watching violence on the television may have some sort of effect on young adolescents' disposition in a social environment, such as exhibiting certain traits with hand gestures that demonstrate a gun, or practising acts of violence (e.g. wrestling, cops & robbers) exactly like those modelled on the television (e.g. Coyne & Archer 2004). The gestures of these acts are by themselves not aggressive; however they become a thing of concern when the actual acts viewed on

television are carried out to the detriment of others. Support for Bandura's theory thus indicates that through learning and modelling one is able to adapt certain specific behaviours (e.g. Coyne & Archer, 2004). There is also support for Freud's work which now allow for therapeutic treatments of aggression such as anger management (e.g. Björkly, 2001).

Specific to bullying, it has been reported that around 79% of teenagers prefer high social status which comes with bullying others than adhering to rules (LaFontana & Cillessen, 2009; Eder, 1985). There have been various supports for this assertion among bullying researchers (e.g. Olthoft & Goossens, 2008; Espelege, Bosworth, Simon, 2001). In adolescence particularly during transition to secondary school, acceptance into the peer group is a likely precursor for bullying behaviour due to the need to fit in socially (Pellegrini, 2002; Juvonen & Ho, 2009). Othoft and Goossens reported that involvement in bullying was positively correlated with outcome expectancies such as being liked and accepted within a group or by others. Witviliet, Olthof, Hoeksma, Smit, Koot & Goosens (2009) also argued that enhancement of social standing is a likely reason for people to join others to bully others. Espelage, Holt & Henkel (2003) reported that those who joined a group to tease and socially exclude others gained more popularity among males and females. On the group level, those who bully others pursue dominance and high status among their peers (Pellegrini, 2002; Salmivalli & Peets, 2008; Olthof & Goosens, 2009). However, the perpetrator is dependent on the group in order to achieve his or her required status. According to Björkqvist, Ekman and Lagerspetz (1982) the quest for dominance (among males, age 14-16), the perception that others (in the group) want them to be dominant and the (personal) importance that they place on dominant roles, are reasons for bullying others. In a study of adult bullying, South and Wood (2006) reported that social status and prestige are more reasons why adult males bully others.

1.8 Developmental changes in aggression

As earlier discussed and as pointed out by Monks and Coyne (2011) there are overlaps in some forms of goal-directed proactive types of aggression (e.g. bullying, harassment & abuse), as such similar age, gender and cultural factors are reported in their areas of commonality.

It has been particularly argued that aggression develops before pre-school age and becomes evident (in terms of documentation) at a time when children start mixing with peers (Loeber & Hay, 1997; Campbell et al., 2000). Indirect aggression on the other hand, peaks in early adolescence as a result of developmental changes in cases where children develop more sophisticated methods of dealing with challenges, and greater values are placed on friendship and social connections during this period (Brendgen et al., 2006; Boivin, 2005). Aggression generally should peak at age four and then decline after this period given that before the age of four, a child would not have developed verbal skills needed to communicate at least effectively enough to pass across his or her messages (Campbell, 1995; Loeber & Hay, 1997). It has been reported however, that childhood aggression could lead to later years' delinquencies because in early adolescence, it is common for aggressive youths to form social networks with likeminded teenagers, which may predict later life delinquency (Cairns, Cairns, Neckerma, Gest & Gariepy, 1988; Campbell, 1995). Bor et al. (2001) reported that one in six aggressive children were delinquent at age 14 compared to one in 33 non aggressive children who showed delinquency at age 14. Research has also shown that in other cases, people have picked up anti-social behaviour in their later years (Nagin, Farrington & Moffit, 1995). It has also been reported that one-third of high school students engage in one or more acts of physical aggression towards a dating partner in any given year (Wolfe, Scott, Reitzel-Jaffe, Wekerle, Grasley, Straatman, 2001).

Research carried out in the USA suggests that indirect aggression remains constant in 10-15 years old males, while the same elements of indirect aggression declined during similar developmental period in females (Little et al., 2003). Direct verbal aggression has been reported to increase through childhood and adolescence; and both males and females use more verbal aggression than they use direct physical aggression (Ahmed, 2011; Björkqvist, 1994).

With particular reference to bullying, it has been found that bullying victimisation decreases with age, however bullying others does not decrease at the same level with age (e.g. Smith, Madsen & Moody, 1999). Further there is a noticeable drop in victimisation rates in sixth form colleges with a likely explanation pointing towards the fact that students are not compelled to carry on with the school system at this stage (Smith et al., 1999). It could also be that targets of bullying do not continue schooling with the same group and may start afresh in a new setting. In a follow-up examination of boys from 12 to 16 years to 23 to 34 years old, Olweus (1993) found that persistent perpetrators were up to four times more likely to have been convicted several times of different criminal offences. Targets were not victimised more at age 24 compared to general population, however they still reported lower self-esteem and greater incidence of depression.

1.9 Gender differences in aggression

There are mixed results in gender differences regarding aggressive behaviour. The role of gender in the aggression literature can be applied to bullying, stalking and harassment. It has been argued that males are traditionally believed to be physically (direct) more aggressive than females (Coie & Dodge 1997; Li, Putallaz & Su, 2011; Olweus, 1978; 1993). Males have been reported to commit the vast majority of murders when compared to females (Buss, 2005); and they are quicker to aggress and more likely than females to express physical

aggression (e.g. Li et al., 2011). On the contrary, females are more likely to target males than other females with direct forms of aggression (Artz, Nicholson & Magnuson, 2008). Depending on the cultural context of aggression, females are expected to show less support for power control than males do. Nevertheless, it has been reported that females can demonstrate rational, social and non-violent aggression when compared to males (Card et al., 2008; Li et al., 2011). Females use strategies such as terminating an existing friendship, spreading rumours and stigmatising others (e.g. Crick, 1995; Björkqvist et al., 1994). However, it has been argued that both males and females use more verbal aggression than they used direct physical aggression (Björkqvist et al., 1994; Ahmed, 2011; Björkqvist, 1994).

1.9.1 *Cultural perspectives on gender differences*

In some cases, societal norms and family values are factors that can determine indirect forms of aggression in females and direct forms in males. In cases of bullying for example, it has been reported that parents and older adults may discourage direct forms of aggression being carried out by females in their early years which may make them fall back on indirect methods of aggression (Young, Nelson & Hottle, 2010). Also, sex segregation through modelling of behaviours that are masculine and feminine have been reported as factors that can influence indirect aggression in females and direct aggression in males (Underwood, 2003; Maccoby, 1990). It has also been pointed out that gender differences in aggression could be as a result of a greater engagement in gender typical behaviour which may involve the amount of time spent with members of same sex, and perhaps an increase in intra-sex competition (Card et al., 2008).

In cases of stalking for example, females as well as males have been reported to carry out these acts. In the United States, the Supplemental Victimisation Survey (SVS: 2006)

reported by the United States Department of Justice (2009) recorded that 43% of males confirmed being stalked by females; and 67% of female (targets) reported being stalked by a male. Further, 24% of female targets reported being stalked by females. Additionally, relative to females, males expect more benefit overall in acting physically aggressively with less fear of reprisals from authority figures (Marks, Hine, Manton & Thornsteinsson, 2012).

With regards to bullying, a similar argument has been made regarding gender differences with males displaying more physical bullying than females; and females more psychological bullying than males (e.g. Farrington, 1993; Felix & McMahon, 2006). Particularly male perpetrators would be bullied by people of similar gender, while females can as well be bullied by males (Farrington, 1993). Research has found that female perpetrators use swear words and slurs against their targets in the same social group, but male victims are bullied by acquaintances and/or strangers (Turkel, 2007; Eder, 1997). Farrington asserted that bullying in males remain constant from eight to sixteen years old but declines with age in females. Cortina, Lonsway, Magley, Freeman, Collinsworth, Hunter & Fitzgerald, (2002) argued to the contrary and asserted that bullying in males changes form and does not decrease with age, but instead are directed at females more than at males in form of sexual harassment, unwanted sexual attention and interpersonal mistreatment as means of maintaining control.

1.10   Consequences of aggression

Victims of aggression can express isolation, dejection, apprehension, low self-worth, increased vulnerability to illness and psychosocial adjustment problems (Stavrinides, Georgiou, Nikiforou & Kiteri, 2011; Wolke & Samara, 2004). Research has shown that some children and adults that are constantly subjected to abusive behaviour could be at risk of stress related illness which can at times result in suicide (Kim & Leventhal, 2008). The

National Education Association (NEA in Young et al., 2010) in the United States, reports a nationwide concern that as many as 106,000 children miss school on a daily basis due to fear of being victimised. Some studies report that targets of relational aggression display increased depression, increased anxiety, eating disorders, loneliness and delinquency (Card et al., 2008; Young et al., 2010).

Specifically to bullying, Smith (2010) reported that victimisation is associated with poor academic performance and contributes independently to children's mental health problems. Victimisation in primary school children is associated with sleep disturbances, bed wetting, stomach aches and headaches (Williams, Chambers, Logan & Robinson, 1996). Longer period of victimisation is likely to lead to higher level of depression than shorter levels of victimisation. Also better school achievement is significantly related to decrease in bullying victimisation overtime; and emotional problems are related to an increase in both bullying and victimisation (Salmivalli, 2001, 2010). Research has also shown that targets may cope better or feel less hurt if there are more targets of bullying in a classroom or a social setting (Bellmore, Witkow, Graham & Juvonen, 2004; Nishina & Juvonen, 2005). Support for Bellmore et al.'s assertion is that in a situation where there are more than one targets, the likelihood of self-blame diminishes when compared to a situation where there is only one target of bullying (e.g. Salmivalli, 2010). However in severe cases of self-blame where the target is the only one being victimised, it is more likely to result in grave maladjustment problem (Graham & Juvonen, 2001).

The consequences of aggression are severe in some people than others irrespective of their age and gender. The effect of any sub-type of aggression (e.g. bullying, stalking abuse and harassment) can be long lasting and have severe consequences such as feeling of suicide, physical and psychological harm (Oshri et al., 2011; Kim & Leventhal, 2008; Olweus, 1978).

Victims of aggression such as stalking, harassment and bullying may often feel that their daily lives are being infringed upon and their privacy no longer exists. In some cases of severe bullying and stalking, victims have been known to change school, miss school, change employment and phone numbers or relocate (Leskinen et al., 2011, Kim & Levethal, 2008). In cases of workplace harassment, victims may feel they have lost their self-worth in their places of work and as a result may resign from their job roles, the impact of this can be stressful, depressing and psychologically harmful (Leskinen et al., 2011; Kumpulainen, 2008; Raver & Nishi, 2010; Schultz, 2003).

1.11   Preventative measures of aggression

Preventative measures are taken to ensure that aggression is minimised in schools and the social environment as a whole. Whilst a complete eradication of aggression may be near to impossible, adequate preventative measures are being introduced and suggested by researchers in areas such as bullying, stalking, abuse and harassment (e.g. Thompson & Smith, 2011; Salmivalli, 2010; Olweus, 2001). This is because aggression is a very broad category, bullying, harassment, abuse and stalking are severe forms and certainly need intervention; but much aggression is every day with much more uncertain moral status.

Awareness campaigns are run most especially in primary, secondary and 6th forms as well as in the work place as part of preventative measures (e.g. Thompson & Smith, 2011; Coyne et al., 2004; Oliver & Candappa, 2003). Stalking, abuse and harassment are offences punishable by law in most developed countries such as Australia, United States, United Kingdom and other parts of the European Union. In cases of stalking for example, it is regarded as an indictable offence and can attract up to 10 years imprisonment.

Fairly recently in Italy in 2009, the law that made stalking punishable by six months and up to ten years imprisonment was introduced in Article 612 of the Italian Criminal Code

(Italian law on Harassment, 2009). However, this sentence can increase from six months to up to 10 years if the perpetrator was a known person to the target or where the target is a minor or a pregnant woman (Baraldi, 2010).

In the United Kingdom, in cases of harassment, the Protection from Harassment Act (1997) makes any conduct which results in the harassment of another on two or more occasions punishable by up to six months imprisonment. The court can also issue a restraining order which if breached could result in five years imprisonment.

With regards to bullying however, suggestions and recommendations have been made to policy makers as well as school administrators to target bullying at a peer group level (Salmivalli, 2010; Thompson & Smith, 2011; Marczak & Coyne, 2010; Paul, Smith & Blumberg, 2012). One essential aspect is the whole school approach/policy which involves teachers, pupils, support staff, parents, carers and relevant governmental department. This method allows for the whole school to negotiate a strategy and produce a written guide in form of anti-bullying policies (Smith & Shu, 2000; Smith et al., 2003; Salmivalli et al., 2009; Thompson & Smith, 2011). The period of 2000 to 2010 witnessed a high impact of anti-bullying campaigns in the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, Scandinavian territories and the United States, often as a result of series of suicides following serious cases of bullying attacks (Kim & Leventhal, 2008). In the UK, the Anti-Bullying Alliance (ABA) was established in 2002 by the National Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children (NSPCC) and the National Children's Bureau. The ABA's aim is to develop a consensus around the prevention and abolition of bullying. The ABA organises events such as the 'anti bullying week' to promote a safe life and an environment where children and adolescents can grow, learn and play (ABA, 2002).

In the United States in 2006, the first National Bullying Prevention program was declared in the school environment due to the series of reported suicides resulting from

school bullying and harassment (Kim & Laventhal, 2008). Also in the United States, the Ophelia Project was specifically established in 2006, gaining recognition amongst youths and adults who are affected by indirect forms of aggression, by providing them with tools, strategies and solutions that promote a productive positive environment (Ophelia Project, 2006).

In Finland, an anti-bullying program *Kiusaamista Vastaan* (KiVa) which translates as 'against bullying' was developed to combat bullying, especially in grades four through six in schools. The main focus of the KiVa program is to work with the social standing of aggression in children generally; and particularly in bullies, with focus also on the participants' role approach (Salmivalli et al., 2009; Kärnä, 2012). Salmivalli suggested that if the group desist in rewarding the perpetrator with high status the importance of reward for bullying others would be lost. In a recent evaluation of the KiVa project, Kärnä (2012) reported that it (the KiVa project) has more effect for reducing victimisation and bullying in elementary schools than in lower secondary schools. However, the effects are larger for males than females between 12 and 14 years old. Kärnä concluded that overall, the efficacy of the program can be attained in large scale dissemination.

In Norway, Olweus designed an anti-bullying project (The first Bergen Project against bullying) which was applied in schools between the periods of 1983 to 1985. The intervention consists of broad areas of education to all staff; bullying awareness to all parents with school aged children; and strategies to enhance children's awareness of the feelings of the victims. Olweus (2005) reported a 50% decrease in bullying cases following the intervention program.

In the United Kingdom, Smith and Sharp (1994) recommended an anti-bullying strategy (The Sheffield Project) which incorporates various categories of preventative measures that the school can choose from. These measures or categories are the whole school

policies, curriculum-based strategies, playground work, assertiveness training and the Pikas method. The Pikas method (Pikas, 1989) involves strict adherence to scripts which must be followed when discussions are individually held with instigators and targets, group meetings with instigators and targets; and subsequent follow up of such meetings. The Pikas method is designed to change bullying behaviour through a no-blame approach so that perpetrators can develop some form of empathy towards the victim's plight. The efficacy of this method has been reported for short term interventions, however, with further suggestions that adequate training need to be provided to those who conduct such methods (Smith et al., 2003). Eslea and Smith (1998) in a five year follow up of Smith & Sharp's recommendations reported that the Sheffield project is effective for schools that kept it active. They further recommended that it is important that schools keep working actively with cases of bullying and keep policies running for effective preventative measures.

Thompson and Smith (2011) also in the UK carried out a survey for the Department of Education. They recommended various strategies for the prevention of school based bullying with reactive strategies as well as peer support initiatives. For proactive strategies, suggestions were made for the whole school approach, classroom and playground preventative approaches (such as learning how to respond to bullying acts and talking openly about the negative aspects of bullying). Additionally for reactive strategies, they highlighted the implications of direct sanctions, restorative approach, support group method and school tribunals. Stavrinides et al. (2011) also suggested that pre-school aged children need to develop socially important skill of being assertive, like asking others for information, initiate conversations and able to respond to peer pressure as opposed to the common aggressive behaviours like hitting or biting.

1.12 Summary

From the discussion in this chapter and with regards to the aims of this thesis, the range of literature discussed indicate that bullying, stalking, abuse and harassment are proactive, goal directed sub-types of aggression. Aggression can be any form of violence, abuse or assault, subtle or otherwise, directly or indirectly aimed at someone with the intention to cause harm, fear or death (Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Bandura, 1973; WHO, 2004). Also, the changes in the terms used in describing aggression over the years have not impeded on the existence of the two main types of aggression--direct and indirect--and the presence of power imbalance in the definition of aggression by Anderson and Bushman (2002), Bandura, (1983) and WHO (2004). Power imbalance can be deduced from the edge a stalker has over his or her victim(s) (Schultz, 2003; McEwan et al., 2010; Morgan, 2010); the work edge that the workplace manager may have over his or her staff (e.g. Berdahl, 2007); and the edge that an individual (or group) has over a target in bullying instances (e.g. Smith & Sharp, 1994; Salmivalli et al., 1996; Olweus, 2001; Olweus, 2005; Salmivalli, 2010).

Whilst all these subsets of aggression have overlapping concepts, they also have their individual unique features that can be attributed to each of them. Their resulting consequences are also similar (e.g. Ahmed, 2011; Settle et al., 2011; Salmivalli, 2010; Monks et al., 2009). Similarities amongst these sub-types of aggression are power differentiation in the sense that the instigator(s) have an edge over his or her target(s); the negative acts are repeated over a period of time; and the acts are deliberate in their applications; such that the targets feel fear for their safety.

Harassment is differentiated from bullying and stalking in the sense that it is mainly prefixed by the unlawful (prohibited) act (e.g. sexual, homophobic, religion harassment; UNISON, 2008; McMahon et al., 2012; Shaw et al., 2012). Bullying is different from harassment and stalking in the sense that most acts of bullying have been based on rumour

spreading, social ostracism, of targets, mostly in the school environment and involve group actions (Salmivalli, 2010; Smith & Sharp, 1994; Sutton et el., 1999). Similar antecedents and features are also being reported among adults (e.g. Coyne et al., 2004; Cortina et al., 2002; Monks et al., 2009; Monks & Coyne, 2011). Stalking is also different from bullying and harassment in the sense that stalkers know where the victims live, they lurk around the victims' homes and spy on them; and in some cases, order and cancel goods and services for the victims (Mullen et al., 1999; McEwan et al., 2010). Bullying can also take the forms of direct and or indirect types of aggression, however, harassment, abuse and stalking are mostly direct in nature (Swahnberg et al., 2012; Street et al., 2007; Stevenson et al., 2010).

Like harassment and stalking, bullying can take place anywhere and with anyone and in any given situation (Monks et al., 2009; Monks & Coyne, 2011; Monks et al., 2011). The way bullying occurs sometimes, is through direct attacks (Olweus, 1978; 1993) and indirect verbal attacks or through group ostracism (Coyne et al., 2004; LaFontana & Cillessen, 2009; Sutton et al., 1999; Salmivalli et al., 1996). Bullying, harassment and abuse are applicable to any situation where intimidation and direct threats are used to lure someone into seclusion or where he or she is made to lose their self-worth (Coyne et al., 2004; Monks et al., 2009; Monks & Coyne, 2011), stalking is implied through stalkers' mode of operation. A bully can be just one person or a group (Olweus, 1993; Salmivalli, 2010); a male or a female (Björkqvist, 1994), a teenager or an older adult (e.g. Coyne et al., 2004; Smith & Sharp, 1994).

There have been mixed reports regarding age differences in bullying, with general indications that bullying is not age specific (Monks et al., 2009). Additionally, socio-biological factors, parenting style, learning and modelling and social factors have been shown to influence aggression (Freud, 1920; Bandura, 1983; Campbell, 1995; Campbell et al., 2000; Ferguson, 2010; Tedeschi & Felson, 1994; Bremner, 1971).

The impact and prevalence of aggression and its sub-types are well documented in some countries such as Canada, the United States, the United Kingdom and Australia where it has been reported that bullying for example, can cause psychological trauma and even death (e.g. Kim & Leventhal, 2008; Kumpulainen, 2008; Mathieson & Crick, 2010). Preventative measures in various countries have been developed and established specifically for combating bullying (e.g. Olweus, 1996; Smith, 2003; Salmivalli, 2010, Kärnä, 2012). In some parts of the world (e.g. some areas in the United States) legislative measures have been implemented in order to address school bullying. In the UK and Australia however, schools have legal obligations to provide duty of care through anti-bullying framework (e.g. Marczak & Coyne, 2010; Paul et al., 2012).

Chapter Two

'Offline' to 'Online' communication.

In relation to the aim of this thesis which seeks to understand the application of the concepts of aggression from the traditional platform to the cyber environment, this chapter will examine communications via Information Communication Technology (ICT) and its prevalence and use. This is so that the mode of operation of aggression via ICT can be understood and the sub-types of aggression that were mentioned and discussed in Chapter One can be further examined in their online forms.

2.1   Information Communication Technology (ICT)

The International Telecommunications Union (ITU: 2011) reported that the reduction in the weights and functions of mobile phones to more advanced ones (e.g. the introduction of the internet via mobile) known as smartphones; and the reduction in the sizes of laptops have further increased the rates at which people use mobile phones and the internet. A report by the Broadband Commission on behalf of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO: 2012) indicate that three quarters of the world population have access to mobile phones with around 59% new smartphones' subscribers in the UK alone as of 2010. Of the UK subscribers, 80% use their phones all day, and around 47% use their phones everywhere including the toilet and whilst in bed. It is also reported that 81% of smartphones users make phone calls and send more messages compared to 53% of regular mobile phone users (ITU, 2011). There is a reported 547,286,000 people using mobile phones in India alone as at 2009 (CIA: 2009) and around one billion text messages sent each day worldwide (Bargh & McKenna: 2004). Smartphones and computers due to their shapes and sizes have allowed for more subscribers and for people to contact anyone at any time and at

any place (Bargh & McKenna, 2004; Cross, Richardson, Douglas & Vonkaenel-Flatt, 2009; Kite, Cable & Filippelli, 2010).

Mobile phones on the one hand open possibilities for verbal communications, independent of restrictions of mobility and portability that is associated with landline telephones. The internet on the other hand, enhances communication across the globe via emails and/or chat rooms (McKenna & Bargh, 2000; Bargh & McKenna, 2004). The internet and mobile phone has made face-to-face communication possible in the form of individual video calls and multiple conference calls such that people in one continent, city or country can communicate with other people from different city or country in the pace of seconds and minutes (ITU: 2012). The telephone landline which was an initial mark of communication advancement to contact friends, relatives and loved ones; and used by stalkers to torment their victims (e.g. Mullen et al., 1997; Pathe & Mullen, 1997) is now lagging behind with the introduction of mobile phones, smartphones, the presence of the internet and further advancement in technology (Bargh & McKenna, 2004; Cross et al., 2009; Bell, 2001; Kite et al., 2010; ITU, 2012).

2.1.1   The internet

The internet is described as a network of computer systems that are linked by a vast collection of electronic, wireless and optical networking technologies that is equipped with a broad range of information resources and services, such as the World Wide Web (www) and the supporting resources to send e-mails which can include videos, photos and other documentation materials (Arora, 2009). Broadband Commission (2012) reported that the internet is already an everyday aspect of most people's communication in the developed world, and fast becoming part of everyday communication in most of the developing world. The internet has enabled and accelerated new forms of human interactions through Instant

Messaging, online forums, and social networking, with most of these sites having instant messaging facilities (Bargh & McKenna, 2004; Kite et al., 2010; Mostyn, 2000). Thus people from different continents of the world can chat and communicate to one another in real time with the use of the internet if they desired (Bargh & McKenna, 2004; Kite et al., 2010).

2.1.2 *Social Networking Sites (SNS)*

Social networking sites (SNS) are similar to school playgrounds, recreation centres and social events zones, albeit easily accessible from anywhere (Bargh & McKenna, 2004; Kite et al., 2010; McKenna & Bargh, 2000). SNS include Facebook, Tagged, Bebo, Tweeter, MySpace and Hi5 just to mention a few (Cross et al., 2009; Kite et al., 2010) with a few other reported SNS sites that are business related (e.g. LinkedIn). With SNS people are able to create personal information through profile creation, create blogs, establish conversation threads and advertise products and services (McKenna & Bargh, 2000). There has been a reported 149% increase of teenage SNS users (12-17 years old) over a two year period on Facebook alone; and a 40% increase in the number of subscriptions on SNS (ITU, 2011; Ofcom, 2012).

2.1.3 *Prevalence rates in the use of Smartphones and the internet*

A recent report by the regulatory body for ICT in the UK (Ofcom, 2012) on the use of smartphones indicated that the use of the internet via mobile phones and computers has increased from 59% in 2005 to 79% in 2011. There was also a reported 14% increase in the use of smartphones alone in 2010 (30%) and 2011 (44%); and a reported weekly usage of 19 % for general website; 15% for social networking; and 16% for sending e-mails respectively in 2010, to 31%, 29% and 25% respectively in 2011.

There was a reported increase in internet consumption in 2007 with regards to the number of over 16 years old SNS profile set-up (22%); new websites visits per week (64%); daily use of SNS profile (30%) and blog contribution (19%); to 59% (SNS profile set up),

75% (new websites visits per week), 67% (SNS profile) and 28% (blog contribution) respectively in 2011. This report is an indication that there are more numbers of people using smartphones in 2011 (44%) than there were in 2007 (30%).

A USA based report on 11 to 18 years old indicated that 63% of 11 to 14 years old; 42% of eight to 10 years old; and 70% of 15 to 18 years old have accesses to instant messaging services on the household computer (Ridout, Roberts & Foehr, 2005). In the UK, 84% of 12 to 15 years old access the internet outside of the school environment and on average, people within this age bracket spend 14 hours per week using the internet outside of the school environment (Ofcom, 2012).

In an ITU (2011) survey of 2,481 respondents, it was reported that in the adult population, males (58%) use smartphones more frequently than females (42%). However between 12 to 15 years old, more females (52%) than males (48%) use smartphones. Also, 37% of adults and 60% of teenagers described themselves as addicted to their phones. For the adult samples, their reported activities (89%) involve sending and receiving e-mails, online banking (61%) and online television (45%). For 12 to 15 years old, around 90% of those surveyed spend their time on different social networking sites.

In relation with the aim of this Chapter, the prevalence reports indicate that there are different reasons why people use the internet and mobile phones. The internet, either through mobile phone or computer is another platform for communication, interrelationships, meeting new people; establishing friendship and managing already established relationships irrespective of location and geographical area (Bargh & McKenna, 2004; Kite et al., 2010, Mostyn, 2000). Further, people are engaged with different forms of activities which highlight almost traditional ways of doing things, albeit with more convenience brought about by the cyber way of doing things (e.g. one is able to see someone in a different continent through video calling).

2.2 Relationship between online and offline communications

In face-to-face communication, people are able to see who they are interacting with and also able to see facial expressions and body languages during interaction (McKenna & Bargh 2000). Key important features such as race, gender, perceived age and social status that are essential for understanding and evaluating different interactions in any given communication are easily noticeable in face-to-face communication (Donath, 1999; Bargh & McKenna, 2004). However, this is not the case in online communication as most of the essential cues are not visible or adequately perceived even when video calling may be involved (Bargh & McKenna, 2004; Donath, 1999). Sometimes the lack of body language perception in online chat can lead to confusion, miscommunication and misconception of intended messages (Mostyn, 2000; Donath, 1999). Nevertheless, the tone of the online message such as writing in capital letters and including exclamation marks during communication is such that can help understand the mood of the communicators (Mostyn, 2000; Donath, 1999; McKenna & Bargh, 2000; Bargh & McKenna, 2004).

In many online social forums problems of misconception posed by the lack of physical presence can somewhat be minimised with the use of emoticons and avatars (e.g. Chesney et al., 2009; Derks, Bos & Von Grumbkow, 2007). With emoticons for example, a person is able to indicate whether or not he or she is sad, crying, happy and laughing out loud. Sometimes emoticons are over-exaggerated with icons that indicate that a person is 'laughing their heads off' whilst still in control of the computer keyboard. Nevertheless, most of these icons are expressions of real life interactions and can compare to face-to-face communication in this regard (Chesney et al., 2009; Derks et al., 2007).

In a face-to-face method of communication it is easier to know someone's age range, which may help in moderating one's behaviour and line of communication. However, this may vary in online chat, because it may be difficult to decipher the age of an unidentified person

57

(Kite et al., 2010; Bargh & McKenna, 2004; Cross et al., 2009). For instance in cases where 12 to 15 years old young adolescents are pretending to be over-age and initiating adult chats, or where in a reverse situation a paedophile is pretending to be the same age mate as a teenager in order to gain illegal sexual satisfaction (Ridout et al., 2005; Wolak, Mitchell, Finkelhor, 2006; Mishna et al., 2009a; 2009b). It has been pointed out that the perceived way of writing, or the tone of message may be an indicator for the actual age range of the anonymous interaction (Donath, 1999).

In online communication, people are able to hide their identities through using false or made up names (Chesney et al., 2009; Kite et al., 2010; Bargh & McKenna, 2004). Kite et al., (2010) reported that about 40% of adolescents do not share their true identities online but share information such as the cities they live in (81%) and in some cases indicated which school they attend (21%) and included photographic images of themselves on social networking sites (57%). While all these are creating online presence, it may make it easier for them to fall easy prey or targets to online perpetrators (Kite et al., 2010; Wolak et al., 2006; 2007; Ridout et al., 2005).

Fake or false identity/profile, masquerading or anonymity are used interchangeably in the online environment to mean that an online communicator has chosen not to reveal his or her true life identity to those that he or she interacts with (Chesney et al., 2009; Willard, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c). Anonymity is thus a powerful tool for online aggressors because it creates subliminal strength and eagerness to carry on with a particular negative act due to little or no link to the instigators of the negative acts (e.g. Dooley, Pyzalski & Cross, 2009; Smith et al., 2008; Vandebosch, Van Cleemput, 2008; Sevcikova & Smahel, 2009).

Anonymity allows for people to easily find a particular service that suits their physical, psychological and emotional states without identifying themselves like they would on a face-to-face situation (Sanders & Chester, 2008). People living with Human Immunodeficiency

Virus (HIV) or Acquired Immunodeficiency Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) for instance can easily log on to HIV/AIDS forum anonymously and freely discuss their personal circumstances without the perceived stigmatisation that may result in talking openly about their medical conditions.

Online communication has arguably made it possible for the introverted and shy person to chat freely without the sometimes confronting face-to-face atmosphere that is needed for communicating with others (Sanders & Chester, 2008). Like in face-to-face interaction, people meet, make friends and stay in touch, the same is the case for online relationship, people form friendships, date and socialise as trust develops among internet relationships (Piazza & Bering, 2009). An additional advantage of online communication is that it allows for the development of practising social skills in adolescents (Shelfhout, Branje, Delsing, ter Bogt & Meeus, 2009). Nevertheless, it has been argued that the internet may be associated with the feeling of depression given its frequent use in adolescents and possible reduction in face-to-face interaction with peers (Nie & Erbing, 2000). In sum, the role of ICT has tremendously influenced the way people communicate and interact. However, there are also growing concerns due to the negative aspects of online communication.

2.3 ICT and Aggression Concerns

There are reported concerns from researchers and policy makers around some parts of the world regarding online communication most especially with social networking sites (e.g. Australia: Campbell, 2005; Butler, Kift & Cambell, 2009; Butler, Kift, Campbell, Slee & Spears, 2011; Canada: Li, 2008; the United States: Patchin & Hinduja, 2006; Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004a; 2004b; United Kingdom: Chesney et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2008; Smith, Mahdavi, Carvalho & Tippett, 2006; Rivers & Noret, 2010; Belgium: Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008; Vandebosch, Van Cleemput, Mortelmans, & Walrave, 2006). These concerns

range from sending and receiving unwanted aggressive messages (Smith et al., 2008; Gradinger, Strohmeier & Spiel 2009) to national and regional threats as opposed by the United Kingdom Home Office Cyber Crime Strategy (2010), the Canadian Standing Senate Committee on Human Rights (2012) and the United States, Cyber-bullying Laws and Policies (2013).

As discussed in the prevalence of ICT use, there seems to be no restrictions as to time and place for receiving and sending ICT based unwanted (aggressive) messages. ICT as a tool for communication and socialisation has also become a platform where perpetrators carry out various aggressive acts (e.g. Chesney et al., 2009; Wolak et al., 2006; Mishna et al., 2009a). Harassment, bullying, abuse and stalking that were discussed in Chapter One are becoming prominent with ICT use. Perpetrators are able to reach any target(s) irrespective of time and place (Campbell, 2005; Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008; Vandebosch et al., 2006; Tokunaga, 2010) as a result of the pervasiveness of the use of ICT. Researchers are beginning to examine ICT based aggression and making suggestions and recommendations regarding preventative measures that can help reduce this phenomenon (Smith et al., 2008; Marczak & Coyne, 2010; Paul et al., 2012). Researchers are faced with the challenges of understanding, labelling and categorising the various aggressive acts that occur in the online environment and relate them to similar traditional forms (e.g. Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004a; 2004b; Sheridan & Grant, 2007; Smith et al. 2008).

Researchers face challenges in terms of identifying, applying and proposing new terminologies for online aggression in order to establish preventative measures (e.g. cyber-sexual solicitation: Mishna, et al., 2009a). Similar online conducts that take the forms of traditional forms of bullying are referred to as online or 'cyber-bullying' (e.g. Belsey, 2004; Patchin & Hinduja, 2006; Smith et al., 2008; Tokunaga, 2010; Olweus, 2012). So also are other forms of traditional aggression sub-types prefixed by the word 'online' or 'cyber' to

connote that they are ICT based aggression (e.g. online harassment: Wolak et al., 2007; cyber-abuse: Mishna et al., 2009a; 2009b; cyber-stalking: Oglivie, 2007; Sheridan & Grant, 2007; Regehr, 2010). Also, new forms of aggression encouraged by anonymity specific to ICT use have also been reported in the form of 'griefing' (Chesney et al., 2009). There are also growing debates regarding how the traditional concepts of aggression fit into the online setting. These growing debates will be further examined in Chapter Three.

2.4 Summary

The rates at which people use ICT has increased and will arguably continue to do so (e.g. Ofcom, 2012). Online communication has been linked to friendship development, comfort zone for introverts; emotional support for people with illnesses; and ease of daily transaction and interactions (e.g. Bargh & McKenna, 2004; Mckenna & Bargh, 2000). Although ICT is advantageous when used for informative, educational and social purposes, there are also reported disadvantages in the form of aggression and victimisation going by high use of ICT to communicate at school, work and the social environment as a whole (e.g. Ofcom, 2012; Kite et al., 2010; Cross et al. 2009). There have been reported cases of bullying, harassment, abuse and stalking via ICT with reported rates of anonymous perpetrators (e.g. Vandebosch & Van Cleemput; Wolak et al., 2007; Ridout et al., 2005). There is likely to be an equal amount of aggression if not more with the use of ICT because there seems to be no restrictions as to time and place for receiving and sending ICT based (unwanted) messages (e.g. Mishna et al., 2009a, 2009b). This is an indication that sub-types of aggression are likely and easy to reach any target(s) irrespective of time and place (e.g. Vandebosch et al., 2006).

Chapter-Three

Aggression: From traditional platform to cyber repertoire

The main aim of this chapter is to discuss the ambiguity of the term 'cyber-bullying' as presented in some studies. A secondary aim is to consider how other sub-types of aggression have been applied to the online environment in line with their definitional constructs. Thus central to this chapter, is the current debate in the cyber-bullying arena regarding the elements that constitute cyber-bullying and its borrowed traditional definitional concepts which are intent, imbalance of power; and repetition of negative act(s) (e.g. Olweus, 1993).

As of the time of this thesis and to the knowledge of the author, there seems to be no controversy in the definitional and conceptual issues surrounding cyber-stalking, cyber-harassment and cyber-abuse. Perhaps because there are very little literature on these terminologies, or because these areas have not yet been opened up to growing debates. There is however a rising debate in the cyber-bullying literature regarding its definition and concepts (e.g. Menesini & Noncentini, 2009; Tokunaga, 2010). There are more reported cases of cyber-bullying than there are of other forms of aggression, even when sometimes, some of the reported acts could take the form of harassment, stalking and abuse (e.g. in Willard, 2007a; 2007b; 2007c).

It has been argued that terminologies may not be as important as the result derived from general aggression findings (Monks & Coyne, 2011). It is also understood that traditional forms of bullying is not a commonly used term even in circumstances when bullying-like attitudes are demonstrated in adults, in the work place and in secure places such as the prison environment (Ireland & Snowden, 2002; Coyne et al., 2004; Monk & Coyne, 2011; Monks et al., 2009). The reverse however is the case in the online environment given

that sub-types of online aggression are referred to as cyber-bullying, even when they do not have the same features and antecedents. The implication from this is that the label given to these acts could impact on how these behaviours are prevented in terms of the law and other preventative strategies (e.g. Bocij & MacFarlane, 2004; Gillespie, 2006).

Abuse, stalking and harassment are punishable by law; however some laws do not cover cases of cyber-bullying (Marczak, & Coyne, 2010; Butler et al., 2009; 2011). In cases of cyber-bullying, researchers are more particular in finding preventative measures that can help minimise cyber-bullying and fear that criminalising cyber-bullying may have future consequences for adolescents (Marczak & Coyne, 2010; Thompson & Smith, 2011). Nevertheless, as previously discussed, there are some provisions under the law which allows for schools to have laid down frameworks that help in the prevention of bullying and which can also be applied to cyber-bullying (Marczak & Coyne, 2010; Paul et al., 2012).

In Chapter One, harassment, abuse and stalking were discussed and differentiated from one another according to their respective schools of thought. However a scrutiny of some online aggression research, particularly the cyber-bullying literature, suggests that some of the reported acts of cyber-bullying and the elements that constitute these acts do not fit into the mode of traditional bullying and its borrowed definitional concept which is now being applied to cyber-bullying. It is therefore likely that other forms of aggression that were discussed in Chapter One are evident in reported cases of cyber-bullying (e.g. in Akbulut & Çuharda, 2011; Dursun & Akbulut, 2010; Akbulut, Sahin & Eristi, 2010; Aricak, Siyahhan & Uzunhasanoglu, 2008; Li, 2005; 2007; Ryan, Kariuki, Yilmaz, 2011). This assertion is further made based on Willard's (2007) explication of cyber-bullying.

3.1 Application of traditional concept of aggression to online aggression

Willard (2007a) listed eight contents which according to the author meant cyber-bullying. These are flaming, harassment, denigration, impersonation, outing, trickery, exclusion and cyber-stalking. The descriptions of denigration, outing, trickery and exclusion by Willard suggest that the victim is a target of organised form of abuse and harassment which are comparable to the traditional explanations of bullying as defined by Björkqvist et al. (1994) Salmivalli et al. (1996); Olweus (2001) and Sutton et al.'s (1999) concept of bully as a group process. Denigration for example is sending or posting cruel gossip about a person in order to damage his or her reputation and friendship (Willard, 2007a). Outing is sharing someone's secrets or embarrassing information, or images online (p.2). Trickery is talking someone into revealing secrets or embarrassing information which is then further distributed online (p.2). They compare to indirect (and sometimes direct forms of aggression as described and discussed in Chapter One. Therefore the definitions given by Willard and the inclusion of these acts as cyber-bullying are not contestable in this regard. However, three areas that warrant further explication as regards their definitions as cyber-bullying are flaming, harassment and cyber-stalking, with a more general focus on impersonation (anonymity).

Table 3.1 presents definition of cyber-bullying by different researchers as well as definitions for cyber-harassment, cyber-stalking and cyber-abuse.

Table 3.1: Cyber aggression definition by some researchers: Synonymic agreements are displayed within columns

Cyber-bullying					
Investigator	**CB Actions**	**Intended?**	**Frequency**	**Consequences**	**Power Imbalance**
Belsey	*hostile* behaviour	*deliberate/ intended*	*repeated*	*harm others*	*individual/ group*
Franek	harass, intimidate, bully or terrorise	N/A	*repeatedly*	N/A	anonymou s/disguise
Li	Meaning assumed by readers				
Patchin & Hinduja	N/A	*wilful*	*repeated*	*harm*	N/A
Willard	cruel texts or images	N/A	N/A	*harmful*	**N/A**
Smith et al.	*aggression*	*intention*	*repeated /overtime*	N/A	*Group/individua l* + victims who cannot easily defend him/herself
Tokunaga*	*hostile, aggressive* messages	*intended*	*repeated*	*harm,* discomfort	**N/A**

Other sub-types of cyber aggression					
Cyber Harassment					
Investigator	**Cyber actions**	**Intended**	**Frequency**	**Consequences**	**Power imbalance**
Willard	*mean, nasty, insulting messages*	*N/A*	*Repeatedly sending*	*N/A*	**N/A**
Cyber-stalking					
Willard	*harassment denigration, threats*	*N/A*	*Repeated*	*significant fear*	**N/A**
Cyber-abuse					
Mishna et al.	*abuse, stalking, bullying, child pornography, sexual solicitation*	*N/A*	*N/A*	*Physical, emotional harm*	**N/A**

3.1.1 *Flaming*

Research on flaming is dated back to early and middle 1990s (Sproull & Kiesler, 1991). It is defined as "*the exchange of emotionally discharged, hostile or insulting messages via electronic means*" (Thompsen, 1992, p.52; Kayany, 1998). According to Thompsen, flaming

refers to "*the low level of social information in computer-based communication and its perceived ephemerality, people lose their fear of social approbation... [and] imagine they must use stronger language to get their message across*". Flaming thus is a form of online fight and heated argument, unfriendly interaction among internet users that constitute angry and vulgar language, with an example of insults between two people (Willard, 2007a; Li, 2007).

Flaming can occur in any kind of situation ranging from provoked trivial differences to a heated conversation regarding issues such as religion, politics and philosophical debates (Thompsen, 1994; Goldsborough & Page, 2005). According to Goldsborough & Page (2005) flaming is likely to evolve from genuine debates to posting of degrading texts or images that provoke argument. Bullying and cyber-bullying literatures (Olweus, 1993; Smith et al., 2008) however exclude fights, arguments and quarrels in its construct. Therefore including fights, arguments and quarrels as cyber-bullying arguably question the concept of power imbalance which must be present in cases of cyber-bullying (Smith et al., 2008; Vandebosch & VanCleemput, 2008).

3.1.2   Cyber-harassment

As discussed in Chapter One, harassment is different from bullying, although they are used interchangeably (e.g. Monks & Coyne, 2011; Monks et al., 2009). The most distinct difference is the perception of these two terminologies in law. In the UK for example, harassment is punishable by law, bullying is preventable through school frameworks guided by law (Marczak & Coyne, 2010). It has been argued however, that when similar negative acts are carried out by teenagers the act is referred to as bullying and when adults perform similar acts, then harassment (Cross et al., 2009; Gillespie, 2006). This assertion has been met with conflicting viewpoint with research reporting bullying-like behaviours in adults

(e.g. Coyne et al., 2004; Monks & Coyne, 2011; Ireland & Snowden, 2002) and harassment among teenagers (Wolak et al., 2007; Wolak et al., 2006; Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004a; Sevcikova & Smahel, 2009). It is worth stating however, that some researchers have specifically investigated online harassment without the confounding role of the broad use of the term cyber-bullying (Wolak et al., 2007; Gillespie, 2006; Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004a; Sevcikova & Smahel, 2009; Jones et al., 2013). Cyber-harassment like traditional harassment can range from racial harassment which is targeted at a person due to his or her race, to religion harassment which is strongly against one's religious beliefs and practices (Settles et al., 2011; Buchanan et al., 2008). All these forms of traditional harassment as mentioned in Chapter One have been reported to also take place online, however under the umbrella of cyber-bullying (Willard, 2004; 2007).

3.1.3 Cyber-stalking

There is not much literature regarding cyber-stalking, thus very little insight for debate in this phenomenon exist. However, cyber-stalking can be understood in terms of traditional stalking concept as earlier discussed (Sheridan & Grant, 2007; Regehr, 2010). According to Sheridan and Grant (2007, p.627), "*Cyber-stalking does not fundamentally differ from traditional stalking ... and that those who target ex-intimates remain the most populous stalker type".* Cyber-stalking takes the form of anonymity, unwanted contacts and hacking into other people's account so as to cause them continuous threats, harm and distress (Regehr, 2010; Oglivie, 2000). In Willard's assertion, cyber-stalking, is a repeated *intense* denigration that creates *significant* fear in others (p.1). It is plausible to assert, going by its antecedents that cyber-stalking ought not to be classed under the umbrella of cyber-bullying as did Willard.

3.1.4 Impersonation/fake identity or anonymity

As previously discussed, anonymity is a strategy that is used in online forms of aggression (e.g. Mostyn, 2000; Wolak et al., 2007; Chesney et al., 2009) and therefore not specific to

cyber-bullying alone. Anonymity is not a new phenomenon in aggression literature because it is usually the strategy used in instances of bank robbery and burglary cases, where the perpetrators try as much as possible to conceal their identities (Diener, 1976).

Researchers in the aggression literature have argued that anonymity is a factor that has a huge impact on the level of aggression that a perpetrator poses on his or her victims (Diener, 1976). An investigative research study shows that people will transgress more when their identities are hidden but are not likely to transgress as much when their identities are not hidden (Diener, 1976; Jurgen, Michael & Waldermar, 1987). Evidence for anonymity is seen in Zimbado's (1969) experiment of New York University women (original experiment that was replicated and cited by Diener, 1979). In this experiment, a group of women were given white coats and hoods to hide their identity and another group of women were given their actual name tag and normal clothing and were instructed to deliver shock to people. The findings show that anonymous and hooded participants shocked twice as much as identified participants.

Further, the experiment of Diener (1979) can be put into consideration due to the group effect reported. Diener illustrates how much a group of participants transgressed when they were anonymous compared to another group of participants whose identities were disclosed. Anonymous participants who were also part of a group tend to steal more than anonymous participants who were alone and more than participants whose identities were disclosed. Diener concluded that being anonymous and having a group support is a strong influence for aggressive behaviour. This assumption further explains why some perpetrators carry out negative acts that would not have otherwise occurred in a day to day interrelationship but for the anonymity involved (Chesney et al., 2009). That is to say that anonymity could be a factor for compliance to a group norm when group identity is prominent (Postmes, Spears, Sakhel & De Groot, 2001; Postmes, Spears & Sakhel, 1998). Postmes et al. (1998) on the one hand,

point out that anonymity reduce *'the limitations that physical boundaries impose on people's social contacts';* where *'the breakdown of physical boundaries is accompanied by a breakdown of social boundaries'* (p.693). On the other hand, Postmes et al.'s (2001) implied that anonymity is associated with the perception that self and others are representatives of social groups that are made prominent during interaction (p. 698). Thus following these debates regarding what should constitute cyber-bullying, it is worth examining how the traditional forms of bullying have been applied to the cyber environment.

As discussed in Chapter One, there are different definitions of bullying with agreed concepts of intention, repetition and power imbalance. The same concepts of traditional forms of bullying have been applied to cyber-bullying (e.g. Smith et al., 2008; Tokunaga, 2010; Belsey, 2007). An example of cyber-bullying definition which follows from Olweus' bullying (1993) definition is *"an aggressive intentional act carried out by a group or individual, using electronic forms of contact, repeatedly and over time against a victim who cannot easily defend him or herself"* (Smith et al., 2008, p.376). As with the traditional definition of bullying, cyber-bullying definitions have also been faced with growing debate regarding 'repetition of the negative acts' and 'power imbalance' with no obvious arguments regarding 'intention'.

3.2 Cyber-bullying

According to the definition of traditional forms of bullying which is now being applied to cyber-bullying, it is understood that both platforms--traditional and cyber--share three common criteria and one difference: First, traditional bullying and cyber-bullying include a goal-directed intentional harm and manipulation of others to carry out specific socially ostracising acts; therefore can be seen as special cases of aggression as described in Chapter One (Olwues, 1978, 1993). Second, power imbalance is another common aspect, which is an advantage of

the perpetrator(s) of aggression. This is partly because of the edge that the perpetrators have over their targets, like instances of mobbing and serious cases of aggression as described by WHO (2004); and group processes like that of Salmivalli (2010); and Sutton et al., 1999). Third, repetition of victimization is seen as a common criterion for traditional as well as for cyber-bullying (Smith et al., 2008; Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008). However, the difference to traditional bullying lies in the obvious fact that in cyber-bullying, technological devices are being used for carrying out such aggressive acts (Smith et al., 2006).

3.2.1 Concepts of cyber-bullying from a traditional bullying perspective

Bullying consists of negative acts that are carried out by one person or a group of people against others who are less powerful and unable to defend themselves (Sutton & Smith, 1999; Olweus, 1993; Farrington, 1993; Smith, 2004). The bully-victim relationship consists of an imbalance of power which may take the form of physical strength, age and group advantage over a certain group or an individual (Olweus, 1993; Salmivalli, 2010; Salmivalli et al., 1996; Sutton et al., 1999). Cyber-bullying definitions differ in terms of individual researchers aim and the area of coverage depending on the forms of online aggression that is being examined. Table 3.1 shows individual researchers choice of words applied to their respective definition albeit with synonymic agreement with other researchers' definitions.

As shown in Table 3. 1, Belsey (2009, p.3) defined cyber-bullying as '*the use of ICT to support deliberate, repeated, and hostile behaviour by an individual or group, that is intended to harm others*'. In this definition, the use of ICT to partake in deliberate continuous hostile behaviour is highlighted as the mode in which cyber-bullying operate.

Franek (2005, p.39) defines cyber-bully as '*anyone who repeatedly misuses of technology to harass, intimidate, bully or terrorize another person…*' with the sender often anonymous or disguised as someone else. Franek also stated that cyber-bullying behaviour

70

usually takes the form of *"inappropriate and hurtful rumours or threats sent through e-mails, instant messages, text messages, or website posts with the sender often anonymous or disguised as someone else"*. This definition highlights the misuse of technology as the mode by which cyber-bullying is carried out. It also emphasises the contents of the cyber-bullying behaviour as well as the behaviours of instigators (e.g. anonymity and false identity).

Li's (2008, p. 224) definition ''*bullying via electronic communication tools such as e-mail, cell phone, personal digital assistant (PDA), instant messaging, or the World Wide Web*'' allows for the reader to assume the meaning of cyber-bullying given prior knowledge of what is known about traditional bullying. In this definition, there is no clear element of what constitutes cyber-bullying, however, like all the definitions presented, the use of electronic means is the mode of operation.

Patchin and Hinduja's (2006), definition *"wilful and repeated harm inflicted through the medium of electronic text"* (p. 152) highlights 'wilful' and 'repeated' as the criteria for referring to a negative act as cyber-bullying. However, there is no mention of a power imbalance criterion.

Willard's (2007a) definition, "*sending or posting harmful or cruel texts or images using the internet or other digital communication devices*" (p.1), not only explicates the kind of messages that are likely to be classed as cyber-bullying, but also added cruel images as part of cyber-bullying. This definition did not put *intention* into consideration; and like Patchin and Hinduja's (2006) definition did not also reference power imbalance on the part of the instigator referenced.

Finally, Smith et al.'s (2008, p.376) definition, *"an aggressive intentional act carried out by a group or individual, using electronic forms of contact, repeatedly and over time against a victim who cannot easily defend him or herself"* explicates the act--aggression--, the likely amount of people that can carry out negative acts—group or individual-- the manner in

which the acts are performed—repeated (and) over time-- as well as the vulnerability status of those that receive such negative acts. However, the consequences as mentioned by Belsey (2009); Patchin and Hinduja, (2006); and Willard (2007) were not mentioned. Nevertheless, one can assume or arrive at a conclusion as to the consequences of such negative acts towards a person in a vulnerable situation as pointed out by Smith et al.

Smith et al. (2008) definition gives an in-depth insight into what constitutes cyber-bullying, following from what is already known about the traditional concepts of bullying with phrases like 'over time' and 'repetition' (Olweus, 1993; Farrington, 1993; Ross, 2002). 'Over time' in this regards points to a situation where a particular bullying behaviour is repeated over a time scale. Thus, it does not necessarily entail that the act follows a particular sequential frame (repetition), but that it has happened more than once in the last month, last couple of months or to whatever time scale that the researcher is examining and depending on the type of bullying that is being investigated (Smith et al., 2008; Smith & Brain, 2000).

Following all these definitions of cyber-bullying, Tokunaga (2010) proposed a new definition of cyber-bullying resulting from his argument that there are inconsistencies in the definition of cyber-bullying. Tokunaga's premise for redefining cyber-bullying follows his review of 24 studies which also included the definitions given above albeit with the exception of Franek (2005). According to Tokunaga (2010, p. 278) "*any behaviour performed through electronic or digital media by individuals or groups that repeatedly communicates hostile or aggressive messages intended to inflict harm or discomfort on others*" is regarded as cyber-bullying. It is worth stating however, that Tokunaga's elucidation of cyber-bullying definition included Ybarra and Mitchell's (2004a) and Finkelhor, Mitchell & Wolak's (2000) work which did not define cyber-bullying but 'online harassment'. Therefore, it may be argued that the assertion that there are discrepancies in cyber-bullying definition having included the

definition of cyber-harassment is tricky. This is because although the elements of these two terms overlap, they still have their individual research areas as discussed in Chapter One.

Tokunaga (2010) did not also put into account some certain points: firstly, that cyber-bullying definition as listed above and as presented in Table 3.1 follows the same synonymic concepts. Secondly, that these synonymic concepts can be assumed as 'agreements' in the way cyber-bullying acts are conducted. In other words, all the harmful acts must be intended and repeated just as presented in the author's own definition and in most cyber-bullying definitions (e.g. Belsey, 2009; Willard, 2007a; Patchin & Hinduja, 2006, Smith et al., 2008). Thirdly, that the consequences of the negative acts are 'harmful' or with other negative consequences, that is evident in the author's definition as well as others. Fourthly, that all the negative acts must be sent through electronic means, also as agreed by all the definitions, including the author's own; although the last assertion can be overlooked in the context of the word 'cyber'. Thus, there are no arguable discrepancies going by the agreement in these definitions. An obvious difference in the above definitions is the inclusion and clarification of the concept of (online) imbalance of power by Smith et al. (2008) and Belsey (2009) which further incorporates the complete traditional definitional concept of bullying. Perhaps the omission of this concept in some definitions above is what constitutes discrepancy. Nevertheless, power imbalance in cyber-bullying is tricky to assert in cyber-bullying cases (Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008). Whilst it is established that there is at least some sort of agreement (as shown in Table 3.1) in the definition of cyber-bullying among researchers regarding its borrowed traditional concept, it is worth examining how these concepts are applied to the online environment.

3.2.2 Intention

Intention is not disputed in online bullying rather it is disputed that it is specific to cyber-bullying given that other forms such as cyber-harassment, cyber-stalking and cyber-abuse

(Mishna et al., 2009a; Regehr, 2010; Sheridan & Grant 2007; Morgan, 2009) also make use of intention. Going by the definition of aggression by Anderson and Bushman (2002) and the World Health Organisation (WHO: 2004) which suggests that aggression is an act of intention to hurt another person, it is plausible to assert that intention does not separate cyber-bullying from other online aggression. Also as previously stated, harassment, abuse and stalking are recognised and punishable by law. What this means is that before an act can be punished under criminal law, there has to be an established *intent* on the part of the perpetrator to have carried out the negative acts (Yaffe, 2004). Thus, intention is not just relevant in recognising cyber-bullying but also for recognising acts of cyber-stalking, cyber-harassment and cyber-abuse.

3.2.3   *Imbalance of power*

Power imbalance trajectory of bullying suggests the physical power that the target has over his or her victim (Olweus, 1993; 2003). However, the concepts of bullying have changed over time with the inclusion of social context (e.g. Salmivall, 1994; Salmivalli et al., 1996) in explaining power imbalance criterion. This social context is for instance likened to the edge that someone has over another person, such as group of students picking up on a student or other more vulnerable students (Olweus, 2003; Sutton et al., 1999, Salmivalli, 2010). Since an edge that the perpetrator has over his or her victim is considered as power imbalance, then instances of abuse, stalking and harassment can also be included in the power imbalance trajectory. The instance of a boss that sexually harasses his or her staff because he or she is in the position of power (Settles et al., 2011). Or a stalker that continuously follow his or her target to their homes without the target knowing where the stalker lived or worked (Mullen et al., 2007). Or in child/elder abuse cases where those that are meant to care for their vulnerability are abusing such power (Monks et al., 2009).

What is not core to stalking and harassment is the group phenomenon (nature) that is frequently reported in bullying and cyber-bullying cases. This is asserted given the elucidation of stalkers' behaviour and types of stalkers that are discussed in Chapter One (Mullen et al., 1997; Roberts & Dziegielewski, 1996). Further, in harassment literature, there seems to be no literature on collective act by bosses to sexually harass a member of staff, rather individual cases of harassment are what have been reported in aggression literature (e.g. Settles et al., 2011) and punished under harassment criminal cases (e.g. R v Miah, 2000; R v Nagy, 2010; R v Gardner, 2010). It is not being argued that these instances cannot or do not occur, rather it is stated that it is a rare occurrence in aggression literatures which is not well pronounced as the group phenomenon which are reported in bullying cases (e.g. Salmivalli, 2010; Salmivalli et al., 1996; Lodge & Frydenberg, 2005).

Given the function of the concept of power imbalance in the traditional bullying sense the question arises as to how power imbalance is understood in cases of cyber-bullying (e.g. Menesini & Noncentini, 2009). It has been suggested that power imbalance is not important in the cyber environment (Wingate, Minney & Guadagno, 2012). Wingate et al. assert that *"the power differential between the perpetrator and the victim becomes immaterial due to the properties of computer-mediated communication"* (p.3). This assertion by Wingate et al. is debatable given that power imbalance is what differentiates cyber-bullying from instances of online quarrels, fights and arguments.

Vandebosch and Van Cleemput (2008 p. 499) assert that online imbalance of power can be related to real life power criterion that consists of *physical strength* or *age*, interpreted as *media expertise* in cyber-bullying. *Power of technology* and the *anonymity* involved in sending unwanted messages (in form of videos and pictures or abusive phone calls) have also been used to explain the concept of online power imbalance (Dooley et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2008). Given the above assertions, it is understood that power imbalance include the

knowledge that the perpetrator has over his or her victims (such as that of being able to send hurtful messages to his or her victim).

In a different context however, it could be put that imbalance of power is a combination of factors that are able to deter a target from defending his or herself in the presence of the perpetrator(s). In traditional bullying, avoiding physical attack and intimidation due to the fear of being physically hit, kicked or pushed seems understandable. However, it may be complicated to apply the analogy of physical strength and age which is part of the core aspect of traditional bullying situation to *media expertise* to cyber-bullying. This is because other forms of aggression such as cyber-stalking and cyber-harassment can also function as a result of media knowledge (e.g. Salter & Bryden, 2009; Regehr, 2010). Thus media expertise is arguably not specific to cyber-bullying but can also apply to other forms of online aggression.

Furthermore, people who know how to block unwanted online messages can easily block a perpetrator from sending them unwanted messages. Although it can be argued that targets with poor knowledge of cyber-world may not know how to block perpetrators, even if they do block the perpetrators, the bullying act is likely to continue in school or in face-to-face environment (Hinduja & Patchin, 2010; Tokunaga, 2010). It is also not (always) in all situations that bullying will carry on in school following a blocked profile, because it has been reported that around 52% to 57% of 10 to 17 years old were harassed by people they only met online and did not know in person (Wolak et al., 2007; Wolak et al., 2006).

When the traditional concept of power imbalance is related to cyber-bullying, it may be plausible to apply the group roles as Salmivalli (2010, p.113) suggested *"placing bullying in its group context helps to better understand the individuals' motivation to bully, the lack of support provided to the victims, the persistence of bullying, and the adjustment of victims across diverse contexts. Finally, the group view is helpful in developing effective interventions against bullying".* Thus, if a target of cyber-bullying cannot easily defend his or herself

through the use of electronic means, either by stopping or blocking the continuous negative acts directly from the perpetrator (due to the fact that the perpetrators have multiple screen accounts that are being used to continuously trouble the target) or indirectly (because of others involved), then there exists an imbalance of power in this effect in favour of the perpetrator(s) of cyber-bullying.

It is possible to argue media expertise as suggested by Vandebosch and Van Cleemput (2008) and Smith et al. (2006) in cases where perpetrators are taking advantage of increased amount of media-related knowledge to effectively bully their targets (e.g. like knowing how to send anonymous messages; how to post videos while their targets do not know how to track messages or know how to have malicious contents removed from a website). It is also possible that both perpetrators and victims of online bullying have similar media knowledge (Dooley et al., 2009). Media expertise argument is possible in a situation where the perpetrator who is assumed by the target to be someone of the same age is an adult with actual media *expertise* making out to be a teenager, either for the purpose of grooming, soliciting for sex or for any other selfish purposes (cyber-sexual solicitation & cyber-pornography: Mishna et al., 2009a).

It is also plausible to relate the concept of power imbalance to the situational advantage(s) that the bully has over his or her victim. One of such advantages is likened to belonging to the same *in-group* in social identity literature (e.g. Tajfel, Billig, Bundy & Flament, 1971; Turner, 1978). Social Identity Theory explains the concept of a group identity as a way of explaining intergroup behaviour based on an individual, group status; and the intergroup environment (Turner, 1978). Where people of similar interest relate together, they are bound by some form of norm and ideology (Postmes et al., 1998; 2001). In some cases these norms are for good causes (e.g. reading club) and in other cases, they are likely to create hate group whose concept involves hostile treatment of certain sets of people based on their race, religion or disability status (Tajfel et al., 1971). The traditional analogy of the influence

of social identity is arguably applicable to cyber-bullying, following the suggestion that bullying can be better understood by a group process (Sutton et al., 1999; Salmivalli, 2010).

Postmes et al. (2001) and Postmes et al. (1998) elucidate the online version of group conformity through social identity model of deindividuation effect (SIDE) in computer mediated interactions. Postmes et al. (1998; 2001) implied that people would conform to group norms when they are openly identified with their groups but will conform less as individuals. Postmes et al. (1998; 2001) pointed out that social influence is also grounded in the relation of group members to the group as a whole, such that the more a person identifies his or herself as a member of a group, the more he or she would be socially influenced from being a member of that group. They concluded that social norms are encouraged by social interaction and that individual identification with the group is a prerequisite for such norm construction to occur (p. 1252). Also, according to Ybarra, Diener-West and Leaf (2007), groups normally associate themselves with their members in line with the social statuses within the group.

The application of the concept of social identity and the SIDE model analogy to cyber-bullying, may also suggest that perpetrator's negative comments and posts are being supported by likeminded groups or individual due to the wide spread of malicious information (Smith et al., 2008; Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008). The in-group could be those who associate or belong to the same chat room(s) and social networking sites. Arguably, the power imbalance may occur when a group of people start bullying a person who for instance, newly enters a chat room and perhaps make suggestive comments about the person on the social networking site. In sum, it may be plausible to apply this group analogy to instances of imbalance of power in cyber-bullying literature.

3.2.4 *Repeated acts*

Repetition is also present in stalking and harassment going by Leskinen et al. (2011) and Berdhal's (2007) definition of harassment as a repeated behaviour that is set to upset another

person. According to Willard's (2007a, p.1) definition, cyber-stalking is a *"repeated, intense harassment and denigration that includes threats or creates significant fear"*. Going by Willard's definition, it is easily assumed that stalking is a more dangerous form of online aggression with more severity. In addition, the definition of stalking by Mullen et al. (1997) suggests repeated act of unwanted communication on the path of the stalker(s). Thus the repetition criteria going by the traditional concept that is being applied to the online environment is arguably valid to other sub-types of aggression rather than being core to cyber-bullying. Continuous acts of verbal, direct/indirect social forms of aggression that take place over a period of time are core criteria for measuring cyber-bullying behaviour (Menesini & Noncentini, 2009; Smith et al., 2008). Therefore, it is not a common phenomenon in aggression literature that a stalker indirectly or through a third party stalks his or her victim.

Another specific cyber-bullying case of repetition is spreading false rumours, passing false malicious information; passing indirect comments which inference is obvious towards the target and making fun of targets in such a way that makes the target lose their self-worth (Keith & Martin, 2005; Marczak & Coyne, 2010; Gradinger et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2008).

These acts may not necessarily be present in cyber-stalking because cyber-stalking may take a different form to that of cyber-bullying (e.g. Sheridan & Grant, 2007). A cyber-stalker can hack into people's account and use their information negatively or ask for sexual favours (Sheridan & Grant, 2007) or as in the cases of sexual predators as mentioned by Zona et al. (1993). An example of this type is reported by the United States ABC News (2011) regarding a 12 year old girl who was sentenced to six months' probation service for cyber-stalking crime that involved hacking into people's Facebook accounts and demanding for sexual favours from other Facebook users.

Repetition as described by the traditional form of bullying is also tricky to assert in some onetime negative acts (e.g. a single act of sending a text message with sexual

connotations—sexting--; and a onetime filming of happy slapping) which have been presented in cyber-bullying literature. Thus the question and argument arise as to how these acts are explained within the laid down repetition concept of cyber-bullying. Some researchers have suggested that the amount of viewing by internet users and the breadth of audience that may come across such negative videos and messages are such that can make up for repeated acts (e.g. Vandebosch & Van Cleemput; Smith et al., 2008; Slonje & Smith, 2008).

3.2.5 *Single acts by perpetrators: Happy Slapping*

Happy slapping is described as the recording of physical violence for internet and mobile phone distribution (Campbell, 2005). In happy slapping, video(s) of violence are recorded and transferred to internet site(s). The recording of the video(s) can be a onetime event which is uploaded to a social networking site. This act of violence normally requires more than one person because the actual perpetrator and the victim are recorded during the process (Campbell, 2005). Campbell stated that "*bullying is repetitious causing the victim to live in apprehensive fear. Happy slapping is a one-off event so it seems not to meet this concept*" (p.1). Campbell suggested that when the happy slapping video is repeated and shown many times to people, then it should count as the repetition criteria needed to class it as cyber-bullying. In the case of the onetime upload of such violent contents, the argument for repetition is compared to the breadth of audience that view these acts (Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008).

The concept of the breadth of audience is a tricky one because implicitly, it refers to the viewing by audience as the perpetrating act, given that traditional bullying refers to repeated acts by the primary perpetrator(s) of the aggressive acts in question (Olweus, 1993, Farrington, 1993; Sutton et al., 1999). What is not understood from this comparison is whether those people that accidently come across these contents are perpetrators because they have viewed

the concept or whether the viewing itself is the perpetrating act. The repetition analogy when applied to the cyber environment seems ambiguous and thus needs further elucidation (Menesini & Spiel, 2012). Nevertheless, there are occasions when happy slapping may be repeated and fit well into cyber-bullying definitional concept as pointed out by Campbell. An example of this is when videos are uploaded, and some or one of the people that view the negative act continue to torment the target (or someone else) with such uploaded videos in the form of repeated unwanted messages.

3.2.6   Single acts by perpetrators: Sexting

Sexting is defined as "*sending, receiving, or forwarding of sexually explicit messages, photographs, or images via cell phone, computer, or other digital devices*" (Ringrose, Gill, Livingstone & Harvey, 2012). Sexting is a common term in the United Kingdom, Australia, the United States and Canada in referring to the use of mobile phones and the internet to send nude and explicit sexual photographs or texts messages to others (Ringrose et al., 2012; O'Keeffe, & Clarke-Pearson, 2011). In some cases, teenagers and adolescents through mutual consent send their photos to their friends and partners. However, where sexting becomes a problem is when the recipients of such messages pass them along to unapproved (without the owners' consent) people who may later pass these photos along to other people or group(s) of people (O'Keeffe & Clarke-Pearson, 2011; Walker, Sanci & Temple-Smith, 2011). The issue with repetition here is similar to that of Happy Slapping which indicates a clarification of the issues surrounding the breadth of audience in instances of onetime event that are included in cyber-bullying literature. Implications for sexting are that teenagers risk being victims of sexual harassment and risk being persecuted for felony, child pornography offences and placed on sex offenders' register (e.g. in USA: Cater, 2012). In the United States, it is

reported that some counties categorise teenage sexting behaviours under juvenile-law misdemeanours (O'Keeffe & Clarke-Pearson, 2011).

3.3   General use of the term cyber-bullying

It has been suggested that the type of definitions applied to bullying can impact upon the nature and extent of the aggressive act that is reported (Ireland & Snowden, 2002). This is true for how a few studies have measured cyber-bullying (e.g. Li 2005; Yilmaz, 2010; Dursun & Akbulut, 2011; Ryan et al., 2011; Wimmer, 2009). Sometimes, 'cyber-bullying' is not operationalised to research participants; "*I have been bullied during school*" (e.g. Li, 2005 p.14); "*have you ever been bullied?*" (e.g. Wimmer, 2009, p.26). One of the issues with the general use of the term cyber-bullying is that other forms of aggression which may not necessarily fit into the definitional concept of cyber-bullying may be included in the literature. Studies which have operationalized cyber-bullying to their research participants have included flaming, cyber-stalking and cyber-harassment (e.g. Dursun & Akbulut, 2010; Li, 2005, 2007; 2008; 2010; Willard, 2007). Other studies have strictly stayed within the parameters of the concept of bullying and have reported cyber-bullying based on the concept of its antecedent (e.g. Gradinger et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2008; Slonje & Smith, 2008).

It is worth noting that sometimes language barrier can influence cyber-bullying measurement. However, in this instances acts of aggression that are similar to bullying behaviour are translated in advance of carrying out research work to participants' own language (e.g. Gradinger et al., 2009; Sevcikova & Smahel, 2009; Menesini, Fonzi & Smith, 2002).

It is also worth stating that a few other researchers have not included cyber-bullying as a title for their research study but instead used terminologies that relate to the construct that they have examined. For example, Madlock & Westerman (2011) investigated online teasing

and violence which was inferred in the title of their article. Chesney et al. (2009) examined griefing in the virtual world, which was elucidated in their methodology and inferred in the title of their article. Ybarra & Mitchell (2004a; 2004b) investigated online harassment and aggressors as was inferred in the title of their article. Other researchers such as Sevcikova and Smahel (2009) included harassment alongside their cyber-bullying studies to indicate that they are not just looking at the one phenomenon of cyber-bullying but another form of aggression sub-type (e.g. harassment). These clarifications are important because some participants may not be knowledgeable enough to distinguish cyber-bullying from other forms of online misunderstanding and arguments, which have been included in the measurement of Willard, (2007) and subsequently used by many other researchers (Ryan et al., 2011; Yilmaz, 2010; Li, 2008; 2010; Akbulut et al., 2010). As a result, they are likely to report other forms of online aggression as cyber-bullying. Thus a clarification of what is being investigated is paramount for replication as well as inferential purposes and for the right preventative measures.

When researchers ask how many times participants have been bullied without actually defining what cyber-bullying is, then such result may not be plausible to include in cyber-bullying literature. Studies which have investigated cyber-bullying according to its concept are more relevant and trustworthy in determining prevalence rates, age and gender cases in cyber-bullying literature as well as the right preventative measure (e.g. Smith et al., 2008; Keith & Martin, 2005).

Ireland and Snowden (2002) reported that studies applying stringent school-based classifications of bullying, report lower estimates of bullying behaviour than those that apply broader classifications and/or avoid the use of the term *bullying* in total (p.539). The same viewpoint can be said for cyber-bullying and the general use of the term which embrace many cyber-aggressive acts. It is therefore, important that actual cases of cyber-bullying are reported so as to aid the right preventative measures and a thorough understanding of

motivations of cyber-bullying behaviour. It is also vital that specific bullying and cyber-bullying acts are identified so as to understand the elements and prototypes that constitute these acts.

3.4 The roles of bystanders in the concepts of cyber-bullying

The role of bystanders in cyber-bullying can help in the understanding and application of *repetition* in cases of cyber-bullying. Whilst the role of the bystander is an avenue of growing research in the traditional sense (e.g. Salmivalli, 2010; Salmivalli et al., 1996), it has minimally been explored in online bullying. The contribution of bystanders in cases such as *happy slapping* and *sexting* are major ways in which 'repetition' as opposed to 'viewing by large audience' can arguably be applied to cyber forms of bullying. Thus, the same concept of traditional bystander analogy can be applied to the cyber environment because students often report witnessing cyber-bullying and cases of cyber-bullying such as mean online posts and degrading phone calls take place in the presence of others (Smith et al., 2008).

People involved in cyber-bullying situations may not know how their presence impacts on the target(s). They may not be aware that they contribute to the cyber-bullying merely by passing on degrading information or by adding one or two comments to the information before passing them on (just like in the traditional analogy of bullying by Salmivalli et al., 1996 and cyber-bullying by Smith et al., 2008). Some forms of cyber-bullying directly make use of bystanders to damage the target of cyber-bullying, like spreading rumours in chat rooms or passing on embarrassing photos or videos via internet or mobile phones (e.g. Keith & Martin, 2005). Passive behaviour on the part of a bystander may also be interpreted as an approval of the aggressive act, either by the perpetrator or the target (Smith et al., 2008).

In relating the traditional concept of the roles of the victim, bullies, assistants or reinforcer of the bully (as discussed in Chapter One on the roles of bystanders) to the cyber-

environment, the assistants of the bully join in the bullying once it has started and assist the bully, the same can be said for online bullying because of the "pass along" nature of the negative or damaging messages involved in the cyber-bullying situation (e.g. Campbell, 2005). Also in traditional bullying, reinforcers of the bully provide feedback that encourages the negative action like watching and laughing (Salmivalli et al., 1996; Salmivalli, 2010). The same is applicable to cyber-bullying, because in social networking sites for example, onlookers or those present in the chat rooms often make suggestive comments regarding postings, and use icons to indicate that they are laughing or applauding the negative acts (e.g. Keith & Martin, 2005).

Cyber-bullying has been reported more in form of false malicious information, spreading rumours, disrespectful and indecent suggestive language (Keith & Martin, 2005; Hinduja & Patchin, 2008). When indecent photos and videos are added to the list, it becomes open to further debate and connotes a deviation from the original traditional meaning of bullying. Traditional bullying (Olweus, 1978, 1993) did not assume sexual attacks/nature; however, considerable overlap exists between sexual harassment and cyber-bullying among adolescents (Jimerson, Swearer & Espelage, 2009). It is not common in the traditional form of bullying to suggest sexual attack in the bullying victim situation, it is however common in harassment cases which then becomes criminalised and punishable by law (e.g. sexual harassment: e.g. in Settles et al., 2011). Nevertheless, images that are of a sexual nature which can easily pose as sexual harassment have been reported in cyber-bullying literature e.g. unwanted nude and obscene photos (Li, 2007; Vieno, Gini & Santinello, 2011).

Incidents can be considered bullying if the targets believe that they have been victims of continuous aggression, irrespective of the intent of the bully (Farrington, 1993; Olweus, 2003). Whilst this is important for prevention purposes, it is also worth examining intention of the repeated acts from the viewpoint of the instigator so as to have a full description of

whether the act is bullying or not. One of such ways of understanding intention in bullying and cyber-bullying cases is through self-reports, peer selection and teacher-selection method (Salmivalli, 2010). Cyber-bullying cases may not necessarily need peer or school authority nomination because the evidence to support the victim's account of event and consequences of the negative acts are documented in form of textual evidence. While in traditional bullying it is easily deniable on the part of the instigator.

3.5   Cyber-abuse

There is very little research on cyber-abuse and to the author's knowledge, only investigations conducted by Mishna et al. 2009a, 2009b and 2011 exist in terms of cyber-abuse literature. Mishna et al. (2009a p.11) define cyber-abuse as "the abuse of 'children' or *'adolescents' in the form of bullying, sexual solicitation, stalking, or child pornography, or any other type of physical or emotional harm enabled by the use of the internet and other forms of information and communication technology*". Mishna et al. refer to all forms of aggression that happen via ICT as 'cyber-abuse'. The authors clarified cyber-abuse as the use of electronic communication to bully, stalk, victimise and to solicit for child and adolescent pornography.

It is plausible to assert that the use of online communication to bully, stalk and harass other members (irrespective of these members' age) is an abuse of the medium that is used for carrying out such negative acts. The last part of Mishna et al.'s (2009a) definition "*...or any other type of 'physical' or emotional harm...*" may be open to debate, in terms of the word 'physical' because it is arguable that physical harm is unlikely able to happen in online communication. However, it may also be that physical harm (in this case, secondary harm) may result as a consequence of emotional or psychological injury (in this case, primary injury) resulting from cyber-abuse. Arguably, having suffered with emotional hurt, the

86

resulting consequence might be seen in the physical appearance. Other terminological constructs that were suggested by Mishna et al, which have scarcely been used in online aggression literature are cyber-sexual solicitation which is the use of internet and mobile phones to 'groom' and lure children and youth to perform sexual acts both online and possibly offline and cyber-pornography which also involve the construction, spreading of; and exposure to explicit sexual contents through the internet and mobile phones.

3.6   Motivations or influences of cyber-bullying and online aggression

Reports from different parts of the world have indicated similar causes and correlates in online aggression (Mark & Ratliffe, 2011; Smith et al., 2008; Dooley et al., 2009; Rivers & Noret). As previously discussed in Chapter One there are different causes of aggression such as situational, biological and cultural causes or correlates. Considerable overlap occurs in the use of the various sub-types of online aggression and this has an impact on how causes are ascertained. However, these factors have not been adequately tested in the online environment due to its fairly recent research development. A major reason why people carry out online forms of aggression (e.g. harassment, stalking, abuse & bullying) have been likened to the anonymity involved (Wolak et al., 2007; Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008).

Ridout et al. (2005) using a representative sample of 2,032 eight to 18 years old concluded that environment determines the extent to which someone is a perpetrator of cyber-bullying and online aggression. The authors reported that people with internet access in their rooms reportedly send hostile and aggressive messages to people online. They also partake in online misdemeanours like false age in order to have accesses to online pornography.

In the USA, Mark and Ratliffe (2011), using direct and indirect aggression scale (Björkqvist, 1994), reported that 24 out of 265 participants reported cyber-bullying others.

Seventy-Two per cent of those who cyber-bully others reported to have acted on something bad that was said or done to them. A further 22% reported to have cyber-bullied for fun, 17% had inexplicable reasons for cyber-bullying others. 17% reported that they did not realise its potential harm; with only one respondent reporting cyber-bullying in order to fit in among others. This prevalence can be likened to other forms of aggression given the type of measurement used by Mark and Ratliffe.

Robson and Witenberg (2013) in an Australia survey of 210 (12 to 15 years old) reported that cyber-bullying was predicted by specific practises of diffusion of responsibility and attribution of blame and moral disengagement. This report measured cyber-bullying using Willard's (2007a) explication of the elements that constitute cyber-bullying. Thus it is also plausible to apply these findings to cases of online aggression sub-types. Other investigations have reported that psychosocial challenges, such as child delinquency, substance use and unhealthy relationships between parents and child (children) are associated with online harassment (Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004b; Perren & Gutzwiller-Helfengfinger, 2012).

3.7 Prevalence, and age and gender differences of online aggression

As with the report on causes and correlates of online bullying and aggression, reports on prevalence rates of cyber-bullying and online aggression are in their early stages. Nevertheless, it may be worth referring to their traditional prevalence where possible and apply them to the cyber environment.

3.7.1 *Prevalence of online bullying and aggression*

As earlier discussed in this chapter regarding the frequency and the wide spread of internet for social networking purposes, it is not surprising that the use of ICT has been associated with online aggression. Ofcom (2008) reports indicate that around 50% of eight to17 years

old have a social networking profile. Twenty-eight per cent of the reported cases of cyber-bullying among this age group were via social networking sites (SNS). Another report by the Department of Children, Schools and Families (DSCF: 2007) indicated that around 34% of 11 to16 year olds have at some point experienced some form of cyber-bullying. Cross et al. (2009) reported differing results for vulnerable and non-vulnerable children, those with special needs (16%) experienced more cyber-bullying than other children without special needs (9%). It was also reported that those who received free school meals were cyber-bullied more than those that did not receive free school meals (9%).

Schneider, O'Donnell, Stueve and Coulter (2012) reported that 16% of 20,406 teenagers reported being cyber-bullied in the past 12 months. Cyber-victims (60%) were also victims of traditional (school) bullying and 36.3% of those who were victims of traditional (school) bullying were also victims of cyber-bullying. This result indicates that traditional victims are also likely to be cyber-victims. It is also an indication that those who bully the victims traditionally are likely to continue the bullying acts via ICT medium and victims are likely to bully the traditional bullies who were reported as cyber-victims (Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004a)

Hinduja and Patchin (2011) reported that 28% of teenage perpetrators have used *mean names* and *teasing* in a hurtful way to bully their victims online. In contrast, 29% of victims reported that they had been bullied in the form of *lies* and *spreading of false rumours* that made others dislike them. Around 6% to 18% of Hinduja and Patchin surveyed students were victims of online bullying that take the form of "*upsetting email from someone you know*" (18%). Mishna, Cook, Saini and Wu (2011) reported that 50% of 2,186 surveyed teenagers indicated they had been bullied online and 34% indicated they had bullied friends online. Half of Mishna et al.'s participants had been targets of online bullying. Dilmac (2009) also reported that 23% of 666 adolescents reportedly engaged in cyber-bullying at least one time,

and 55% reported being victimised at least once in their lifetime. The reported result in the number of bullying and victimisation prevalence may be open to debate, given that *once in a lifetime* and *at least once* in the measurement criteria given by Mishna et al. (2011) and Dilmac (2009) do not strictly fit into cyber-bullying instances. This is due to the concept of repetition, therefore including one time act in their reports; leave the debate open as to whether the essence of cyber-bullying is adequately captured.

With regards to cases of cyber-harassment, more sexual materials have been reported than the contents reported in cases of cyber-bullying. Wolak et al. (2006) reported that one in seven teenagers are exposed to sexual solicitation online; one in three teenagers are exposed to sexual material online; and about one in every eleven youths are exposed to direct threatening and offensive behaviour.

Wolak et al. (2006) on behalf of the National Centre for Missing and Exploited Children, reported that within a five year period (2000-2005) more age 10 to 17 years old of 1,500 participants (34%) reported to have seen sexual material online in the later year compared to earlier year (24% of 1501). Also, online harassment increased by 9% from 6% in earlier year (2000). However, unwanted sexual solicitation decreased in later year (2005) (13%) than earlier year (19%), with a further reduction in talking to strangers in 2005 (34%) than in 2000 (40%). In a more recent evaluation of Wolak et al.'s report, Jones et al. (2011) reported that unwanted sexual solicitation increased in 2010 (19%) compared to 2005 (13%); and unwanted exposure to sexual material decreased from 24% in 2000 to (34% in 2005) 23% in 2010. However, online harassment experience increase from 6% in 2000 to 11% in 2010 with females more likely to get harassed than males. The reports indicate that online aggression is a common phenomenon among school aged children and teenagers; and that ICT has created an avenue for people to send and receive unwanted and unpleasant

(documented/evidence) messages which may not have been available for others to see in cases of traditional bullying context.

3.7.2   Gender differences

There have been conflicting results regarding gender differences in online aggression (e.g. Englander, 2009; Smith et al., 2008; Li, 2005). It has been reported that females are more likely than males to be cyber-victims (Smith et al., 2008; Walrave & Heirman, 2011; Dılmaç 2009; Li, 2005). In contrast females have been reported to be more involved in cyber-bullying than males (Kowalsky & Limber, 2007; Schneider et al., 2012). It has also been reported that female (25%) and male (11%) sample of over 3,500 children reported being cyber-bullied at least once in the last two months (Kowalski et al., 2007). Further to the argument made earlier regarding Dimac's (2009) findings, once in the last two months as reported by Kowalski et al. is also open to debate on similar grounds on whether it fulfils the repetition criteria for cyber-bullying.

Slonje and Smith (2008) found no significant gender differences in cyber-bullying. Ybarra and Mitchell (2004b) also reported non-significant gender differences for victimisation as well as perpetration of online harassment. It has been suggested however that the method used for measuring cyber-bullying may be a determinant in the level of gender differences reported since males use more image and video messages to aggress and females use instant chat room messages (Menesini & Spiel, 2012; Menesini et al., 2011). Therefore when cyber-bullying is measured based on image and video messages, it is likely that males will report more cyber-bullying than females. Also if instant chat room bullying is measured, it is more than likely that females will report more bullying than males (Menesini et al., 2011).

3.7.3   Age difference

It has been reported that 42% of 18 and 19 years old college students have reportedly been stalked, threatened, bullied and harassed. Around 73% of 18 to 19 years old in the USA had witnessed degrading profiles on social networking sites (SNS) (Englander 2009). Feinberg (2003) also reported that bullying and aggression increase and diminish across school life, peak during secondary school and diminishes as students gain more knowledge of the phenomena. This can be applied to cyber-bullying cases.

In the United Kingdom, Smith et al. (2008) reported that 22% of pupils (11 to 16 years old) have been victims of cyber-bullying at least once and 7% have witnessed cyber-bullying more often. In Canada, Li (2006) found that 25% of 11 to14 year old school students have been victims of cyber-bullying and around 17% of students have bullied others. In Australia, Campbell (2005) found that 14% of 11 to13 year old Australian students have been targets of cyber-bullying with around 11% of student reported to have bullied others. Additionally, in the United States, Ybarra and Mitchell (2004) found that 12% of 1,501 10 to 17 year olds reported to have been aggressive to other internet users, with around 4% targets of aggression and 3% targets as well as aggressors.

In a report by the National Campaign to prevent Teen and Unplanned Pregnancy (2008), 33% of young American adults between the ages of 20 and 26 have sent or posted nude or semi-nude images of themselves to others. The same report suggested that 39% of 653 teenagers between the ages of 13 to 19 have sent sexually suggestive messages. Of 1,204 surveyed teenagers 13 to 19 years old, 20% have sent or posted nude or semi-nude pictures or videos of themselves to someone else. McEachern, McEachen-Ciattoni and Martin (2012) reported that 39% of 13 to19 years old have sent or posted sexually provocative images or messages with around 48% reported to have received sexually provocative images or messages. Also, 11% of 13 to 16 years old reportedly sent nude or semi-nude photos of

themselves to others. These reported acts of aggression and online exchange of inappropriate materials indicate various acts, behaviours and types of materials that are being used to cyber-bully and harass others. These acts are not different across countries and are common with the use of ICT.

3.8 Consequences of online bullying and aggression

Research has found that those who experience cyber-bullying reported significant low self-esteem than those who had little or no experience of cyber-bullying (Patchin & Hinduja, 2010). In some cases of cyber-bullying, targets feel angry, sad, hurt, scared and embarrassed following their experiences (Ringrose, 2012; Keith & Martin, 2005). The consequences of cyber-bullying and online aggression are detrimental to victims because they result in psychological harm, poor school performance and emotional harm; and can lead to suicide (Collins, 2008; Hinduja & Patching, 2011; O'Keeffe & Clarke-Pearson, 2011; Schneider et al., 2012). The self-confidence of victims of online forms of aggression can also be negatively affected with long term effects on their sense of worth (Madlock & Westerman, 2011; O'Keeffe & Clarke-Pearson, 2011; Smith et al., 2008).

Online aggression increases the possibility of an adolescent attempting suicide (Hinduja & Patchin, 2011). Hinduja and Patchin (2011) surveyed 2,000 randomly selected middle school teenagers in the United States, of which 20.7% females and 21% males reported seriously thinking about attempting suicide as a result of being cyber-bullied. In the same study, the authors reported that 18% of females and 20% of males said that they had attempted suicide. The authors concluded that bullying and cyber-bullying victimisation is a stronger predictor of suicidal thoughts. Evidence for Hinduja and Patchin assertion is witnessed in the case of Tyler Clementi (1992-2010) suicide in the United States; and other teenagers who have committed suicide as a result of continuous online aggression (Kim &

Leventhal, 2008). The effects of cyber-aggression is not gender specific and anyone irrespective of their sex and age can be affected by negative online acts which could range from feeling of hurt to death (Kim & Leventhal, 2008).

Consequences of online aggression have also been associated with stress, groups or individual marginalisation; and increase prejudice in areas such as race, religion and sexual orientation and humiliation (Calvert, 2011; Hinduja & Patchin, 2011; Collins, 2008). The impacts of online aggression cut across various environments and have been known to affect school attendance and performance (Beran & Li, 2007; Rivers & Noret, 2010; Tokunaga, 2010; Patchin & Hinduja, 2010; Hinduja & Patchin, 2011). It has also been reported that victims of online aggression, specifically in cyber-bullying cases find it difficult to share their problems with others (Rivers & Noret, 2010); and may choose not to make friends (Perren & Alsalker, 2006).

3.9   Preventative measures of online aggression

Cyber-aggression is increasingly becoming an issue not just for the schools but for the society as a whole (Butler et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2008; Rivers & Noret, 2010). In Australia for example, the Commonwealth laws is used as prevention for cyber forms of aggression (e.g. Commonwealth Criminal Code Act, 1996 in Butler et al., 2009). The law states that *it is an offense to use a carriage service to menace, harass or cause offence or for the purpose of a threat* (Butler et al., 2009, p.91). It also states that it is an offence to deliberately or carelessly use a telecommunications services in such a way as would be acknowledged by reasonable people being in the entire circumstances offensive (Butler et al., 2009).

Given the above mentioned legal interventions, the question may arise as to how legal interventions come into the research of cyber-bullying and cyber-aggression. First, given the consequences of cyber-aggression, any law prohibits such acts that can lead to death or cause

harm and injury to its citizens. Wilson and Lipsey (2007) reiterate this point 'Criminal law judges the behaviour that social science tends to explain'. Therefore it is reasonable to conclude that there is a need to look at ways in which these consequences can be averted or minimised for the benefit of everyone's safety in the society.

Second, it has been put forward that cyber-aggression is part of cyber-crime and thus need legal intervention (Paul et al., 2012). According to Paul et al., (2012, p.641) *"At present, cyber-bullying activities such as sending viruses, misusing accounts, or creating fake websites are recognised as an offence under both criminal and civil law"*. However, as pointed out by Marczak and Coyne (2010, p. 187), there is no specific law in the United Kingdom against cyber-bullying per se, nevertheless, schools are required by law to have some laid down anti-bullying framework strong enough to tackle cyber-bullying in schools.

Some of the legal framework particularly adapted by schools is the Equal Status Acts (2000) which covers nine grounds that include gender, religion, race, age and sexual orientation. For traditional bullying, *"School Standards and Framework Act 1998, Section 61 (4)"* (in Marczak & Coyne, 2010, p. 187) can also be applied to the concept of cyber-bullying to further aid adequate preventative measures. In terms of legal research and social measures, the question arises as to how many times these behaviours need to be repeated in order to warrant some measures of prevention (Bocij & McFarlane, 2003; Gillespie, 2006). As pointed out by Bocij and McFarlane the definition of cyber-bullying may play a role in how preventative or punitive measures are determined. Thus, definitional clarifications may play a role in how civil, criminal and common law interventions and policies can be applied in this area.

Legislative measures are likely to be influenced by demographic differences between perpetrators and their victims which then makes it difficult to manage such behaviours because laws differ from country to country and from one continent to the other (Bocij & McFarlane,

2003). For example, the internet is such that allows for someone in the United Kingdom to aggress towards another person in Canada. Social networking sites are such that people can have instant communication, albeit with time and distance differences between them. Also the law that guides a particular country with regards to online aggression may not necessarily be applicable to another citizen of a different country that carries out similar acts (Bocij & McFarlane, 2003). Nevertheless, internet providers make room for avenues where people can give their opinions and experiences on the website and block people with anti-social behaviours (Bargh & Mckennah, 2004).

Some national and international organisations have worked in collaboration to help reduce the rate of cyber-bullying and online aggression in the social and educational environment. The Anti-Bullying Alliance (ABA: 2002) in the United Kingdom is one of such organisations against bullying. The PLUS program and Ophelia Projects are set up in the United States to encourage peer leadership programs and create positive youth development approaches in the school, community and after school programs. These organisations have carried out several research projects and collaborations with other national and international organisations with respect to understanding bullying and aggression in schools and the social environment as well as understanding the possible factors that can lead to cyber-aggression (ABA: 2006; Nixon & Werner, 2010)

Other ways of preventing online aggression are the whole school approach where the school community recognises and understand the symptoms of cyber-bullying and what actions to take when and if cyber-bullying cases occur (Hay, Meldrum & Mann, 2010; Thompson & Smith, 2011). A personal approach involves being safe online and being careful of whom to engage and share personal information with (Kite et al., 2010). Also parental and societal contribution such as knowing what teenagers get up to whenever they spend their time online is vital to minimise the risk of cyber-victimisation and the spread of cyber-

pornography (Mishna et al., 2009a; 2011; Rivers & Noret, 2010). The issue with cyber-pornography is particularly a serious one which could criminalise young people and have negative consequences for their future (Butler et al., 2009; Butler et al., 2011). So it is paramount that parents are particularly aware of what their children get up to in the online environment for their own safety and that of others (Rivers & Noret, 2010). Finally, with the inclusion of the whole society, everyone can help contribute to the prevention of cyber-aggression: As individuals, the responsibility lies in one's examination of his or her action and how this may impact on others. As professionals, the duty of care should take precedence in areas such as counselling, provision of educational and informative support tools to combat new and old issues of cyber-bullying and online aggression (Marczak & Coyne, 2010). As parents, parental controls should be put in place to monitor the activities of children's online activities. Parents should also reiterate the need and relevance of internet friendly atmosphere to their children.

3.10   Summary

Following the discussion in this chapter, aggression is prominent in online interaction and various forms of online aggression have been identified and labeled according to their traditional aggression forms, however some aspects need further explication with regards to their definitions and concepts (e.g. Menesini & Noncentini, 2009).

Cyber-bullying is a commonly used term for flaming, cyber-stalking and cyber-harassment (e.g. Willard, 2007a; 2007b; 2007c) and there are problems most especially in the application of traditional bullying concepts to cyber-bullying. Further clarification is needed in areas of power imbalance and repetition in cases where some of the measures in cyber-bullying literature do not operationalise cyber-bullying thereby making generalization and replication difficult (e.g. Li, 2007; 2005; Yilmaz, 2010). More research is needed in order to

examine the concepts of other sub-types of aggression in line with their traditional schools of thought (e.g. cyber-abuse, cyber-bullying, cyber-harassment and cyber-stalking), so as to determine how their concept apply to the online environment.

Some of the factors that have been known to influence online forms of aggression are anonymity, social status and group identities and accessibility to ICT (e.g. Ridout et al., 2005). Finally, there have been mixed reports presented with regards to age and gender as likely influences of online forms of aggression. Teenagers have been known to report highest level of cyber-bullying in age and prevalence (e.g. Hinduja & Patchin, 2010; Smith et al., 2008; Keith & Martin, 2005). Nevertheless, measures have been taken by various organizations and the government to help minimize and prevent cyber-bullying and cyber-aggression in schools, at home and in the social environment.

Chapter-Four

Study One: An examination of cyber-aggression in focus groups and individual

interviews (study conducted in 2009).

4.1 Rationale

Following from the discussions in Chapters One and Three regarding the general use of the

term cyber-bullying, it is worth examining the perception of the term further. The aim of this

first empirical study is to understand the general concept of what the term cyber-bullying

means to various age groups and to examine any ambiguity in the use of the term.

Past researches have focused more on cyber-bullying amongst children because of its

growing concerns and consequences (Patchin & Hinduja, 2006; Smith et al., 2008). Others

have examined the impact of cyber-bullying on students' relationships both at home and in

schools (Smith et al., 2008; Slonje & Smith, 2008; Menesini & Nocentini, 2009; Rivers &

Noret, 2010). Cyber-bullying experiences have also been examined from the viewpoints of

cyber-victims and cyber-bullies and from practitioners such as teachers and counsellors

(Campbell, 2005; Li, 2008). The issues of online aggression are not age-specific and anyone

can experience these problems (Butler et al., 2009; Sevcikova & Smahel, 2009). To the

author's knowledge and as of the time of this study (2009), there were no empirical studies

which have examined the perception of online aggression from pupils, students and middle

aged-adults. This study therefore proposes an examination of the perceptions of pupils,

adolescents and adults regarding cyber-bullying.

In this study, cyber-bullying will not be defined to the participants because the study is

intended to examine prior participants' knowledge of cyber-bullying. Whilst it has been argued

within this thesis that some studies have not operationalised the term cyber-bullying to their

respective participants, it is worth highlighting that studies that aim to examine participants'

experience of online bullying acts (victimisation) and prevalence rates should operationalise what cyber-bullying is to their participants. Operationalisation is important in order to ensure that findings can be replicated. However, when the aim of the investigation is to examine the perception or knowledge of the term cyber-bullying, then operationalising the term cyber-bullying will confound such findings; and arguably risk its legitimisation and generalisation.

As discussed in Chapter Three, some studies (e.g. Li 2005; Yilmaz, 2010) have measured cyber-bullying without operationalising, or indicating whether or not they operationalised the term 'cyber-bullying' to participants who themselves may have been influenced by the general use of the phrase to mean all or most forms of online aggression. Where studies have defined cyber-bullying, other forms of online aggression (e.g. stalking and harassment have been added to such definitions: e.g. Akbulut & Çuhadar, 2011; Dursun & Akbulut, 2010). As it is not really clear what behaviours or acts constitute cyber-bullying in the literature, save for the prior knowledge that participants already have regarding cyber-bullying, other forms of aggression which may not necessarily fit into the definitional concept of cyber-bullying may be included in the literature. To this effect, it would be worth examining participants' knowledge of cyber-bullying.

It is suggested that in order to ascertain an idea about public perceptions of cyber-bullying, terms that are used to qualify online negative acts, and how far these change over the life course, different age groups would have to be considered so as to see how their perceptions differ or relate to the understanding of the term cyber-bullying. General questions, for instance "*what does cyber-bullying mean to you*?" will be asked so as to determine participants' knowledge and awareness of the meaning of cyber-bullying. Participants' perceptions of the different types of online aggressive acts will be ascertained through questions like "*what are the sorts of negative things that you think can happen when*

people use mobile phones and internet for social networking and general chat?" so that sub-categories of online aggression can be determined.

4.2   Methodology

The method of analysis employed is a qualitative triangulation using Thematic Analysis (TA: Milles & Hubberman, 1994). TA focuses on the extraction of themes and will give an insight into the contents and themes that emerged within cyber-bullying and online aggression arena from participants' perspective. A further advantage of using qualitative analysis is that it allows for the presence of voice in text, body language and observation of responses to enquiries (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Roller, 2010). These features of qualitative analyses are important and useful in conveying the richness and depth of human experience to the reader through interpretation of participants feelings, tone of voice and mannerisms (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Roller, 2010).

4.2.1   Participants

Participants were recruited according to three cohorts of children and adolescents: ages eight to 10; 11 to 15; and adults aged 24 to 54. The first and second age cohorts were recruited from various schools in England. The third age cohort was recruited online on social networking sites. Participants in the first age cohorts were individually interviewed because of their small number. Thus no focus group interviews were conducted with primary school pupils. However, given the number of participants in the second age cohort, it was easier to carry out a focus group interview and they were divided into three groups of four and one group of three participants. Individual interviews were also carried out with the adult participants in the third age cohort. Participants also reported having received one or more unwanted messages or phone calls since owning a mobile phone and while using the internet.

This detail was derived from the follow up question in **Q1**. Participants' information is given in Table 4.1

Table 4.1: Participants' information

N= 34: 21 males; 11 females			Age	Male n	Female n
Cohort 1	Primary School Pupils		8-11	2	3
Cohort 2	Secondary school students	Group 1	12-15	1	2
		Group 2	11-14	3	1
		Group 3	12-16	2	2
		Group 4	11-14	2	2
Cohort 3	Adult participants		24-54	11	1

4.2.2   Procedure

Ethical approval was granted by the Department of Psychology Research Ethics Committee at Goldsmiths, University of London. Letters and follow up e-mails were sent to schools with the aim of the study fully explained to Headteachers. Some of the contacted schools were already taking part in another project which was supervised by the author's supervisor, Professor P. K. Smith. Six primary and secondary schools (in England) that the author and her supervisor visited immediately showed interest in the study and were thus used for participants' recruitment. Further ethics clearances were sought from participants' parents and were granted. Studies were conducted during school visits. Some of the participants that were reported to have been involved in cyber-bullying were selected by Headteachers through peer nominations in some schools, while in other schools; students were selected by school programme co-ordinators.

With regards to the adult participants, recruitment was carried out via two social networking sites 'tagged' and 'Facebook' with the title "*participants needed for interviews please contact if you use mobile phones and have received two or more nasty messages as a result*". This question was specifically asked so that the criteria for the choosing the first two age cohort can also be met for the adult participants. Interested participants contacted the author. Participants consented to being added as 'buddies' on Microsoft Messaging Service (MSN) which is a form of real time instant messaging tool that allows for communication among people irrespective of time and location. Participants were informed of the nature of the study and were asked whether or not they would still like to take part. Two participants withdrew from the study after answering the first two questions thus, their initial data contributions were not analysed because they had withdrawn their consent. For those that agreed to participate in the study, further ethical procedures were typed out and pasted to their MSN window messenger (please see appendix1 for sample interview).

One major problem with the online method of data collection is that participants can easily be distracted and lose concentration because the interviewer is not personally present. This was evident in this study during three of the interviews: a participant received a phone call and became non-responsive, after a reminder 'nudge' a form of tone alert that a message was waiting for a response, he apologised and wanted to reschedule. Another participant withdrew from the study saying he wanted a 'nice' chat instead. The last of the three participants withdrew from the study because he was not happy giving his name as a signature for consent to participating in the study.

Before the start of the interview, all the participants were greeted and informed about the purpose of the study which was to help in the elucidation of various negative acts and to ascertain preventative measures. The definition of cyber-bullying was deliberately withheld from participants because the study was intended to examine participants' prior knowledge of

cyber-bullying. Participants were asked questions regarding their use of ICT. Seven questions were asked to understand participants' perception of cyber-bullying and online aggression as well as the term used in qualifying online negative acts.

There are four sections to the interview questions. The first section has two 'yes' or 'no' questions which asked whether or not participants use ICT and whether or not they had witnessed any form of online aggression.

First section:

> *Q1:* "Do you use mobile phone and internet for communication such as chatting and social networking purposes?"

> *Q2:* "OK so you must have received two or more nasty messages at some point"?

Second section:

This second section was to find out the general coverage of online negative acts

> *Q3*: 'what are the sorts of negative things that you think can happen with people using mobile phones and the internet for social networking and general chats?'

> *Q4:* 'can you describe these negative acts please?'

Third section:

The third section was to find out about the general use of the term cyber-bullying with regards to the broad range of acts that it is assumed to cover.

> *Q5:* 'what does cyber-bullying mean to you?'

> *Q6:* 'is cyber-bullying a useful term?'

Fourth section:

The fourth section is to know what can be done in terms of preventative measures regarding online aggression

    Q7: 'what do you think can be done about these negative behaviours and problems?"

Probes were made at appropriate times to encourage participants to stay within the parameter of the matter under investigation. Adult participants who gave the required details as consent were interviewed using MSN. This method of participants' recruitment will arguably give the participants the opportunity to remember some of the negative acts that take place on the internet. This assumption is made following Tulving's (2005) argument, that episodic memory is the ability to recall specific past events about what and where the event took place. This assumption according to Tulving indicates that context dependent memory is stronger in an environment that is similar to the original state, because this allows for someone to reconstruct and re-live a particular episode of the past.

    With the young participants however, the interview atmosphere was calm and relaxing. All participants were informed that participating in the study was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time if they wished to do so. They were also informed that any information that they shared would remain confidential. Adult participants were advised to turn off their phones and close down any other messaging applications if applicable, so as not to get distracted during interviews. Although participants confirmed that there were no distractions before the commencement of interviews, the interview observed some long delays in response from a couple of participants during the interview. These participants had written on the chat window '*hold on please*'; '*just one second*'. After the interview, the interviewer asked the participants if they had concentrated all along, they reported that they had used their phone to send a quick texts responses; and thought of whether or not to pick up a couple of phone calls

that they later ignored. Further, the interviewer asked whether participants felt they were distracted during the short delay, participants confirmed that they did not feel that they lost concentration. There data were nevertheless not analysed for this study as they may have tendencies of confounding the result.

Two types of interviews were carried out; first, individual interviews with primary school participants and adult samples; and second, focus groups with secondary school students. Individual interviews lasted about thirty minutes each and the focus group interviews lasted about an hour each. All participants were given help sheets regarding what to do and who to contact in cases of cyber-bullying. The help sheet contained information regarding organisations that fight against bullying and cyber-bullying, for instance, the Anti-bullying Alliance (please see appendix 2). In the case of the online participants, the same details were emailed to them. Participants were thanked for participating in the study and asked whether they had any questions regarding the study that they might wish to ask. Some participants responded that they would like to know what the government was doing regarding cyber-bullying, a few others said they already knew what the study was about –cyber-bullying-- others did not ask any further questions.

4.2.2.1 Analyses procedure:

Students' interviews were recorded with a digital recorder, adult participants typed out their answers on MSN chat window. All data were typed into Microsoft Word document. For the MSN participants, data were cut and pasted onto a word document, thus participants' responses were typed using their own words. All the collected data were coded into four sections (as earlier mentioned) and according to the focus of the seven questions. The content areas were: whether or not participants use mobile phones and or internet; whether participants had received nasty messages; identification of the negative acts that occur in the use of mobile

phones and the internet; describing and naming negative behaviours that can occur via mobile phones and internet; what can be done about online aggression; meaning of cyber-bullying and whether or not cyber-bullying is a broad enough (useful) term to mean online aggression. Subthemes were extracted from the codes to build on participants' thoughts and feelings through thematic analysis. Themes emerged after several re-visitations of coded data and subthemes, finally using these themes and participants' cases; the phenomenon under investigation was interpreted.

For ease of read, key for participants' description are presented in Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2: Key for identifying individual participants.

Participants	Identification key
G_1	Group one
G_2	Group two
G_3	Group three
G_4	Group four
M_1	The first male in this age group
$M_2,38$	The second male who is also 38 years old
M, 17	Male and his corresponding age
F, 11	Female and her corresponding age

4.3   Results

Themes derived from the analysis are summarised in Table 4.3. *Q1* and *Q2* responses were dichotomous and thus were not analysed in terms of contents (due to 'yes' or 'no' response nature). All other participants' viewpoints were analysed thus N=34.

Table 4.3: Emerging themes from focus groups and individual interviews.

Questions	Sub- themes	Themes
Q1	*Dichotomous response no associate theme.*	
Q2	*Dichotomous response no associate theme.*	
Q3	Intimidation, Harassment Bullying, Aggression	Media abuse/Vulnerability
Q4	Upsetting, Cowardly Anger, Frustration	Unrealistic
Q5	Bullying, Anonymity	Media knowledge
Q6	Inadequate, Restricted, Vague	Ambiguity
Q7	Control, Empowerment, Blocking	Awareness

Data were interpreted with selected cases, using similar case responses, so as to avoid repetition and ambiguity of results. Themes are presented in bold fonts.

4.3.1 Participants' use of internet and mobile phones

Q 1: *"Do you use mobile phone and internet for communication such as chatting and social networking purposes?"*

Basic media knowledge:

Participants reported using mobile phones and computer (internet) for general communication and social networking purposes. Basic media knowledge is described given participants' knowledge of using mobile phones and internet for communication purposes. Media meaning the medium with which communicative messages are exchanged; and

knowledge meaning familiarity, awareness and understanding of how such medium of communication can be used to initiate conversations.

4.3.2   Receipt of nasty messages

Q 2:"*Have you ever received any nasty messages in the process of using internet and mobile phone for general communication and social networking?"*

There was a strong experience that participants received nasty messages through their mobile phones and internet. This response is dichotomous 'yes'.

4.3.3   Naming and identifying negative acts that take place on the internet and mobile phones:

Q3: Ok, so what are the sorts of things that you think can happen when people use mobile phones and the internet for social networking and general chat?"

Emerged themes illustrate various perspectives from participants. Descriptions such 'anonymity; 'people can easily hack into people's e-mail accounts' and send 'malicious and abusive messages to others', expressed participants' feelings about the sort of negative things that can happen in online aggression situation. Further Thematic Analysis from this particular questions resulted in coded themes of *intimidation, harassment, bullying and aggression.* There was no age difference in participants' perceptions of the described acts of aggression.

Media Abuse:

'...Horrible things happen, they hide behind people's identity... (M, 8); *'they could send offensive messages to you...'* (G$_1$); *'obscene phone calls without permission.'*(M$_1$, 38); *'expect aggressive language and threats.'*(M, 54); *'...malicious and false information being provided by others to undermine relationships...'* (M$_2$, 38)

Vulnerability:

The theme of vulnerability describes participants' feeling regarding negative messages that could be sent to them at any time with or without their consent (and irrespective of whether or not) they wanted such messages.

'You can't see the face of the person who you're talking to...' (F, 24); *'...abusive messages, unwarranted texts and calls at any time of the day and night.'*(M, 33); *'...arguing by text, incessant phone calls'* (M, 33); *'personal attacks...and viruses'* (M, 43).

4.3.4 Participants' description and perception of negative online acts

Q 4: "*can you describe some of these negative acts please?"*

Participants' description of online aggression depicts a feeling of invasion of privacy. Each time participants mentioned that people sent them messages at odd times and hours, there countenance changed to that of anger. This is one of the advantages of qualitative analyses as it allows for tone of participants to be part of analyses. *Anger* and *frustration* were perceived from participants' tone of voice. Qualitative method allows the presence of voice in text in conveying the richness and depth of human experience to the reader (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Roller, 2010). However, this was more difficult to observe with online participants, but their mode of typing changed from that of lower cases to upper cases whenever they mentioned descriptors *"...nasty, upsetting and rude"; "FRUSTRATING!!"* with exclamation marks to emphasise their feelings. It was nevertheless easier to perceive *anger* and *frustration* from face-to-face interviews than it was for MSN interviews. The only description of these mood change and countenance was derived from letters and words that were typed out in bold fonts. Nevertheless, from participants' perspective, people tend to act the way they would not normally do (unrealistic) on a face-to-face basis due to the anonymity involved in online

communication. There was no age difference in participants' feelings described by participants.

Unrealistic

'People say things they wouldn't say to a person's face...' (G₁); *'they can be described as cowards because they do not say things to people's faces'* (G₄); *'it's possibly exaggerated compared to how it would be face-to-face'* (M₁, 28); *'different personality when using remote technology.'* (M, 54); *'there could be chance that people can act colder than they are in real life'* (F, 24).

4.3.5   Meaning of Cyber-bullying

Q5: *'What does cyber-bullying mean to you?'*

Most of the participants referred to cyber-bullying as bullying via the internet. However, when asked to describe what they meant by bullying, they described 'fighting' or 'quarrelling' over the internet. Whilst this shows a limited knowledge of the concept of cyber-bullying, it also indicates that participants knew the media of cyber-bullying. Younger participants seemed to know what cyber-bullying represented, however there was an age difference in the sense that three adults age 38, 43 and 54 reported not having heard of the term cyber-bullying, in this instance, the author reported *restriction* of terminology. However, the theme of *media knowledge* from participants' viewpoints was translated.

Media knowledge:

'Cyber-bullying is *fighting on the internet.'(M, 10); 'it is bullying on the internet and mobile phones.'* (M, 11); *'on internet forums, people can talk nasty to you, they can easily attack personally'* (G₂); *'bullying over the internet or mobile phones'* (G₄); *'using internet as a tool for bullying as well as phones, not just through texts and calls...it's now happening through applications you can download them.'*(M, 29). The differing description of not knowing what

the term stood for is also presented: *'I don't know what it means.'* (M₃, 38); *'I have no idea what cyber-bullying is'* (M, 43*); 'nothing, never heard of it'* (M, 54).

4.3.6   Is cyber-bullying a useful term?

Q6*: How useful do you think the term cyber-bullying is?*

Participants demonstrated through their descriptions *'when you say cyber-bullying, people just think it is only bullying it could be something else'* (M, 11). Participants tended to generalise negative acts as cyber-bullying. Having identified what they thought cyber-bullying stood for, some participants thought that it was not a useful term per se in terms of how it is being used (e.g. *'it is a trendy phrase that adds just as much as it highlights'* (M, 50). These feelings were the same across age and gender.

Ambiguity

'No, it is not a useful term, when you say cyber-bullying, people just think it is only bullying it could be something else.' (M, 11); *'not useful because it makes people think it's the same as bullying, but many other things are involved...it is a bit vague and too restricted they might think it is just bullying but also involve photos and videos'.* (G₂); *' it is a simple catch all phrase that can be shown in headlines and news reports which will grab people's attention...it is only a general term...it may also detracts from face-to-face bullying that is happening at the same time'.* (M, 29); *'some things which are against the law would still be classed as cyber-bullying just more severe threats to people's welfare, child grooming...'* (M, 33); *'not very useful, it only specifies that something bad has taken place on the phone and internet...there could be a better term.'*(M₂, 38); *'it is a trendy phrase that adds just as much as it highlights...same as happy slapping, cyber-sabotage...on a scale of 1-10 I will say 5'* (M, 50).

4.3.7 Solution to cyber-bullying problems

Q7: *what can be done about these behaviours and problems?*

There was agreement across all age groups that *awareness* needs to be raised; and that people have to be cautious of how they share their information via the internet and mobile phones. Participants described *control* when they talked about possible steps that could be taken to minimise mobile phones and internet aggressive behaviours. The theme of *media vulnerability* describes participants' loss of their email accounts and passwords to hacking; and their suggestions for others to '*...change mobile phones'* in online aggression situation. There was also *avoidance* in the sense that participants stated that the best thing to do is to *ignore* and *block* people that send them unwanted contents and messages. Participants suggested not adding people they do not recognise to their email accounts, social networking groups and mobile phone contacts. This depicts further *control* and *empowerment* from participants' perspective.

Awareness

The best thing to do about it is to speak about it' (G$_1$); '*inform the police'* (F, 11); '*inform police and report to teachers'* (G$_2$); *People should be more aware, it would reduce cyber-bullying and make people know what bullying really is.'*(G$_3$*); 'ignore the phone calls'* (G$_4$). There were conflicting views with regards to changing one's number '*Change your number'* (M, 8); '*there is no point changing mobile phones just for one person.'* (G$_2$); '*Raise some awareness.'* (M$_2$, 28); '*Getting victims to tell their stories.'*(G$_3$); '*Very little...see the person face-to-face with video phone may help'* (M, 29); '*block the people...use message as evidence.'* (M, 43); '*block them, change your number and get on with your life'* (M, 50).

4.4   Discussion

This study was carried out with two major aims: the first was to understand people's perception of the term cyber-bullying and the second was to understand the various negative acts that take place online. The method used to arrive at the result was Thematic Analysis. The results indicated that there are various negative acts that take place with the use of ICT for interaction and communication purposes. These negative acts include, but are not limited to, harassment, intimidation, unwanted messages, aggression, video and picture messages, bullying; and hacking into people's accounts. The findings from this study are in line with online aggression literature that reports stalking, harassment and bullying as negative acts that occur with the use of ICT technology (Mishna et al., 2009a; Smith et al., 2008).

The answers to the questions (to participants) regarding the use of mobile phones and the internet for general communication purposes (*Q1& Q2*) are indications that the use of ICT opens an avenue for people to experience some form of online aggression. This finding is in line with previous studies (e.g. Smith et al., 2008; Gradenger & Stromheier, 2009) that reported that cyber-bullying is not just a school phenomenon but also a societal problem (Salmivalli, 2010). In this result however, cyber-bullying victimisation was not tested per se, rather the perception that people have regarding the phenomenon. Therefore the result regarding age and gender is made in the light of general online aggression instead of cyber-bullying.

There were no age or gender differences as to whether participants had been cyber-aggressed through the use of mobile phones and the internet (computer), which implies that anyone irrespective of their age and gender are vulnerable in that respect. Again this finding is in line with previous researches that have also reported adults as being victims of online aggression (e.g. Sevickova & Smahel; 2009; Salter & Bryden, 2009).

According to the findings, adults reported being sent video messages of sexual nature. Whilst videos of sexual nature are not in themselves aggressive acts among consenting adults, it can be perceived as offensive when the recipients of such messages find them upsetting as was the case with the participants of this study. Younger participants, in contrast, reported more annoying and false information being sent through ICT which is also similar to Smith et al. (2008) and Slonje and Smith (2008) investigation that picture and video clip messages are means used by perpetrators to torment their targets.

As at the time of this study, none of the younger participants that were interviewed reported messages of a sexual nature as suggested in some studies (e.g. Wolak et al., 2009). It may be that this is fast changing given the increasing use of ICT. Nevertheless Mishna et al.'s assertion is not disputed based on the fact that they carried out their study with the aim of examining cyber-abuse on children and adolescents only. However, the findings in this study regarding unwanted sexual contents being sent to adults who find them offensive is an addition to the literature in the cyber-aggression arena, that adults (in addition to the research that have found similar in children and teenagers) can as well be targets of online sexual contents.

Participants did mention 'bullying over the internet' to mean cyber-bullying; it is nevertheless understood that the word cyber-bullying as used by participants was not adequately defined in their subsequent responses (i.e. *internet fighting*; and *quarrelling over the internet*). This finding further raises the reasons for the need to operationalise cyber-bullying definition during relevant cyber-bullying investigation. Such operationalisation will allow researchers to be clear about what they are measuring (as posited by Nansel et al., 2001) in order to further aid adequate and effective preventative measures. This argument is line with Menesini and Noncentini's (2009) suggestions that there have to be clear constructs of how cyber-bullying is measured so as to be clear about what acts constitute cyber-bullying.

The results suggest that various aggressive acts occur when people are involved with mobile phone and internet communications. It is apparent that there are various acts that take place via mobile phones and internet beyond the scope and concept of cyber-bullying, like changing people's passwords to pose as the original owners of a particular account; targeting actions of people and establishment and downloading of virus. Some of these acts are cyber-bullying, some are forms of misunderstanding (e.g. *Q5, media knowledge*: *'fighting on the internet' M, 10),* aggressive acts; and severe cases of aggression (e.g. *Q3, vulnerability*: *'sending of virus', M, 43*). Nevertheless, the findings support previous research that describes online aggression as upsetting and psychologically frustrating (Gillespie, 2006; Smith et al., 2006).

Generally, it is perceived that owning a mobile phone or having a computer with an internet access create an avenue not only for positive experiences but also for vulnerability. Vulnerability in the sense that having these media of communication allow for evasion of privacy by perpetrators; people received unwanted messages at any time of the day the perpetrator(s) choose to send them. Vulnerability in this context can be likened to the concept of 'imbalance of power' in the traditional sense of bullying, where a victim is not easily able to defend him or herself at that given point.

It was reported across all age group that the mode of operating on the internet and mobile phone to carry out these negative acts are through anonymity. As previously stated, anonymity gives room for people to act in ways they would not normally act when their identities are protected (Diener, 1976; Zimbardo, 1970). This is evident in the findings of this study (*Q3, Media Abuse: 'they hide behind false identity' M, 8*). (*Q4, unrealistic: 'different personality when using remote technology' M, 54).*

Participants also demonstrated an understanding of what should be done when negative online acts occur. They suggested that perpetrators ought to be *blocked* when they start sending

unwanted messages. This shows that at least participants have the knowledge and idea of what to do when they receive nasty online messages. In a chat room or during the sending of instant messages for instance, it is easy to block a person from sending messages to others because of the menu options available to people who use chat rooms and instant messages. The options menu allows for a person to also add, delete; and create favourite lists. In MSN for example, in order to have a conversation with others, they must have been on one's friends' list, if this is not the case a prompt message will pop up to ask whether or not the person would like to accept the chat. On this prompt message are other options which allow the recipient to accept and add to list, accept and chat only, decline message or block the person from sending further messages. In some cases, when people register with a chat room or want MSN accounts, they also get prompt messages giving them the options of choosing whatever username they preferred. This process gives them the option of being anonymous to other users. Thus it is acknowledged that these media device functions, used for being anonymous by the perpetrators are of similar nature to those that allow participants to block, add or delete a potential or persistent perpetrator. Therefore, if a participant had added another person to his or her contact lists, it is arguable that such participant is able to demonstrate some basic knowledge of chat room and instant messages function as earlier mentioned.

It is argued that the misuse of chat room, instant messaging services and mobile phone text messages by perpetrators to send unwanted and unsolicited messages to their targets is *media abuse*. Although this negates the use of the term *media expertise* by Vandebosch and Van Clemput (2008) that is currently being used to describe the *imbalance of power* concept in cyber-bullying. It is nonetheless posited following Mishna et al.'s (2009a) assertion that the use of ICT to bully, stalk or send unwanted messages to others is cyber-abuse. Cyber abuse in this sense can be interpreted as an abuse or misuse of the medium that is used in sending such unwanted messages to those who find such messages offensive. Those who cyber-bully do

possess the intention to *invade* other cyber-users *privacy* (*Q3, vulnerability: '...unwarranted texts and calls at any time of the day and night.' M, 33*) by sending them unwanted, abusive and offensive contents so as to cause them to be frustrated and angered by their actions (e.g. Keith & Martin, 2005). It is posited that these acts are also an abuse of the medium used in sending such messages.

The questions about what cyber-bullying meant to participants; and whether or not cyber-bullying was a useful term tested participants' knowledge of cyber-bullying. If participants understood that cyber-bullying referred to bullying acts over the internet then it is assumed that cyber-bullying would be a useful term. However, participants' responses contained broad negative acts that occur online; hence the vagueness, restrictiveness and ambiguity of the term. This shows participants perception of how cyber-bullying is being used to refer to general online aggression. Cyber-bullying need not be something else that happens on the internet but bully like situation.

It is worth discussing the limitations and strengths of the current study. As a limitation, the interviews and focus groups excluded the age group of 17 to 23. This is because cyber-bullying prevalence has been mainly reported among primary and secondary school students and most preventative work has been carried out based on these age groups (e.g. Smith et al., 2008; Patchin & Hindjua, 2006; Tokunaga, 2010; Thompson & Smith, 2011; Salmivalli et al., 2009; Kärnä, 2012). Adult participants were particularly useful, although three of them reported that they had not heard of the term cyber-bullying however reported negative online aggression which is also an indication that online aggression is not age specific. Their perception and suggestions will arguable be useful in establishing further preventative measures and for policy making. A second limitation is that there was no gender balance in the adult samples. Whilst this was not the main reason for conducting this study, it will

nevertheless worth examining more female (adult) perception in future replications for studies that wants to specifically examine gender differences in perception.

In terms of the methodology employed, the application of online methods for qualitative analysis may not have the same effect that face-to-face interviews may have on participants in terms of the tone of prompts, probes and body language analysis. Another problem with this type of research is that participants can easily be distracted and lose concentration (because the interviewer is not personally present) as earlier mentioned in the *procedure* section regarding three participants' interviews.

In conclusion, as previously discussed in Chapter Three, cyber-bullying and online aggression is prevalent among children and adolescents (Smith et al., 2008; Tokunaga, 2010; Rivers & Noret, 2010). Cyber-bullying is also a thing of growing concern amongst adults too. It is important that when considering preventative measures across age groups with regards to cyber-bullying, consideration should also be made for people who experience other forms of cyber aggression. Nevertheless, more emphasis should be placed on pupils and teenagers because of developmental effects that the consequences of online bullying and aggression may have for their future.

4.5   Reflection

The author carried out various literature searches on cyber-bullying prior to interviewing participants. In addition to carrying out research on cyber-bullying, the author attended national and international conferences and workshops on cyber-bullying. It was observed in the process that cyber-bullying is used widely to encompass some other acts that may not fit into the definition of cyber-bullying; and when they did, they did not meet some core criteria or the criteria were not explicit enough to aid thorough understanding of what was

investigated. There were debates among researchers also about what should constitute imbalance of power within cyber-bullying.

The author has carried out this study based purely on the need to ascertain perception and understanding of the term *cyber-bullying* from a wide age range. The content of this study has also been commented on and the themes agreed on by two Developmental Psychologists (the supervisors of this thesis), one Social Psychologist and one Neuropsychologist (this process met the criteria for an upgrade from Masters of Philosophy towards the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy). Afterward, the author has had to re-visit each of the themes following initial agreement from four experts and subsequent agreement from two experts (supervisors). Thus the themes presented have not been influenced by the author's knowledge or experience of her research work on cyber-bullying and online aggression in general.

Chapter Five

Studies Two and Three:

Features, central and peripheral exemplars of cyber-bullying in a two stage

prototype analysis.

5.1 Rationale

This chapter introduces a prototype analysis of cyber-bullying and the initial first and second stages of such an approach, where features and exemplars that constitute cyber-bullying will be determined and rated for centrality in groups of college students. The main reason for using the prototype approach is so that lay conceptual coverage and knowledge can be provided to the definition, concept and features that are common to cyber-bullying phenomena. By this, it is meant that some common elements which are typical to cyber-bullying will be determined in a bottom-up manner where features that are central and peripheral to cyber-bullying will be provided by lay people; and not the usual top-down method where criteria are provided to the lay people by experts.

Rosch (1978, p.10) refers to prototypes as *"the internal structure of categories…the clearest cases …defined operationally by people's judgement of goodness of membership in the category."* Rosch also pointed out that prototypes make it easy to judge how clear a case something or a construct is, without necessarily needing the information regarding the boundaries of such a construct. It is also, according to Rosch, judging the common exemplars of a particular concept where the information regarding such a concept is not available.

In order to carry out a prototype approach on the phenomenon of cyber-bullying, it is worth understanding its process. Rosch (1975) suggested that two criteria are prominent for understanding phenomena that are justified for prototype studies. One of the criteria is that can a meaningful statement be made about the internal structure of the construct under

investigation; to the degree that each given example of the construct is either a good member or a poor member? For instance, in an examination of 'fruits' as a construct, a typical example of fruits frequently listed by participants is 'apple'. Rosch, Mervis, Gray, Johnson and Boyes-Bream (1976) asserted that fruit is well and commonly represented by apples than olives. Rosch also reported that 'apples' are reliably better examples of fruits than olives. Thus in the prototype sense, fruit is the examined construct under investigation and a typical example of fruits frequently listed by participants are apples instead of olives.

The second criterion according to Rosch (1975) is whether a reasonable case can be made regarding the internal structures that affect cognition with respect to the examined construct. For instance, Rosch found that participants' ratings of prototypicality were predictive of their reaction time in a series of verification tasks. Participants took longer to verify the statement 'an olive is a fruit' than 'an apple is a fruit'. Thus Rosch argued that the greater the confidence of such measures of internal structure the greater the confidence with which one can make the case that a concept is prototypically organised (Rosch, 1973) Lambert, Fincham and Graham (2011, p.1195) in a more recent study, asserted that in order to determine how prototypical features affect cognition, *"the centrality of a given feature should have implications for how one thinks about a relevant concept"*.

It has been argued that the concepts relating to some research in the social sciences have rigid definitional boundaries. Bullying and cyber-bullying for instance are faced with of debates regarding their definitional concepts (e.g. Tokunaga, 2010; Menesini & Noncentini, 2009; Salmivalli, 2010; Smith & Brain, 2000). In the context of cyber-bullying, there are already several different definitions which are given by various researchers in different parts of the world as shown in Table 3.1 in Chapter Three. Smith et al.'s (2008) definition is widely used in the United Kingdom and parts of Europe and Australia (e.g. in Vandebsoch & Van Cleemput, 2008; Sevcikova & Smahel, 2009; Marczak & Coyne, 2010; Slee, Spears,

Campbell, & Cross, 2011). Belsey's (2005) definition of cyber-bullying is largely used by researchers in Australia, Turkey, Thailand, Canada and the United States (e.g. in Akbulut et al., 2010, Li, 2008; Butler et al., 2009).

There are other definitions of cyber-bullying which are used interchangeably (e.g. Tokunaga, 2010; Patchin & Hinduja, 2006; Willard, 2007). However the application of these definitional concepts with regards to what should constitute cyber-bullying is causing a rising debate in the cyber-bullying literature (e.g. Menesini et al., 2011; Menesini & Noncentini, 2009). The application of imbalance of power and repetition to cyber-bullying concept have been subject of debate (e.g. Menesini et al., 2011; Menesini & Spiel, 2012) similar to the case of traditional bullying as pointed out by Smith and Brain (2000). Gregg, Hart, Sedikides and Kumashiro's (2008) asserted that adequate definition of theoretical framework is sometimes problematic in the social research area, particular in everyday construct, due to the rigour and level of coverage for the constructs under investigation. The prototype approach, according to Gregg et al. (2008) helps in the elucidation of the rigor and ambiguity that is attached to any particular concept in social research. Thus it might be helpful to apply this approach to cyber-bullying literature.

Gregg et al. (2008) asserted that a particular concept is rigorous if it does fulfil the criteria for qualifying something as typical of the construct under investigation (i.e. an example that can be readily identified as typical of the investigated construct). Thus it is plausible to suggest that cyber-bullying might benefit from a prototype approach where other forms of online aggression have been referred to as cyber-bullying even when they do not fit into the criteria as laid down by researchers in this field (e.g. flaming & cyber-stalking). The National Crime Prevention Council (2007) specifically reported on "cyber-bullying' or 'cyber-stalking' or 'cyber-harassment". According to the report, no clear distinction of the individual construct was given; each word was presented to mean the other. However, the use

of 'or' in the research gives the reader the opportunity to interpret the reported phenomenon in their own way. Whilst this is a way of demonstrating the negative acts that are present in the online environment, it may compromise the aim that is intended and obscure the need for effective preventative measures within these areas.

With regards to the prototype approach and cyber-bullying, cyber-bullying is almost an everyday social construct and the growing concerns indicates that no one definition seems to be adequate for this particular construct (e.g. list of definitions given in Table 3.1). Cyber-bullying is also tricky to measure given that there is no face-to-face confrontation involved (Menesini & Noncentini, 2010; Menesini et al., 2011). As a result, researchers have been using other avenues such as proposing that perhaps repetition is not a core criterion when it comes to cyber-bullying (Menesini et al., 2011); and that power imbalance is immaterial in cyber-bullying (Wingate et al., 2012).

According to Gregg et al. (2008), there should be a clear and consistent definition that should fit neatly into a theoretical framework; be easy to measure and easy to manipulate; and should suggest practical avenues for empirical investigation. This viewpoint can be applied to cyber-bullying, given that there is no one definition; and some traditional bullying criteria (i.e. imbalance of power & repetition of the negative acts) need to be clarified if they are to be included in cyber-bullying literature (e.g. Menesini & Noncentini, 2009; Menesini et al., 2011).

Some researchers (e.g. Hinduja & Patchin, 2011; Smith et al., 2008, Belsey, 2005; Tokunaga, 2010) have provided definitions of cyber-bullying so that other researchers can have some set criteria to look at when investigating it as a social concept. These definitions provide core criteria that ought to be met in order to make a reliable case for cyber-bullying investigation (e.g. Smith et al., 2008; Vandebosch & Van Clemput, 2008). Other researchers have conceptualised cyber-bullying as an extended form of traditional bullying which has not

created more victims nor increased the prevalence rates of victims (e.g. Olweus, 2012). With this conceptualisation of cyber-bullying as a continuum, simple definitions have emerged such as 'bullying through electronic communication devices' (Olweus, 2012; Van der Zwaan, 2012; Li, 2008).

Arguably, the traditional definition can be easily measured compared to online bullying, due to the physical explanation of the concept of imbalance of power, given the physical presence involved. These criteria are however tricky to apply on the online environment as regards to this particular concept of power imbalance (Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008; Smith et al., 2008). Thus the rationale presented earlier in this chapter for the prototype approach contrasts the usual traditional procedure used for the measurement of cyber-bullying. This is because in the prototype approach these set criteria are overlooked so as to get from lay people, common exemplars and categories that make up their research construct (as discussed by Le, Loving, Feinberg, Florentino & Ing, 2008; Kearns & Fincham, 2004, Rosch & Marvin, 1975; Rosch, 1978).

According to Rosch and Marvin (1975) and Gregg et al. (2008), when definitions have strict boundaries and set criteria, they are likely to make social research problematic. The prototype approach applies lay concepts to decipher objects and events that can be categorised as typical examples of a construct under investigation. Within this approach, common categories would emerge as well as exemplars that are core to the investigated construct (Kearns & Fincham, 2003; Rosch, 1978). The prototype approach has been used to understand interpersonal relationships in the social environment (Kearns & Fincham, 2003; Lapsey & Lasky, 2001). It has also been useful in providing concepts that are important to psychological research work. Fehr (2004) used this approach to understand the common exemplars of love and commitment. Gregg et al. (2008) also used this approach to understand the lay concept of modesty. Other studies have examined the concept of forgiveness (Kearns

125

& Fincham, 2003); romantic partner (Le et al., 2008) and natural categories (Rosch & Marvin, 1976).

The prototype process occurs in stages and it is at the discretion of prospective researchers to determine how many stages they would want to employ in order to process their investigated constructs. It has been pointed out however, that a prototype approach of a psychological dimension should involve at least two studies (Le et al., 2008). The first stage will be a feature generation stage where participants generate sets of exemplars that are related to the area of interest through a free listing procedure. The second stage will require a new set of participants to rate the centrality and peripherality of the sets of exemplars that the first group of participants had generated. This prototypicality rating can then be interval or scaled and further analysed by the investigator to determine what items are central and peripheral to the investigated construct (e.g. in Le et al., 2008).

Some researchers have also carried out subsequent stages that validate the prototypicality of their generated exemplars in memory tasks (e.g. Rosch, 1978; Le et al., 2008, Gregg et al., 2008; Kearns & Fincham, 2003). This validation stage takes the form of experiments that utilise the generated sets of exemplars in previous studies to determine the effect that the given exemplars have on cognition through recall and recognition tasks (e.g. Kearns & Fincham, 2003; Cantor & Michel, 1979; Fehr, 1988). However, the discretion lies with the individual researcher as to the number of stages he or she chooses to employ, as long as the impact of the generated sets of exemplars have been tested against cognition (e.g. Rosch, 1978; Cantor & Mischel, 1979; Fehr, 1988).

Five stages that fulfil the criteria for prototype approach will be carried out in this thesis to examine whether cyber-bullying is prototypically organised. This chapter will focus on the first two stages of prototype analyses, using two different sets of participants. It will lead on to Chapter Six which will investigate further the effect of cyber-bullying exemplars

on cognition in a recall and recognition task experiment using new sets of participants. Chapters Seven will take a different dimension from the prototype approach norm and include actual exemplars from self-reported cases of cyber-bullying in order to ascertain whether similar exemplars that are found in this study could be generated in actual cases of cyber-bullying. Finally in Chapter Eight, generated exemplars from actual bullying cases will be categorised into online aggression terminological constructs (sub-types of aggression) by another set of participants in order to further validate actual cyber-bullying exemplars.

Study Two: Generating features that are common to cyber-bullying (prototype approach: Stage one)

5.2 Aim of study

This stage is conducted in order to understand features that are common in cyber-bullying through a prototype approach. The rationale for this study follows from previous research in psychology that has employed this approach. To the author's knowledge, no prototype approach as laid down by researchers in this field (e.g. Rosch, 1975; Rosch et al., 1976) exists in the cyber-bullying literature. It is therefore suggested that this method of gathering exemplars from a lay perspective will be beneficial in terms of giving more insight into some sets of exemplars that are central to cyber-bullying situation. Since cyber-bullying research is fast growing and now established in online aggression research, the prototype methodology is relatively new to the cyber-bullying literature albeit not a new approach to psychological research in general.

Many studies have used similar approaches in their first stages to gather information regarding the characteristics of their construct under investigation. In this stage, participants are required to list exemplars that they associate with the construct. For example, Kearns and Fincham (2003), asked participants to list all the exemplars of 'forgiveness' that they could

think of in a free-response style, they also considered whether the exemplars were positive or negative to this construct. Lambert et al. (2009) instructed participants to compile a list of exemplars that described 'gratitude' in a free listing style, they also asked participants to list whether each rated item was positive or negative of this construct. They divided the generated exemplars into higher-order categories, while less frequent exemplars (mentioned by less than three people) were discarded and other exemplars mentioned by three or more people were used for further analyses.

This study will follow the processes used by previous prototype approaches with the exception of whether participants enjoy cyber-bullying others or not. As earlier mentioned previous studies have requested that participants list whether each exemplar is positive or negative of their measured construct (valence rating) of gratitude and forgiveness. This part of the approach will not be adapted because it does not seem very important to include valence in this way to a concept as cyber-bullying that is negative in nature and has been reported to have severe consequences such as suicidal feeling and harmful psychological effects (Smith et al., 2008; Hinduja & Patchin, 2011). Thus the major aim of this first stage prototype study is to realise exemplars generated by lay participants in a free listing style.

5.3   Methodology

The initial approach involved gathering qualitative data using a survey like questionnaire to examine features and exemplars of cyber-bullying (see appendix 3). The same prompts used by Kearns and Fincham (2003), Le et al. (2008) and Fehr (1988) were adapted.

5.3.1 Participants

Table 5.1: Participants' information.

Participants' information N=136						
Age	18-19	46%			White	65%
	20-30	44%			Black	10%
	30-35	10%	**Ethnicity**		Asian	19%
Gender	Male	28%			Mixed	4%
	Female	72%			Other	2%

Participants were undergraduate students of psychology at Goldsmiths, University of London; their age range was 18 to 35 years old. Further demographic details from participants included the use of mobile phones and internet. This information revealed that 41% of participants spent up to 20 hours per week using the internet for general and social communication purposes; 40% spent up to 50 hours per week; 13% spent up to 100 hours per week; and around 5% of participants spent more than 100 hours per week in this way. One participant reported not using a mobile phone.

With regards to telephone calls, around 85% of participants made phone calls up to 20 times per week; 8% up to 50 times per week; 3 % up to 100 times per week; and 2% more than 100 times per week. Data was missing from two participants.

Lastly, with regard to the amount of text messages sent per week, 2% of participants did not send text messages. 44% of participants sent up to 20 text messages per week; 34% up to 50 text messages per week; 15% up to a 100 text messages per week; and 5% more than 100 text messages per week. Thus participants were frequent users of both the mobile phones

and internet and are arguably suitable for the prototype kind of approach with regards to cyber-bullying.

5.3.2 Material

Materials for this study were based on similar instructions given by past researchers in their first stages of prototype analysis. For instance, Lapsley and Lasky (2001); Fehr (1988), Rosch and Marvin (1976), Le et al. (2008), and Kearns and Fincham (2003) instructed participants to think about the construct under investigation and asked them to write down anything that came to mind when they heard such word(s). This instruction was an adaptation of the instructions given by Lapsley and Lasky (2001); and by Le et al. (2008). The first part of the instruction was a modification of Lapsley and Lasky (2001, p.349) '*good character*' investigation, whilst the second part of the instruction was adapted from Le et al. '*romantic partner*' (2008, p.516). These combinations of instructions were specifically chosen so as to give a full insight into what is required from the participants. All the examples in the instructions to participants were left as previous authors had presented them except for the modification of their investigated constructs to 'cyber-bullying" thus:

"This study has to do with the sort of things we have in mind when we hear and use words. For example, if you heard the word "fruit" you might think of such things as apples and pears. If you heard the word "furniture," you might think of sofa, couch, or table. If you heard the word "extrovert," you might think of outgoing, friendly, and sociable...

WHAT WE WANT YOU TO DO…

Please list as many words that come to mind when you hear the word cyber-bullying. Think for a moment about what it means to cyber-bully a person or be cyber-bullied by another person. For example, you might want to list things including what you feel like, think about,

or things you do when you cyber-bully or being cyber-bullied. Even if you have never been cyber-bullied or cyber-bully someone else, you can still write things relevant to what you think it might be like to cyber-bully or being cyber-bullied. There are no right or wrong answers. Please do not take more than 5 minutes to complete this task."

The instructions were typed into A4 paper, and demographic details of participants such as age, sex and the use of mobile phones and internet for communication purposes were requested from participants.

The difference between this particular material and the ones that have been used by some previous studies using the prototype approach is that some studies (e.g. Kearns & Fincham, 2003; Lambert et al., 2011) have also asked participants to rate the negativity or the positivity of their investigated constructs. Whilst it is acknowledged that there are positive sides to forgiving someone or showing gratitude and negative sides to missing a romantic partner in these cases according to the researchers that have examined these constructs; it is argued that since cyber-bullying is a negative phenomenon, asking participants to demonstrate whether it is positive is to the author's knowledge not applicable to this particular study. However, the combined instructions given in this study will arguably demonstrate different viewpoints with regards to the exemplars generated — a likely cyber-bully, a likely cyber-victim and an objective viewpoint-- from those who are neither cyber-bullies nor cyber-victims. This method can help give clear characteristics of cyber-bullying.

5.3.3   Procedure

Ethical approval was granted by the Department of Psychology's Research Ethics Committee at Goldsmiths, University of London. Prior to data collection, participants were informed that taking part in the study was voluntary and that the contents of the questionnaire were not designed to cause harm or distress to them; and that they could withdraw from the study at

any time should they feel uncomfortable taking part in it. Participants were also informed that their responses would be kept in strict confidence which means that their identities will be anonymous to readers of this study. Four individuals did not provide any information and so were considered to have withdrawn consent. These cases were excluded from the analysis.

5.3.3.1   *Analysis procedure*

After the answer sheets were collected from participants, each questionnaire was numbered. Individual words, phrases and sentences were typed out verbatim into a Microsoft word document and were individually numbered according to participants' numbers. Single exemplars such as 'rumours', 'harassment' and 'swearing' were easily identified as distinct exemplars, they were individually numbered and were further grouped into a category called 'elements of bullying'. Single words were entered into a Microsoft excel file according to each participants response.

Some of the exemplars that were listed by participants in the form of phrases were counted alongside their single semantically related features. For example, "bullying continuing after school"; "bullying (not face-to-face)"; "bullying on the social sites"; "bullying through internet", were all counted under their semantically related single word "bullying", thereby increasing the frequency for that particular feature. Another example is in the case of "swearing", exemplars such as "people use swear words as they please" or "'people swear at you"; "cyber-bullies can't stop swearing at you" were listed into the frequency ratings of "swearing"'. However, if exemplars preceded or were followed by descriptive words or phrases (e.g. very mean; extremely mean, mean messages), they were coded as single attributes, e.g. "mean". Also, when a participant mentioned the same word twice, they were counted as one item and the other item was deleted so as to remove duplication.

Similar steps were taken for all other exemplars which appeared to have phrases instead of single words. These exemplars were rated differently from other less frequent ones which neither fitted into any other clause or phrase but only stood as an individual item (e.g. bebo, articles). When all phrases and sentences were sorted, they were copied into a Microsoft Excel file (alongside the already listed single items) and were alphabetically arranged and numbered so that each of the exemplars could be counted accordingly and ranked according to their frequencies. Each exemplar was then counted and the list of frequency was inputted opposite each feature item. Thus each repeated (sorted) exemplar was coded as one feature alongside the number of times that it was mentioned by participants as shown in Table 5.2.

Prior to the initial coding, the total number of initial exemplars was 1,897. However, following the allocation of words and phrases into their various attribution features 416 exemplars (also included in the 416 are those mentioned one time), were left to be examined. Following this second stage of coding (and the analyses of exemplars that were only listed by three and more participants), a total of 33 single exemplars and 40 phrases associated with cyber-bullying emerged. The 40 phrases were coded into separate categories as 'characteristics of cyber-bully' as shown in Figure 1 (and further explained in each cluster. (e.g. *mode of cyber-bully*). All the exemplars including the categorical ones and the single feature ones were individually mentioned by more than three participants.

5.4 Results

The frequency ratings for all 33 features are presented in Table 5.2 below. The generated categorical features are also highlighted in Figure 1.

Table 5.2: Sample generated features and their respective percentage frequencies.

Average features listed by participants based on 1, 897 exemplars: X=14.4; SD= 8.1

Criteria for selection: items listed by three or more people (= 416 features):

Minimum % of respondents 3; maximum % of respondents 32

Abusive messages	9%	Harassing messages	10%	Phone and internet prank calls	**23%**
Aggressive messages	8%	Harmful messages	13%	Rude images	8%
Anonymity	7%	Hate-page	15%	Rumour	15%
Breech of information	15%	Intentionally hurtful messages	13%	Site miss-use	8%
Bullying	**32%**	Invasion of privacy	12%	Stalking	4%
Challenging someone	17%	**Malicious mails**	**23%**	**Swearing**	**25%**
Embarrassing messages	9%	**Mean messages**	**26%**	Talking in capitals	11%
Fearful messages	**22%**	**Name calling**	**29%**	Telling others off	3%
Forming online gangs	9%	**Nasty messages**	**25%**	**Threatening messages**	**20%**
Grooming	6%	Online (Escalated) argument	16%	Ugly photo tags	16%
Hacking	4%	Phishing	3%	Violence	11%

As shown in Table 5.2, bullying, fearful messages, threatening messages, malicious messages, mean messages, nasty messages, name calling, phone and internet prank calls and swearing are in the highest frequency ratings compared to other exemplars. For the categories of the characteristics cyber-bullying generated features are presented in Figure 1.

Participants generated exemplars that they thought were common to the phenomenon of cyber-bullying. The listed exemplars were provided by three or more participants, for example in the case of bullying 32% of participants listed it as a common

exemplar to cyber-bullying. This is an interesting example because assumedly the first thing that should come to mind when someone is being asked about cyber-bullying is 'bullying' albeit through the use of ICT. Notwithstanding, it was most frequently mentioned and was thought to be worth presenting.

Figure 1, highlights the clusters that were derived from the characteristics of cyber-bullying. These categories were determined by the way participants listed the exemplars. For example where a participant had given a sentence like "cyber-bullies are low lives", or "they are just time wasters"; or instances where participants have stated that "cyber-bullies are low lives"; these direct descriptions of the contexts surrounding cyber-bullying have been used to arrive at the category clusters
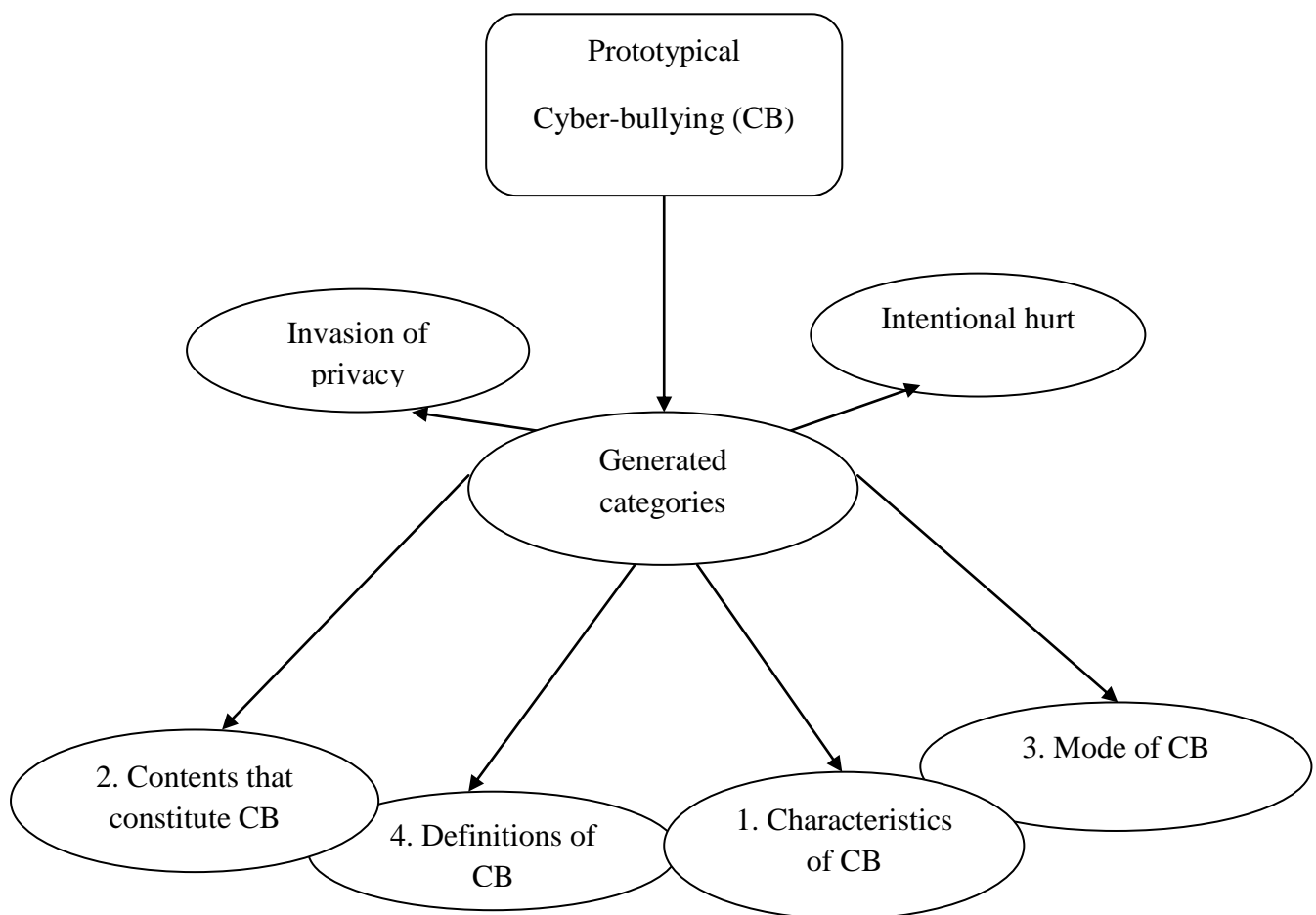
Figure 1: Characteristics and categories derived from generated features.

5.4.1 Characteristics of the cyber-bully

The features that described the characterisitics of the cyber-bully were derived from the exemplars listed by participants. Low self esteem, time wasters, angry people, sad people; cowards are lay attributes of those who cyber-bully others. Thus from this category and following participants' listed features, it is understood that from a lay perspective, cyber-bullies are time wasters, angry and mean people who have low self-esteem.

5.4.2 Contents that make up cyber-bullying

The features that described the contents of cyber-bullying are in Table 5.2. These are all the contents that are common as provided by participants. For instance, name calling, nasty messages, malicious mails; swear words and threatening messages are some of the contents that constitute cyber-bullying. Thus from this category and following participants' listed features, it is understood from a lay perspective, that name calling, malicious mails, swear words, nasty and threatening messages are contents that are used to cyber-bully others.

5.4.3 Mode of cyber-bullying

The modes of operation as regards to cyber-bullying were derived from the features listed by participants that suggests that invading one's private space, anonymity, breeching others' information, carrying rumours about others, forming online gangs against others, making prank phone calls, creating hate-pages and talking in bold fonts are methods used by cyber-bullies to bully others. Thus from this category and following participants listed features, it is understood that from a lay perspective, those who cyber-bully others are likely to hide their identities, invade other people's private space, breech other people's information, carry rumours, create hate-pages about others and communicate in bold fonts to their victims during their cyber-bullying act.

136

5.4.4   *Definition category*

The features that defined cyber-bullying were derived from the exemplars listed by participants. Bullying, constantly challenging someone over the internet and mobile phones, breeching other people's private information over the internet and mobile phones, sending mean messages to other people over the internet and mobile phones are exemplars that define cyber-bullying. Thus from this category and following participants listed features, it is understood from a lay perspective that cyber-bullying is bullying people over the internet and mobile phone.

5.4.5   *Other unclassified features*

Some exemplars listed by participants suggested no relevance to the phenomenon of cyber-bullying. One participant listed *article* as a feature, which did not correspond to the exemplar of cyber-bullying. One participant listed *bebo* as a feature which did not correspond to the exemplar of cyber-bullying. Thus following these unclassified cyber-bullying features, data were not categorised under cyber-bullying exemplars.

5.5 Discussion

The aim of this study was to ascertain common exemplars that were typical to cyber-bullying so as to understand features common to cyber-bullying. Several exemplars were listed by participants, a majority of these exemplars were mentioned by more than three participants, which was a criterion used in selecting an item as an exemplar of cyber-bullying.

The lay perspective gives an instantly simple definition of cyber-bullying *as "bullying over the internet and mobile phones"* just as defined by Olweus (2012). When most of the context given in the typical categories of cyber-bullying are put together, it then becomes clearer as defined by Belsey (2005) as *"the use of information and communication technologies such as e-mail, cell phone and pager text messages, instant messaging (IM),*

web sites, and defamatory online personal polling web sites, to support deliberate, repeated,
and hostile behavior by an individual or group, that is intended to harm others (p.1)".
However, when all the exemplars that form the typical categories are put together, the
definition becomes clearer and richer like the one given by Smith et al. (2008) *"an aggressive*
intentional act carried out by a group or individual, using electronic forms of contact,
repeatedly and over time against a victim who cannot easily defend him or herself" (p.376)
which includes Belsey's (2004) definition and the inclusion of the relationship imbalance
between or among those who are perpetrators and those who are victims. For instance in the
exemplar *forming online gangs against others* are situations which can be likened to power
imbalance as discussed in Chapters One, Three and Four.

Further to the approach that is used, the outcome of the generated features was similar
to that of other studies that have used the prototype approach in the sense that items that were
listed by more than three times have been retained for further analyses (e.g. as in Kearns &
Fincham, 2003; Le et al., 2008). Of the elements listed, bullying was the highest rated
exemplar of cyber-bullying. This is not surprising because cyber-bullying is bullying that
takes place on the online environment given a lay and simplistic way of viewing things.

Other exemplars that are high in frequencies are name calling, swear words, mean
messages, malicious comments, nasty messages, prank calls and threatening messages.
Threatening messages for example is a common feature in many researches that have
examined cyber-bullying among students (Lee et al., 2011), and among young adults (Keith
& Martin, 2004) and are used by perpetrators to instil *fears* (22%) in their victims (Smith et
al., 2008). Fear arguably brings about the imbalance of power relationship that gives the
perpetrator an edge over his victims. As understood in an account of bullying by Smith et al.
(2008, p.378): *'not many people would admit to it', 'because they get threatened if they told'.*
Thus it is not surprising for these exemplars to be rated among the top features of cyber-

bullying. Additionally swearing, malicious comments, and name calling are also the contents that have been reported in cyber-bullying literature as causing harm and psychological distresses to the targeted individuals (Keith & Martin, 2005).

Regarding the exemplar of *'challenging someone'* and how this relates to cyber-bullying literature, it is not a common content that has been listed in cyber-bullying literature. It could be that participants felt that constantly challenging someone via mobile phones and internet has a tendency of resulting in cyber-bullying. This assumption is made in the light of participants' demographic information, which suggests that more than 20% of participants send more than a hundred text messages on a weekly basis and 43% of them spend up to 50 hours using the computer for general communication purposes. Hence the reason why this was more frequent than other features such as intention to hurt (13%) and rumours (15%) and stalking (4%) which are frequently listed in cyber-bullying literature (e.g. Willard, 2007). It is worth stating that this assumption is only tentative given that no statistical test was carried out in this regard.

The emergence of cyber-bullying categories which was derived from the generated features was in line with Rosch's (1975) argument for the prototype analysis. According to Rosch the principles of category systems are to provide maximum information through structured information rather than as arbitrary or unpredictable attributes. The *"maximum information with least cognitive effort is achieved if categories map the perceived world structure as closely as possible ...by the mapping of categories to given attribute structures or by the definition or redefinition of attributes to render a given set of categories appropriately structured"* (p.2). Thus it is not coincidental that definitions, contents, modes, and characteristics clusters of cyber-bullying from a contextual overview were derived from this initial study of the prototype analysis conducted; bearing in mind also the combined instructions that were given to participants prior to generating exemplars.

Whilst the lay concept helps in simplifying definitions of a given social construct, it is worth acknowledging the laid down empirical principle, criteria and concept that guide a construct that gives it its mark and unique definition in the social environment (e.g. Smith et al.'s 2008 definition of cyber-bullying; Olweus, 1993 & Farrington, 1993 definitions of bullying). Nevertheless, understanding both simple and multifarious viewpoints contributes richness to social research and the construct under investigation.

The exemplars given by participants did not point to one feature as specific to cyber-bullying, rather a series of exemplars were given to demonstrate the common collective features that constitute cyber-bullying. Nevertheless, the generated exemplars did not only help in understanding and throwing more light to typical cyber-bullying situation, they also have helped in the provision of a sample of typical categories that are relevant to cyber-bullying (e.g. definition category, characteristics of cyber-bullies, the mode in which cyber-bullying operate and the kind of exemplars that are relevant in understanding cyber-bullying).

It is worth stating that the frequencies of the exemplars at this initial features' generation stage do not determine whether a particular item is central (core) to cyber-bullying. In order to ascertain core and central exemplars of cyber-bullying, one or two more analyses would need to be carried out (e.g. Rosch, 1975; Cantor & Mitchell, 1979; Ferh, 1998). Thus this study further extends into a second study where the central and peripheral exemplars of cyber-bullying will be examined.

5.6 Study Three: Determining central and peripheral exemplars of cyber-bullying (Prototype approach: Stage two).

5.6.1 Rationale

This study follows from the feature generation stage and its aim is to examine whether the generated exemplars provided by previous participants are central to cyber-bullying. According to previous researchers that have carried out central and peripheral examinations of their features generation stage, new sets of participants had been employed to ascertain whether the generated exemplars had any central or peripheral bearing on their measured construct (e.g. Gregg et al., 2010; Lambert et al., 2009).

In the centrality rating stage, items that are most frequent in the features' generation stage are expected to be rated higher by the new groups of participants and features that were of low frequency would be expected to be rated lower. The essence of the centrality approach is to determine the core exemplars of the investigated construct from the not too core ones. However it does not mean that the ones that are not rated high in the centrality rating stage are of no importance to the investigated construct. Rather, it means that some exemplars are more typical to the concept than others, given that both the peripheral and central exemplars were mentioned by three and more participants but with differing frequencies (Fehr, 2004; Canton & Mischel, 1979). Nevertheless, the highly rated exemplars are the *central* ones (Cantor & Mischel, 1979; Rosch, 1978; Kearns & Fincham, 2003).

As pointed out by Lambert et al. (2011), if individuals can demonstrate which exemplars are more central or more peripheral to the investigated concept in terms of their levels of agreement with one another, then the investigated construct is prototypically structured. In order words, if a true prototype structure exists, those who rate the investigated construct as central in each item will be in concordance regarding the items that have been

rated as central. For example, Kearns and Fincham (2003) employed 137 new participants to judge the centrality of their generated *forgiveness* exemplars; they found moderate correlations in the subsequent stage and their frequency of the generated exemplars ratings. This indicated that more frequent prototypes in their features' generation stage were scored slightly higher by different participants in their centrality rating stage.

Le et al. (2008) employed 138 new participants to further examine the centrality ratings of *romance* exemplars that were generated by a different group of participants. They found a strong correlation between the frequencies of generated exemplars and subsequent centrality ratings. This is another indication that those exemplars that were mostly listed in their initial stage were rated as highly typical for their investigated construct. Example of other studies that have found relationships between their initial and subsequent stages are Lambert et al. (2009); Gregg et al. 2010; and Fehr (2004).

Given the rationale behind the centrality stage of the prototype approach, this study in line with previous studies will recruit a different set of participants to rate generated exemplars derived from previous features' generation stage. Also in line with previous studies that have found relationships between generated exemplars and their subsequent ratings, it is hypothesised that:

> *H_1: participants will rate more frequent exemplars in the feature generation stage as central to cyber-bullying such that there will be a relationship between centrality and more frequent exemplars.*

> *H_2: there will be a relationship between the ranking of exemplars generated in stage one and the ranking in mean rating by stage two participants such that there will be an agreement in what items are peripheral and those that are central to cyber-bullying.*

5.6.2 Methodology

5.6.2.1 Design

This is a survey examining the relationship between frequency rating and the mean rating of central and peripheral features of cyber-bullying using bivariate correlational tests.

5.6.2.2 Participant

Participants comprised 132 undergraduate psychology students of Goldsmiths, University of London. Their participation was part of a yearly questionnaire scheme which awards credits towards their first year degree program. Participant information is presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Participants' information.

N=132; Median age 18-21 years old							
Ethnicity	**black**	10%	**white**	55%	**Asian**	21%	**Others**	14%
Age	**18-21**	74%	**22-30**	22%	**31-40**	2%	**41-50**	1%
Gender	**Male**	20%	**Female**	80%				

Further demographic details revealed that 29% of participants used their computers up to 20 hours per week for communication and social interaction purposes; 43% spend up to 50 hours per week; 16% spend up to 100 hours per week; and 12% spend more than 100 hours per week. With regard to the amount of text messages that participants sent, one participant did not send text messages, 18% of participants sent up to 20 text messages per week, 28% of participants sent up to 50 text messages per week, 26% of participants sent up to 100 text messages per week, and 27% of participants sent more than 100 text messages per week.

In terms of the amount of phone calls made by participants, 74% of participants made up to 20 mobile phone calls per week, 10% of participants made up to 50 phone calls per

week, 10% of participants made up to 100 phone calls per week, and 6% of participants made more than 100 phone calls per week.

5.6.2.3 Material

The method of data collection was through the selection of the 33 generated exemplars from the features' generation stage (refer to appendix 3 and see appendix 4). Each exemplar was numbered from one to 33. They were presented in single word format. However, in some cases it was necessary for some exemplars to be expanded on with a meaningful phrase; for example, with the exemplar *rude,* it was necessary to include in parenthesis [e.g. (*rude images and messages sent to people over the internet or mobile phones*)]. Another example where words were turned into a phrase is in the case of *tell-off* which was elaborated on with a supporting phrase *telling other people off via internet and mobile phones* These phrases were used as provided by participants in the features' generation stage, albeit with grammatical corrections where necessary.

Exemplars were constructed into a Likert-type scale questionnaire ranging from 1--*not typical* to 6--*very typical*. Previous research using prototype studies have employed the same method of data collection by transforming exemplars from their initial study to Likert-type scale questionnaire ranging from *1 not typical* up to *8 very typical* of their measured constructs (e.g. in Le et al., 2008; Lambert et al., 2011).

Exemplars were typed into an A4 word document paper and numbered from one to 33, with demographic information such as the rate of mobile phone use for text messages, phone calls and the use of computer for communication and social networking purposes, thereby forming a survey-like questionnaire (see appendix 4). The instructions given to participants were based on the method used by Kearns and Fincham (2003, p.844)

"In a previous study, we asked people to tell us their views of cyber-bullying. Specifically, we asked them to "list the characteristics or attributes of cyber-bullying that come to mind." Below are the responses of some of the people in our earlier study. Please read each of the descriptions of cyber-bullying below. After you have read each one, please rate how central or typical you think each of the features are to the concept of cyber-bullying".

At the bottom of the questionnaire was further information for participants to contact the author should they have any questions regarding this particular study.

As previously mentioned in features' generation stage, alongside using the generated exemplars as questionnaires, previous researchers had examined valence ratings to determine whether exemplars were positive or negative of the investigated construct in either their initial or subsequent stages (e.g. Le et al., 2008; Lambert et al., 2010; Gregg et al., 2010). However, this study did not follow this example as explained previously; thus, only the centrality ratings were requested from participants.

5.6.2.4 Procedure

Ethical approval was granted by the Department of Psychology's Research Ethics Committee at Goldsmiths, University of London. Participants were informed of confidentiality prior to the study, they were told that participating in the study was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time. Participants were informed that the questionnaires were not designed to cause harm or discomfort and if at any time they felt uncomfortable in carrying on with the study that they were free to withdraw from the study. They were also informed that their identities would be anonymous to those who read the material; and that their details would be treated in full confidence. Those who participated in this study had done so voluntarily. Two research assistants helped to distribute questionnaires to the participants.

5.6.2.4.1 Analysis procedure

Gathered data were entered onto SPSS, each exemplar was entered as a separate variable. Each participant's ratings of the various exemplars were also entered as individual variable scores. After all data had been inputted, exemplars were sorted alphabetically to ease analysis and further data cleaning was carried out prior to the main analyses. Where data had been entered incorrectly, they were corrected by examining the particular case for the respective participant's questionnaire and missing values were replaced using series means. Following data screening, the equivalent to the mean of all possible split-half correlations of the 132 participants with respect to the 33 exemplars was computed. Also the mean (and standard deviation) for each item was generated so that they could be associated with their corresponding frequency in the previous stage for hypotheses testing.

The frequency ratings attained in the features' generation stage were entered under a separate variable titled 'frequencies' alongside the mean ratings of all 33 exemplars. Mean and frequency were ranked so as to test the second hypothesis. Lastly, central and peripheral exemplars were determined by a median split (average of the mean rating) of exemplars alongside the *minimum* and *maximum* numbers of responses as shown in Table 5.4

5.6.3 Results

The mean ratings and standard deviations for generated features as well as the minimum and maximum selections for each feature are presented in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Stage One frequency ratings and Stage Two mean centrality ratings.

Exemplars	Mean rating	Frequency	Standard. D	Minimum	Maximum
Malicious mails	5.1	23	1.3	2	6
Nasty messages	5.1	25	1.5	1	6
Swearing	5.1	25	1.1	1	6
Bullying	5	32	1.3	1	6
Mean messages	5	26	1.2	1	6
Name calling	5	29	1.6	1	6
Fears	4.9	22	1	2	6
Forming online gangs	4.8	21	1.2	1	6
Harassment	4.8	10	1.3	1	6
Hate-page	4.8	9	1.2	1	6
Unnecessary arguments	4.8	16	1.1	1	6
Invasion of privacy	4.7	6	1.3	1	6
Rumours	4.7	15	1.3	1	6
Intentionally hurting someone with bad messages	4.6	13	1.2	1	6
Site misuse	4.6	8	1.4	1	6
Unnecessary mobile calls	4.6	13	1.3	1	6
Aggressive messages	4.5	8	1.4	1	6
Threats	4.5	20	1.4	1	6
Breach of information	4.4	15	1.2	1	6
Challenging messages	4.4	17	1.4	1	6
Harm	4.4	13	1.2	1	6
Embarrassing messages	4.3	15	1.2	1	6
Talking in capital letters	4.3	11	1.2	1	6
Anonymous messages	4.2	7	1.2	1	6
Violence	4.2	16	1.4	1	6
Abusive messages	4	9	1.3	1	6
Grooming	3.9	6	1.2	1	6
Stalking	3.9	4	1.4	1	6
Ugly bold photo tags	3.9	3	1.4	1	6
Hacking	3.8	4	1.1	1	6
Phishing	3.7	3	1.5	1	6
Rude images	3.2	8	1.4	1	6
Telling people off	3.2	3	1.1	1	6

There were three grounds that suggested acceptable reliability of these means. The first was the intraclass correlation coefficient which is an equivalent to the mean of all possible split-half correlations of the 132 valid participants that rated the centrality of the 33 exemplars (ICC=.93, p<.001; α=.91). The second was that there was a high correlation between the frequency of exemplars in the features' generation stage one and the mean rating in this study (r = .77, p<.001). This is an indication that participants' ratings of more frequent exemplars were in concordance with those that were rated in this study. Furthermore, there was a very high correlation between the ranking of exemplars in the features generation stage one, and the rank ordered mean centrality ratings by participants in this second stage (Spearman's rho= .82, p< .001). This is also an indication that the most frequent exemplars in stage one, were also those mostly rated as typical of cyber-bullying in this present study.

In order to determine the centrality and peripherality of exemplars, a median split of the means was computed (median=4.5). Thus, exemplars with a mean less than 4.5 were regarded as peripheral to cyber-bullying and those with a mean higher than 4.5 were regarded as central to cyber-bullying. It is worth noting however that this separation of prototypes does not suggest that there is a clear line demarcating central and peripheral prototypes rather centrality is considered to be a continuum. These exemplars are presented in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: Central and peripheral prototypes of exemplars.

Mean ratings of exemplars. Cut of Median point=4.4; SD=0.6							
High frequency in stage one in this are in asterisk				Low frequency from stage one in this group are in asterisk			
Peripheral features				**Central Features**		Nasty messages	X=5.1
Anonymity	X=4.2	Tell-off	X=3.2	Bullying	X=5	Rumours	X=4.7
*Breech of info	X=4.4	Argument	X=3.9	Hate-page	X=4.8	Swearing	X=5.1
Challenging	X=4.4	*violence	X=4.2	Fears	X=4.9	Threats	X=4.5
Grooming	X=3.9	Stalking	X=3.9	Online gangs	X=4.8	Ugly photos	X=4.8
Hacking	X=3.8	Rude images	X=3.2	Aggressive messages	X=4.5	Mobile prank calls	X=4.6
*Harm	X=4.4	Phishing	X=3.7	Intentional hurt	X=4.6	Name calling	X=5
Embarrassment	X=4.3	Abuse	X=4	Invasion of privacy	X=4.7	Mean messages	X=5
Talking in Caps	X=4.3			Malicious mails	X=5.1	Harassment	X=4.8
						Site miss-use	X=4.6

In total, there were 18 central features and 15 peripheral features of cyber-bullying.

5.6.4 General discussion

The aim of this second stage prototype approach was to determine items that are central and peripheral to cyber-bullying and also to see whether there is a relationship between the generated features and their subsequent ratings. The hypotheses that participants will rate more frequent items as central to cyber-bullying and that there will be a relationship in the ranking of generated exemplars and exemplar ratings were accepted. This result follows similar findings that more frequently listed features were rated as more central feature of the phenomenon under investigation using prototype analyses (e.g. Kearns & Fincham, 2003; Le et al., 2008).

Some exemplars, although high in frequency, were not rated as central to the cyber-bullying phenomenon. For instance "constantly challenging someone", "being anonymous to send horrible messages to others", "harmful message contents", "talking in capital letters", and "violence" were classed as peripheral exemplars of cyber-bullying. A closer look at these exemplars indicate that they were not among the top rated ones in the features' generation stage, neither were they among the bottom rated exemplars. Thus being peripheral to cyber-bullying also indicates that they are prototypes that can be related to cyber-bullying situation. This is in line with other researchers' point of view regarding peripheral exemplars (e.g. Fehr, 1988; Kearns & Fincham, 2003). However, central exemplars are core prototypes of the construct of cyber-bullying. Some of these exemplars, for instance "nasty messages", "bullying", "frightening messages (fear)", "malicious mails", "name calling", "using swear words", "mean messages", and "threatening messages" were more frequent than other exemplars in the initial features' generation stage and also rated as central to cyber-bullying in this centrality stage. What this means according to the approach used is that these exemplars are very typical to the phenomenon of cyber-bullying. These central exemplars are in agreement with finding in cyber-bullying literature that has found malicious and mean messages, name calling and swear words to be the contents used by cyber-bullies to embarrass and humiliate their targets (Keith & Martin, 2005; Smith et al., 2008; Willard, 2007a, 2007b & 2007c).

Some of the peripheral features (e.g. anonymity) have also been recognised in the cyber-bullying literature (e.g. Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008) and also reported as a mode of operation in cases of online griefing, cyber-harassment, cyber-stalking and cyber-abuse (Chesney et al., 2009; Wolak et al., 2009; Wolak et al., 2007; Oglivie, 2004; Regehr, 2010). Sevcikova and Smahel (2009), for example, had specifically referred to online aggression as cyber-bullying due to reported presence of anonymity. Going by other research

that has also reported anonymity, it is plausible to assert that anonymity is not cyber-bullying specific. In instances where group ostracism is involved in online chat rooms and other social networking sites, anonymity may not be present. This can also be related to instances of direct bullying where the perpetrators have not bothered to hide their identities (e.g. Keith & Martin, 2005). Perhaps not being a core exemplar of cyber-bullying is a possible explanation for the protracted debate in cyber-bullying literature regarding its application as power imbalance. To the author's knowledge none of the central exemplars has raised such a debate as this peripheral one.

Invasion of privacy was not as frequently mentioned as some of the highly rated exemplars by participants, but emerged as a central exemplar of cyber-bullying. Perhaps participants thought that it was a very typical mode of operation in cyber-bullying situations. It could be argued that it bears resemblance to the concept of imbalance of power in the traditional form of bullying, where it is common for perpetrators to impede on targets' space at will (Olweus, 1989; Sutton et al., 1999; Salmivalli et al., 1996). With regard to cyber-bullying, this can be translated to mean that the instigators have invaded on the privacy of the targets. However, this assumption would have to be empirically tested in order to make such assertions, or award such credit to *invasion of privacy* as power imbalance in cyber-bullying literature.

Unnecessary argument that is being carried over to the internet and mobile phones (resulting into cyber-bullying) is another exemplar that came up as peripheral. This finding partially supports research that has found that cyber-bullying occurs as a result of on-going events of traditional forms of bullying (Hinduja & Patchin, 2011; Tokunaga, 2010; Olweus, 2012). The word support is used with caution going by the fact that the exemplar is a part of many exemplars that tries to elucidate cyber-bullying situation and thus was not tested on an individual basis. However, it gives more insight into Olweus (2012) and other researchers

assertions that prevalence rate of cyber-bullying is as a result of traditional victimisation. However, it has been argued by Smith (2012) that there was an increase in cyber-bullying from around 2000 to 2006, but no evidence for an increase in the last few years. It might be as pointed out by Smith (2012) to Olweus's assertion, that cyber-bullying is a less frequent phenomenon when compared to traditional forms of bullying. Nevertheless, there has been noticeable increase in its frequency as a result of the advent of ICT (Smith, 2012; Kite et al., 2010); which may be due to the overlap between cyber-bullying and traditional bullying (e.g. as reported by Tokunaga, 2010; Patchin & Hinduja, 2011). Or which may involve cases where perpetrators have not physically met their victims but 'know' and bully them via social networking sites (Bargh & McKenna, 2004; Kite et al., 2010; Wolak et al., 2004; 2007).

It is worth pointing out some of the advantages and disadvantages of the approach used in this chapter. First, a disadvantage of the current method is that in the features' generation stage one, it is likely that participants at the time of generating exemplars were not able to remember those exemplars that were common to cyber-bullying construct. This situation is likely to reduce the frequency rating of exemplars that could have been central to cyber-bullying.

Another disadvantage which is related to the first is that during data coding, if a particular item had not been mentioned by three or more participants, those exemplars were discarded. This method of data processing is arguably likely to discard core exemplars for the same reason as stated above.

One of the strengths of the approach is including lay people's concept and perspective to social research. As pointed out by researchers who have used this approach, and given the exemplars derived from the current study, it is plausible to assert that using lay concept is important to social research. This assertion is made because not only will the lay perspective give a different viewpoint on an almost every day construct as cyber-bullying, it will also

help in simplifying definitions and give a wider and richer meaning to the investigated phenomenon through derived categories and characteristics. From the findings in these two stages of the prototype approach, there seems to be useful and theoretical reasons why it is important to understand the laypersons' concept of cyber-bullying so that the growing debate regarding cyber-bullying definition and concept can be viewed differently by experts in this field. This different perspective might help in the attempt to reach a universal definition specific to cyber-bullying with regards to the concept of power imbalance. For example, with regards to *invasion of privacy, hate-page* and *forming online gangs* as earlier suggested, these exemplars can be well understood in cyber-bullying domain using Salmivalli's (2010, p .113) recommendations that *"thinking of how the group is involved in bullying is in a way "returning to the roots",* rather than the concept of *media expertise* or the breadth of audience that has been used to explain power imbalance; and have been subject of rising debate in cyber-bullying literatures (e.g. Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008).

Another strength of this study, as compared to some other prototype approaches, is the introduction of research hypotheses in the centrality rating stage. This gives the present study a purpose and intention. There is also the combination of instructions in the features' generation stage to participants which help them to fully understand what is required of them during the survey. Also with this approach, cyber-bullying can be seen from different perspectives of those who cyber-bully, those who have been cyber-bullied and those who have neither been cyber-bullied nor been cyber-victims. Hence, the characteristics of the cyber-bully cluster, the mode of operation of cyber-bullying and the contents that constitute cyber-bullying.

Nevertheless, as with the prototype approach, it is not posited that a single exemplar or all the generated exemplars in this study are the only core exemplars that constitute cyber-bullying. It is suggested that researchers in this area of interest replicate this method so as to

153

further determine other prototypes that constitute core exemplars of cyber-bullying. Lastly, following the rationale behind Rosch (1973) use of the prototype approach, it is suggested that using this method for cyber-bullying research is worthwhile. This is because knowing the features that are common and those that are central to cyber-bullying from a lay perspective will hopefully help policy makers and practitioners further understand the phenomenon better. Researchers can also draw together findings from theoretical and practical perspectives which may better inform their understanding of cyber-bullying phenomenon. In conclusion, the use of the prototype process can add to the cyber-bullying literature and open further room for debate in the cyber-aggression domain.

Chapter Six

Recall and recognition memory experiments: A validation of central prototypes of cyber-bullying.

6.1 Rationale

The study in this chapter will further validate prototypes that were derived from the feature generation stage and centrality rating stage in Chapter Five. It will also test the prior assumptions made that if cyber-bullying is prototypically organised, its prototypes (exemplars) would affect cognition. As pointed out by Kearns and Fincham (2003), prototypic structure should affect one's performance on recall and recognition memory tasks because the *"activation of a prototype causes features closely associated with that prototype to be more easily accessible in memory than features that are not as closely associated"* (p.845). Clarifying this assumption further, Cantor and Mischel's (1977, p.39) elucidate the importance of recall and memory tasks in prototype approach thus, "…*prototype seems to function as a standard around which a body of input is compared and in relation to which new input is assimilated into the set of items remembered about a given experience or list of stimuli"*. Thus, items which are prototypically organised will be recalled and new prototypically organised items falsely recognised if the phenomenon that they belong to were to be activated and tested.

The main purpose of a memory task in the prototype approach is to test the hypotheses that participants would falsely recall and recognise central trait exemplars that are related to a given construct more than they would recall and recognise those exemplars which are not central, if the investigated phenomenon or construct were to be prototypically understood (Rosch, 1978; Rosch & Mervis, 1976). Thus prototype studies have included both

recall and recognition tasks to test further core exemplars in their investigated constructs (e.g. in Lapsley & Lasky, 2001, Kearns & Fincham, 2003, Lambert et al., 2011, Le et al., 2008).

Some studies that have utilised the recall and recognition tasks using a prototype approach have recruited two groups of participants to test their hypotheses. They have included an acquisition phase where participants were randomly selected into groups and shown different sets of exemplars. Following the acquisition phase, participants were instructed to recall exemplars after they had participated in a series of interference tasks. The number of prototypes shown per group and the kind of interference tasks depends on an individual researcher's method and procedure. For example, Lambert et al. (2011) showed two groups of participants 12 different exemplars that consisted of six central and six peripheral prototypes. Afterwards, each group of participants was instructed to write about their daily routine in an interference task. Lambert et al. did not state how much time was given to participants for the interference tasks. However in the case of Kearns and Fincham (2003), participants were told to list in four minutes, American states in alphabetical order; and recall in three minutes as many of the exemplars that were shown to them as possible.

Following the recall phase, is a recognition task phase where participants are expected to identify more central exemplars related to the investigated construct. In Lapsley and Lasky (2001) for instance, after giving two different groups of participants ten central and ten peripheral exemplars in their acquisition phases, they presented 40 exemplars to participants and instructed them to identify whether they had previously been presented with those exemplars.

Thus following the rationale behind a prototype approach with regards to memory tasks and cognition, this study further assumes that if cyber-bullying is prototypically organised, then its exemplars when presented to participants for recall purposes should later affect participants' cognition when they are instructed to either recognise or recall those

156

exemplars. Also in line with the rationale for conducting prototype studies, it is assumed that when cyber-bullying prototypes are activated, participants will find it difficult to distinguish between central exemplars of cyber-bullying that will be presented during an acquisition phase and other central exemplars of cyber-bullying that will not be presented but are closely related with the concept of cyber-bullying. Peripheral exemplars of cyber-bullying will be much easier to distinguish because they are less closely related with cyber-bullying, which means that central exemplars should be much more noticeable in memory than peripheral ones. It is therefore expected that participants will correctly recognise central exemplars and recall them more (e.g. according to Cantor & Mischel, 1979; Ferh, 1988; Rosch, 1975).

This study follows previous studies that have employed the prototype approach on recognition and recall tasks (e.g. Lambert et al., 2011). It will investigate whether the central exemplars of cyber-bullying obtained from the research described in Chapter Five will affect cognition. Two groups will be used to determine what exemplars are central and common to cyber-bullying. The purpose of having two groups is so that each group would be shown half the exemplars. In subsequent stages each group participants' memory would be tested by showing them all the exemplars by asking them which ones they had seen (as in Kearns & Fincham, 2003; Lambert et al., 2011).

Each group of participants would have a valid list of false exemplars that participants did not see and a valid list of exemplars that they had previously seen. Prototypes would be matched so that each group has a list of exemplars that contain an equal number of the most central words and peripheral words. At the point when participants would be asked to recognise exemplars, had they not been divided into groups and if everyone had seen all of the words and they were shown the exemplars which they have seen before, it would be quite a trivial exercise. It would also have meant that participants get shown all the exemplars again, however with some other exemplars which are not related to cyber-bullying. Either

157

way it would be a relatively simple matter for the participants to work out which ones they had seen before. Even if they did not get it exactly right, they would not be likely to make enough mistakes to give useful results. This can only work with two groups, hence the purpose of having two groups.

Further it might be worth exploring whether there are age and gender differences in the recall and recognition of exemplars of cyber-bullying, given that some studies have found age (e.g. Tokunaga, 2010; Schneider et al., 2012) and gender (Smith et al., 1999) differences in bullying and cyber-bullying situations. Specifically, it has been argued that females are more likely than males to partake in indirect forms of aggression (e.g. McGuckin, Cummins & Lewis, 2010; Björkqvist et al., 1994, Li et al., 2011). Following this assertion, it might be of interest to see whether there is gender difference in the recall and recognition of cyber-bullying prototypes. Furthermore, whilst some studies have found age differences in cyber-bullying, others have indicated no age difference. Thus it might be of interest also to explore this with regards to recall and recognition tasks in this current study.

6.1.1 Hypotheses:

Recall experiment

H_1*: For presented exemplars, those which are central will be recalled more often than those which are peripheral.*

H_{2a}*: There will be a gender difference in the recall of exemplars.*

H_{2b}*: There will be an age difference in the recall of exemplars.*

Recognition experiment

H_{3a}*: For the presented items, central exemplars will be recognised more often than peripheral exemplars.*

H_{3b}: Central exemplars which were not presented to participants at acquisition phase will be falsely recognised (recalled) more than peripheral exemplars.

H_{3c}: There will be a gender difference in the recognition of exemplars.

H_{3d}: There will be an age difference in the recognition of exemplars.

6.2   Methodology

6.2.1   Design

Series of Mixed ANOVAs using gender, age and group as independent variables and recall and recognition scores of exemplars as dependent variables, explication of variables are further discussed in the *analysis procedure*.

6.2.2   Participants

N=84. Participants were first year undergraduate students of Psychology at Goldsmiths, University of London. They were recruited through a yearly questionnaire pool, through which they were awarded credits towards their first year undergraduate study. Seventy-three per cent of participants were 18 to 21years old and 27% were 22 to 30 years old. Thirty per cent of participants were male. On average, participants reported making up to 20 phone calls per week, sending up to 50 text messages per week and using the internet more than 20 hours per week for general communication purposes. Thus participants were conversant with the use of Information Communication Technology (ICT).

6.2.3 Material

The material was derived from the third study described in the centrality ratings stage in Chapter Five on central and peripheral exemplars. There were a total of 33 exemplars (18 central and 15 peripheral exemplars) as rated by 132 participants in Chapter Five centrality study (Tables 5.4 & 5.5). Exemplars were individually entered onto a Microsoft PowerPoint

file with the same statements that were presented to participants in Chapter Five centrality rating stage (refer to appendix 4).

Table 6.1 highlights matched exemplars in each group, this was done so that each group of participants could have equal number of central and peripheral exemplars according to centrality and peripherality ratings. As shown in Table 6.1, equal numbers of central and peripheral exemplars were given to each group, in total there were five exemplars unassigned to either of the group (four central & one peripheral). Thus, the material contained seven central and seven peripheral exemplars for each group of participants for the recall experiments. In total there were 14 exemplars for each of the groups to view during the acquisition tasks. For the recognition experiment however, all of the 33 exemplars including the initially excluded ones were presented to participants.

Materials used for the experiments were individual computers in the psychology laboratory for participants to view the slides during the experiments. Answer sheets were designed in the form of a questionnaire (see appendix 5) so that participants could enter their demographic details, write down recalled exemplars, and answer 'yes' or 'no' to whether or not they had seen each exemplar in the recognition task.

Table 6.1: Groups One and Two matched exemplars for recall and recognition experiments.

Group one				Group two			
Central		**Peripheral**		**Central**		**Peripheral**	
Nasty messages	X=5.1	Breach of info	X=4.4	Malicious mails	X=5.1	Harm	X=4.4
Bullying	X=5	Hate-page	X=4.3	Mean messages	X=5	Challenging Messages	X=4.4
Swearing	X=5.1	Violence	X=4.2	Name calling	X=5	Talking in Caps	X=4.3
Embarrassment	X=4.8	Abusive messages	X=4	Fears	X=4.9	Anonymity	X=4.2
Online gangs	X=4.8	Grooming	X=3.9	Harassment	X=4.8	Stalking	X=3.9
Ugly photos	X=4.8	Hacking	X=3.8	Invasion of privacy	X= 4.7	Argument	X=3.9
Rumours	X=4.7	Rude images	X=3.2	Intentional hurt	X=4.6	Phishing	X=3.7

Unassigned exemplars used only for
recognition experiment and analysed as % in FRC & FRP

Site miss-use (x=4.6)	Telling others off (x=3.2)		Threats (=4.6)
Mobile prank calls (x=4.5)		Aggressive messages (x=4.5)	

6.2.4 Procedure

Participants were informed of the experiment by the course leader responsible for awarding credits towards first year undergraduate Degree. Further reminder e-mails were sent out to participants by the department's administrative staff regarding the time and place of the experiment. Participants were informed that the experiment was not conducted to cause any harm or distress to them and that if at any point during the experiment they felt uncomfortable, they were free to stop participating. Participants were informed that their details would be kept in strict confidence and that they would remain anonymous to potential readers, reviewers and examiners of this study.

For random selection into experimental groups, participants were selected according to their sitting positions following their arrival in the psychology laboratory. For example, the participant that sat at the edge of the first row was used to alternate the sequence for

participants' random selection, such that the first participant was selected into a group and the person next to the first participant was selected into another group. The first set of participants that took part in the experiment were referred to as 'group one' and the second set of participants were referred to as 'group two'.

Group one and group two experiments were conducted in the same Psychology laboratory at different times. After the initial sorting of participants into groups, they were informed that taking part in the study was optional and voluntary.

Before the experiment, answer sheets were distributed to each participant. They were instructed that they would shortly be presented with series of slides. Participants were also told to pay attention to the exemplars that would be displayed on their screens. At the start of the experiment, participants were told that each exemplar would appear on the screen for four seconds and that following the slide shows, the investigators would give them further instructions. Finally participants were instructed to concentrate on the slides that would appear on their computer screen.

For group one, seven central and seven peripheral exemplars' slides were played. For group two, a different set of seven central and seven peripheral slides in a single random sequence were played. Each group viewed 14 slides respectively. This procedure was in line with previous research on prototype analyses that have used equal numbers of peripheral and central exemplars for their recall experiments (e.g. Kearns & Fincham, 2003; Le et al., 2008 2008). Each group slide was displayed for four seconds. It took around one minute to run individual group slides. After playing the individual 14 slides to each group respectively, participants were instructed to partake in an interference task. The interference task was similar to that used by Kearns and Fincham (2003); however instead of instructing participants to write in alphabetical order the states in America, participants were instructed to list in five

minutes as many European countries as possible. Participants were further instructed to recall as many of the prototypes that were previously shown to them in the acquisition phase.

Following the recall task, each group of participants was presented with the same set of 14 exemplars that they had previously seen, along with other exemplars that they had not seen and were not presented to them at the acquisition phase. Thus each group of participants saw the entire 33 exemplars which consisted of 18 central and 15 peripheral prototypes. Each participant was therefore exposed to 19 exemplars that he or she had not previously seen. Like in the acquisition phase, each slide was played on Microsoft PowerPoint for four seconds. For each statement, participants were asked to indicate whether they had previously seen the statement by ticking either '*yes, I have previously seen this statement*' to '*no I have not previously seen this statement*'. Participants were thanked for participating in the study and they were given the opportunity to ask any questions they may have regarding the study. Finally, given the uneven spread in age, participants' age was recoded into 18 to 21 and 22+

6.2.4.1 Analysis procedure

Following data collection, all the answer sheets were numbered according to the number of participants that took part in the experiment. Recalled exemplars were inputted into a Microsoft Excel 2010 file and were individually typed out into the same file according to participants' number. Concurrently with typing the recalled exemplars into file, each exemplar was coded on individual questionnaires with a pen alongside those exemplars which were recalled but were not part of the presented prototypes at the acquisition phase. After recalled items had been sorted out on Microsoft excel file, data were transferred unto SPSS with each participants' scores alongside their demographic details such as age, gender, and the use of mobile phones and internet for communication purposes. The recalled

exemplars which were not given to participants that were added by participants were discarded.

In order to test the first hypothesis that participants would recall more central features than peripheral ones. A 2(Group: one and two) x 2(Features: central and peripheral) Mixed ANOVA was conducted with group as between subjects factor and features as within subjects factor.

In order to test hypotheses two 'a' and 'b' for age and gender differences in the recall of exemplars. A 2(age: 18-21; 22+ years old) x 2 (Gender: male & female) x 2 (features: central & peripheral) 3 way mixed ANOVA was conducted using gender and age as between subjects factor and exemplars as within subjects factor.

Participants' demographic details such as the number of phone calls made per week, text messages sent per week and time spent on the internet socialising did not correlate with the dependent variables, therefore ANCOVA analyses were not considered to be necessary.

Due to the fact that more exemplars were presented to participants at the recognition phase than were presented to them at the acquisition phase (i.e. included the five exemplars that were excluded from acquisition phase i.e. Table 6.1), the percentages for each group participants' scores on falsely recognised exemplars were used for analysis. For example, falsely recognised central exemplars were divided by eleven and multiplied by one hundred, falsely recognised peripheral exemplars were divided by eight and multiplied by one hundred.

In order to ascertain the actual number of correctly recognised central exemplars and peripheral exemplars, four variables were created: *truly recalled central exemplars* (TRC), *truly recalled peripheral exemplars* (TRP), *falsely recalled central exemplars* (FRC) and *falsely recalled peripheral exemplars* (FRP) for each group of participants. All exemplars that were reported to have been seen by participants were entered as *1* and those that

participants reported not to have seen were entered as *0*. This was so that accurate accounts of truly seen central and peripheral exemplars in each group were validated by adding up the scores for each exemplar on the condition that they met the total sum of TRC, TRP; FRC and FRP. The same procedure was repeated for group two exemplars. Thus, all the sums of scores of what participants saw and reported to have seen corresponded with the total scores of all the exemplars (e.g. TRC, TRP, FRC & FRP). In order to compare scores on truly recalled exemplars (TRE) and falsely recalled exemplars (FRE), percentage scores of TRC and TRP were used for comparison and interaction with FRC and FRP.

In order to test H_{3a-d} a 2(age: 18-21; 22+) x 2(gender: male; female) x 2(Truly recalled/recognised exemplars: TRC & TRP) x 2(Falsely recalled/recognised exemplars: FRC & FRP) 4 way Mixed ANOVA was conducted using exemplars as within subjects factors and age and gender as between subjects factors. Follow up analyses were conducted and controlled for multiple comparison using α=.05.

6.3   Results

6.3.1 *Recall exemplars (H_1): Central and peripheral recollection.*

The means and Standard Deviations for all recalled central and peripheral features are presented in Table 6.2 and Figure 2. Significant mean differences are asterisked.

Table 6.2: Descriptive statistics for recalled exemplars.

Groups and exemplars		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Central exemplars	Group 1	4.4	1.7	60
	Group 2	3.9	1.9	29
	Total mean	*4.2*	*1.8*	*89*
Peripheral exemplars	Group 1	1.9	1.3	60
	Group 2	1.4	1.1	29
	Total mean	*1.7*	*1.3*	*89*

Mixed ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of exemplars recalled $F(1,87) =118.8$, $p<.001$. Participants recalled more central exemplars (X=4.2; SD=1.8) than they recalled peripheral exemplars (X=1.7, SD=1.3). Additionally, there was a trend in the recall of exemplars among the groups but failed to reach a statistical significance $F(1,87) =3.4$, $p=.069$ Figure 2 illustrates the mean difference between the central recalled and peripheral recalled exemplars.
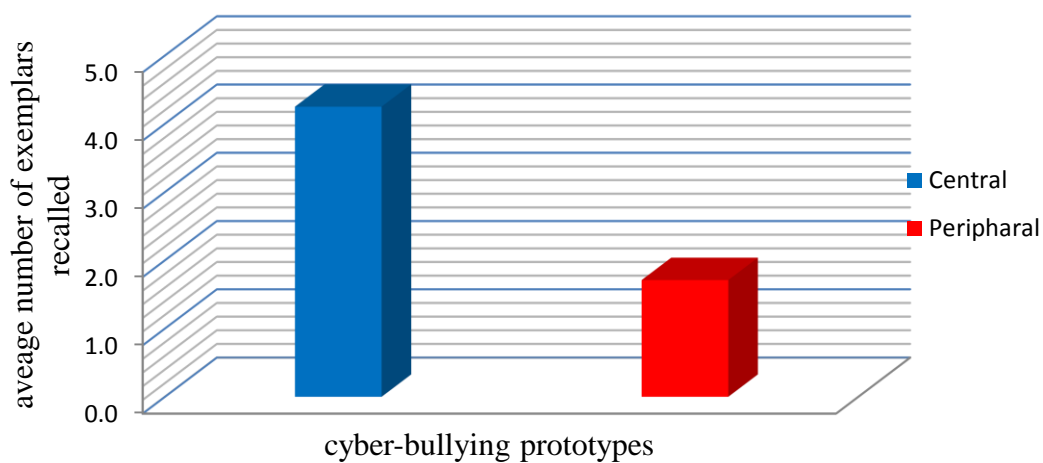
Figure 2: Recall of exemplars by centrality and peripherality.

For information purposes only, participants in group one significantly recalled more central exemplars (X=4.4; SD=1.7) than they recalled peripheral exemplars (X=1.9; SD=1.3) [$t(59)$=10.3, $p<.001$)]. Additionally, participants in group two significantly recalled more central exemplars (X=3.9; SD=1.9) than they recalled peripheral exemplars (X=1.4; SD=1.1) [$t(28)$=5.8, $p<.001$)].

6.3.2 Recall exemplars (H_{2a} & H_{2b}): Age and gender differences on recall of central and peripheral exemplars.

The mean and standard deviation of age and gender on recall memory tasks are presented in Table 6.3. Significant differences between the central and peripheral exemplars are represented by asterisks in Table 6.3

Table 6.3: Descriptive statistics for age and gender differences on recalled exemplars.

Age			Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Central exemplars	18-21 years old	male	3.2	1.7	18
		female	4.6	1.7	43
		Total	**4.2**	**1.9**	**61**
	22+	male	3.3	1.1	7
		female	4.8	1.3	15
		Total	**4.3**	**1.4**	**22**
		male	3.2	1.7	25
		female	4.6	1.7	58
		Total	*4.2*	*1.8*	*83*
Peripheral exemplars	18-21 years old	male	1.4	1.3	18
		female	1.8	1.3	43
		Total	**1.8**	**1.4**	**61**
	22+ years old	male	1.1	0.9	7
		female	1.8	1.1	15
		Total	**1.6**	**1.1**	**22**
		male	1.4	1.3	25
		female	1.8	1.3	58
		Total	*1.7*	*1.3*	*83*

6.3.3 Recalled exemplars by gender

The ANOVA indicated a statistically significant main effect of gender $F(1, 79) = 11.0$, $p < .001$. Females (X=4.6; SD= 1.7) recalled significantly more central features than males (X=3.2; SD=1.7). For information purposes only, generally, females recalled significantly more central features (X=4.6, SD=1.7) than they recalled peripheral features (X=1.8, SD=1.3), $t(57) = 10.5$, $p < .001$. Males also significantly recalled more central features (X=3.2; SD=1.7) than they recalled peripheral ones (X=1.4; SD=1.3), [$t(24) = 4.8$, $p < .001$)].

6.3.4 Recalled exemplars by age

The ANOVA did not indicate any statistically significant main effect of age $F(1, 79) = 0.02$, *NS*. There were also no significant interaction effects indicated between the variables $F(1,79) = 0.15$, *NS*.

However, for information purposes, a file split by age with paired sample t-tests conducted on exemplars using central and peripheral exemplars as dependent variables indicated that generally, 18 to 21 years old recalled significantly more central features (X=4.2, SD=1.9) than they recalled peripheral features (X=1.8; SD=1.4), [$t(64) = 8.9$, $p < .001$)]. 22+ also recalled significantly more central features (X=4.3; SD=1.4), than they recalled peripheral features (X=1.6; SD=1.1), [$t(23) = 9.3$, $p < .001$)].

6.3.5 Recognition of exemplars (4 Way Mixed ANOVA)

The means and standard deviation for truly recognised exemplars (TRE) and falsely recognised exemplars (FRE) alongside age and gender differences are presented in Tables 6.4

Table 6.4: Truly recalled central and peripheral exemplars.

TRE	Age	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation
TRC	18-21 years old	Male (n=18)	5.3	1.7
		Female (n=43)	6.7	1.3
		Total mean (N=61)	*5.2*	*1.7*
	22+	Male (n=7)	5.2	1.7
		Female (n=15)	6.3	2.1
		Total mean (N=22)	*6.4*	*1.8*
	Total	Male (n=25)	5.2	1.6
		Female (n=58)	6.4	1.9
		Total Mean (N=83)	*5.5*	*1.7*
TRP	18-21 years old	Male (n=18)	3.7	1.2
		Female (n=43)	3.9	1.4
		Total mean (N=61)	*3.7*	*1.3*
	22+	Male (n=7)	4.0	1.4
		Female (n=15)	4.3	1.5
		Total mean (N=22)	*4.2*	*1.2*
	Total	Male (n=25)	4.0	1.3
		Female (n=58)	4.1	1.3
		Total mean (N=83)	*4.0*	*1.3*

6.3.5.1   Truly recognised exemplars (TRE)

The ANOVA indicated a statistically significant main effect of TRE $F(1,79)=22.2$, $p<.001$; and FRE $F(1, 79)=11.0$, $p=.001$. However, there were no indicated statistical significant main interactions between the variables $F(1,79)=1.7$, *NS*.

169

There were no indicated interactions between TRE and FRE $F(1,79)=1.3$, *NS*; no indicated significant interactions between age, TRE and FRE $F(1,79)=1.0$, *NS*; no indicated significant interactions between gender, TRE and FRE $F(1,79)=1.0$, *NS;* and finally no indicated four way interactions among the variables $F(1,79)=0.5$, *NS*.

6.3.5.1.1   *Truly recognised exemplars (TRE)*

Following ANOVAs indication regarding statistical significance in recognition of exemplars, Pairwise t-tests controlling for multiple comparisons were conducted with TRC and TRP as variables. The result indicated that participants recognised more central exemplars (X=5.5; SD=1.7) than they recognised peripheral exemplars (X=4.0; SD=1.3). [($t(88)=6.5,p<.001$)].

6.3.5.1.2   *Age and gender differences on TRE*

There was an indicated statistical significant main effect of age $F(1, 79)=13.4$, $p<=.001$. 22+ (year olds) participants (X=6.4; SD= 1.8) recognised significantly more central exemplars than 18 to 21 year olds (X=5.2; SD=1.7). For information purposes and determining simple effects on recognition of exemplars by age, 18 to 21 year olds' significantly recognised central (X=5.2, SD=1.7) and peripheral exemplars (X=3.7; SD=1.3) exemplars that they had truly seen $t(64)=5.1$, $p<.001$. Additionally, 22+ recognised more central (X=6.4, SD=1.8) than peripheral exemplars (X=4.2, SD=1.2) that they had truly seen $t(23)=4.7$, $p<.001$.

There were no reported main effect of gender $F(1,79)=0.1$, *NS* and no significant interactions among the variables $F(1, 79)=0.3$, *NS*.

Descriptive statistics for FRE are presented in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: Falsely recalled central and peripheral exemplars.

FRE	Age	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation
FRC	18-21 years old	Male (n=17)	57	25
		Female (n=38)	52.3	21
		Total mean (N=55)	*51*	*21*
	22+ years old	Male (n=7)	71.6	9.9
		Female (n=15)	61.8	17.5
		Total mean (N=22)	*64*	*16*
	Total	Male (n=24)	57.4	23.2
		Female (n=53)	55.0	20.2
		Total mean (N=77)	*52.8*	*22.2*
FRP	18-21 years old	Male (n=17)	37.1	18.2
		Female (n=38)	45.0	20.5
		Total mean (N=55)	*42.6*	*20.0*
	22+ years old	Male (n=7)	61.2	32.4
		Female (n=15)	50.0	19.4
		Total mean (N=22)	*53.6*	*24.1*
	Total	Male (n=24)	44.1	25.1
		Female (n=53)	46.4	20.2
		Total mean (N=77)	*43*	*23*

6.3.5.1.3 Falsely recognised exemplars

Following the indicated statistical significant main effect of FRE $F(1,79) = 15$, $p=.001$. Participants falsely recognised more central exemplars (X=52.8, SD=22.2) than they falsely recognised peripheral exemplars (X=43; SD=23). There were no indicated significant main effect of gender on the recognition of FRE, $F(1, 79)=0.5$, *NS*. However, there was a statistically significant main effect of age $F(1, 79)=12.1$, $p<.001$.

6.3.5.1.4. Age and gender difference on FRE

22+ year olds (X=64, SD=16) falsely recalled more central exemplars than 18 to 21 years old (X=51, SD=21).

With regards to gender differences in the recognition of exemplars, there was no indicated gender difference in falsely recalled exemplars $F(1,79) = 0.5$, *NS*.

Overall the 4 Way Mixed ANOVA did not indicate any interactions between the variables, nor were there any indicated statistical significant four way interaction $F(1, 79) =0.5$, NS.

6.4   Discussion

The hypotheses that participants would recall more central exemplars than peripheral ones; and that there would be a gender difference in the recall of exemplars were accepted based on the findings. However the hypothesis that there would be age difference with respect to recall of cyber-bullying exemplars was rejected. Thus the null hypothesis for H_{2b} is accepted. However within each age group, participants recalled more central exemplars than they recalled peripheral exemplars. Generally, participants recalled more central exemplars of cyber-bullying than they recalled peripheral exemplars. Further with regards to recognition of exemplars, the hypotheses that participants would recognise more central exemplars and that they would falsely recall central exemplars were accepted. Additionally, the hypothesis that there will be age difference in the recognition of exemplar was also accepted. However the

null hypothesis was accepted regarding the hypothesis that there would be a gender difference in participants' recognition of exemplars. Generally, participants recalled and recognised central exemplars than they did peripheral exemplars.

It is plausible to assert that 'swear words'; 'name calling', 'abusive messages, 'malicious mails', 'hate-page' 'ugly distorted photo tags; 'forming online gangs' and 'bullying' are core prototypes of cyber-bullying. This assertion is made because these exemplars were rated higher in terms of frequencies than other exemplars in features generation stage in Chapter Five. They were also rated as central exemplars of cyber-bullying in the centrality rating stage. Lastly, they were recalled more often than other central exemplars. Malicious and mean messages; swear words and nasty messages; spreading of rumours and passing false information about others have been reported in cyber-bullying literature as a means by which instigators bully their targets online (e.g. Keith & Martin, 2005; Smith et al., 2008; Willard, 2007; Gradinger et al., 2009).

With reference to *forming online gangs,* this may be likened to the concept of bystanders in Salmivalli et al.'s (1998) elucidation of bullying as a group process, where some participants are likely to reinforce the bullying situation to the detriment of the victim(s). Thus forming online gangs against others is better explained in the cyber-bullying situation when a group of online participants reinforce cyber-bullying in such a way that they carry out continuous perpetrating acts as a group to hurt other individual(s) (just like in the bullying analogy by Salmivalli).

'Site miss-use', 'intentional hurtful messages'; and 'ugly bold distorted photos' were less frequently mentioned in the features generation stage in Chapter Five, but they were rated as central to cyber-bullying stage in the subsequent centrality rating stage and were correctly recalled in the validation experiment. Thus, it is plausible to assert that these exemplars are also core to cyber-bullying situation. With how they relate to past research on

cyber-bullying, the 'miss-use of internet websites' has been implied in the cyber-bullying literature, with perpetrators using websites for making mockery of others and posting obscene and derogatory messages about others (e.g. in Keith & Martin, 2005; Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008).

Some recalled peripheral features (stalking, talking in bold fonts, violent videos and messages and anonymous messages) are important in cyber-bullying situations because they have influenced the centrality ratings and the validation of some of the central exemplars in the validation recall and recognition tasks. For instance, during data examination of all the prototypes, when 'hacking, and 'telling others off' were removed from centrality analyses in the recall and recognition experiment, there were significant main effects of gender in the recognition of truly remembered central exemplars. However, when they were put back into the analyses so that test hypotheses were not compromised, there were no main effects of gender as reported in the results section. Thus their influence is crucial to cyber-bullying situations. For example, 'hacking' has been implied in the cyber-bullying literature as the mode of operation utilised by perpetrators to send anonymous messages to their targets (Mostyn, 2000). Anonymity is also implied in some cyber-bullying studies as a way that the perpetrator functions in order to hide his or her identity whilst sending malicious messages and spreading false rumours about others (e.g. Smith et al., 2006, Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008). Thus these exemplars are important in understanding cyber-bullying and general online aggression (e.g. Regehr, 2010; Wolak et al., 2009).

With regards to 'abusive messages', 'harassing messages', and 'bullying messages' and how they relate to previous cyber-bullying research, it has been pointed out that these exemplars overlap in terms of their modes of operation (e.g. bullying explication: Monks & Coyne, 2011; Monks et al., 2009). According to Chesney et al. (2009, p. 530) *the term abuse means to treat someone (or something) in such a way as to cause harm. It encompasses many*

of the same elements of bullying and harassment, and, depending on your point of view, harassment can be seen as a form of abuse, or abuse as a form of harassment. In the mind of many people, abuse is more serious than harassment, and the distinction between the two is one of severity, although this is not universally accepted". The authors further stated that *"unlike bullying, abuse can be a one off event (for instance, saying something offensive to a stranger), or prolonged (as would be the case in stalking). It is not universally agreed which of these applies to harassment)".* Thus, it is not surprising to see these exemplars among central prototypes of cyber-bullying due to the overlapping nature of their modes of operation.

Some of the central and peripheral exemplars (e.g. site miss-use, talking in capital letters, hate-page, forming online gangs; and breach of information) are not commonly mentioned in the cyber-bullying literature. 'Hate-page' for instance, is a central exemplar of cyber-bullying that remained stable as compared to other exemplars that were not as stable in the features' generation stage frequency ratings stage and the centrality rating stage in Chapter Five. 'Hate-page' describes a situation where a person or a group of people write or upload horrible and degrading messages and information on internet walls about a particular person or a group of people so as to humiliate them. This is similar to cyber-bullying situation and perpetrators actions as described by Keith and Martin (2005). 'Hate-page' is also similar to Vandebosch and Van Cleemput's (2008) explication of the impact of obscene messages that can be viewed by a wide variety of audience. According to Vandebosch and Van Cleemput the impact of such messages could be detrimental to the targets as a result of the large audience that are likely to view the malicious posts. Thus, it is also not surprising that participants listed this in the exemplars generation stage as well as rated it as central to cyber-bullying and further recalled it in the experiment.

Talking in bold/capital fonts/letters as an exemplar of cyber-bullying is an interesting finding. This exemplar, like *hate-page,* can be used to draw someone's attention to a conversation or to stress a particular point. For participants to have listed this as an exemplar of cyber-bullying probably meant that it is something that is commonly used either to send abusive messages or bring other people's attention to a certain malicious acts that take place over the internet walls. Assuming this is the case, it is not too surprising that younger participants thought of it as central to cyber-bullying more than older participants given that cyber-bullying has been argued as a common occurrence in the school environment, home environment and the social environment particularly with school aged people (Hinduja & Patchin, 2006; Tokunaga, 2010, Smith et al., 2006; Olweus, 2005; Salmivalli, 2010).

Name calling is a common exemplar in the cyber-bullying literature (e.g. in Smith et al., 2008; Hinduja & Patchin, 2006; Rivers & Noret, 2009), therefore being listed as a central exemplar is a reiteration of its existence as one of the means used by perpetrators to cyber-bullying others. Keith and Martin (2005) explicitly reported the contents that constitute cyber-bullying, horrible and degrading names were used to refer to targets by perpetrators. *Name calling* was also recalled by younger participants as a central exemplar of cyber-bullying more frequently than older participants. This is also not surprising given that most reported cases of cyber-bullying *name calling* has been implied as a way in which school perpetrators carry out cyber-bullying (e.g. in Keith & Martin, 2005; Smith et al., 2006, Hinduja & Patchin, 2006; Tokunaga, 2010; Nansel et al., 2001, Schrock & Boyd, 2008, Willard, 2007). It is reasonable therefore to expect that younger participants would list this exemplar as more central to cyber-bullying than older participants.

With regard to the prototype approach used, the findings from the recall and recognition memory task experiment were similar to those found in previous prototype studies where central exemplars were recalled more often than peripheral exemplars (e.g. in

Lambert et al., 2011; Kearns & Fincham, 2003). The difference from some prototype studies, such as Kearns and Fincham (2003), is that having conducted valence scores in their stages one or two, they carried out a series of ANCOVAs instead of mixed ANOVAs because their reported valence ratings were highly correlated to their centrality ratings of their investigated situation. As stated in Chapter Four, there were no recorded valence ratings given that cyber-bullying is already a negative phenomenon with growing concerns regarding its role in cases of depression and suicidal feelings (Hinduja & Patchin, 2011). Thus within the context of this study, it did not seem like an appropriate question to ask participants about their enjoyment of cyber-bullying.

The purpose of using the prototype approach in cyber-bullying research was to obtain a lay perception of cyber-bullying understanding through a provision of exemplars that are activated when participants think about cyber-bullying situations. It is plausible to assert following the findings in all three prototype studies that cyber-bullying is prototypically organised. This assertion is made following Rosch's (1972; 1975) recommendations for using the prototype approach. Rosch stated that for a construct to be prototypically organised, participants would have made a meaningful and reliable decisions regarding the extent to which various exemplars were centrally important or essential prototypes (and less important or essential prototypes) of their understanding of the given construct. The overall result of the prototype analyses in all three studies suggests that cyber-bullying has an internal structure and meets the criteria that were pointed out by Rosch (1972, 1975) Rosch and Mervis (1976), Canton and Mischel (1977) and Ferh (1988). Generally in the recognition study, the activation of cyber-bullying central prototypes affected participants cognitive ability to accurately recognise previously presented central exemplars and falsely recognise central exemplars that had not been presented to them, thereby recognising more central exemplars than peripheral exemplars ones.

177

It is worth pointing out the limitations of the current study alongside those relating to the prototype approach. This study focused generally on contents of cyber-bullying from young adults at university, it is suggested that varied samples are used for future replication. It is also likely that cyber-bullying exemplars may change as a result of other differences such as in the event where someone had witnessed cyber-bullying behaviour (actual victim and bully accounts). It may also be interesting to see how the exemplars differ or relate in terms of centrality and peripherality with regards to a larger number of participants. It would be interesting to see future replications' exemplars if actual cyber-bullies or cyber-victims were used for similar studies, in order to determine differences or similarities in prototypes generation. It is also recommended that future replication of this study investigate the constancy of the generated cyber-bullying prototypes when differentiating it from other forms of cyber-aggression research.

The strength of this study and of using the prototype approach is that to the author's knowledge this is the only study to examine systematically the layperson's understanding and perception of the cyber-bullying construct through prototype approach and processes proposed by Rosch (1972), Rosch, (1975); Rosch and Mervis (1976), Canton and Mischel (1977) and Ferh (1988). Thus, it plays an important role in ascertaining how laypersons definitions, concepts and perceptions of cyber-bullying relate and contribute to cyber-bullying research.

As previously discussed in Chapter Five, the prototype approach tends to simplify the rigors and complexity in any given definition of a social constructs, by providing exemplars that are core in order to understand the construct better (Gregg et al., 2008). Throughout the use of the prototype approach in this thesis, it is understood that lay persons conceptualisation of cyber-bullying phenomenon relates with existing literature on cyber-bullying. For example, Rivers and Noret (2009) refer to cyber-bullying as bullying that occur through the

use of mobile phones, emails and the internet, where 'bullying' was referred to as *"name calling', 'malicious gossip'...and rumour mongering"* (p.645). This is consistent with the exemplars generation using prototype approach.

Going by the rising debate regarding the concepts of cyber-bullying in terms of its definition and measurement, these studies suggest that there are differences as well as overlap between empirical and laypeople's conceptualisation. This leaves the debate open as to how can the layperson's conceptualisation of cyber-bullying apply to theory and investigative work within online aggression. According to Fehr and Russell (1991), research investigations that rely on everyday perceptions of an investigated phenomenon are likely to help improve the investigated concepts. However, it is not proposed here that the lay concepts of cyber-bullying should be core to the cyber-bully/aggression literature in terms of researchers' investigative work. It is rather suggested that an understanding of the laypeople's concept could be of benefit in understanding how, from a different set of perspective (from researchers), cyber-bullying situations are perceived and defined with regards to the already established scientific way of investigating it.

The two main goals of using prototype approach, as pointed out by Kearns and Fincham (2003) is to: capture the meaning of the investigated construct; and provide a conceptual framework for the scientific study of the investigated construct. This study fits into the goals as proposed by Kearns and Fincham, as the generated prototypes capture the meaning of cyber-bullying as people understand it and can also help to provide a conceptual framework for the scientific study of cyber-bullying. With regards to these goals, it is plausible to suggest a definition for cyber-bullying as *any repeated intentional embarrassing messages containing threats, swear words, name calling and malicious contents, pasted on or sent through the internet (or via mobile) by a person or group of people with the aim of hurting a particular person or group of people.* This definition is suggested following

179

laypeople's conceptualisation derived from the feature generation stage, centrality rating stage and the validation stages of central exemplars of cyber-bullying. It describes the everyday concepts of cyber-bullying rather than prescribe its conceptualisation. It is also concerned with the construct of cyber-bullying and not the event surrounding cyber-bullying construct.

A key issue that the arguments for using the prototype studies raise is whether one can really talk about the layperson's conceptualisation of cyber-bullying as a unitary entity. Just as there are different researchers' conceptualisations about cyber-bullying, so there are almost certainly a spectrum of layperson's conceptualisation. Moreover, both researchers and layperson's conceptualisation are changing over time. Nevertheless, it is worth pointing out that both the layperson's and researcher's conceptualisation are complementary of each other and may not be entirely unitary. In conclusion, consistent with the generation of features stage, centrality ratings phase, and the results of the experiments on exemplars, the assumptions for using the prototype approach are met with regards to cyber-bullying. The findings from the memory and recognition tasks indicate that cyber-bullying is prototypically organised with features that are central and those that are not so central to its phenomenon.

Chapter Seven

Studies Five and Six:

Generation of prototypes from victims and instigators of cyber bullying; and validation and categorisation of prototypes in a triangulatory commonality

7.1 Rationale

Following from the suggestions in the previous Chapter that actual exemplars of perpetrators and targets of cyber-bullying should be investigated in order to better understand cyber-bullying exemplars, this chapter will employ two qualitative studies (Studies Five and Six) to understand better those exemplars that are core to cyber-bullying cases. Study Five will also examine the motivations in cyber-bullying situations.

Generation of exemplars and motivations of cyber-bullying will be examined in Study Five, with two major aims. The first aim will examine prototypes from victims and perpetrators of cyber-bullying. The second aim alongside the first, will ascertain motivating factors of cyber-bullying in the same set of participants. In Study Six another set of participants will be employed to validate derived (Study Five) prototypes. Core prototypes will be ascertained through triangulatory commonality (*inter study commonality*) and categorical commonality (*intra study commonality*) between generated exemplars (Study Five); and the perception of each exemplar from participants (Study Six).

There are different reports regarding cyber-bullying in relation to the identity of perpetrators. Some researchers have reported that in some cases, victims of cyber-bullying and cyber-aggression get cyber-bullied by someone they know (e.g. Tokunaga, 2010; Raskauskaus & Stoltz, 2007), while in other cases, people fall prey to online stranger-perpetrators (Kite et al., 2010; Wolak et al., 2009; 2007). Undoubtedly, the increase in the use

of technology has not only escalated online aggression (Bargh & McKenna, 2004; McKenna & Bargh; 2000; Cross et al., 2009) it has also made it easy for sex offenders to groom and solicit illegal sexual activities (Mishna et al., 2009a; 2009b).

Some studies have examined the motivations of cyber-bullying in line with its *repetition* concept, e.g. *a few times a week* and *several times a week* (e.g. Smith et al., 2008). Other studies have examined the correlates of traditional bullying and cyber-bullying as a means of understanding whether cyber-bullying is an extension of traditional bullying (Tokunaga, 2010; Patchin & Hinduja, 2006; Olweus, 2012). However, motivating factors as they fit within the standard *unprovoked* concept of cyber-bullying, to the author's knowledge have not been examined.

Bullying has been reported as typically unprovoked and deliberate act of aggression (Farrington, 1993; Salmivalli, 2010). Salmivalli (2010, p.113) cited the works of Coie, Dodge, Terry, & Wright, (1991) and asserted that *"bullying, which is typically unprovoked and deliberate, can be considered a sub-type of proactive, goal-directed aggression"*. Some researchers have queried the need for behaviours to be unprovoked by the victim in order to be classed as bullying (e.g. Beck & Ireland, 1997 cited in Ireland, 2002; Ireland, 2002). According to Ireland (2002, p.5), the assertion that *"in order for behaviour to be classed as bullying, it must represent a repeated and unprovoked act of aggression…"* has not been universally acceptable. However response to this debate has been met with the argument that provocation can sometimes be unintentional on the part of the victim (Farrington, 1993). It is in light of this debate that the second aim of this study is constructed. Thus understanding how unprovoked acts of aggression are understood in terms of their application to the online bullying repertoire is important to the cyber-bullying literature. Not only will the understanding of unprovoked acts of online bullying be understood in terms of their

application to the online environment, it will arguably also highlight underlying influencing factors behind cyber-bullying.

Some exemplars of cyber-bullying, although not through prototype approach, have been identified in some literature as offensive and intimidating messages; obscene or rude images and abusive comments (Campbell, 2005; McLoughlin & Burgess, 2010). 'Sexting' has also been identified by McLoughlin and Burgess (2010) as part of cyber-bullying and it involves taking pictures of oneself or with others or engaging in intimate acts of exposing one's body part. Following McLoughlin and Burgess's explication on sexting, it is worth pointing out that taking nude photos of oneself may not be perceived as cyber-bullying between two consenting adults, however there is always a room for these images to be used in a malicious way against those whose photos have been taken, thereby resulting in instances of bullying as discussed on Chapter Three

In order to examine the aims of the studies in this chapter, qualitative Grounded Theory and Cognitive (GT: Glaser & Strauss, 1967) Mapping/ symbolic interaction will be used.

7.1.1 Rationale for using Qualitative Grounded Theory and Cognitive Mapping approach

7.1.1.1 Grounded Theory

Qualitative research focuses on meanings that people give to words or action and how attitudes are translated in actions. The Grounded Theory (GT) approach is a qualitative method that aims to understand human experience through stringent research design, data gathering and examination. GT allows for the researchers to have an open mind so as to allow for theory and reality to materialize from the collected data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Licquirish & Siebold, 2011). With qualitative approach generally, the presence of voice in

text is important because it is useful in conveying the richness and depth of human experience to the reader (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Roller, 2010). The GT approach is employed so as to examine potential theory that will emerge from participants' data. This theory will aid further and better understanding of cyber-bullying and cyber aggression phenomena. Theoretical development is important because it is an attempt to explain already acquired knowledge and how new knowledge fits within existing ones (Charon, 2001).

In relation to this chapter, developed theory from GT will elucidate further exemplars that are common to perpetrators and targets of cyber-bullying and the possible rationale behind cyber-bullying behaviour. It will also clarify similarities, differences and conflicting areas surrounding victimisation and instigation of cyber-bullying and general online aggression. Given these qualities of the GT approach, the use of its style of analysis will allow for a thorough exploration and the understanding of participants experience (either way) of cyber-bullying; and challenges faced whilst using the online environment.

7.1.1.2   Cognitive mapping

Cognitive Mapping or Symbolic Interactionism focuses on human actions and interactions (Clarke, 2005). Licquirish and Seibold (2011, p.12) highlight the work of Blumer (1969) and her interpretation of cognitive mapping thus: *'Human beings act towards things on the basis of the meaning that things have for them; the meanings of such things are derived from or arise out of social interactions with one's fellows; the meanings are handled in, and modified through, an interpretative process used by the person in dealing with the things he encounters'.* The assumption is that social interaction and the communication of verbal and nonverbal socio-cultural codes can elucidate someone's sense of meaning (Charon, 2001).

Modern-day GT is being used alongside Cognitive Mapping due to its focus on human experience (Charmaz, 2006; Clarke, 2005; Licquirish & Siebold, 2011). The use of

GT and Cognitive Mapping in this study is to further highlight online aggressive actions and interactions (two way exemplars) and motivating factors associated with the use of information communication technology (ICT) regardless of 'time and place' of the people involved in such social interactions (as pointed out in the advantages of using GT: Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Time and place as pointed out by Glaser and Strauss (1967) is further explained in the analysis procedure regarding the different—cross country—groups of participants employed for Study Five.

Further, this combination of qualitative method will shift from identifying a basic process that GT alone would have produced, to exploring a social interactional world that shapes an online aggressive environment. It will allow for a thorough exploration of how the generated prototypes and motivating factors match with cyber-bullying definitional concepts in line with the on-going debate in the cyber-bullying arena.

Study Six will validate the contents and prototypes that emerge from Study Five through triangulation, and categorisation of these prototypes into whether or not they are cyber-bullying or other forms of online aggression. The rationale for triangulation is that it involves the use of different data sources to determine reliability and legitimacy of data (Denzin, 1979 in Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007; Schwandt, 2001; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007). It has been argued that researchers would have to use two or more types of data analyses in order to legitimise their research findings. It has also been pointed out that lack of generalisation *"means that the extent to which the data have been captured has not been adequately assessed, or that any such assessment has not provided support for legitimisation"* (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004, p. 778). Thus triangulation allows a researcher to make meaning of his or her chosen qualitative or quantitative method concerned, and strengthens the reliability of the conclusion that is drawn from such findings (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Alongside the purpose of using the combined

185

method as earlier mentioned, the rationale for using the combined methods is so that reliability and legitimacy in commonalities and triangulation of the two studies can be assumed.

7.2   Study Five: motivations of and exemplars of cyber-bullying

7.2.1 Methodology

7.2.1.1 Structured questions

Cyber-bullying definition from Smith et al., (2008, p. 376) *'An aggressive, intentional act carried out by a group or individual, using electronic forms of contact, repeatedly and over time against a victim who cannot easily defend him or herself'* was presented to participants before the questions.

Smith's definition was used because it is an established definition that is broadly used to describe cyber-bullying instances and has been used to assume cyber-bullying among school students. Further, participants in this study have already reported cyber-bullying having been presented with the borrowed traditional criteria of cyber-bullying by researchers (e.g. Smith et al., 2008). Thus it was also plausible to follow along the same line of definition so as to adequately capture participants' perception of and conceptualisation of bullying and cyber-bullying. Had the definition derived within this thesis been used for participants, it is likely that participants' may not feel that they had been cyber-bullied and may not have participated in the study due to its specific inclination on the prototypes of cyber-bullying. This would have arguably defeated the purpose of understanding cyber-bullying perception prior to conducting the full processes of prototype analyses that this thesis aim to fulfil.

Q1- Have you ever been involved in any form of cyber-bullying?

Q2- OK, please share your experience with me ...what happened?

186

Q3- Alright...who were the people involved? Classmates, friends or someone you have not met before?

Q4- So what happened afterwards?

Q5- Was there something that caused all these behaviours in the first place?

Q6- What do you think can be done to stop online bullying and online aggressive behaviours?

7.2.1.2 *Participants*

N=10 (four females, six males) There were initially sixteen participants recruited (14 to 18 years old), five (three males; two females) from Australia, and 11 (five males, six females) from United Kingdom. The Australian participants were selected from a Training School in Australia that was organised by the Co-operation in Science and Technology Action IS0801 (COST Action IS0801) and the Australian Government Department of Innovation, Industry, Science and Research. The aim of this collaboration was to create positive internet and mobile phone use, and to determine effective preventative measures for negative cyber acts. The Australian participants gave their consent for their experiences to be used following previous parental consent for participating in the COST program.

Eight of the participants from the United Kingdom were volunteers who responded to an advert on a questionnaire for a different study which was given to first year Psychology undergraduate students of Goldsmiths, University of London. On the back page of these questionnaires were contact details for the author of this thesis, advertising for participants who had been involved in online aggressive acts as victims or as instigators to participate in this study. It was stated in the questionnaire that all information would be treated in strict confidence. Additionally, three sixth form students were recruited through school visits in

England. Schools were e-mailed regarding this study and at the time of carrying out this study, only one secondary school had granted permission to visit. Sixth form participants were selected by school administrators following observed reported cases of bullying and having gone through school counselling process as victims and perpetrator. They were also part of peer mentor group who through their experience, support victims and raise more awareness regarding bullying and cyber-bullying.

Of the participants from the United Kingdom, four were neither aggressors nor victims but had witnessed aggressive behaviours as observers. Their data were not included for perpetrators' and targets' perspectives because they did not meet the recruitment criteria as stated in the advertisement. However their data were analysed as part of observers to cyber-bullying. Also for the Australian participants only three participants' data matched the recruitment criteria and two other participants were not included for the study. Thus the final number of participants used for this study was 10; three from Australia (one female; two males) and seven from the United Kingdom (college: three females, four males).

7.2.1.3 *Procedure*

Ethical approval was granted by the Department of Psychology's Research Ethics Committee at Goldsmiths, University of London. Opportunity sampling approach was employed for this study and further clearance were sought from the secondary schools visited regarding parental consent. Prior to school visits, the author had clarified the purpose of the study with the Headteacher of the visited secondary school. Parental consent forms were sent to participants' parents through the school authority. Thus as well as getting clearance from the school, parental consent was also necessary for participation.

During recruitment, participants were informed that participation in the study was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time. Participants were told that their

information would be held in strict confidence and that they would be anonymous in case of any publication resulting from this study.

Seven of the UK-based participants were individually invited into the author's office at a time that was convenient to the participants. Prior to the interview, the author asked whether her office would be OK for the participants, and participants confirmed that the office was suitable. The interviews were conducted and completed over a three week period. With the Sixth form students, the interviews were conducted in their school environment. For the Australian participants, interviews were conducted in a hall purposely set aside for this reason, following a cyber-bullying workshop.

Participants were informed of their right to withdraw from the study and were reminded that they were voluntarily participating in the study. All participants agreed to being interviewed. The interview atmosphere was calm for all participants; and the interview lasted for about thirty minutes each. An ice breaking question was used to start the interview. The questions were structured but with prompts and probes where necessary.

The first question (*Q1*) *"have you ever been involved in any form of cyber-bullying?"* was asked to determine the social roles—victim or aggressor-- that participants play in terms of online aggression. The second question (*Q2*) *"OK, please share your experience with me ...what happened?"* was asked so as to decipher exemplars and the actions that constitute cyber-bullying in that particular participant's case. The third question (*Q3*) *"who were the people involved...classmates, friends or someone you have not met before?"* was asked so as to understand the level of interaction, the relationship between the target and perpetrator. The fourth question (*Q4*) *"so what happened afterwards?"* was asked so as to gather more information and generate more knowledge regarding the situation. The fifth question (*Q5*) *"was there something that caused all these behaviours in the first place?"* was asked so as to understand the 'why' inherent in Ground Theory method and to contribute to existing

knowledge on what is already known about the motivational factors of cyber-bullying. The sixth question (**Q6**) *"what do you think can be done to stop cyber-bullying and online aggressive behaviours?"* was asked so as to understand how online aggression can be prevented in schools and the social environment. In general, the questions were directed towards establishing prototypes, functions, relationship and influencing factors and solutions to cyber-bullying and cyber-aggression

Interviews were recorded using an Olympus recorder and were later transcribed as Word documents for easy coding, themes' extractions and theory generation as presented in Table 7.1

7.2.1.4 *Analysis procedure*

Data were analysed using the Grounded Theory (GT) analysis techniques of coding which involves constant comparative analysis of individual gathered data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The analysis focused on action (i.e. what the perpetrators did), interaction (i.e. what was received by the target that was sent by the perpetrator) and the operation of power in the online environment (i.e. motivational factors of the perpetrators). The coding process involved examination of the interview transcripts line by line so as to identify emerging theory from participants' data. Codes were grouped and identified with the focus of coding being action and interaction in line with Cognitive Mapping (e.g. Licqurius & Siebold, 2011) as shown in Figure 3. The identification of categories was aided by constant comparison of codes in the same and different category (e.g. Glaser & Strauss, 1967; as shown on *dotted boxes* for both GT theory in Figure. 3 (on forms of cyber-bullying).

The author read through the entire set of data then chunked the data into smaller meaningful parts. Each part was labelled with a descriptive title. New chunks of data were compared with previous codes and similar chunks were labelled with the same code. For

example, the author engaged in on-going data analysis to identify emerging themes from Australian participants which were further explored in the UK participants, so as to gather specific cyber-bullying and cyber-victim data (*time* and *place* as earlier discussed).

Cognitive Mapping (Figure. 3) demonstrated the interrelationships between each cyber-bullying motivational factor and exemplar (as shown in Table 7.1) that constitute cyber-bullying behaviour as well as preventative measures; and the knowledge of 'perpetrators' and 'targets'. Theories emerged through coding, re-coding and cognitive mapping of all interactions. Emerging theories highlights the philosophical stance of cyber-bullying due to data that were collected from participants who have been targets and perpetrators of cyber-bullying and are thus plausible for theory development in cyber-bullying literature.

7.2.2 Results

For all the questions asked apart from **Q1** which was asked to determine participant's suitability for the study, emerging themes from the GT approach are presented in Table 7.1 with an illustration of other themes, actions and interactions in Figure 3.

Table 7.1: Theory, themes and codes from GT approach.

Motivations grounded in data: *Goaded and Groundless (Q4, Q5)*		
Disparity (i.e. specific to this type) **Goaded**	**Parity** (common ground for both types)	**Disparity** (specific to this type) **Groundless**
Non emotional	Justification	Attention seeking
Unaffected	Sad	Depression
Satisfaction	Annoyance	Fed up
Commonality Grounded in data prototypes: *Targets and Perpetrators (Q2)*		
Disparity: *Targets*	**Parity** Anonymity	**Disparity**: *Perpetrators*
Received images	Rude images	Sent images
Received false malicious information	False malicious information	Sent and share false malicious information
Received continuous unwanted messages	Continuous unwanted messages	Sent continuous unwanted messages
Threatened	Threats	Threatening
Preventative measures (**Q6**)		
Targets	**Parity**	**Perpetrators**
Arrest	Awareness	Mediation
Exclusion	Meeting	Parental control
Awareness	Counselling	Parent education
People involved *(Q3)*		
Speculation	conflict	Knowledge of target

Emerging theory yielded categories of Goaded and Groundless aggressors. Goaded aggressors acted in response and reaction to previous negative acts committed towards them by their targets. The more they reflected on the past behaviour of the target, the more it seemed to them that they ought to aggress in the form of revenge. This type of aggression was prominent among those perpetrators who were provoked to cyber-bullying others. For this set of participants, responsiveness was the dominant underlying influencing factor. Participants' cyber-bully more when they reflect on how bad their victim had previously treated them. Groundless aggressors in contrast carried out acts of cyber-bullying and cyber-aggression based on situational reactions that were not caused by their targets (e.g. *M/17/W: "...I sometimes just do it out of boredom...when they respond, I send more messages"*).

'Disparity' in the data described from participants viewpoints, the difference in emerging theory (*Q4, Q5*), suggestions for preventative measures (*Q6*) and emerging prototypes (*Q2*). 'Parity' in contrast described the similarities in all of the above mentioned questions.

For (*Q3*) 'speculation' was appropriate as a code for the answers given by targets of online aggression. However, goaded perpetrators knew their targets, unlike groundless perpetrators who did not in all cases know their targets. Thus for parity on the target and perpetrators perspective, 'conflict' was used to describe the emerging theme.

Figure 3 and Table 7.1 GT shows that aggressors send; and targets receive *false malicious information*, *threats*, *rude or obscene images*, *anonymity* or *false identity* and *unwanted message* depicting that these exemplars are common forms of the contents and prototypes of online aggression. Thus, both goaded and groundless aggressions use similar modes of operation (e.g. anonymity/false identity, continuous unwanted messages, malicious information, rude images and threats) in terms of the receipt and sent contents.

7.2.2.1 *Coding and different shapes of cognitive mapping*

Underlying motivational factors are presented in boxes. Common exemplar codes are presented in oval shapes. Dotted oval shape is used to represent conflicting code where perpetrator and victim disagree to a particular situation. Dotted boxes are codes specific to each motivational factor. Arrows are used to represent causal relationships and dotted arrows represent conflicting relationship.
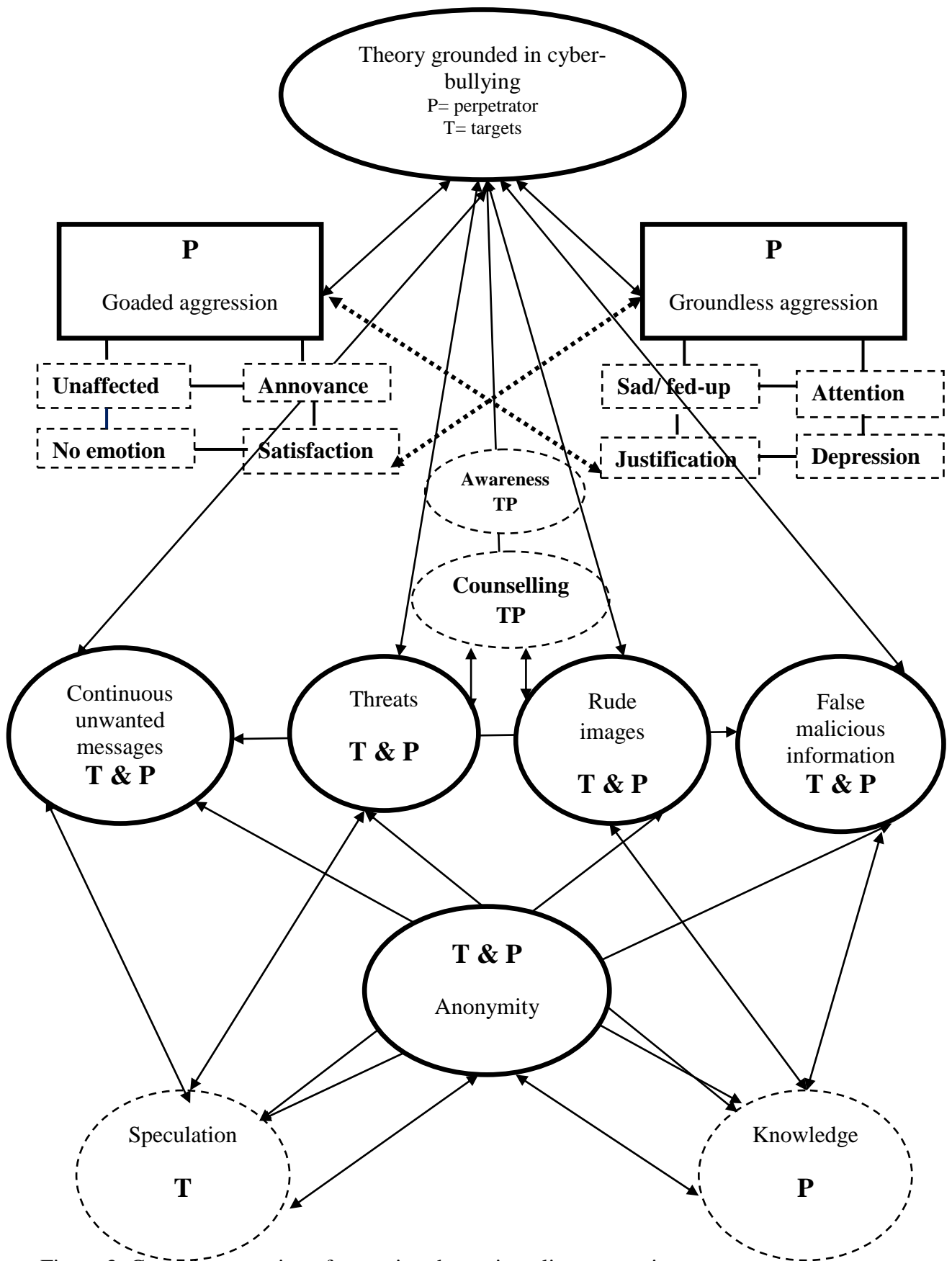
Figure 3: Cognitive mapping of emerging theory in online aggression.

7.2.2.2 Thematic findings

Conflicting relationships

On the part of both the *goaded* and *groundless* aggressors, *justification* and *satisfaction* seemed to be a common feeling following bouts of cyber-bullying behaviours. The goaded aggressors feel satisfied for carrying out revenge on their victims, the groundless aggressors feel (somewhat) justified.

Codes from goaded aggression (*Q4, Q5*)

Conflicting themes: *satisfaction* versus *annoyance*; *unaffected* versus *annoyance;* and *emotionless* versus *annoyance* suggest that in this code, annoyance seems to be the response trigger needed for carrying out aggressive acts.

Anger

M/16/W: *"why should anyone feel that they can bully you at all? This is something I cannot accept. I rather they get a dose of their own medicine."* (Anger perceived in participant's tone of voice).

F/16/B: *"At first it was kind of scary and then it got boring. I was angry because I felt I could do something, but I couldn't physically do anything but use the chat room".*

Unaffected:

M/16/W: *"...maybe state of cockiness but having being a victim before.... I do not really care what people say because I have been there before and I know most of the reactions that people expect. So really it does not affect me".*

Emotionless

F/16/B: *"At a point, I did not get the reaction that I wanted, it became like a waste of my own time."*

196

Satisfaction

M/16/W: "The best thing that can ever happen to a bully is to bully them back, I'm not proud of what I did, but I am satisfied with all that I did"

Codes from groundless aggression (Q4, Q5)

Attention seeking

M/17/W: "...I sometimes just do it out of boredom...when they respond, I send more messages"

Fed-up / sad

M/14/B: I do get very angry when there is problem at home. Then I was the youngest, my father would always have my portion of food and then I'm left with nothing to eat. I felt it was OK to take it out on another smaller person at school, so I do it anyway"

Depression

M/17/W: "it is depressing to see your parents break up, fights and fights every day, no one seem to understand, changing from one school to the other. I had to express myself somehow."

Rude Images exemplars:

Victims

F/18/W: "I saw a photo of me in someone else's naked body. My head was on the nude body and if you didn't see it properly, you would have thought I was the person in the photo... This sort of thing is done with Photoshop software. I knew it was my ex-boyfriend because we broke up not long ago and he threatened to get back at me."

F/16/B: "I was often sent gruesome photos and images...threats that I was going to die like the exact one in the photos..."

Perpetrator

M/17/W: "I felt like I had to be noticed, so I do things to get attention. Sometimes I sent horrible photos of happy slapping."

F/18/W: "...I guess by then she already believed that I was a man...rape video was the last image I sent to her."

Threats exemplar

Target

M/17/B: "I don't know why I kept getting threats, whoever it was kept threatening me that they will beat me up and get my parents too. At first they scared me, but later they started sounding like someone I knew at school..."

Perpetrator

M/14/B: "Threat is the main part of how I bullied them. I always threaten them...sometimes; in school, I hit and push them until they do what I wanted. Online I threaten them"

False malicious information exemplar

Target

17/M/B: "At first he said he knew everything about me, and that he knew where I lived. I told him I will involve the police but the following day he had update on my profile saying that I was being racist and that I had threatened to kill him."

Perpetrator

F/16/B: "Well I lied about several things I posted about him in the chat room, just to feel better and get even. I knew when I get home I may get bullied so why don't I just bully him some more and threaten the life out of him?"

Continuous unwanted messages exemplars

Target

F/16/B: "The annoying messages kept coming for up to two months. I got fed up at some point, although at the beginning I was very worried about the malicious and upsetting nature of the messages."

Perpetrator

M/14/B: "I will say most of the time, the messages were meaningless and lack purpose, but I just kept sending them because it made me feel better".

False Identity/Anonymity exemplar

Target

F/16/B: "The annoying thing is that you can't see the id**t that is constantly sending You messages. They are cowards...simply chickens!"

Perpetrator

M/16/W: I can do whatever I like and wanted, whatever came to mind really...I can pretend to be superman or even Big Brother".

(Q4, Q5) Goaded aggressors

Goaded aggressors reported the *satisfaction* that they derived from bullying the bully. They also reported feeling *emotionless* because they already know how the bullying situation

worked. They showed anger as well because they felt that no one had the right to bully others. Thus goaded aggression serves more like a retribution for bully-victims.

> F/16/B: "I bullied because I was bullied. It all started like a nightmare but once I knew their tricks, I was able to beat them to their own game. I felt even, and very satisfied. When I got to school the following day, I didn't bother responding to their threats, I feel no emotion at all and I guess I must have disappointed them".

> M/16/W: "I felt that no one has the right to push or shove people about, when my sister told me about this particular boy that was bullying her, I felt I should teach him a lesson."

(Q4, Q5) Groundless aggressor

Groundless aggressors on the other hand, tend to bully others without provocation from their targets. Most often, they felt the need to *seek attention* which may be as a result of how *sad* they felt from being scolded at home. Groundless aggressors blamed their aggressive acts on their state of mind, such as feeling *depressed* because of the constant arguments between their parents at home; and feeling *justified* from finding someone they can take out their frustrations on.

> M/14/B: "My father and mother were always arguing. I always took sides with my mother. My father will punish me afterwards. I would look forward to going to school so that I could take it out on the next victim. This made me feel better."

> F/18/W: "My parents, especially my mother, yelled at me. I in return will yell at the little girls in the classroom. Whatever they do to me at home, I do to the little girls in school."

200

(Q6) Preventative measures

Parity

Some participants thought that raising more *awareness* would help reduce bullying and cyber-bullying in schools. Others suggested that *meeting* and *counselling* should also apply. There were suggestions from both perpetrators and targets for prevention against bullying and cyber-bullying particularly in schools and at home.

Target

> M/17/B: *"maybe more awareness will reduce cyber-bullying"*

Perpetrator:

> M/18/W: *"awareness program will stop school bullying and cyber-bullying because those who bully will become the minority over majority who are against bullying"*

Meeting and counselling codes

Target

> M/14/B: *"the bully should face the victim and feel how they make them feel. Maybe this will help"*

Perpetrator

> F/16/W: *"They should call both of them together and let them sort out what the problem is"*

201

Disparity

With regards to the difference in targets and perpetrators points of view, targets suggested that perpetrators should be *arrested*, be *named and shamed* and *excluded* from school activities.

Targets

> M/16/W: "They should be arrested"

> M/17/B: "name them, shame them and then exclude them from all school activities"

Suggestions for prevention were split in perpetrators perhaps due to the goaded and groundless nature of the motivating factors. Goaded aggressors suggested that there should be some sort of *mediation* between the targets and the perpetrators where everyone can talk about their anger. Groundless aggressors thought that *parental education* and *parents' control* of their children's anger can help prevent bullying and cyber-bullying.

Goaded aggressor

> M /16/W: "I think they should bring both of them together so that everyone knows what they have done wrong"

Groundless aggressor

> M/17/W: "parents should watch what their children do online, if my parents checked me more often, I probably wouldn't have done it"

The identities of targets and perpetrators

Targets were not sure who was constantly sending them messages. They *speculated* that it could have been someone they knew whom they had recently had quarrels or arguments with.

202

With regards to the perpetrators, groundless perpetrators were sometimes not sure who their victims were unlike goaded perpetrators that knew their victims.

Targets

> *F/18/W: "I knew it was my boyfriend because we broke up not long ago and he threatened to get back at me"*

Goaded perpetrator

> *F/18/W: "she used to be my friend"*

Groundless perpetrator

> *F/16/B: "I really did not know who the person was, I could have sent it to anyone"*

7.2.3 Discussion

This study was mainly set out to understand how Grounded Theory can help in ascertaining prototypes from actual online aggression situation; and the understanding and contribution of motivational factors surrounding cyber-bullying. It also examined on an exploratory basis preventative measures and how unprovoked concepts fit within emerging theory. Groundless and goaded theories of cyber-bullying emerged suggesting that in the case where a situation leads to regular aggressive acts towards someone else as a result of an act which was initially perpetrated by the target, then such acts can be viewed as groundless acts of cyber-bullying.

As emerged from participants accounts of bullying situations, those who cyber-bully either do so because they are getting back at those who had offended them in the past or they were doing it out of situational reaction or the need to seek attention. These findings are partially in line with previous research in aggression literature that has reported reactive and proactive instigated forms of aggression (Vitaro et al., 1998; Brendgen et al., 2006) and along

the line of Wingate et al. (2012) presumption that cyber-bullying can be proactive and reactive instigated forms of aggression (e.g. Dodge & Coie, 1987; Crick & Dodge, 1996). The word presumption is used because to the author's knowledge, this assertion by Wingate et al. has not been theoretically tested.

In applying the concept of reactive and proactive instigated type aggression to the findings in this study, reactive bullying occurs mainly because participants have been offended in the past by someone they had known and as a result, reminiscing back to the negative event may be a trigger for carrying out negative online behaviours. This assumption is made following the goaded aggressors' data and similar argument in bullying literature (e.g. Ireland, 2002; Farrington, 1993).

The 'unprovoked' concept of bullying assumes the victim has not intentionally provoked the perpetrator to carry out bullying act (Ireland, 2002; Farrington, 1993). However, acts which were caused by past provocation by the targets were also reported as cyber-bullying. This may be as a result of the way bullying and cyber-bullying acts are reported and documented in schools, given that participants (college students) were chosen by school administrators and self-nomination.

With respect to the concept of cyber-bullying, Grounded Theory (GT) emerging theory poses questions that arise from the data gathered such as 'can bullying be primarily provoked by the target'? The definitions of cyber-bullying assume the borrowed traditional bullying concepts, which have been argued as intentional and unprovoked (*unintentional provocation*, Ireland, 2002, p. 26; Farrington, 1993) acts of aggression. Intention would mean a deliberate act of causing harm to someone else and unintentional unprovoked action would mean that the victim or target has not done anything to the perpetrator (at least knowingly) to warrant such hurtful behaviour. This clarification by Ireland (unintentional provocation) was specifically proposed for bullying in prisons. However, with regards to bullying among

204

adolescents in the social environment and in schools, there is no mention of the 'unintentional provocation' clause (e.g. Salmivalli, 2010; Coie et al., 1991). This leaves the debate open as to where lay those acts of people who end up cyber-bullying others because they had been previously bullied or cyber-bullied. Will their negative acts fall under cyber-bullying or how else can this be classified? Supposing a universal agreement is reached such that the primary underlying factor that influenced bullying acts are not taken into consideration, provoked or unprovoked, so long as they are intended to cause harm, are repeated and have elements of power imbalance as those recorded and used for this particular study. Would these not be classed as cyber-bullying? It is understood that this may not be the case going by the unprovoked clause. Thus this area of argument needs further clarification in cyber-bullying literature. In either case, both are no doubt worth studying and understanding.

Another way of viewing this argument is that if it is the case that bullying (and cyber-bullying) must not have been provoked, then it is plausible to assert that a provoked continuous intentional act to hurt others who had instigated such provocation should perhaps fall into cyber aggression and not necessarily cyber-bullying. This assertion is made given that such act of aggression may not have occurred but for provocation; and aggression itself can either be reactive or proactive (Card et al., 2008; Brendgen et al., 2010). The scenario exemplar *rude image (e.g. victim, F/18/W)* may not really fit into the definition of cyber-bullying despite the harm caused by this singular act. However a continuous deliberate act with the aim to cause harm, as pointed out by Smith et al. (2008), may fit well into the bullying and cyber-bullying definition. Thus, the content of, and the concept of cyber-bullying and its results are suggested to be interpreted with care where studies choose to employ the definitions that suggest the term 'unprovoked' in their research work.

With regards to the prototypes derived from the findings, they are similar to research in the cyber-bullying literature which suggests that unwanted text messages (e-mails and

picture and video clips) are the contents of cyber-bullying (Slonje & Smith, 2008). They are also similar to private embarrassing information and private messages as pointed out by Willard (2004) and Gradinger et al. (2009).

Furthermore, the received and sent exemplars follow the same patterns and mode of operation as reported in the similarities between prototypes received by victims and those that are sent by perpetrators. The two types of perpetrators despite having different reasons for aggressing, nevertheless have common exemplars. These exemplars derived from actual cases are similar to the types derived from lay perspective in Chapters Five. For example some exemplar derived from Chapter Five (e.g. *malicious messages, threats, rude image and anonymity*) are also present in this study (e.g. ***false malicious information; target: M/17/B; perpetrator: F/16/B***). This is an indication of the importance of these exemplars to cyber-bullying in particular; and online aggression in general.

The recruited participants were those with cyber-bullying experience, thus their input to this research gives a clear understanding of the underlying motivating acts behind their actions. The questions that were asked and the answers that were given by participants (e.g. *Q5 & Q6*) are vital to cyber-bullying literature because it is important to record suggestions from those who have actually been in the bullying victim situation so as to understand likely causes and correlates surrounding cyber-bullying for preventative purposes.

Given that there are very few theory centred studies in the cyber-bullying arena (e.g. Hay et al., 2010; Slee et al., 2011) and not much in terms of qualitative approach, Grounded Theory and Cognitive Mapping applied in this study is a contribution to cyber-bullying research due to its explication of exemplars and the findings surrounding the motivations of bullying and cyber-bullying.

It is worth discussing the limitations of this study alongside those of qualitative method. One such potential limitation is that where a personal account of a situation is

involved, participants may withhold vital information from the interviewer (Shenton, 2004). Nevertheless, the open talk could also be argued as a show of remorse, awareness and sharing of experience. An advantage is that a qualitative study focuses on the interpretation of individual experiences of the phenomenon under investigation (Sandelowski, 2000), which is vital for the aims of the current study.

Further, the use of Cognitive Mapping highlights emerging themes and shows in visual format how themes that are derived from the data interact with one another to arrive at a theory. This assertion can be tied to the argument by Blumer (1969; cited in Licquirish & Seibold, 2011, p.12) that *'the meaning of things are handled in and modified through an interpretative process…'* This interpretative process through Cognitive Mapping highlights different behavioural understanding of both types of motivating factors. This would not have been possible with GT alone. According to Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007), this combined method strengthens reliability of the conclusion drawn from a triangulation method. In conclusion, groundless and goaded types of cyber-bullying are some of the ways in which online forms of bullying motivational factors can be understood. This framework will hopefully open more room for debate in the cyber-bullying arena.

7.2.4 Reflection

Prior to data gathering, a literature review specific to this area was not carried out so as not to affect the inductive nature of GT and so as not to have a preconception influenced by prior research (Glaser & Straus, 1967, Clark, 2005). After data collection and initial coding of data, a literature review was carried out to determine where the findings of this study fit within current research in the area. Initial data were collected through in-depth interviews with students. Preliminary analysis of the data without cognitive mapping indicated that some people bully because they have been bullied while others bully due to situational and

circumstantial reactions or just for the sake of it. Given the complex nature of the GT approach, the themes and codes derived were interpreted by the author, the raw data presented to two Developmental Psychologists (the author's supervisors); and the themes commented and agreed on with a degree of concordance between the two. Thus the codes and themes presented have not been influenced by the author's knowledge or experience of her research work on cyber-bullying and online aggression in general.

Study Six:

7.3 Validating exemplars and theory through triangulatory commonality

The aim of this study is to validate the exemplars and theories that emerged from using a Grounded Theory through triangulation commonality. Kearns and Fincham (2003), Lapsley and Lasky (2001) and Lambert et al. (2011) presented exemplars to participants in the form of scenarios; the scenarios were interpreted by participants in their own words through a recall of the scenarios. For this study however, exemplars will be presented to participants in scenario formats but instead of participants recalling the scenarios, they will be instructed to write down what they understand by the negative behaviour inherent in each scenario. Participants understanding of each exemplar scenarios will be examined according to the original account of participants from exemplar generation Study Five to ascertain commonality. Resulting commonality between both studies will be used to further assume generalisation and representativeness of the findings from Study Five.

In order to understand which scenario exemplar is typical to cyber-bullying situations, participants would be asked to class individual scenario as cyber-bullying or cyber-aggression or both; or whether they do not know the classification that each scenario should belong in; or whether they think the scenarios neither belong to cyber-bullying nor cyber aggression categories.

In order to achieve these aims, themes are structured in two formats: an open ended qualitative demonstration of the scenario; and a classification of scenarios into four options of cyber-bullying (CB), cyber-aggression, (CA); both cyber-bullying and cyber-aggression (CBCA); 'Don't Know' (DK) and 'Neither'. For the purpose of this study, cyber-bullying and online aggression (cyber-aggression) will be used as negative online terminological

constructs, with the assumption that other subsets of aggression fall under cyber-aggression, and bullying acts fall under the construct of cyber-bullying. Additionally, like in Study Five, a commonality perspective will be employed so as to determine similarities in the emerging themes from participants' understanding and description (through their responses in the open ended scenarios) alongside their categorical (CA, CB, CBCA etc.) classification of the scenario exemplars (also in frequency ratings)

7.4 Methodology

7.4.1. Open ended scenarios

Instruction from interviewer:

"Please examine the following scenarios and give your opinion on what you think about the behaviours and how you can describe them. There are no right or wrong answers, just write down what you feel about the situation".

Scenario One:

David posted false and malicious information about Michael on a social networking site. Many of Michael's friends saw this information. Michael got upset because of the public embarrassment of this information. How would you describe David's behaviour?

Scenario Two:

Jane was Steve's girlfriend. After she broke up with Steve, he sent several of his friends a nude photograph of Jane. Some of his friends also forwarded the messages to their own friends through mobile phone multi-media messaging service; others posted the photo on a social networking site. How would you describe Steve's behaviour?

Scenario Three:

Raji received a rude name calling message from an unknown sender in a chat room. He asked that the sender stop sending him such messages, instead he received more messages that threatened to kill and hurt him. How would you describe the unknown sender's behaviour?

Scenario Four:

'Jack' met Ruth on a chat site, 'Jack' had always pretended to be a male who fancied Ruth. He kept sending violent videos and unwanted e-mails to Ruth. Ruth had asked that he stopped sending her these messages because she finds them very upsetting. Nevertheless Jack ignored her concerns and kept sending her malicious e-mails. How would you describe 'Jack's actions?

Scenario Five:

Pam is Carole's best friend, she knows Carole's password because Carole has trusted her with it. Pam has used Carole's identity to send nasty messages to all their friends. They all got angry at Carole because of the false belief that she was the one sending out these messages. How would you describe Pam's actions?

7.4.2 Participants

Participants were 114 first year undergraduate college students of Psychology (21 males and 93 females). The age cohorts were 18-25, 25-35 and 36-40. Ninety per cent of participants ages fell within the first age cohort, (median age =18-25). Participants were recruited for this study through a yearly experimental participation pool, where they were awarded credits towards their first year degree program. Participants lived with their parents, partners or

211

alone. They either had mobile phones with internet access or phones without internet access. They used their mobile phones up to five hours a day to send texts between five to fifty times a day. Participants owned computer with internet access averaging of five hours a day, and spent more than five hours a day on their computers for games and social networking purposes.

7.4.3 Procedure

Themes and exemplars derived from Study Five Grounded Theory analyses (Table 7.1, *Q2*) were used to form five scenarios in narrative form. Scenarios were presented to participants in a form of a survey questionnaire (see appendix 6). First, they were administered in an open ended format to test participants' perception of each exemplar. Following the open ended format, participants were instructed to class each scenario into CB, CA, CBCA, DK or Neither categories, depending on their perception of the scenarios. Participants were given answer sheets to write on. Unlike previous prototype studies that have asked participants to recall the events in their scenarios in order to ascertain centrality validation (e.g. Lapsley & Lasky, 2001; Kearns & Fincham 2003; Le et al., 2008) the scenarios in this study will be classed by participants into terminological constructs, as well as being narrated back to the investigator in their own words.

7.4.3.1 Analysis procedure

Data were entered into SPSS to enable an examination of frequency distribution of scenarios. The frequency rates for each category was analysed along with the corresponding open ended qualitative descriptions as presented in Figure 4. Categories were labelled as CB (cyber-bullying); CA (cyber-aggression); CBCA (both cyber-bullying and cyber-aggression). Additionally, the open ended qualitative style scenarios were individually analysed in terms of participants' categorical agreement. Specifically the level of agreement between the

participants about which category the scenarios corresponded to was calculated. Individual categories were analysed according to their scenario agreement, for example, if participants thought *False Malicious Information (FMI)* was cyber-bullying then themes were extracted and analysed from the open ended answers for those participants that classified the *FMI* exemplar scenario as cyber-bullying. The same approach was used for *rude images*, *threats, unwanted messages* and *false identity*. Finally, themes were extracted from participants' qualitative understanding of the scenarios so as to determine intra (within Study Six) and inter (between Studies Five & Six) study triangulatory commonality.

7.5   Results

Figure 4 shows each scenario: False Malicious Information (FMI), Rude Images, Unwanted Messages, False Identity (False ID); and Threats. It also shows the percentage of each scenario in the different categories and their corresponding commonalities.
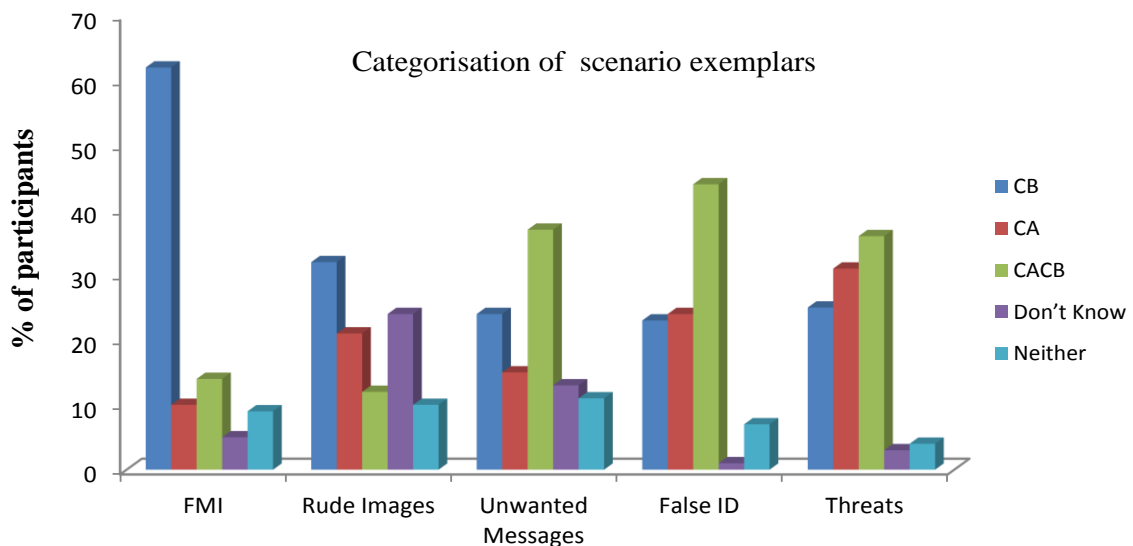
Figure 4: Scenario frequencies according to exemplars' categorisation.

It was observed that some participants who classed scenarios as CB, CA and CACB, readily discussed their perceptions of each given scenario in those categories in detail; whereas

participants who rated the scenarios as DK and 'Neither' frequently used one word to demonstrate their perception and descriptions of the given scenarios.

False/Malicious Information (FMI) exemplar

FMI as CB

Participants reported FMI as an intentional act by the perpetrators to hurt others,

e.g.

> *F/16-25/W: "I think the act is cruel with intent to cause harm...attention seeking, jealous for some reason".*

FMI as CA

Participants pointed more concerned about the immoral aspect of the negative act of FMI

e.g.

> *F/16-25/W: "A bit d**k-ish, uncalled for really, not very classy...it is wrong".*

FMI as CACB

Participants rebuked FMI and referred to it as 'malicious' and 'unacceptable'

e.g.

> *F/16-25/B: "this is simply a malicious act, very unkind I will say".*

FMI as DK and Neither:

Participants who classed FMI as DK, also rebuked FMI as malicious,

e.g.

> *M/16-25/B: "The behaviour was malicious; he shouldn't have done that to Michael especially if they were friends".*

Mostly, participants who classed FMI as 'Neither' reported possible explanation for the negative action,

e.g.

> *F/16-25/W: "There may be some reason which resulted to David behaving the way he did."*

Rude Images exemplar

Rude Images as CB

Females reported that this act was a typical one amongst males

e.g.

> *F/16-25/B: "Steve's behaviour appears to be typical males and appears to be masculine and spiteful".*

However, male participants were more particular about the wrongful nature of rude images exemplars but with some hint of understanding the situation only if it were for retaliation purposes

e.g.

> *M/16-25/W: "Selfish, only understandable if in retaliation to what Jane has done, could be understandable but still wrong."*

Rude Images as CA

In the cyber-aggression category, participants seemed to have explanations for the action of the perpetrator. There was no gender difference in perceptions and descriptions in this category,

e.g.

> *M/16-25/B: "Bit harsh to do it on the social networking site...it seems to be his retaliation and I believe he wouldn't normally act like this, he is just upset over the break-up".*

F/16-25/W: "He seems heartbroken by their split and is trying to attract her attention. Putting the nude photos up which embarrasses Jane is a way to salvage his bruised ego, since Jane broke up with him".

Rude Images as CACB

In the cyber-bullying & cyber-aggression category, participants reported that this sort of behaviour was *horrible* and *inexcusable*

e.g.

F/16-25/W "What a d**k, he is a typical horrible man and one day karma will bite him on the **s".

M/16-25/W, "This is malicious and inexcusable".

Similar to those in the CA category, the 'Neither' participants suggested some explanation of what they thought could have resulted in the perpetrators actions

e.g.

F/16-25/W "Steve's behaviour sounds like he felt as though he was getting revenge on Jane by humiliating her, it sounds as though he wanted to upset Jane and hurt her emotionally as possibly as he was feeling".

Rude Images as DK

Participants who reported not knowing how to class the rude image exemplar scenario described it in a more realistic term

e.g.

F/16-25/W: "His jealousy made him act unconsciously to hurt the one who was his lover not long before; so easy to forget to take into account good parts of the past and pass over the sad parts of love lives."

216

Unwanted Messages exemplar

Unwanted Messages as CB

For those who thought 'continuous unwanted messages' was cyber-bullying, they reported that it was a common behaviour to be sent such unwanted messages on the internet by perpetrators, e.g.

> *M/16-25/B: "Not to worry, just an idle threat which are very wrong and common on the internet. The sender is malicious and cowardly".*

Unwanted messages as CA

Participants that classified unwanted messages as cyber-aggression suggested likely reason for the act, e.g.

> *F/16-25/W: "Jack sounds like he wants to upset Ruth but not disclose his identity. Maybe he has been hurt by Ruth in the past and now wants to revenge without getting in trouble".*

Unwanted Messages as CACB

Participants in this category were similar to those in the cyber-aggression category, e.g.

> *M/16-25/W "he must have a reason for what he is doing but that in no means justifies his behaviour."*

Unwanted messages as DK and Neither

In the 'don't know' and 'neither' categories participants reported the situation as "*uncalled for*" and "*mean*" respectively.

False Identity/Anonymity exemplar

False Identity as CB

Participants who classed false identity as cyber-bullying thought the act was rude and was intended to cause hatred

e.g.

> *F/16-25/ "Pam's actions are rude; she wants to destroy her friend's relationship and to impose her order. Maybe they have common friends and she is less obsessed than Carole".*

False Identity as CA

Participants who classified false identity as cyber-aggression thought the act was unfriendly,

e.g.

> *F/16-25/W: "She probably is not a friend or does not consider Carole as her friend because otherwise she would not do what she did in the first place"*

False Identity as CACB

Participants who classified false identity as cyber-bullying & cyber-aggression thought the act was wrong and unjustifiable

e.g.

> *M/16-25/B: "betrayal, immoral, unfair, unnecessary, selfish, not a good friend, not someone to be trusted".*

False Identity as DK and Neither

On the one hand, participants who did not know how to classify this element thought the situation was less serious

e.g.

> *M/16-25/W: "Pam may be consciously jealous and envious of Carole. Perhaps Carole is really liked and this bother's Pam."*

However, participants who thought the element was neither cyber-bullying nor cyber-aggression reported that the situation could have been a bad joke,

e.g.

> *M/16-25/W: "probably a joke gone bad, but not right to go on someone's phone but then again if done well can be amusing".*

Threats exemplar

Threats as CB

Participants who classified threats as cyber-bullying reported that it was unacceptable

e.g.

> *F/16-25/W "The unknown sender is a lame, sad mean idiot who needs to get a life! He should be reported!*

Threats as CA

Participants who classified threats as cyber-aggression reported it as an act carried out of boredom,

e.g.

> *F/16-25/W. "He does not have any valid reason to send rude offensive messages. So guess he is just bored and possibly disturbed.*

Threats as CACB

Participants who classified this act as cyber-bullying & cyber-aggression said it was a 'complete waste of time'

e.g.

> *M/16-25/W "Pointless, waste of time, he shouldn't take it seriously or get involved".*

Threats as DK and Neither

Participants who classed threats as 'don't know' and neither reported that the action was 'childish' and a 'waste of time' respectively

e.g.

> *F/16-25/W: "it is childish behaviour"*
>
> *M /16-25/B: "simple a waste of people's time"*

7.5.1 Categorical Commonalities

Participants who attributed exemplars to the cyber-bullying category were forthcoming about the fact that the acts were intentional. This was also the case with those that attributed exemplars to the cyber-aggression category were more particular about the moral implications of the perpetrator's behaviours. Additionally, participants who classed scenarios as CACB fluctuated between understanding the reasons for perpetrators' actions and rebuking their acts. Participants who classed scenarios to 'Neither' think there was an explanation for the negative acts; those who did not know how to class the given exemplars (DK) expressed their knowledge of the negative act by sometimes justifying the act and/or rebuking it.

7.5.2 Studies Five and Six triangulatory commonality

Commonalities between the two studies were observed. The feelings of the victims and perpetrators of online aggression were seconded and echoed by participants in this validation study who were not victims but expressed their thoughts on online aggressive behaviours. Similarities in perceptions from both studies are presented in bold fonts.

e.g.

Commonality one:

Study Five: Threats exemplars

M/17/B: "I don't know why I kept getting threats...at first they scared me, but later they started sounding like someone I knew at school and **I just didn't bother anymore...**"

Study Six: Unwanted Messages as CB

M/16-25/B: "**Not to worry, just an idle threat which are very wrong and common on the internet**. The sender is malicious and cowardly".

Commonality two:

Study Five: Goaded aggressor

Satisfaction

M/16/W: "The best thing that can ever happen to a bully is to bully them back, **I'm not proud of what I did, but I am satisfied with all that I did**"

Study Five : Groundless aggressor (Q4, 5)

Depression

M/17/W: "it is depressing to see your parents break up, fights and fights every day, no one seem to understand, changing from one school to the other. **I had to express myself somehow.**"

Study Six- Unwanted Messages as CACB

M/16-25/W: "**He must have a reason for what he is doing** but that in no means justifies his behaviour."

Commonality three:

Study Five: Goaded aggressor (Q4, Q5)

221

Emotionless

*F/16/B: "At a point, I did not get the reaction that I wanted, **it became like a waste of my own time."***

Study Six: Threats as Neither

*M /16-25/B: "**simple a waste of people's time***"

Commonality four:

Study Five: Groundless aggressor (Q4, Q5)

Attention seeking

*M/17/W: "...I sometimes just do it **out of boredom**...when they respond, I send more messages"*

Study Six: Threats as CACB

*M/16-25/W "**Pointless**, waste of time, he shouldn't take it seriously or get involved".*

Commonality five:

Study Five: Rude Images exemplar

Victim

*F/18/W: "...I knew it was my ex-boyfriend because we broke up not long ago and he threatened **to get back at me."***

Study Six: Rude images as CACB

*M/16-25/B: "Bit harsh to do it on the social networking site...**it seems to be his retaliation** and I believe he wouldn't normally act like this, he is just upset over the break-up".*

Commonality six:

Study Five: Groundless perpetrator

> *F/16/B: "I really did not know who the person was, **I could have sent it to anyone"***

Study Six:Threats as CA

> *F/16-25/W. "**He does not have any valid reason** to send rude offensive messages. So guess he is just bored and possibly disturbed.*

7.6 Overall Discussion

The aim of this second study (i.e. Study 6 as a sequel to Study 5) was to validate the findings that emerged from Grounded Theory and Cognitive Mapping approach in Study Five, and secondly, to see how participants' would categorise the contents and exemplars that emerged from the study. The result of the qualitative triangulation echoed the thoughts of goaded aggressors (e.g. **commonality two, depression**: *M16/W & M/16-25/W:* "*he may have a reason for what he is doing...*'). Whilst this is not a justification of the act, it highlights and validates the results found in the goaded aggressors' data.

In all the given scenarios, False Malicious Information (FMI: e.g. "**FMI, perpetrator:** *F/16/B:* "*I lied about several things*") was rated highest as cyber-bullying in the categorisation study, it was also recognised more as an exemplar of cyber-bullying in the previous study when compared to threats and rude images. This is similar to spreading of rumours in the cyber-bullying literature (e.g. Smith et al., 2008) where it has been reported that malicious information are used by instigators to cause emotional harm to victims (Keith & Martin, 2005).

A rather unusual finding is that a moderate proportion of participants thought that the Unwanted Message scenario was cyber-bullying. This might be because participants felt that

the contents of the message are not as hurtful and intimidating as that of False Malicious Information, or perhaps because it was more of a person-to-person basis, the feeling of embarrassment may not be as huge as that of FMI which is available for others to see. FMI is sent by the perpetrator to an audience who reads something false about someone else, continuous unwanted messages are sent to an individual who may or not find such messages hurtful. Thus the audience effect is likely to cause a higher level of hurt or embarrassment to the target than when only he or she is involved with the perpetrator (e.g. in Vandebosch & Van Clemput, 2008).

As seen in the result of False Identity (anonymity) scenario, more participants felt this concept related more strongly to cyber-aggression. This is not too surprising because anonymity appeared to be the mode of operation in internet aggression (e.g. Wolak et al., 2009; 2007; Regehr, 2010) and as seen in the generation of exemplars in Study Five. A similarity in the functioning of anonymity is reported by Chesney et al. (2009) in their investigation on second life where anonymity is a core aspect of how people operate in cyber environment.

Given that scenarios were extracted from participants that were reported by school administrators as cyber-bullies and victims of cyber-bullying in the exemplars' generation stage in Study Five, one would have expected that participants in this study would have classified all scenarios as cyber-bullying; however, this was not the case. A likely explanation for this could be due to the overlapping nature of these sub-types of aggression, which might have made it a bit tricky to easily distinguish one from the other. It may also be that the concepts and measurement issues in cyber-bullying are contingent on its general use in the categorisation of negative online acts, thus resulting in the use of the term cyber-bullying as a primal factor in the online aggression literature.

Nevertheless, these findings indicate that among all categories, triangulation themes were the same; wrong, malicious, unacceptable and antisocial as reported by past research (e.g. Smith et al., 2008; Kite et al., 2011; Keith & Martin, 2005). The findings elucidate the ways in which participants categorise negative online acts and prototypes, irrespective of repetition of the negative acts, provoked or unprovoked triggers of the negative acts and the anonymity of the sender.

These clarifications should play an important role in cyber-bullying research and in the application of preventative measures because it is important that perceptions and concepts of these acts from participants' perspectives are recorded for research purposes. They may assist researchers to understand how well preventative measures can address specific negative online acts of aggression and shape how well preventative measures are disseminated. This viewpoint can be related to Ireland and Snowden's (2002) suggestion that bullying acts should be recorded so as to aid the right preventative measures.

Following from previous research, it is understood that cyber-bullying is not a standalone phenomenon as the definitional concepts which are now subject to on-going debates are borrowed from the traditional bullying literature which in itself has been argued as having definitional problems (Ireland, 1999; Smith & Brain, 2002). These two platforms of bullying – traditional and cyber -are different in terms of their modes of operation, but share certain criteria (e.g. intention by the perpetrators to hurt others). However, it is argued that in order to clarify some of the key issues relating to cyber-bullying, it should be treated as a distinct phenomenon without the confounding role of the traditional definitional constructs, with core emphases on the functions of cyber-bullying.

Referring to the 'reflexive' section, the author relied on theory to emerge from the data before proceeding to a specific literature review on these studies. However, in referring to the literature in cyber-bullying following these findings, cyber-bullying does not involve a

face-to-face confrontation which is necessary for the criterion of physical imbalance of power in face-to-face bullying. The way cyber-bullying operates is through relative forms of aggression which in itself is an indirect (or sometimes direct unwanted messages) form of inflicting harm on prospective or regular victims. Anonymity, which has been argued as a core aspect of imbalance of power in cyber-bullying (e.g. Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008; Sevcikova & Smahel, 2009), is indeed a general mode of operation for online aggressors. Thus the reason for asserting that cyber-bullying should be treated as a standalone phenomenon, first, in order to understand its function. This is plausible given the current debate surrounding cyber-bullying due to its reliance on traditional concept, particularly in areas of imbalance of power.

One limitation of the current study is that the categories given to participants to class elements into are not very representative of sub-types of online-aggression terminologies such as cyber-harassment, cyber-stalking and cyber-abuse. This may have impacted on how participants classed these scenarios. It is suggested that future replication of this study utilise sub categories of cyber-aggression in order to examine and gain a range of understanding of online aggression categorisation.

Another limitation that has been argued with regards to qualitative methods is that it does not allow for generalisation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). However, the combination of two qualitative methods allows for legitimisation of the findings and inference to specific samples of any given population (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007; Tedlie & Yu, 2007; Myers, 2000). It could still be argued that the findings do not generalise to the larger population. However, the purpose of the qualitative research used in this chapter is to provide a rich understanding of cyber-bullying phenomena from the points of view of perpetrators and victims of cyber-bullying. Further replication of this study should employ a quantitative approach to test for classification of exemplars into cyber-aggression

terminological construct and analyse quantitatively the result for each prototype. Nevertheless, the strength of these studies is the application of a combined qualitative method and its focus on behaviours that constitute cyber-bullying from a theory developing perspective (Grounded Theory). This finding and methodological approach may open possibilities for further debates in the cyber-bullying and cyber-aggression arena.

In conclusion, the aim of this chapter was to understand underlying factors that motivate cyber-bullying behaviour following the definitional concept that bullying is an unprovoked act of aggression. The results suggest that some people who cyber-bully do so without having being provoked by their victims; and others carry out cyber-bullying behaviour for revenge or vengeance purposes. It was also the aim of this study to ascertain prototypes that constitute cyber-bullying from perpetrators and victims viewpoints and to understand the generated exemplars from a combined viewpoint of using different sets of participants to determine commonality in perception. The results indicate an agreement in the way participants expressed their feelings about cyber-bullying and cyber-aggression situation.

Chapter-Eight

Study Seven:

Categorisation of cyber-bullying related exemplars into terminological constructs

8.1 Background and rationale

This chapter extends the work presented in Chapter Seven, where emerging prototypes from Grounded Theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967: self-reported and school selected victims and perpetrators of cyber-bully cases) were extracted and used as narratives that were classed into cyber-bullying and cyber-aggression construct. In some cases of self-report, peer and teacher nomination of victims and targets of cyber-bullying, it is possible that other forms of online aggression may have also been reported in cases where cyber-bullying has not been operationalized or made explicit enough to participants that report such negative acts. If those that observe and select participants are not aware of the concepts surrounding bullying and cyber-bullying or have included elements of other severe forms of internet aggression (e.g. Willard, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c), self-report or peer nominations can pose a problem and confound such results. The aim of this chapter is to further understand cyber-bullying through a classification study by undergraduate students.

In the Czech Republic, Sevcikova and Smahel (2009) examined the difference between cyber-bullying and cyber-harassment. They highlighted the exemplars of cyber-bullying and cyber-harassment as 'humiliation', 'mockery', or 'hurt' with no specific indication as to the prototypes that are specific to either of the constructs--cyber-harassment and cyber-bullying. The authors stated that *"the term cyber-bully differs from online-harassment in the requirement for a repetitive pattern of behaviour and a power imbalance*

228

originating from anonymity" (Sevcikova & Smahel, p.229). Thus, one of their reasons for concluding that around 3.4% of the 1,465 Czech adolescents/young adults (12-26 year olds) that they surveyed had been cyber-bullied, was based on the 'anonymity' of the aggressor. Whilst it is plausible to assert that the acts are classed as cyber-bullying because of the repetitive and power imbalance pattern of the behaviour, the anonymity of the aggressor (as reasons for asserting cyber-bullying) is debateable given that other forms of online aggression too can take the form of anonymity (e.g. online griefing: Chesney et al., 2009; cyber-harassment, Wolak et al., 2007). So it could be tricky to speculate cyber-bullying based on anonymity because it has also been asserted that *"the concept of bullying and cyber-bullying may be inappropriate for online interpersonal offenses"* (Wolak et al., 2007, p.51).

A likely explanation for differentiating cyber-harassment from cyber-bullying when similar exemplars are present is the perpetrators 'age' (Bamford, 2005; Gillespie, 2006). When similar bullying behaviours are carried out by teenagers, some researchers refer to them as cyber-bullying while similar behaviours by adults are termed cyber-harassment (Cross et al., 2009). This assertion is open to debate because adults as well have been reported as perpetrators of bullying (Coyne et al., 2004; Monks et al., 2009; Monks & Coyne, 2011). It will be worth exploring whether there are age differences in the classification of scenarios.

Another aim of this chapter is to further understand the prototypes of cyber-bullying so as to see how the result relates to or differs from the exemplars of cyber-harassment, cyber-stalking, cyber-abuse and cyber-aggression. To the author's knowledge, there have been no published studies based on online aggression that have employed a categorisation of sub-types of aggression into terminological constructs such as the one that is being proposed in this study. Thus it is anticipated that the study will open more avenues for debates to

current and prospective researchers and contribute to the understanding of online aggression exemplars.

In the fifth study presented in Chapter Seven, 'cyber-aggression and cyber-bullying' (CACB), 'don't know' and 'neither' were used to classify exemplars that were presented in form of scenarios which participants did not think fitted into cyber-bullying and cyber-aggression constructs. Cyber-aggression was used to represent general ICT based aggression. In this chapter, however, the term will be broken down further into sub-types of aggression that have been identified in the online aggression literature, such as cyber-stalking, cyber-abuse, cyber-harassment and cyber-bullying. The term 'cyber-aggression' is further used in this chapter to assume any other forms of ICT based aggression that is not included in the current presented sub-types.

8.1.1   Rationale

It is proposed that a classification study using cyber-bullying, cyber-harassment, cyber-stalking, cyber-abuse and cyber-aggression will help in understanding the way participants perceive online aggression. It will also clarify whether or not they think that online aggression in the broad sense is cyber-bullying given the general use of this term. It will arguably throw more light onto the main prototypes that constitute cyber-bullying; and help further strengthen the understanding of exemplars that are specific to the individual online aggression construct. Alongside the main aim of this study, a secondary aim will be to examine age and gender differences on an exploratory basis with regards to this perception. The report on age and gender in online aggression is inconclusive. Whilst some studies have reported cyber-bullying victimisation among 11 to 17 years old (e.g. Smith et al., 2008; Li, 2006; Campbell, 2005), other studies have also reported cyber-harassment perpetration among 10 to 17 years old (Ybarara & Mitchell, 2005; McEachen et al., 2012). The reports on

gender are also inconclusive with mixed reports suggesting victimisation and perpetration amongst males and females (e.g. Smith et al., 2008; Kowalski & Limber, 2007).

Furthermore, the findings resulting from age and gender examination can be used to determine tailored preventative measures specific to age groups and gender. For example the Olweus (1983) bullying prevention program was designed for six to 15 years old. However, the program was specifically designed to reduce and prevent bullying in schools and among boys and girls between the ages of 13 and 15. Research on age and gender differences in aggression and bullying are not a new phenomenon, thus it will be interesting to see how age and gender might influence the classification of exemplars into cyber aggression terminological constructs.

8.1.2 Hypothesis:

Going by the general use of the term cyber-bullying, and going by the fact that these exemplars were extracted from self-report and school reported initiators and targets of cyber- and traditional bullying, it would be expected that participants would class these scenarios as cyber-bullying. However, it is hypothesised that:

H_1: there will be a difference in the classifications of prototypes into cyber-bullying construct in each given scenario.

H_2: there will be age difference in the classifications of prototypes into cyber-bullying constructs in each given scenario.

H_3: there will be gender difference in the classification of prototypes into cyber-bullying constructs in each given scenario

8.2 Methodology

8.2.1 Design

A questionnaire study that examined participants' classification of aggression scenario prototypes into terminological constructs of online aggression sub-types. A non-parametric related *K* samples using age and gender as independent variables and scenario scores as dependent variables. Cocran's Q and McNemar tests were conducted because data were categorical in nature.

8.2.2 Participants

N=132. Information on age and gender of participants is presented in Table 8.1. Participants were all Psychology undergraduate students at Goldsmiths, University of London. They were all part of a yearly questionnaire pool which awards credit towards the first year Psychology undergraduate program for each participating student. Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 35.

Table 8.1: Participants' information.

N=132; Median age 18-21 years old							
Ethnicity	**Black**	11%	**White**	65%	**Asian**	19%	**others**	2%
Age	**18-24**	46%	**25-35**	44%	**35-49**	11%	**41-50**	1%
Gender	**Male**	28%	**Female**	72%				

Participants' demographic details indicated that only one participant did not use a computer or laptop for internet communication purposes; 41% did so between 1 to 20 hours per week, 39% between 20 to 50 hours per week, 13% between 50 to 100 hours per week; and 5% of participants for more than 100 hours per week. (One person had missing data on this question).

Furthermore, only one participant did not use a mobile phone for text messages; 44% did so between 1 to 20 per week, 33% between 20 to 50 times per week, 14% between 50 to 100 times per week and 5% of participants for more than 100 times per week (three people had missing data on this question).

As to the frequency of telephone calls made per week, only 2% of participants did not use a mobile phone for phone calls; 85% did so between 1 to 20 hours per week, 8% between 20 to 50 times per week; 3% between 50 to 100 times per week; and 2% of participants for more than 100 times per week.

8.2.3   Materials

Scenarios that were formed with Grounded Theory (GT: Glaser & Straus, 1967) and Cognitive Mapping (Clark, 2005; Licquirish & Siebold, 2011) in Chapter Seven were used as materials for this study. One of the aims of the GT study was to determine what exemplars were core to cyber-bullying. The content of the material was generated from a qualitative study which was derived from perpetrators and victims of traditional and cyber-aggression. Emerging codes from these interviews were strictly analysed in line with the GT process of data analysis, which involves perusing already collected data, adding on new ones; and revisiting perused data so as to obtain meaningful coded sub-themes and themes (Charon, 2001; Glaser & Straus, 1967; Licquirish & Siebold, 2011).

Derived exemplars from the analysis were False Malicious Information, Rude Images, False Identity/Anonymity, Threats, and Unwanted Messages. These exemplars were written down and narrated in a scenarios format in two A4 papers that (please see appendix 6). For this study, each scenario material was presented in a narrative format with multiple choice answers of cyber-bullying, cyber-aggression, cyber-abuse, cyber-harassment and cyber-

stalking so that participants can choose the terminological category which they think best fit each given scenario.

Individual exemplars of each scenario

The scenarios are preceded by their individual exemplars for ease of reading in this method section. However when they were presented to participants they were not preceded by their respective corresponding exemplar (see appendix 6 for scenarios as presented to participants). This method of scenario presentation to participants was chosen because it is assumed that if each exemplars preceded the scenarios, it may pose as a confounding factor to the way that participants classify them. Participants may dwell unnecessarily on the exemplars rather than the actions of the perpetrators and the reactions of the targets. Also, other important pointers such as the targets of the aggressive acts having shown concern for such messages as presented in the Threats scenario for example, may not be put into consideration if exemplars preceded each scenario. It is also likely that the action inherent in going through anonymity in the False Identity/Anonymity scenario presented below may not be put into consideration by participants in the event that the exemplars preceded the presented scenario. Therefore, not preceding the individual scenarios by their corresponding exemplars inherent in each of the scenarios is a step taken to minimise the likelihood of leading participants but to enables them instead to think carefully about each of the scenario before categorising them.

Another argument for not preceding the scenarios by their respective element is that participants may think or feel that they were trick scenario questions because they probably would wonder why the exemplars were presented before the scenarios as well as weaved through their respective scenarios narratives. Thus, in order to avoid all of these assumptions relating to flagging out each scenario exemplar; and in order not to distract participants or confound the results of the present study, there was no prior flagging of the exemplars to

234

participants, neither were there any pointers of the exemplars within the scenario narratives. Based on these arguments, it is plausible to assert that whilst all these actions are an elaboration of negative cyber acts, they are also ways which the author had used to operationalise each of the given scenarios to participants. Arguably this method will help establish the aim of this study which is to ascertain participants' perception of the scenarios and how they fit into online aggression subsets.

8.2.4 Scenarios

False Malicious Information (FMI)

> *David posted false and malicious information about Michael on a social networking site. Many of Michael's friends saw this information. Michael got upset because of the public embarrassment of this information. How would you classify David's behaviour?*

a). Cyber-aggression... b) Cyber-bullying... c) cyber-harassment. d) cyber-stalking e) cyber-abuse.

Rude Images

> *Jane was Steve's girlfriend. After she broke up with Steve, he sent several of his friends a nude photograph of Jane. Some of his friends also forwarded the messages to their own friends through mobile phone multi-media messaging service; others posted the photo on a social networking site. How would you classify Steve's behaviour?*

Threats

> *Raji received a rude name calling message from an unknown sender in a chat room. He asked that the sender stop sending him such messages, instead he received more*

messages that threatened to kill and hurt him. How would you classify the unknown

sender's behaviour?

Continuous Unwanted Messages

'Jack' met Ruth on a chat site, 'Jack' had always pretended to be a male who fancied

Ruth. She kept sending violent videos and unwanted e-mails to Ruth. Ruth had asked

that he stopped sending her these messages because she finds them very upsetting.

Nevertheless Jack ignored her concerns and kept sending her violent videos. How

would you classify 'Jack's actions?

False Identity/Anonymity

Pam is Carole's best friend, she knows Carole's password because Carole had

trusted her with it. Pam has used Carole's identity to send nasty messages to all their

friends. They all got angry at Carole because of the false belief that she was the one

sending out these messages. How would you classify Pam's actions?

8.2.4.1   Reliability and legitimacy of material

Five major exemplars that emerged in the form of themes arising from qualitative interviews in the fifth study presented in Chapter Seven were used as scenarios for this study. Participants gave their account of having been targets and perpetrators of bullying and cyber-bullying behaviours and their data were analysed. In that same study, themes from another set of participants who had also been in similar bully and victim situation were also examined for commonality (intra study triangulation). Emerging themes were analysed and presented in an open-ended scenario format allowing for a third set of set of participants (Study Six, validation of exemplars: N=114) to demonstrate their perception and understanding of the scenarios (inter study triangulation). This was so that commonality in a triangulatory process could be achieved.

There were triangulatory commonalities between the codes of the 114 participants and the initial nine participants in features generation and motivations of cyber-bullying. This allowed for the credibility of the scenarios to be assumed in the triangulatory examination. For example, a recount of Threat scenario from the original interview indicated that sometimes participants felt threatened at the beginning when they first received threatening messages; but as the messages persisted, they no longer felt the strength of the threat as they had once perceived it, thus making it sound more of an empty threat (e.g. ***intra study triangulation***: *"I don't know why I kept getting threats...at first they scared me, but later they started sounding like someone I knew at school..."* (*M/17/B*); ***inter study triangulation***: *"Not to worry, just an idle threat which are very wrong and common on the internet. The sender is malicious and cowardly" (M/16-25/B).* The purpose of triangulation was so that reliability and legitimisation of the findings could be assured (Clark, 2005; Licquirus & Siebold, 2011; Onwuegbueze & Leech, 2007).

8.2.5   Procedure

Ethical approval was obtained from Goldsmiths, Department of Psychology Research Ethics Committee. An opportunistic approach was used in recruiting participants through a yearly participation pool where they would be awarded credits for participating in the study. The material was presented in two A4 papers in a questionnaire format. 'False Malicious Information' was presented as scenario 1. 'Rude Images' was presented as scenario 2. 'Threats' was presented was presented as scenario 3. 'False Identity/Anonymity' was presented as scenario 4. 'Continuous Unwanted Messages' was presented as scenario 5.

Participants were informed that participating in the study was voluntary and that they could omit any question they were not comfortable with; and that they could withdraw at any time. Participants were further instructed that their personal information such as student

number would be dealt with in strict confidence and that they would be anonymous to potential readers and examiners of the research work.

8.2.5.1   Analysis procedure

Data were entered into SPSS to ascertain the frequency distribution of responses to each scenario as shown in Table 8.2. Participants' demographic details were also entered alongside their responses to each of the given questions. Each scenario was entered as a separate variable along with the value of each terminological construct. After initial frequencies had been obtained, the exemplars were then recoded for further analyses to determine the difference between the classifications of scenario as cyber-bullying or other sub-types of online aggression. Cyber-bullying was recoded into a separate category valued "1", and other categories were valued as "0" so as to test for cyber-bullying response in each scenario (as shown in Table 8.2). Four participants were excluded from the analysis because they did not answer any of the scenario questions. Participants who chose more than one answer were not included in the analysis.

Within-subject Cochran's Q test was conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference between the dependent variables 'cyber-bullying' and 'others'; and the independent variables 'age' and 'gender'. Cochran's test was used because data was categorical in nature. All follow-up analyses were corrected for multiple comparisons using Bonferoni corrections on $\alpha=.05$. In testing for gender and age differences, recoded scenario scores (all cyber-bullying classification scores in all scenarios) were used as DV and test variables age and gender as IVs respectively. For each test, two independent samples t-tests were conducted to test the difference between males and females; and two age groups (18-21 years old, and 20+), and their classification of each scenario as cyber-bullying.

8.3 Results

Descriptive statistics for each scenario and their given frequencies are presented in Table 8.2.

Figure 5 shows the percentage (not frequency) for each given scenario.

Table 8.2: Frequency distribution of scenarios according to aggression sub-types

cyber-bullying and other sub-types of aggression scores per scenarios (excluding no response cases)		
Scenarios	**Cyber-bullying**	**Others**
False malicious information (FMI)	52	79
Rude Images	26	105
Threats	46	85
Unwanted Messages	42	89
False Identity/Anonymity	32	99

There was a statistically significant difference between the classification of the different scenarios as to the number of people who classed them as Cyber-bullying, Cochran's Q(4)=16, p=.003.

Follow up McNemar tests revealed that there were no statistically significant differences in most of the pair-wise comparisons of each individual scenario and their Cyber-bullying classifications. However, there were significant differences in participant's categorisation of False Malicious Information scenario as Cyber-bullying (40%) when compared to Rude Images (20%), χ^2 (1,131) = 11.16, p=.01.

There was also a significant difference in participants' classification of False Malicious Information as Cyber-bullying (40%) when compared to False Identity (24%), χ^2 (1,131) =.40, p=.05.

There was a non-significant trend in participants classification of Rude Images (20%) and Threats (35%) as Cyber-bullying, χ^2 (1,131) = 7.2, p=.07; which is an indication that Rude Images and Threats are different but not very much in terms of their classification as cyber-bullying.

Further, participants' demographic details which include the rates at which participants reported using their mobile phone for internet and text purposes did not significantly relate to any of the dependent variables and thus did not have any effect on the classification of exemplars.

8.3.1 Gender and age difference in scores (total) on categorisation of exemplars:

For each participant, the total number of scenarios that were classified as cyber-bullying was calculated. A Mann-Whitney U-test indicated a non-significant trend to a difference in the number of scenarios classified as cyber-bullying by males (X= 1.9) and females (X=1.4) z =1.8, p=.07 which is an indication that males and females are not very much different in terms of their total scores on classifications of exemplars as cyber-bullying.

A Mann-Whitney U-test also indicated a non-significant difference in the number of scenarios classified as cyber-bullying by age z =.14, p=.19. This is also an indication that 18 to 21 years old and 22+ years old did not significantly differ in their classifications of exemplars as cyber-bullying.
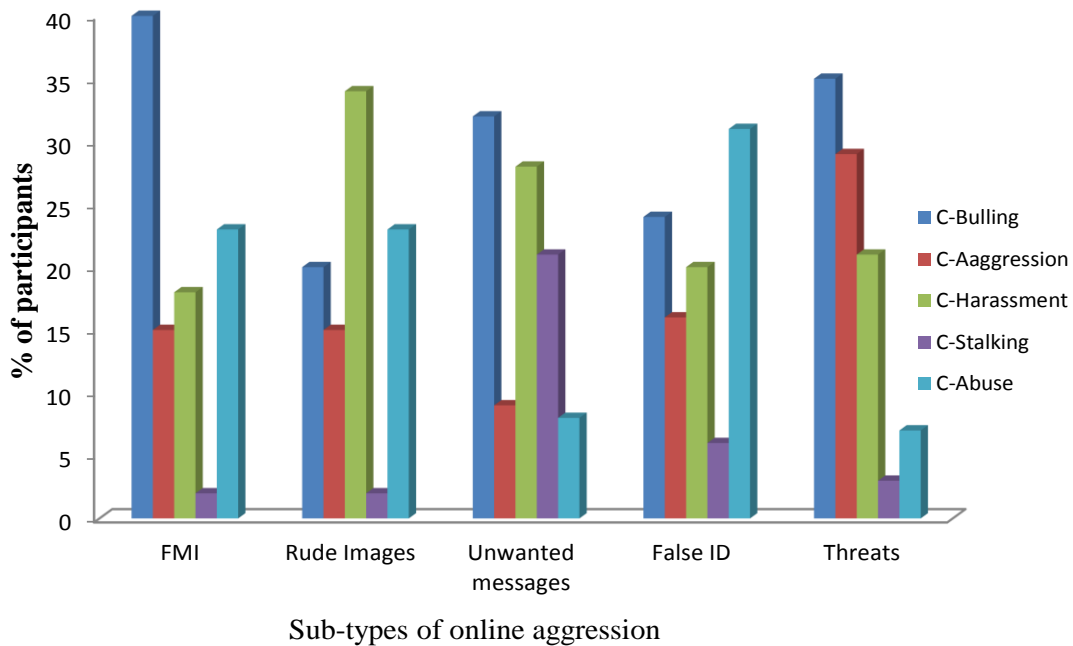
Figure 5: Percentage ratings of scenarios according to their aggression sub-types.

As highlighted in Figure 5, and as seen in Table 8.2, many participants gave a classification other than cyber-bullying in all categories. For example the largest proportion of participants (34%) classified Rude Images as Cyber-harassment, with Cyber-abuse as the second highly rated category (23%). Cyber-bullying (20%) was third in the rating followed by cyber-aggression (15%) and cyber-stalking (2%). Thus in this scenario, participant perceived Rude Images as cyber-harassment more than they perceived it to be cyber-bullying.

8.4 Discussion

This study sets out to test the hypothesis that there would be a difference in participants' classification of exemplars into cyber-bullying construct in each scenario. In line with this, not all participants classified the given scenarios as cyber-bullying, with a high proportion of other descriptions for each scenario. The False Malicious Information scenario was rated significantly more different in terms of cyber-bullying classification than Rude Images and

241

False Identity. The Rude Images scenario was thought of more frequently by participants as cyber-harassment than it was thought of as cyber-bullying. This finding is in agreement with Wolak et al., (2009) and Jones' et al. (2011) finding regarding online harassment and materials of sexual nature being sent to participants. The False Identity/Anonymity exemplar was more thought of as cyber-abuse than it was thought of as cyber-bullying. Whilst this is an indication that participants are aware of other online negative acts, it also supports Mishna et al.'s assertion regarding cyber-abuse and the anonymity involved in online cyber-sexual solicitation (Mishna et al., 2009a, 2009b). Further, the False Identity/Anonymity scenario was more commonly described in terms of cyber-abuse and attributed to cyber-bullying, cyber-aggression and cyber-harassment which are a pointer towards the argument that anonymity is not cyber-bullying specific but a general online aggression exemplar.

Furthermore, individual scrutiny of the scenarios indicated that cyber-stalking is not well recognised by participants in terms of their classification of exemplars into this term. It may be that they genuinely did not think that the scenarios fitted into the meaning of the term cyber-stalking or perhaps they are not familiar with the cyber-stalking concept and its current literature. Another viewpoint is that the exemplars of stalking according to the aggression literature can be similar to that of harassment (e.g. Regehr, 2010; Sheridan & Grant, 2007), so it might be that participants felt that cyber-harassment being a more known term was more appropriate than cyber-stalking to class elements into. Cyber-stalking unlike cyber-bullying and cyber-harassment, is not a common term that is often used in the cyber-aggression literature and there are very few research studies using the term cyber-stalking (e.g. Mishna et al., 2009a; 2011; Regehr 2010; Sheridan & Grant, 2007). Following cyber-stalking in terms of low categorisation spread, is cyber-aggression which only recently has started being used as a terminological construct (elements of this term were listed and defined in the cyber-

aggression literature by the author of this study in a conference poster presented in 2009. It is defined in depth in the author's articles published in 2010 & 2012: Studies One & Six).

Prior to merging the scenarios as 'cyber-bullying' and 'others' there was a similar spread in classification of all the scenario elements. This further indicates how different acts of cyber-aggression overlap in their functions as posited by Chesney et al. (2009). According to the findings in this classification study, it is plausible to assert that cyber-bullying is a more common online negative act than other sub-types of aggression. However, some exemplars are more common to cyber-bullying than others. It can be argued that Rude Images is more common to the concept of cyber-harassment than False Malicious Information is to the concept of cyber-harassment. This is also true for how researchers in the online aggression literature have reported these exemplars (e.g. cyber-bullying: malicious information, Smith et al., 2008; Gradinger & Strohmehier, 2009; online harassment: sexual materials, Jones et al., 2011). It may be the case that participants did not feel that sending picture messages and rude images were necessary for cyber-bullying as much as they were for cyber-harassment.

'Threats' exemplar was also evenly attributed to cyber-bullying, cyber-aggression and cyber-harassment, which is an indication that threat is a common exemplar in online forms of aggression. The Unwanted Messages exemplar was evenly attributed to cyber-bullying, cyber-harassment and cyber-stalking, which also indicates that online aggression takes the form of unwanted messages, irrespective of whether the act is cyber-bullying, cyber-abuse, cyber-stalking or cyber-harassment. This is related to the findings in the centrality ratings in Chapter Five, where nasty messages, rude images, mean messages, fearful messages just to mention a few of the exemplars are all unwanted forms of messages that are sent to targets by perpetrators (e.g. Keith & Martin, 2005; Smith et al., 2008; Gradinger & Strohmier, 2009; Jones et al., 2013)

In comparison with the findings in the sixth study in Chapter Seven, False Malicious Information was the highest rated as cyber-bullying with Unwanted Messages False Identity and Threats as highest rated in their respective scenarios as both cyber-aggression and cyber-bullying (CACB). CACB was presented to participants as an alternative to when participants were not sure whether the exemplars were either cyber-bullying or cyber-aggression. Also given that cyber-stalking, cyber-harassment and cyber-abuse were included in this study rather than CACB, the spread of the classification of exemplars to these constructs is an indication that previous participants thought those exemplars needed to fit into different categories than the ones presented to them.

The type of participants (i.e. university students) used in this study may have contributed to the clarification of this terminology, given that most cyber-bullying literature reports on studies on pupils and teenagers, with fewer studies which have examined adult participants. For the studies which have examined adult participants alongside younger participants, it is a common finding that young participants reported more cyber-bullying compared to adult participants (e.g. Sevcikova & Smahel, 2009). It is arguable however, that participants with less experience of the world, (e.g. secondary school students) may not have vast knowledge of the world when compared to older adults or university students. This assumption is applicable to research in the online aggression environment where researchers have not fully defined the term cyber-bullying to their young participants.

In cases where there has not been an elucidation of what cyber-bullying consists of, asking questions about how many times someone has been bullied may risk reliability and legitimacy of such findings. This line of argument is supported by Nansel et al. (2001) who posited that it is paramount that there are clear distinctions between what elements constitute bullying and what elements do not. Thus in a situation where there has not been a clear distinction as to what cyber-aggressive category have been investigated, the researcher risks

generalisation and reliability of such studies. Research in the cyber-bullying literature has always included 'spreading false rumours' and 'malicious information' as ways in which perpetrators bully their victims (Lee et al., 2011; Slonje & Smith; 2008; Smith et al., 2008; Willard, 2007). Thus rating the False Malicious Information scenario as highest in cyber-bullying classification is a reiteration of this exemplar as a core content of cyber-bullying.

The second most rated category for the False Malicious Information scenario is cyber-abuse. There is not much research on cyber-abuse apart from that of Mishna et al. (2009a; 2009b; 2011). Cyber-abuse according to these authors is an umbrella term for all ICT based aggression. It is likely that because this term is not as commonly used as cyber-bullying, participants may not have been aware that it represents an umbrella term for all online aggressive acts. The same argument is applied to those few participants who classed the False Malicious Information scenario as cyber-stalking; and those who classed it as cyber-aggression and cyber-harassment.

With regards to cyber-harassment (Rude Images scenario), there is upcoming research in this area especially from researchers in the USA (e.g. Wolak et al., 2007; 2009; Jones et al., 2011, Ybarra & Mitchel, 2004). Nevertheless from the point of view of traditional harassment, Rude Images may pass for sexual harassment which is a common type of harassment that takes the form of sexual connotations, such that the target feels uncomfortable (Berdahl 2007; Leskinen et al., 2011; Schultz, 2003).

The Threats scenario is also a reiteration of past research (e.g. Smith et al., 2008; Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008). With regards to cyber-abuse (e.g. False Identity/anonymity scenario), as previously stated, cyber-abuse is not a commonly used term and research in this area is very minimal (e.g. Mishna et al. 2009a; 2009b). The use of ICT for online aggressive acts, and worse still, to hide one's identity whilst such acts are being perpetrated, is an abuse of the medium that is used to send such messages. Thus using

anonymity as a core concept for cyber-bullying as did Sevcikova and Smahel (2009) may be tricky when it is indeed a major mode of operation for general online aggression.

Generally, there are overlaps with regards to the exemplars going by the almost equal spread in exemplar distribution into terminological construct. This may be because the contents of online aggression are similar, as posited by Sevcikova and Smahel (2009) in their differentiation between cyber-bullying and cyber-harassment; and by Wolak et al. (2007) in their examination of traditional bullying as applied to cyber-bullying. Thus, the exemplars that constitute cyber-bullying could arguably be similar to those that constitute cyber-harassment, cyber-abuse, cyber-stalking and cyber-aggression. Notwithstanding, a clarification of cyber-abuse is that it is an umbrella term that embraces the above-mentioned sub-types of cyber aggression carried out with the aim of preying on children and adolescents (Mishna et al., 2009a; 2009b).

It is of interest however, that people's classification of online exemplars did not seem to differ according to their age and gender and their use of mobile phones, computers or the amount of text messages or phone calls that they make. A possible explanation for this might be that because participants are university students, they are more likely to be aware of the different types of sub-types of aggression. The absence of statistical significance in age and gender indicate that categorisation of online aggression sub-types are not age and gender specific. This is in accordance with research that have not found gender differences in cyber-bullying and online harassment victimisation and perpetration (Slonge & Smith, 2008; Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004). It is also likely that the absence of significant difference was because younger age groups were not used for the study, it might be interesting for future research to investigate younger age group in a similar study so as to see whether or not the findings would differ according to age.

Given that scenarios were extracted from cyber-bullying victims and perpetrators one would have expected participants to have classified the scenarios as cyber-bullying; however, this was not the case. Perhaps as previously discussed in Chapter Seven, the general use of the term cyber-bullying in some literature has played a major role in how researchers view cyber-bullying and how these terms are perceived and interpreted by the more general public. Nevertheless, going by the findings in this thesis with regards to actual cyber-bullying cases, it is plausible to assert that false malicious information and unwanted messages are the core exemplars of cyber-bullying. Also going by general perception of cyber-bullying from lay perspective using prototype approach, the core exemplars as found in the third and fourth studies are swear words, nasty messages, name calling, malicious messages and messages of a threatening nature. It is worth stating however, that these exemplars should be interpreted alongside the limitations surrounding the individual studies in this thesis.

It is worth pointing out the limitations of the current study. The measurement used in ascertaining terminological categorisation of online aggression was derived from reported self-reported and teacher nominated cases of cyber-bullying. Thus it could be argued that these scenarios are not representative of general online aggression. However going by the selection criteria of participants who generated these exemplars and the general use of the term cyber-bullying (and the inclusion of other forms of online aggression in cyber-bullying measurement: Dursun & Akbuluty, 2010; Willard 2007a, 2007b, 2007c; Akbulut & Çuharda, 2011), using these exemplars for categorisation of online aggression sub-types is arguably plausible. Nevertheless, it is suggested that future replication of this study use reported cases of cyber-bullying, cyber-abuse, cyber-stalking, cyber-harassment and cyber-aggression to determine whether their extracted exemplars would be classed accordingly to their generated antecedents.

With respect to self-report and teacher nomination cases of participants used in to generate exemplars, there is the likelihood of reported acts of cyber-bullying not fitting into the definitional concept of cyber-bullying. As seen in the report of Dursun and Akbulut (2010) where 51% of reported forms of cyber-bullying was flaming and only 15% of actual cyber-bullying related cases was observed. It is arguable therefore that the scenarios are representation of online aggressive acts because participants' actions are narrated as they have carried out the negative acts. Another limitation is the unequal number of males and females that were used for the study. It is suggested that future replication of this study where possible use similar amount of males and females to investigate gender differences.

The strength of this study is the explication of online aggression sub-types and the exemplars that are core to each sub-type. It also lies in the type of participants used for the categorisation of exemplars, given that participants are undergraduates and are likely to have the knowledge of the aggression sub-types that were presented to them.

Conclusively, following from the findings in the sixth study in Chapter Seven and the findings in this study False Malicious Information exemplar is the core prototype (of cyber-bullying) generated in actual cases of cyber-bullying. This is in concordance with studies which have particularly examined cyber-bullying (e.g. Keith & Martin, 2005; Gradinger & Strohmeier, 2009) without the confounding roles of cyber-stalking, flaming and cyber-harassment. Going by the findings in the actual cases of cyber-bullying conducted in the sixth study in Chapter Seven and the study in this chapter, it is plausible to assert that sub-types of aggression differ in terms of their core exemplars. False Malicious Information is a core exemplar to instances of cyber-bullying, Rude Images are core to instances of cyber-harassment and False Identity/Anonymity is a core exemplar to cases of cyber-abuse, where cyber-abuse can also imply the misuse of cyber-technology to carry out cyber-aggressive acts. This assertion is made with caution in relation to the limitations of these studies.

248

Nevertheless to the author's knowledge, no other study has looked at prototypes of online aggression in line with terminological classification. It is hopeful that its findings will be used for relevant preventative measures, further measurement of cyber-bullying concepts and exemplars; and open up further avenues for debates in online aggression generally.

Chapter Nine

General Discussion and Conclusion

9.1 Summary of thesis

This thesis was carried out with the major aim of contributing to the understanding of the concept, definition and perception of cyber-bullying. It was also the aim of this thesis to explicate sub-types of aggression with the hope of contributing to: a) knowledge and future research debate; b) opening up avenues where policy makers, counsellors, and other professionals can initiate applicable preventative measures tailored to individual sub-types of online aggression.

Table 9.1 summarises each of the studies that were conducted in this thesis. The initial part of the thesis, particularly Chapter One, provided an in-depth review of research on aggression and the development of the bullying literature. Harassment, stalking and abuse were highlighted alongside their concepts and definitions particularly in areas where they differed from other sub-types of aggression.

Chapter Two introduced the prevalence in the use of Information Communication Technology and compared and contrasted the differences between offline and online communication.

Chapter Three further addressed and reviewed the various types of aggression that were discussed in Chapter One alongside their cyber forms. From the discussion in Chapter Three, it was surmised that various forms of traditional aggression are evident in the cyber environment. However the extents of these evidences were not clear due to non-operationalization of cyber-bullying reports in some studies (e.g. Akbulut et al., 2010; Akbulut & Cuhadar, 2011; Yilmaz, 2010; Ryan et al., 2005; Li, 2008). Also in cases where

these were operationalized, some of the reported analogous forms arguably did not fit within the antecedents and prototypes of bullying (e.g. reported cases of heated arguments in Dursun & Akbulut, 2010).

In Chapter Four, an examination of general online aggression and the general use of the term cyber-bullying was conducted. Focus group and individual interviews were carried out in order to understand people's perception of the various negative acts that are common with the use of ICT.

Table 9.1: Summary of all seven studies conducted.

Chapters	Participants' information	Aims of studies
Study One (Chapter Four)	**N=34** 8-54 years old. Students and adults	Qualitative studies using focus groups and individual interviews to examine the use of the term cyber-bullying and general online aggression (***published article***)
Study Two (Chapter Five)	**N=134** 18-35 years old Psychology undergraduates	Investigated prototypes that are common to cyber-bullying following the findings from previous Study One
Study Three (Chapter Five)	**N=116** 18-35 years old Psychology undergraduates	Quantitative study investigating central and peripheral prototypes of cyber-bullying
Study Four (Chapter Six)	**N=89** 18-35 years old Psychology undergraduates	Recall and Recognition Memory Tasks (a validation of central and peripheral prototypes of cyber-bullying)
Study Five (Chapter Seven)	**N=10** 14-18 years old Secondary, primary and undergraduate students	Qualitative examination of motivations and the determination of exemplars of cyber-bullying in individual interviews
Study Six (Chapter Seven)	**N=114** **18 - 40 years old** Psychology undergraduate	Perception, validation and categorisation of online aggression prototypes (qualitative study: ***published article***)
Study Seven (Chapter Eight)	**N=132** 18-49 years old Psychology Undergraduates	Quantitative examination and categorisation of prototypes into sub-categories of cyber-harassment, cyber-bullying, cyber-stalking and cyber-abuse

At the time of carrying out the focus group interviews (2009), the debate surrounding cyber-bullying was at its early stages. The study was conducted in order to contribute to the understanding of the various aggressive acts that were likely to occur with the use of ICT.

The results highlight ambiguity in the use of the term cyber-bullying and a further need to understand general online aggression. The importance of the qualitative method was to obtain words and exact phrases of participants' perception of the term cyber-bullying and to demonstrate their knowledge of other online aggressive acts. The findings from this study threw more light onto the broad use of cyber-bullying as a generally used term for other forms of online aggression.

Study Two in Chapter Five, examined generated prototypes of cyber-bullying in college students. This study contributed to the aim of this thesis in the form of elucidating prototypes that are common to instances of cyber-bully. The resulting prototypes' clusters gave a characteristic view of cyber-bullying with regards to people's perception regarding its definition; the characteristics of cyber-bullies, the contents used in cyber-bullying others and the processes used in carrying out cyber-bullying.

Studies Three and Four in Chapters Five and Six respectively further highlighted prototypes that are central to cyber-bullying and those that are not central but common to other forms of online aggression (e.g. anonymity, hacking and grooming). The findings from these studies further contribute to the understanding of cyber-bullying in terms of elucidating prototypes that can be used to distinguish cyber-bullying situations from other forms of online aggression.

The contribution of the prototype approach to this thesis and to bullying literature generally, is an indication that cyber-bullying is prototypically organised (e.g. prototype process assertion by Rosch, 1978; Kearns & Fincham, 2003) and therefore can be differentiated from other forms of online aggression. This is not surprising as it is fast becoming an everyday construct due to its publicity and the fact that cyber-bullying is causing a huge concern to the society at large. Apart from knowing what exemplars are

unique to the phenomenon of cyber-bullying, the studies also clarified categories that surround online aggression phenomena in forms of peripheral exemplars that were generated.

Generally the prototype results found in this research can be understood from two perspectives-- individual and group. From an individual to individual perspective, it is understood that a cyber-bully is an angry and mean time-waster who has low self-esteem, uses bold fonts to communicate with his/her victim and intentionally sends unwanted messages (at any time) to his or her victim. From a group perspective, it is understood that cyber-bullies form online groups, intentionally distribute false malicious messages, create hate-page (write hateful messages), and draw other people's attention to it so as to spite and embarrass their victims (as also reported by Keith & Martin, 2005; Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008).

Studies Five and Six in Chapters Seven threw more light onto reactive and proactive motivations of aggression (e.g. Brendgen et al., 2006; Card & Little, 2006), through its findings on goaded and groundless aggressors. The importance of the qualitative method employed here (Grounded Theory and symbolic interaction) highlighted the need for theoretically based approach in understanding instances of cyber-bullying.

Study Seven in Chapter Eight tested participants' knowledge on categorisation of exemplars into cyber-harassment, cyber-stalking, cyber-bullying, cyber-aggression and cyber-abuse by way of validating core exemplar of cyber-bullying.

9.2   Summary of literature

Aggression is broad and comprises acts of violence which can take the form of inflicting physical personal injury on others (WHO, 2004; Baron & Richardson, 1994; Agervold & Anderson, 2006; Ferguson, 2011). Violence can also be any form of abuse or maltreatment that are witnessed in cases of child, spouse and relationship abuse (Arnetz & Arnetz, 2000;

Ferguson & Beaver, 2009; Monks et al., 2009). Abuse is a form of direct physical and verbal aggression with consequences that harm and cause psychological and physical injury to the intended victims (Berzenski & Yates, 2011; Robenhurst et al., 2012; Oshri et al., 2011). Thus overlap exists among these different terms that are used to categories and classify aggression in the general context (Chesney et al., 2009; Smith & Brain, 2000). Some instances of abuse are seen in cases of child sex, spanking children for misbehaviour through to physically chastising a partner (Berzenski & Yates, 2011; Robenhurst et al., 2012; Monks et al., 2009). This instances have been applied to bullying where it takes the form of physically pushing, shoving, hitting and kicking someone (Olweus, 1993; Monks et al., 2009), to spreading of rumours, social ostracism and indirect exclusions in group activities (Coyne et al., 2004; Salmivalli, 2010; Sutton & Smith, 1999). Bullying itself has been reported to happen in similar fashion as harassment, stalking and abuse applicable to and across different settings irrespective of age and gender (Monks et al., 2009).

Bandura (1983), the World Health Organisation (2004) and Anderson and Bushman's (2002) definition of aggression as discussed in Chapter One and as presented in Table 0.1 is similar to the definition proposed by Olweus (1993; 1996) with respect to bullying, in the sense that they share 'intentionality', repetition (in some cases) and victims feel hurt as a result of the negative action in a systematic abuse of power relationship (Smith & Sharp, 1994).

Buss (1961) and Berkowitz and LePage (1967) specifically examined and researched direct forms of aggression during the 1960s. Olweus (1973; 1978) also at the initial stage of bullying research, specifically examined and researched direct forms of bullying which was common among school children. As the debate began to grow regarding age and gender differences in aggression, Largerspetz, Björkqvist & Peltonen (1988), Björkqvist (1994), and Björkqvist et al. (1994) among other researchers specifically examined and researched

indirect forms of aggression and reported that females were as much aggressors as males were. Similarly, in the bullying literature Olweus (1993), Salmivalli et al. (1996), and Sutton et al. (1999) among other researchers (e.g. Rodkin & Hodges, 2003) identified verbal forms of bullying as unpleasant things, rumours, false malicious messages in other to seclude someone and undermine their relationships with others. According to Smith and Sharp (1994, p.1), *"a student is being bullied or picked on when another student says a nasty and unpleasant things to him or her";* bullying which was once reported as prominent among teenagers began to gain prominence in the workplace and across different settings such as secure hospitals and prisons (e.g. Coyne et al., 2004; Ireland & Snowden, 2002; Monks & Coyne, 2011; Monks et al., 2009; Tremblay 2008). A serious onetime case of aggression has been included in instances of bullying by Olweus (1993), but this inclusion has not been adapted by some researcher due to the argument that it may negate the purpose of the repetition needed to justify a situation as bullying (e.g. Monks et al., 2009). Bullying is a repeated form of aggression with differing dimensions such as group ostracism (e.g. Salmivalli et al., 1996; Olweus, 2001; Sutton et al., 1999; Salmivalli, 2010).

As the literature regarding direct and indirect forms of aggression and their consequences on targeted victims increased, so also were other environmental changes occurring (e.g. the advancement in technology, UNESCO, 2009; Bell, 2001). A noticeable change that relates to the dimension of aggressive behaviour is the use of Information Communication Technology (McKenna & Bargh, 2000; Bargh & McKenna, 2004; Kite et al., 2010; Ridout et al., 2005). With the rapid growth in the use of ICT and the constant advancement in modern technology, the bullying literature advanced and researchers identified certain bully-like situations that occur via ICT (e.g. Belsey, 2004; 2009; Smith et al., 2006; 2008; Willard, 2004; 2007). However the application of the bullying concept to the ICT-based bullying (cyber-bullying) opened up many avenues for debate and gave rise to

questions such as 'how can the traditional definition of bullying be applied to cyber-bullying?' and 'how can power imbalance be interpreted in cyber-bullying definition?' (e.g. Menesini & Nocentini, 2009; Menesini et al., 2011; Menesini & Spiel, 2012).

Smith et al. (2006; 2008) in depth examination of the various media used in cyber-bullying did not exclusively include the use of mobile phones and social networking sites, but also presented elements which required some knowledge about how the internet and the social networking sites functioned. Cyber-bullying criteria were ascertained by the number of times that participants had been sent nasty messages, and how participants felt about the situation (Smith et al., 2008). Smith et al.'s findings indicated a well-developed strategy used by perpetrators to torment their targets. Among those strategies were uploading photos, video content and sending them in form of unsolicited video/picture messages to their targets or broadcasting them on social networking sites for others to see. 'Media expertise' was suggested for cyber forms of bullying in place of traditional power imbalance because the concept of physical age and strength could be tricky to apply in instances of cyber-bullying (Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008; Smith et al., 2006).

Cyber-bullying researchers adopted the concept of 'media expertise' to mean power imbalance in cyber-bullying (e.g. in Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008). However, following the literature on the various sub-types of aggression, it can be surmised that repetition, the intention to hurt someone else and power imbalance relationship are arguably also present in some instances of abuse, stalking and harassment (e.g. Robenhurst et al., 2012; Schneider et al., 1997; Mullen et al., 1999; Sheridan & Grant, 2007; Regehr, 2010; Mishna et al., 2009a; 2009b). In cases of harassment for example, the negative act may be repeated in instances of sexual gestures like touching someone (Schneider et al., 1997). However, these criteria that are used in measuring bullying situations, although common in

other forms of aggression, have not adequately been opened up for debate by other aggression researchers.

Nevertheless, prior to the cyber-bullying literature, the traditional bullying definition was faced with definitional issues, one of which was the imbalance of power criterion and repetition with the third criteria of 'intention' undisputed (Farrington, 1993; Olweus, 1993; Sutton et al., 1999; Smith & Sharp, 1994). Power imbalance was associated with physical size and strength of the bully (Olweus, 1993). This concept has since faced various revised interpretations with the bullying cycle proposed by Olweus (2001); bullying as a group process proposed by Salmivalli et al. (1996) and Sutton and Smith (1999).

9.2.1 Is power imbalance cyber-bullying specific?

Just as power imbalance concept is not automatically specific to traditional bullying so also is the media expertise suggestion arguably not specific to cyber-bullying. In cases of cyber-stalking, cyber-harassment and cyber-abuse, perpetrators hack into accounts, create false profiles and get access to internet provider address of a particular target so as to repeatedly contact them for their selfish gains (Ogilvie, 2000; Regehr, 2010; Willard, 2007; Mishna t al., 2009b; Wolak et al., 2007; 2006; Sheridan & Grant, 2007). Cyber-abuse cases involve sexual solicitation, false profile creation in order to groom and solicit for child pornography (e.g. Mishna et al., 2009a, 2009b). In other cases, teenagers have used false profiles and reported false age to access online pornography (Ridout et al., 2005).

In cases of sexual harassment in the workplace as explicated by Schneider et al. (1997) and Buchanan et al. (2008), the power imbalance criterion is present where a person in a position of power demands sexual favours in return from work place favours, from a subordinate person to him or herself. Given all these overlaps (although not all the time) among the sub-types of aggression, it is reasonable to wonder what exactly is the difference

258

between harassment, abuse, stalking and bullying, or their cyber forms if they could all take the form of intention, power imbalance and repetition?; and; how can cyber-bullying be differentiated from other forms of online negative acts if its core criteria are subject to rising scrutiny?

Outside the research environment, bullying, abuse and stalking can be construed as harassment when race, religion, social status, sexual orientation status and other relevant information of a person precede the term harassment (e.g. racial harassment, homophobic harassment; sexual harassment: Protection from Harassment Act, 1997; Equality Act 2010). Chesney et al. (2009) attempted to differentiate these sub-types of aggression further thus "*abuse means to treat someone (or something) in such a way as to cause harm. It encompasses many of the same elements of bullying and harassment…depending on your point of view, harassment can be seen as a form of abuse, or abuse as a form of harassment. In the mind of many people, abuse is more serious than harassment, and the distinction between the two is one of severity, although this is not universally accepted*" (p.530). It can be surmised that these forms of aggression can be defined according to one's perception of the individual construct with each of them having varied consequences. However, bullying was originally reported as a school phenomenon, common among children and reported within the school environment (Heinemann, 1972; Olweus, 1978).

Cross et al. (2009) also attempted to differentiate between harassment, stalking and bullying. The authors asserted that *"if an adult is involved, either as a perpetrator or a victim, then the pattern of bullying will be of a different nature – possibly amounting to harassment or stalking..."* (Cross et al., p.17). In contrast to this age assertion by Cross et al., it has been put forward that adults can be victims as well as perpetrators of bullying as much as those reported for teenagers in its indirect and direct forms (e.g. Coyne et al., 2004; Ireland & Snowden, 2002; Einarsen, 1999; Monks & Coyne, 2011).

'Anonymity' is another factor that has been used to differentiate cyber-bullying from other forms of aggression (e.g. Sevcikova & Smahel, 2009). "*The term cyber-bully differs from online-harassment in the requirement for a repetitive pattern of behaviour and a power imbalance originating from anonymity*" (Sevcikova & Smahel, p.229). Whilst this reason for reporting a situation as cyber-bullying is according to the authors likened to the concept of imbalance of power that is present in traditional bullying situations, it also leaves the debate open as to whether or not other forms of online aggression could take the form of anonymity.

As found in the studies carried out in this thesis, anonymity and media expertise ought not to be reasons why online forms of aggression should be classed as bullying because they are not specific to cyber-bullying but also applicable to other forms of online aggression. Rather the group effect in terms of the roles of *active* bystanders in social networking sites, the impact of their contribution and the direct or indirect online confrontations by this group is what constitute cyber-bullying (going by the group processes in Sutton et al., 1999, Salmivalli et al., 1996; Olweus, 2001). Further, when certain exemplars such as false malicious messages, fearful messages and mean messages are sent repeatedly by one person or a group of people to another in such manner as defined in traditional bullying, then this can be classed as cyber-bullying. This assertion is made based on the following grounds:

First, a direct receipt and sending of unwanted messages between two people is likely that one person blocks the other person. When a possible victim blocks a perpetrator in this way, he or she has defended his or herself (as was suggested by participants in Study One 'block them'), thus ruling out the victim not being able to defend his or herself in this situation (e.g. imbalance of power in Smith et al., 2008). However, when this continuous unwanted form of communication in form of unwanted messages are repeatedly sent to a particular target(s) by different people, known to both the target and the instigator either in the same chat room or social networking sites then this behaviour is likened to cyber-

bullying. The systematic abuse of power in this instance is when one person who initially contacts the target has been blocked by the target, informs someone else or people in the group to individually do same. In the case where there are (e.g.) four to ten people in this group, this would mean that the target would have received four to ten individual (similar and worse) messages; these acts then constitute cyber-bullying (e.g. group phenomenon, Salmivalli, 2010; group process: Sutton et al. 1999).

The second part of the argument is that when a negative post about a person is viewed by a large audience (i.e. in Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008), it has a high likelihood of causing psychological distress to the target (Campbell, 2005). However this does not constitute cyber-bullying. What constitute cyber-bullying is the active pass along nature by a social networking group or a particular chat-room, which the target is also a member of (e.g. group phenomenon/process Salmivalli, 2010; Sutton et al., 1999; Olweus, 2001). This can be likened to reinforcers of the bully (e.g. Salmivalli et al., 1996; Olweus, 2001; Salmivalli, 2010). In the example given above, when the targets that have tried to block perpetrators who are also members of the same social networking site or chat-room makes suggestive repeated comments, ask the target to leave the room or leave the room collectively making it obvious to the target that he or she is not needed in the online group, then this act is regarded as cyber-bullying (i.e. in outing as pointed out by Willard, 2007; ostracism: Keith & Martin, 2005).

It is worth being cautious when researchers give a specific criterion as a reason for identifying a particular research construct, when in the real sense; the specificity of the criterion is only general to other research phenomenon. Anonymity is a common mode of operation for online aggression and not particularly specific to cyber-bullying situations. In some reported cases of cyber-harassment (e.g. Wolak et al., 2006; 2007), people behave differently when their identities are hidden because it reduces the likelihood of being caught

and punished. According to Wolak et al. (2007), some of those who are harassed online do not know the identity of those who harassed them. Mishna et al. (2009a) also reported that the internet is a forum for sex offenders to disguise their identity and solicit for under age sex. Anonymity therefore is common in online aggression.

As defined on page 179 based on the findings in this thesis, cyber-bullying is *any repeated intentional embarrassing messages containing threats, swear words, name calling and malicious contents, pasted on or sent through the internet (or via mobile) by a person or group of people with the aim of hurting a particular person or group of people.* This definition embraces laypeople's conceptualisation derived from typical cyber-bullying instances. The implication for this is that it opens an avenue for current researchers to examine cyber-bullying instances. The definition is beneficial to researchers who want to investigate the descriptions and conceptualisation aspects of cyber-bullying. The similarity between the definition derived in this thesis and already established definition is they both tend to give a measurable premise for understanding instances of cyber-bullying. However the difference is that whilst the former gives an in-depth description of typical cyber-bullying instances, the latter prescribes measures that can be used in understanding instances of cyber-bullying.

According to the focus group and individual interviews conducted in Chapter Four, adults witnessed more sexual content through the internet than children. Adult participants talked more about rude images being sent to them, however younger participants did not mention anything of a sexual nature, rather they suggested that mean, nasty messages were used by people to cyber-bully others. It is also worth pointing out that the research was conducted in 2009, a period when online aggression, particularly cyber-bullying was still in its early stages of research and smartphones and mini-laptops were newly introduced (e.g. weekly usage of general website increased by over 90% in 2011 compared to the previous

year (2010), from 19% to 31%; social networking increased in 2011 by just over 100% from the previous year (2010) from 15% to 29%; and around 80% increase in 2011 for sending e-mails (16% to 25%) compared to the previous year (Ofcom, 2012).

9.2.2   *Are intention and repetition cyber-bullying specific?*

As presented in Table 0.1 and as discussed in Chapters One and Three, intention is present in cases of harassment, stalking and abuse (e.g. Raver & Nishi, 2010; Sheridan & Grant, 2007; Regehr, 2010) and thus not (uniquely) specific to bullying and cyber-bullying. However, the uniqueness of bullying and cyber-bullying to harassment, stalking and abuse is the group nature of the negative acts (e.g. Olweus, 2010; Sutton et al., 1999).

It is a bit tricky to ascertain intention with cyber forms of aggression because sometimes perpetrators deny having intended the harmful messages (e.g. Smith et al., 2008). However, the account of the target(s) is such that can help to establish whether the act was intended or not by the perpetrator. Nevertheless, going by the definition of aggression by Anderson and Bushman (2002), and the WHO (2004), it is understood that intention is a core criteria for understanding instances of proactive and (sometimes) reactive forms of aggression. To determine intention from cyber-bullying cases, the repeated actions from a person or a group (e.g. degrading messages, denigration and outing) can be argued as intention.

Furthermore, as discussed in Chapter Three, repetition is present in cases of stalking, abuse and harassment (e.g. Mullen, 1997; Berdhal, 2007; Leskinen, 2011). Cyber-harassment, cyber-stalking and cyber-abuse can also be repetitive in nature (Willard, 2007; Mishna et al., 2009a, 2009b; Sheridan & Grant, 2007). Repetition is therefore not cyber-bullying specific. However in order to understand repetition in cases of cyber-bullying where a negative act is not repeated by the initial perpetrator, the roles of bystanders may also be

considered (e.g. Salmivalli et al., 1996; Salmivalli, 2010). The findings from all the seven studies helped in distinguishing cyber-bullying from other forms of online aggression. Further, the core exemplars that were derived from using the prototype approach (e.g. bullying, hate-page; mean messages, rumours, swearing, malicious mails and online gangs) can be used to distinguish cyber-bullying from other forms of online aggression.

The central prototypes found in the centrality rating in Study Three, (e.g. hate-page and online gangs) describes a situation where a person or a group of people write or upload horrible and degrading messages and information on internet walls about a particular person or a group of people (e.g. similar to Keith & Martin, 2005). 'Hate-page' is also similar to Vandebosch and Van Cleemput's (2008) explication of the impact of obscene messages that can be viewed by a wide variety of audience. According to Vandebosch and Van Cleemput the impact of such messages could be detrimental to the targets as a result of the breadth of audience that are likely to view the malicious posts.

9.2.3 Can cyber-bullying be a direct form of aggression?

The use of direct means of communication does not differentiate traditional bullying from cyber-bullying. Just as traditional forms of bullying can take direct and indirect forms, so can cyber-bullying take the form of direct textual messaging, or indirect online ostracism that may have been initiated by a person within a certain group (e.g. *threats* scenario in Studies Six & Seven). There are also cases where indirect forms of communication can take place which may give rise to indirect forms of cyber-bullying, 'hate-pages' can be likened to one of such situations. As earlier discussed hate-page refers to obscene and detrimental messages that are written on internet walls to cause embarrassment to others. If this is written and not seen by the target but by others who later make suggestive comments in the presence of the

target, this can be likened to spreading of rumours (an indirect form of traditional bullying e.g. Smith et al., 2008).

Furthermore, if the traditional aspect of bullying is put into consideration, swear words as a core exemplar of cyber-bullying can be likened to verbal attacks in the traditional sense. When swear words are sent online, before a target could have the opportunity to block or stop the unwelcome conversation, the words would have already been sent to the target and would have resulted in upsetting the target as intended by the perpetrator (e.g. Keith & Martin, 2005). Cyber-bullying like bullying can be direct in nature, however its direct form does not entail physical violence but psychological harm.

9.3 Summary

The current research is a contribution to general online aggression literature and an explication of core concepts of cyber-bullying which highlights the need for cyber-bullying to be differentiated from other forms of online aggression. Bullying and cyber-bullying are particularly detrimental to the physical and psychological health of children and adolescents in schools, the social environment and at home (Tokunaga, 2010; Smith et al., 2006; 2008). In cases where cyber-bullying is not explicitly differentiated and documented according to the core criteria of bullying, it lessens the situation and makes a serious case (bullying) seem like a fight or quarrel between two people (as pointed out by Nansel et al., 2001). The implication for this is that victims are left less (well) supported and more room is given for the perpetrators to instigate more bullying or cyber-bullying acts, which will inadvertently increase the level of harm that a victim could be faced with. However, when bullying and cyber-bullying acts are dealt with in line with their antecedents, the nature and extent of the 'damage' is ascertained; and relevant/effective preventative measures can be applied. It is important therefore that bullying and cyber-bullying reported cases are well documented for

adequate preventive measures, given that in the UK for example, bullying and cyber-bullying are not criminalised. However, with the help of adequate understanding, preventative measures specific to cyber-bullying cases can be ascertained. For instance, prevention strategies used in settling fight between two people may not be as effective as specifically tailored prevention program (e.g. Olweus prevention program, 1996). The follow up actions of the school authorities or those in the position of power regarding cases of bullying could be such that may make perpetrators feel remorseful for their actions. In this kind of situation, the perpetrators are also able to see the consequences of their own actions (e.g. Thompson & Smith, 2011). This is because, situations such as fighting, quarrel or misunderstanding between two people, which could have been used as excuses by perpetrators would have been ruled out (e.g. in instances of flaming: Dursun & Akbulut, 2010; Willard, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c).

9.3.1   Strengths and limitations of thesis

The results from the studies in this research have a number of prospects for future research in cyber-bullying and online aggression literature. However, there are limitations that must be considered when interpreting these findings. The sample of participants was limited primarily to females and to ages 18 to 24. The sample sizes used in the quantitative methods is limited compared to some other studies that have employed larger sample sizes. Further, self-reported cases were used to determine instances of cyber-bullying (e.g. in Chapter Seven and Chapter Eight). This method of reporting bullying has been criticised as it may underrepresent the gravity of the nature of bullying cases (e.g. Brownfield & Sorenson, 1993). Future studies may benefit from using different method of participant selection alongside participants' social economic statuses (SES) with different analytical designs to determine and capture the association between SES, generation of exemplars, perception of exemplars and categorisation of sub-types of aggression into terminological construct. SES is

suggested because it has been reported as motivating factors of aggression (Dearter-Deckard & Dunn, 1999) and it will be interesting to examine the suggested future research dimensions with people from different SES.

With regards to the sample sizes that are used for the individual studies. For a qualitative analysis, it has been suggested that at least one person of interest is needed to make a case for a qualitative style analysis (e.g. in instances of case studies: Baker & Edward, 2010). For the type of studies conducted and going by the purposeful sampling employed in the qualitative methodology, it is arguable that the samples are representative of those who have witnessed similar situations regarding the investigated phenomena. As put by Baker & Edward, (2012, p. 4) qualitative researchers generally study fewer people, but delve more deeply into those individuals, settings, subcultures, and scenes, hoping to "*generate a subjective understanding of how and why people perceive, reflect, role-take, interpret, and interact*". Generally with the samples (qualitative and quantitative) as earlier stated, the interpretations of this result should be considered alongside the limitations of this research.

Accordingly, the focus of the qualitative approaches used in the thesis is to capture perception of general online aggression. For instance in motivations of aggression in Chapter Seven, Study Six the two studies were 'legitimised' through combined qualitative analysis Symbolic interaction and Grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and triangulated with scenarios. Further, the author and her supervisors after several debates on the themes and codes finally arrived at an agreement on the themes and codes in the presented qualitative results. This process according to some researchers is a positive indication for reliability in qualitative style analysis (e.g. Baker & Edward, 2012). Additionally, cross cultural (Australian and United Kingdom) data seem agreeable in terms of initial codes in Chapter Seven Study Six which indicates a quest for 'truth' needed to satisfy qualitative approach (Baker & Edward, 2012). Nevertheless, the quantitative approach used in Chapter Eight

further validates the findings from the qualitative frequency classification of exemplars with regards to exemplars that are core to cyber-bullying.

Using a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods provides a richer and fuller understanding of the investigated phenomenon than one method alone could have done (Creswell, 2002). Similarly, the commonality and triangulation of the qualitative findings captured in-depth accounts of individual experiences through purposive sampling methods that were employed given that *"qualitative approach would usually be interested in identifying commonalities between types and then drawing out the implications of these commonalities to the larger whole" (*Baker & Edward, 2012, p.9*)*. Mixed method generally, is assumed to be typically stronger than using individual methods because through triangulation one can assert reliability of his or her findings (Creswell, 2002; Onwugbuzie & Leech, 2004). Thus given the premise of qualitative requirement, it is plausible to assert that the findings in the qualitative studies represent the population from which the samples were taken.

Qualitatively, with regards to the focus groups and individual interviews, understanding themes that developed from the studies using participants own words are an indication of how people feel about various negative acts that occur with the use of ICT. Quantitatively, the results highlight how average undergraduate students think about bullying situations and their perceptions about certain prototypes that constitute cyber-bullying. An example of this is drawn from the centrality ratings of cyber-bullying exemplars, where the above average ratings of the participants' perception of prototypes were used to determine what exemplars are core and those that are not so core to the phenomenon of cyber-bullying.

The use of prototype studies also comprised two aspects that could be seen as advantageous-- the lay perception (in Chapters Five and Six), and actual bully/victim perspective (in Chapter Seven). It is not uncommon for prototype studies to have up to seven

stages with the same exemplars generated in the first stage of investigation (e.g. Kearns and Fincham, 2003; Le et al., 2008; Lapsey & Lasky, 2001; Fehr, 1988). It is however uncommon to combine lay perception and real instances in prototype approach as the one adapted in this study. As part of contributing to the field of Psychology and to cyber-bullying and online aggression research, this approach was adapted in order to throw more light into the prototypes of cyber-bullying; and to relate such findings to current research in this field. This method also contributes to prototype approach and hope for a replication of same in prototype research.

The validation studies in Chapters Seven and further categorisation study in Chapter Eight elucidate those exemplars that are perceived to be core to cyber-bullying and highlights peripheral exemplars as belonging to other sub-types of online aggression. As discussed in Chapter One and earlier in this Chapter, these sub-types of aggression sometimes overlap, thus some of these exemplars can also be present in cases of cyber-bullying but does not make them central to the concept of cyber-bullying.

As with research that have utilised the prototype approach, the lay perspective has been argued to be a way of understanding psychotherapeutic processes (Kearns & Fincham, 2003). In this regards, understanding the lay perspective of cyber-bullying is likely to have the capacity to contribute to the development of cyber-bullying psychosocial-therapeutic process as preventative measures. The efficacy of this measures when applied to cases of cyber-bullying and is successful, can be generalised to instances where instigators need therapies to adjust their behaviours in the social environment. Also in the cases of the victims psycho-social therapeutic interventions can help relief the psychological hurt they have suffered and help them settle back (almost comfortably) into the social environment.

9.3.2 *Suggestions for future research*

Replications for the studies in Chapters Seven and Six are as mentioned above in the limitation of studies. However, future replications for the other studies are also suggested. For Study One Chapter Four (the focus group and individual interviews conducted), as of the time of carrying out the study, cyber-bullying cases were of major concern regarding primary and secondary school students. Thus the focus was more on this age group (and how older adults perceive cyber-bullying). Future research will benefit from examining the definition, concept and perception of age group 15 to 23 given that there are more research work on cases of ICT based acts of aggression (Mishna et al., 2011; Jones et al., 2011; 2013) and more teenagers are reported to have smartphones which have rapidly increased over the past couple of years (e.g. Ofcom, 2012 report; Kite et al., 2010).

For Study Two, presented in Chapter Five (generation of cyber-bullying exemplars using a prototype approach), it was suggested that all exemplars which are mentioned in future studies be used so as to ascertain whether they could be classed as central in the centrality rating stage. However, going by the findings in the centrality and peripherlity stage, less frequent exemplars were less rated as cyber-bullying. Whilst it may be that the cut off point for using exemplars in the centrality rating stage is reasonable as it is, it is nevertheless a suggestion that is worth examining.

9.4   Recommendations and Preventative measures

As discussed throughout this thesis, it is important that researchers of cyber-aggression and cyber-bullying highlight what they have investigated so as to give a clearer understanding to the relevant researched sub-type of aggression. In cases where there has not been a clear discussion of the method used, it is likely that such work may not be adequately replicated in cases where researchers are interested in the results of such studies.

Studies with clear methodological procedures are needed in order to know how the researchers have measured instances of cyber-bullying or indeed any other forms of online aggression. Some online aggression studies have explicitly discussed their methodologies which give room for the replication of exactly what had been investigated (e.g. Chesney et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2008; Wolak et al., 2007). In the specific case of griefing in the online environment, Chesney et al. examined the Second Life through a replicable ethnographical (observation) method. The title given to their study supported their investigated phenomenon, and when cyber-bullying was mentioned, they distinguished this from other forms of online related phenomenon (as earlier highlighted in Chesney et al.'s elucidation of harassment, abuse and bullying). The same situation with the work of Smith et al. (2008) who through clear replicable methodology investigated cyber-bullying, the number of times that participants had received unsolicited messages; the mode and form that such messages took (i.e. hate-page situation as earlier discussed) and the number of people involved in the negative acts of their investigation. These are example of studies that are different from the ones which have not stayed within the parameters of their investigated phenomenon (e.g. Dursun & Akbulut, 2010; Yilmaz, 2010; Li, 2005, 2008; Willard, 2007a, 2007b; 2007c). Smith et al. (2008) and Chesney et al. (2009) among other studies that have stayed within the parameters of their investigated constructs (e.g. Wolak et al., 2007) can be replicated without assumptions from prospective researcher as to how a particular part of the method was carried out or whether or not the investigated constructs falls under their line of research. Thus for cyber-bullying or any other online form of aggression to be differentiated as such, a replicable, explicit methodology procedure would aid and distinguish elements of what constitute cyber-bullying from those elements that do not constitute cyber-bullying.

The consequences of cyber-aggression are a thing of concern not just in schools but also at home and the social environment in general. *"The negative effects inherent in*

*cyberbullying are not slight or trivial and have the potential to inflict serious psychological, emotional, or social harm. When experienced among members of this highly impressionable and often volatile adolescent population, this harm can result in violence, injury ...for both the initiator and recipient of bullying" (*Patchin & Hinduja, 2006, p.149). Prevention and intervention of cyber-bullying is still at an early stage, therefore only a few insights into empirically established measures of reduction of online aggression exist (Menesini, 2009).

It has been suggested that teachers and students alike can take an active part to reduce bullying and cyber-bullying both inside and outside the school environment (Smith et al., 2006). Farrington and Baldry (2011, p.12) proposed (after finding out that some 10-14 years old are affected by lack of concentration or being restless in class) that cognitive-behavioral programs targeted on hyperactivity-impulsiveness and empathy should be implemented to reduce bullying, although these suggestions were recommended for bullying situations, they can also be applied to cases of cyber-bullying.

Butler et al. (2011) suggested that invocation of criminal, civil and vilification laws to combat cyber-bullying may seem extreme, however when the consequences of cyber-bullying are put into consideration, these laws may seem appropriate. Butler et al. suggested that legal boundaries should be implemented such that teachers, parents and children are aware of their responsibilities which in turn may allow cyber-bullying situations to be addressed appropriately.

Kingston (2011) recommended federal policies to prevent bullying and harassment in schools. These policies should be merged with already established stringent conduct policies that will include prohibited behaviours. Kingston also recommended adequate documentation of incidents of bullying and harassment; and suggested professional development to assist school personnel in addressing cyber-bullying and harassment issues.

Smith et al. (2008) also suggested teachers and pupils training materials as well as training to guide parents, children and young people regarding bullying and cyber-bullying situations. Smith et al. recommended specific interventions such as how to contact mobile phone companies and internet service providers, and legal right matters.

Pfetsch, Steffgen and König (2009) suggested that banning mobile phones at school will neither reduce the frequency of mobile phone use nor the prevalence of cyber-bullying inside or outside of school. However, preventive and educational measures should combine to set a functional foundation embedded in a School Charter and Policy so as to express a zero tolerance for cyber-aggression and cyber-bullying (Pfetsch, 2010). These processes should encompass the participation of teachers, school governors, heads of school and students, and may be supplemented by technological approaches like password protection of school computers and filter software for internet browsers (Pfetsch 2010). Curriculum materials focusing on media literacy and cyber-bullying and cyber aggression could raise awareness among students about the consequences of online forms of aggression and effective ways to deal with it. This may also include training in media competencies and the positive use of communication technology, like a video film project or school radio project (Pfetsch, 2010).

Furthermore, generally prevention of traditional bullying and aggression can help sustain specific proactive measures against cyber-bullying, for example, fostering a positive school climate, developing pro-social class rules, and training in constructive conflict resolution (Wilson & Lipsey, 2007). Pfetsch (2010), after an evaluation study of over 1000 participants, using pro-social and helping systems, pointed out that students reported significantly less passive bystanding behaviour, more cognitive and affective empathy, and less victimisation. Pfetsch suggested that if schools were effective in establishing a pro-social and helping norm system among all students, the prevalence of aggression may diminish. By transferring these ideas to the prevention of cyber-bullying and online aggression, schools

273

could foster cyber civil courage of online or offline bystanders (of cyber-bullying and online aggression). Also, peers' support for cyber-victims such as the ones recommended by Smith et al. (2008); Smith and Sharp (1994); and Thompson and Smith (2011) may be a promising way to counteract cyber-bullying and cyber-aggression.

9.5 Conclusion

The need to clarify cyber-bullying concept arose as a result of the ambiguity in the use of the term by some researchers (e.g. Willard, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c; Dursun & Akbulut, 2010) and the need to clarify the rising debate regarding cyber-bullying concept of power imbalance, repetition and intention. This aim was accomplished through the literature review carried out in Chapters One, Two and Three and the studies conducted in five subsequent chapters.

The style of literature review applied in this thesis was so that the concepts of harassment, stalking and abuse which have been reported as cyber-bullying and defined as such (e.g. Willard, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c) can be clearly understood according to their antecedents. It was thus important to also clarify the concepts of stalking, harassment and abuse because in order to make a case for the clarification of cyber-bullying concepts it was essential to refer to the individual sub-types of aggression so that a plausible and strong conclusion could be made regarding their differences.

Following the literature review, it is apparent that individual sub-types of aggression share certain similarities of power imbalance, repetition and intention. These criteria have particularly applied to bullying without other sub-types of aggression being investigated in the same manner and breadth as bullying and cyber-bullying (at least comparing and contrasting them). However, the literature review clarified similarities and contrast among these terms and highlights that the criteria of power imbalance, repetition and intention is not specific to a particular sub-type of aggression (e.g. definition of aggression by Bandura,

1983; Anderson & Bushman, 2002, World Health Organisation, 2004). Following the research on the various sub-types of aggression that was discussed, it is apparent that stalking, bullying, harassment and abuse have certain commonalities as well as differences and ought to be individually acknowledged in online aggression literature.

This thesis highlights some important challenges to general online aggression research as well as for cyber-bullying research. With regards to general aggression literature, challenge is thrown to researchers of traditional forms of harassment, stalking and abuse to investigate similar forms of aggression that they have acknowledged (traditionally) and elucidate the application of their concepts on the online environment. This will further clarify the prototypes and elements that are unique to the individual aggression sub-type with regards to the use of ICT. Additional challenge to cyber-bullying researcher is the elucidation of the concept of power imbalance and repetition; and the need to apply the analogy of social identity to understanding power imbalance in cases of cyber-bullying. With regards to repetition, the thesis highlights the need to understand the roles of bystanders in cyber-bullying and the various functions (e.g. pass-along nature; hate-page and online gangs) that they are likely to adopt in online bullying phenomenon. It is anticipated that the elucidation of cyber-bullying exemplars as was done in this thesis, will help new and established researchers better understand cyber-bullying from lay as well as victims' and perpetrators' perspectives. It is also anticipated that the research and studies conducted in this thesis will further open avenues for debate particularly in cyber-bullying domain and online aggression repertoire.

References

American Broadcasting Company (ABC: News) retrieved from
http://abcnews.go.com/Technology/12-year-sentenced-Washington-cyberstalking-case/story?id=14072315

Agervold, M., & Andersen, L. P. (2006). Incidence and impact of violence against staff on their perceptions of the psychosocial work environment. *Nordic Psychology*, *58,* 232-247.

Ahmed, R. (2011). Aggression in adolescent chakma tribal students as a function of gender and stage of development. *Journal of Life & Earth Science, 6*, 59-63.

Akbulut, Y., & Çuhadar, C. (2011). Reflections of preservice information technology teachers regarding cyberbullying, *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry*, *2*(3), 67-76.

Akbulut, Y., Sahin, Y. L., & Eristi, B. (2010). Cyberbullying victimization among Turkish online social utility members. *Educational Technology & Society*, *13* (4), 192–201.

Anderson, C. J., & Bushman, B. J. (2002). Human aggression. *Annual Review of Psychology, 53,* 27-51.

Anti-Bullying Alliance (2002). Retrieved from http://www.anti-bullyingalliance.org.uk

Aricak, T., Siyahhan, S., Uzunhasanoglu, A., Saribeyoglu, S., Ciplak, S.,Yilmaz, N., & Memmedov, C. (2008). Cyberbullying among Turkish adolescents. *CyberPsychology & Behavior, 11*(3), 253-261.

Arnetz, J., & Arnetz, B. (2000). Implementation and evaluation of a practical intervention programme for dealing with violence towards health care workers. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 31, 668-680.

Aronson, E., Wilson, T., & Akert, R. (2005) *Socijalna psihologija*. Zagreb: MATE.

Arora, J. (2009). *Open Access to Textual and Multimedia Content: Bridging the Digital Divide,* 209-245. INFLIBNET Centre.

Artz, S., Nicholson, D., & Magnuson, D. (2008). Examining sex differences in the use of direct and indirect aggression. *Gender Issues, 25*(4), 267-288.

Baker, S. E., & Edward, R. (2010). How many qualitative interviews is enough? Expert voices and early career reflections on sampling and cases in qualitative research. National Centre for Research Methods Review Paper, *Economic and Social Research Council,* 1-43.

Bamford, A. (2005). Cyber-bullying. *Classroom, 25*(1), 18-19.

Bandura, A., Ross, D., & Ross, S. A. (1961). Transmission of aggression through imitation of aggressive models. In Hogg, M. C., & Vaughan, G. M. (Eds.), *Social Psychology* (pp.21). Pearson: Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1973). *Aggression: a social learning analysis.* Eaglewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1983). Psychological mechanisms of aggression. In: R. G. Geen & E. I. Donnerstein (Eds.), *Aggression: Theoretical and empirical reviews. Theoretical and methodological issues* (pp.1–40). New York: Academic Press.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thoughts and action: A social cognitive theory*, Eaglewood, Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Baskerville, S. (2012). Sex and the problem of Human right. *The Independent Review, 16*(3), 351–379.

Baraldi, D. (2010). *Documentation centre of Modena stalking law in Italy. Retrieved from http://www.perspective-daphne.eu/en/final-conference/abstr_cdd/120812*

Bargh, J., & McKenna, K. Y. A. (2004). The internet and social life. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *55* (1), 573-590.

Baron, R. A., & Richardson, D. R. (1994). *Human aggression* (Eds.). New York: Plenum.

Beal, F. M. (1970). Double jeopardy: To be Black and female. In T. Cade (Ed.), *The Black woman: An Anthology,* (pp. 90–100). New York: Signet.

Beck, G., & Ireland, J. L. (1995). Measuring Bullying in Prisons. In Ireland, J. L. (2002, p.25) *bullying among prisoners: evidence, research and intervention strategies. Psychiatry/Clinical Psychology.* Brunner-Routledge.

Bell, D. (2001). *An introduction to Cybercultures*. London. Routledge

Bellmore, A., Witkow, M., Graham, S. & Juvonen, J. (2004). Beyond the individual: The impact of ethnic context and classroom behavioral norms on victims' adjustment *Developmental Psychology, 40,* 1159–1172.

Belsey, B. (2004). *Cyberbullying.* Retrieved from www.cyberbullying.ca

Belsey, B. (2007). Cyber bullying: An emerging threat to the 'always on' generation. Retrieved from *http://www.cyberbullying.ca/pdf/Cyberbullying_Article_by_Bill_Belsey.pdf*

Belsey, B. (2009). *Cyberbullying*. Retrieved from http://www.cyberbullying.org

Beran, T., & Li, Q. (2007). The relationship between cyberbullying and school bullying. *Journal of Student Wellbeing, 1,* 15–33.

Berdahl, J. L. (2007). Harassment based on sex: Protecting social status in the context of gender hierarchy. *Academy of Management Review, 32*(2), 641–658.

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

Berkowitz, L., & Le Page, A. (1967). Weapons as aggression eliciting stimuli. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 7,* 202-207.

Berzenski, S. R., & Yates, T. M (2011) Classes and consequences of multiple maltreatment: a person-centred analysis. *Child Maltreatment 16*(4), 250-261.

Björkly, S. (2001). *The psychological theories of aggression: principles and application to Practice*. Springer.

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

Björkqvist, K., Österman, K., & Lagerspetz, K. M. J. (1994). Sex Differences in covert aggression among adults. *Aggressive Behavior, 20*, 27–33.

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

Blake, J. J., & Kim, S, E. (2011). Exploring the incremental validity of nonverbal social aggression: the utility of peer nomination. *Merrill Palmer Quarterly, 57*(3), 293-318.

Blumer, H. (1969). Symbolic Interactionism: Perspective and Method. In Licqurish, S. &

Seibold, C. (2011; p.12). Applying a contemporary grounded theory methodology. *Nurse Researcher. 18(4),* 11-16.

Bocij, P. & McFarlane, L. (2003). The technology of hate. *Police Journal, 76,* 204.

Boivin, M. (2005). The origin of peer relationship difficulties in early childhood and their impact on children's psychological adjustment and development: *Encyclopaedia on Early Childhood Development* (pp1-7). Centre of Excellence for Early Childhood Development. Retrieved from http://www.child-encyclopedia.com/documents/BoivinANGxp.pdf

Bor, W., Najman, J. M., O'Callaghan, M., Williams, G. M., & Anstey, K. (2001). Aggression and the development of delinquent behaviour in children: *Trends & Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice Australian Institute of Criminology,* 1-6.

Brendgen, M., Vitaro, F., Boivin, M., Dionne, G., & Perusse, D. (2006). Examining genetics and environmental effects on reactive versus proactive aggression. *Developmental Psychology, 42*(*6*), 1299-1312.

Brenner, C. (1971). The psychoanalytic concept of aggression. *International Journal of Psychoanalysis, 52,* 137–144.

Buchanan, N. T., Settles, I. H. & Woods, K. C. (2008). Comparing sexual harassment sub-types for Black and White women: Double jeopardy, the Jezebel, and the cult of true womanhood. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 32,* 347–361.

Buss, A. H. (1961).*The psychology of aggression*. New York: Wiley.

Buss, D. M. (2005). *The murderer next door: Why the mind is designed to kill*. New York: Penguin Press.

Butler, D., Kift, S., & Campbell, M. (2009). Cyber bullying in schools and the law: Is there an effective means of addressing the power imbalance? *eLaw Journal: Murdoch University Electronic Journal of Law*, *1*(1), 84-114

Butler, D. A., Kift, S. M., Campbell, M .A., Slee, P., & Spears, B. (2011) School policy responses to cyberbullying: An Australian legal perspective. *International Journal of Law and Education, 16*(2), 7-28.

Calvert, C. (2011). Evolving technologies challenge laws regarding sexually explicit speech. *Human Rights*, *38*(2), 8-23.

Cairns, R. B., Cairns, B. D., Neckerman, H. J., Gest, S. D., & Gariepy, J. L. (1988). Social networks and aggressive behavior: peer support or peer rejection? *Developmental Psychology, 24,* 815-23.

Campbell, M. A. (2005). Cyber-bullying. An old problem in a new guise? *Australian Journal of Guidance and Counselling, 15,* 68-76.

Campbell, S. B. (1995). Behaviour problems in preschool children: A review of recent

    research, *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 36*(1), 115-119.

Campbell, S. B., Shaw, D. S., & Gilliom, M. (2000). Early externalising behaviour problems:

    Toddlers and pre-schoolers at risk for later maladjustment. *Development and*

    Psychopathology, 12, 467-488.

Canadian State Cyber-bullying Laws and Policies (2013). A brief review of state cyber-

    bullying laws and policies. Available from

    http://www.cyberbullying.us/Bullying_and_Cyberbullying_Laws.pdf150213

Cantor, N., & Mischel, W. (1977). Traits as prototypes: Effects on recognition memory.

    Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, *35*(1), 38-48.

Cantor, N., & Mischel, W. (1979). Prototypicality and personality: Effects on free recall and

    personality impressions. *Journal of Research in Personality, 13*, 187-205.

Card, N. A., & Little, T. D. (2006). Proactive and reactive aggression in childhood and

    adolescence: A meta-analysis of differential relations with psychosocial adjustment.

    International Journal of Behavioral Development, 30, 466–480.

Card, N. A., Stucky, B. D., Sawalani, G. M., & Little, T. D. (2008). Direct and indirect

    aggression during childhood and adolescence: A meta-analytic review of gender

    differences, intercorrelations, and relations to maladjustment. *Child Development 79*

    (5), 1185–1229.

Cater, S. L. (2012). *Effective responses to teen sexting: A guide for judges and other*

    professional. Futures without violence. Office of violence against women. Department

    of Justice.

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through*

    qualitative analysis. Sage Publications. Thousand Oaks CA.

Charon, J. M. (2001). *Symbolic interactionism: An introduction, an interpretation, an Integration* (Eds). Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs NJ.

Chesney, T., Coyne, I., Logan, B., & Madden, N. (2009). Griefing in virtual worlds: causes, casualties and coping strategies. *Journal of Information Systems, 19,* 525–548.

Central Intelligence Agency (2009) World Fact Book available from *https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields/print_2124.html121212*

Clarke, A.E. (2005). *Situational analysis: grounded theory after the postmodern* turn. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks CA.

Coie, J. D. & Dodge, K. A. (1997). Aggression and antisocial behavior. In W.V. Damon, (Eds.). *Handbook of child development: Social, emotional, and personality development* (p787-788). New York: J. Wiley.

Coie, J., Dodge, K., Terry, R., & Wright, V. (1991). The role of aggression in peer relations: An analysis of aggression episodes in boys' play groups. *Child Development, 62,* 812–826.

Collins, L. (2008). *"Annals of Crime. Friend Game. Behind the online hoax that led to a girl's suicide".* The New Yorker retrieved from *http://www.newyorker.com/reporting/2008/01/21/080121fa_fact_collins*

Commonwealth Criminal Code Act, 1996. In Butler, D., Kift, S., & Campbell, M. (2009, p.91). Cyber bullying in schools and the law: Is there an effective means of addressing the power imbalance? *eLaw Journal: Murdoch University Electronic Journal of Law*, *16*(1), 84-114.

Cooperation in Science and Technology (COST IS O801: 2009) retrieved from http://sites.google.com/site/costis0801/

Cortina, L.M., Lonsway, K. A., Magley, V. J., Freeman, L. V., Collinsworth, L. L., Hunter, M., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (2002). What's Gender Got to do With It? Incivility in the Federal Courts. *Law and Social Inquiry, 27*(2), 235-270.

Coyne, S. M., & Archer, J. (2004). Indirect aggression in the media: A content analysis of British television programs. *Aggressive Behavior, 30,* 254–271.

Coyne, I., Craig, J., & Smith-Lee, C. P. (2004). Workplace bullying a group context. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling, 32*(3), 301-317.

Craig, W. M., & Pepler, D. J. (1997). Observations of bullying and victimization in the school yard. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology, 13*, 41-59.

Cramer, P. (2006). *Protecting the self: defence mechanisms in action.* New York: Guilford Press.

Creswell, J. W. (2002). *Research Design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods Approaches.* Thousand Oaks, Sage.

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

Criminal Code 1993 (C-43) s. 264 (Can.). Available from
http:// www.canlii.org/ca/sta/c-46/whole.html/081212

Cross, J. E., Richardson, B., Douglas, T., & Vonkaenel-Flatt, J. (2009). *Virtual violence: Protecting children from cyber-bullying.* Beatbullying.

Crothers, L. M., Schreiber, J. B., Schmitt, J. A., Bell, R. G., Jessica Blasik, J., Comstock, L. A., Greisler, M. J., Keener, D., King, M. J. & Lipinski, J. (2010). A preliminary study of bully and victim behavior in old-for-grade students: Another potential hidden cost of grade retention or delayed school entry, *Journal of Applied School Psychology, 26*(4), 327-338.

Daly, J.M., Merchant, M. L. & Jogerst, G. J. (2011) Elder abuse research: A systematic Review. *Journal of Elder Abuse & Neglect, 23*(4), 348-365.

Day, D. M., Bream, L. A., & Paul, A. (1992). Proactive and reactive aggression: An analysis of sub-types based on teacher perceptions. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 21,* 210-217.

Department for Children Schools and Families (DCFS: 2007). *Safe to learn: Embedding anti-bullying work in schools – cyberbullying*. DCSF: Teachernet Publications.

Deater-Deckard, K., & Dunn, J. (1999). Multiple risks and adjustment of young children growing up in different family settings. In Hetherington, M. E. (Ed.). *Coping with divorce, single parenting and remarriage,* NJ. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Denzin, N. K. (1978). *The research act*: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods. New York. Praeger.

Department of Education and Early Childhood Development (2007). Victoria. *Safe schools are effective schools: A resource for developing safe and supportive school environments*. Retrieved from *http://www.eduweb.vic.gov.au/edulibrary/public/stuman/wellbeing/safeschoolsstrategy.pdf*

Derks, D., Bos, A. E., & Von Grumbkow, J. (2007). Emotions and social interaction on the internet: the importance of social context. *Computers in Human Behavior, 23,* 842-849.

Diener, E. (1976). Effect of prior destructive behaviour, anonymity and group presence on deindividuation and aggression. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 33*(5), 497-507.

Dodge, K. A., & Coie, J. D. (1987). Social-information-processing factors in reactive and

    proactive aggression in children's peer groups. *Journal of Personality and Social*

    Psychology, 53, 1146–1158.

Dollard, J., Doob, L., Miller, N., Mowrer, O. H., & Sears, R. R. (1939). *Frustration and*

    aggression. New Haven. Yale University Press.

Donath, J. S. (1999). Identity and deception in the virtual community. In M. A. Smith &

    Kolloks, P. (Eds.) *Communities in cyber-space.* London. Routledge.

Dooley, J. J., Pyzalski, J., & Cross, D. (2009). Cyberbullying versus face-to-face bullying:

    A theoretical and conceptual review. *Journal of Psychology, 217*(4), 182-188.

Dursun, O. O., & Akbulut, Y. (2011). Communicator style as a predictor of cyber-bullying in

    a hybrid learning environment, 118-131. Retrieved from

    http://www.tojqi.net/articles/TOJQI_3_3/TOJQI_3_3_Article_8.pdf.

Eder, D. (1985). The cycle of popularity: Interpersonal relations among female adolescents.

    Sociology of Education, 58(3), 154-165.

Einarsen, S. (1999). The nature and causes of bullying at work. *International Journal of*

    Manpower, 20, 16–27.

Eslea, M., & Smith, P. K. (1998). The long term effectiveness of anti-bullying work in

    primary schools. *Educational Research, 40*(2), 203-218.

Englander, E. (2009). SNAPSHOT: *Massachusetts statistics on frequency of bullying and*

    Cyberbullying. Massachusetts Aggression Reduction Centre. Retrieved from

    http://webhost.bridgew.edu/marc/SNAPSHOT%20 stats%2008~09.pdf

Equality Act 2010 C.15 (UK). Available from

    http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2010/15/pdfs/ukpga_20100015_en.pdf

Escartin, J., Salin, D., & Rodriguez-Carballeira (2011). Conceptualizations of workplace bullying: Gendered rather than gender neutral? *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 10* (4), 157-165.

Escasa, M., Casey, J., & Gray, P. (2011). Salivary testosterone levels in men at a U.S. sex club. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, *40*(5), 21-26.

Espelage, D., Bosworth, K., & Simon, T. (2001). Short-term stability and prospective correlates of bullying in middle-school students: An examination of potential demographic, psychosocial, and environmental influences. *Violence and Victims, 16,* 411–426.

Espelage, D., Holt, M., & Henkel, R. (2003). Examination of peer-group contextual effects on aggression during early adolescence. *Child Development, 74,* 205–220.

Farrington, D. P. (1993) Understanding and preventing bullying. In Tonry, M., & Morris, N. (Eds.) *Crime and Justice,17* (pp381–458). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Farrington, D., & Baldry, A., C. (2011). Individual risk factors of school bullying. *Journal of Aggression, Conflict and Peace Research, 2*(1), 1-16.

Farrington, D. P., Barnes, G. C., & Lambert, S. (1996). The concentration of offending in families, *Legal and criminological psychology, 1,* 47-63.

Feinberg, T. (2003). Bullying prevention and intervention. *Principle Leadership.* Retrieved from http://www.nasponline.org/resources/principals/nas sp_bullying.aspx

Felix, E. D., & McMahon, S. D. (2006). Gender and Multiple Forms of Peer Victimisation: How do they influence adolescent psychosocial adjustment? *Violence and Victims*, *21*(6), 707-724.

Fehr, B. (1988). Prototype analysis of the concepts of love and commitment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *55*(4), 557-579.

Fehr, B. (2004). Intimacy expectations in same-sex friendships: A prototype interaction pattern model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 86,* 265–284.

Fehr, B., & Russell, J. A. (1991). The concept of love viewed from a prototype perspective. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *60*, 425-438.

Ferguson, C. J. (2010). Blazing angels or resident evil? Can violent video games be a force for good? *Review of General Psychology, 14*(2), 68-81.

Ferguson, C. J. (2011). Video games and youth violence: a prospective analysis in adolescents. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence 40*(4), 371-391.

Ferguson, C. J., & Beaver, K. M. (2009). Natural born killers: the genetic origins of extreme violence. *Aggression and Violent Behavior 14*(5), 286–294.

Feshbach, N. D. (1969). Sex differences in children's modes of aggressive responses toward outsiders. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 15,* 249 – 258.

Finkelhor, D., Mitchell, K. J., & Wolak, J. (2000). *Online victimization: A report on the nation's youth:* National Center for Missing and Exploited Children. Alexandria, VA.

Franek, M. (2005). Foiling cyber-bullies in the new Wild West: Learning in the digital age. *Educational Leadership, 63*(4), 39-43.

Freedman, J. L. (1984). Effect of television violence on aggressiveness. *Psychological Bulletin, 96*, 227-246.

Freud, S. (1920). *Beyond the pleasure principle* (Ed). London. Hogarth Press.

Frost, B. C., Ko, C. E., & James, L. R. (2007). Implicit and explicit personality: A test of a channelling hypothesis for aggressive behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92,* 1299-1319.

Gillespie, A. A. (2006). Cyber-bullying and harassment of teenagers: The legal response. *Journal of Social Welfare & Family Law, 28*(2), 123-136.

Gini, G. (2006). Social cognition and moral cognition in bullying: What's wrong? *Aggressive Behavior, 32*, 528-539.

Gini, G., Albiero, P., Benelli, B., & Altoè, G. (2007). Does empathy predict adolescents' bullying and defending behavior? *Aggressive Behavior, 33*(5), 467-476.

Giunta, D. L., Pastorelli, C. Eisenberg, N., Gerbino, M., Castellani, V. & Bombi, A., S. (2009). Developmental trajectories of physical aggression: prediction of overt and covert antisocial behaviours from self-and mothers' report. *European Child Adolescent Psychiatry, 19,* 873-882.

Glascock, J. (2008). Direct and indirect aggression on the prime-time network television. *Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media*, 268-280.

Goldsborough, R., & Page, L. (2005). How to respond to flames (without getting singed). *Information Today*, 22(2), 23-26.

Glaser, B. G. & Strauss, A, L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory. Strategies for qualitative research*. New York: Aldine de Gruyter.

Gradinger, P., Strohmeier, D., & Spiel, C. (2009). Traditional bullying and cyberbullying. Identification of risk groups for adjustment problems. *Zeitschrift für Psychologie / Journal of Psychology, 217*(4), 205-213.

Graham, S., & Juvonen, J. (2001). An attributional approach to peer victimization. In J. Juvonen & S. Graham (Eds.). *Peer harassment in school: The plight of the vulnerable and victimized* (pp. 49–72). New York. Guilford Press.

Gregg, A. P., Hart, C. M., Sedikides, C., & Kumashiro, M. (2008). Everyday conceptions of modesty: A prototype analysis. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 34*(7), 978 -992.

Harrick, E. J., & Sullivan, G. M. (1995). Racial harassment: Case characteristics and employer responsibilities. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 8*, 81-95.

Hay, C., Meldrum, R., & Mann, K. (2010) Traditional bullying, cyber bullying and deviance: a general strain theory approach. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice, 26,* 130-147.

Heinemann, P. P. (1972). Mobbning. Gruppvåld bland barn och vuxna Stockholm: Naturoch kultur.

Hinduja, S., & Patchin, J. W. (2008) Cyberbullying: an exploratory analysis of factors related to offending and victimization, *Deviant Behavior, 29*(2), 129–156.

Hinduja, S., & Patchin, J. W. (2011). Cyberbullying: a review of the legal issues facing educators. *Preventing School Failure, 55*(2), 71-78.

Huesmann, L. R. (1986). Psychological processes promoting the relation between exposure to media violence and aggressive behavior by the viewer. *Journal of Social Issues, 42,* 125-139.

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

Infante, D. A., & Rancer, A. S. (1996). Argumentativeness and verbal aggressiveness: A review of the recent theory and research. *Communication Yearbook*, *19,* 319–351.

Ireland, J. L. (1999). A Recent Bullying Survey: Results and Recommendations for Intervention. *Prison Service Journal, 123*, 27–30.

Ireland, L. J. (2002). *Bullying among prisoners*: evidence, *research and intervention strategies.* Psychiatry/Clinical Psychology. Brunner-Routledge.

Ireland, L. J., & Snowden, P. (2002). Bullying in secure hospitals. *Journal of Forensic Psychiatry. 13*(3), 538-554.

Italian Law on Harassment (2009). United Nations database on violence against women. http://webapps01.un.org/vawdatabase/searchDetail.action?measureId=26064&baseHREF=country&baseHREFId=675.

Internation Telecommunication Union (2011) *ICT facts and figures. The world in 2011. ITU Telecom World.* Available from http://www.itu.int/ITU-D/ict/facts/2011/material/ICTFactsFigures2011.pdf120412

James, L, R., & LeBreton, J. M. (2005). *Assessing aggression using conditional reasoning.* A dissertation presented at Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta.

Atlanta, Jimerson, S. R., Swearer, S. M., & Espelage, D. L. (2009). *Handbook of Bullying in Schools: An International Perspective.* New York. Routledge.

Jones, L. M., Mitchell, K., Wolak, J., & Finkelhor, D. (2013). Online harassment in context: Trends from three youth Internet safety surveys (2000, 2005, 2010). *Psychology of Violence, 3*(1), 53-69.

Jurgen, R., Michael, S., & Waldermar, L. (1987). Wearing uniform and aggression—a field experiment. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 17*(3), 357-360.

Juvonen, J., & Ho, A. (2009). Social motives underlying antisocial behavior across middle school grades. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*. Doi:10.1007/s10964-008-9272-0.

Kärnä, A. (2012). *Effectiveness of the Kiva antibullying program.* Uniprint Suomen Yliopistopaino Oy – Turku. Finland.

Kowalski, R. M., & Limber, S. P. (2007). Electronic Bullying Among Middle School Students. *Journal of Adolescent Health. 41*(2), 22-30.

Kayany, J. M. (1998). Contexts of uninhibited online behavior: Flaming in social newsgroups on usenet. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science, 49*(12), 1135-1141.

Kearns, J. N., & Fincham, F. D. (2003). A prototype analysis of forgiveness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *30,* 838–855.

Keith, S. & Martin, M. E. (2005). Cyber-Bullying: Creating a culture of respect in a cyber world. *Crises Prevention Briefs, 13*(4), 224-228.

Kim Y. S., & Leventhal, B. (2008). Bullying and suicide. A review. *International Journal of Adolescent Medicine and Health, 20*(2), 133–54.

King, D. K. (1988). Multiple jeopardy, multiple consciousness: The context of Black feminist ideology. *Signs, 14,* 42–72.

Kingston , M. (2011). Board Member Testifies at Cyber Safety Hearing. Education Digest, *76*(5), 10-11.

Kite, L. S., Cable, R., & Filippelli, L. (2010). Assessing middle school students' knowledge of conducts and consequences and their behaviours regarding the use of social networking sites. *Clearing House, 83*(5), 158-163.

Kumpulainen, K. (2008). Psychiatric conditions associated with bullying. *International Journal of Adolescent Medicine and Health 20*(2), 121–32.

LaFontana, K., & Cillessen, A. (2009). Developmental changes in the priority of perceive status in childhood and adolescence. *Social Development,* 1467-9507.

Lagerspetz, K. M. J., Björkqvist, K., & Peltonen, T. (1988). Is indirect aggression typical of females? Gender differences in aggressiveness in 11–12-year-old children. *Aggressive Behavior 14,* 403–14.

Lambert, N. M., Fincham, F. D., & Graham, S. M. (2011). A prototype analysis of prayer: Understanding the layperson's perception of prayer: *Psychology of Religion and Spirituality, 3*(1), 55–65.

Lapsley, D. K. & Lasky, B. (2001). Prototypic moral character. *International Journal of Theory and Research, 1*(4), 345-363.

Le, B. J., Loving, J. T., Feinberg, G. W. L., Florentino, R., & Ing, J. (2008). Missing a romantic partner: a prototype analysis. *Personal Relationships, 15,* 511-532.

Lee, S., Smith, P. K., & Monks, C. P. (2011). Perceptions of bullying-like phenomenon in South Korea: A qualitative approach from a lifespan perspective. *Journal of Aggression Conflict and Peace Research, 3*(4), 202-221.

Leech, N. L., & Onwuebguzie, A. J. (2007). An array of qualitative data analysis tools: A call for data analysis triangulation. *Journal of Social Psychology, 22*(4), 557-584.

Leskinen, E. A., Cortina, L. M., & Kabat, D. B. (2011). Gender harassment: broadening our knowledge of sex-based harassment at work. *Law and Human Behaviour, 35,* 25-39.

Li, Q. (2005). New bottle but old wine: A research of cyberbullying in schools. *Computers in Human Behavior, 23,* 1777–1791.

Li, Q. (2006). Cyberbullying in schools: A research of gender differences. *School Psychology International, 27*(2), 157-170.

Li, Q. (2007). Bullying in the new playground: research into cyber-bullying and cyber victimisation. *Australian Journal of Educational Technology*, *23*(4), 435-454.

Li, Q. (2008). Cyberbullying in schools: An examination of preservice teachers' perception. *Canadian Journal of Learning and Technology, 34*(2), 75-90.

Li, Y., Putallaz, M. & Su, Y. (2011). Interparental conflict styles and parenting behaviors: associations with overt and relational aggression among Chinese children. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 57*(4), 402-428.

Licqurish, S. & Seibold, C. (2011). Applying a contemporary grounded theory methodology. *Nurse Researcher. 18*(4), 11-16.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Little, T. D., Jones, S. M., Henrich, C. C., & Hawley, P. H. (2003). Disentangling the ''whys'' from the ''whats'' of aggressive behavior. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 27*, 122 – 133.

Lodge, J., & Frydenberg, E. (2005). The role of peer bystanders in school bullying: Positive steps toward promoting peaceful schools. *Theory into Practice, 44*(4), 329-336.

Loeber, R., & Hay, D. (1997). Key issues in the development of aggression and violence from childhood to early adulthood, *Annual Review of Psychology*, *48*, 371-410.

Maccoby, E. E. (1990). Gender and relationships: A developmental account. *American Psychologist, 45,* 513–520.

Maccoby, E. E., & Jacklin. C. N. (1974). The psychology of sex differences. In Maccoby, E. E. (1990). Gender and relationships: A developmental account. *American Psychologist, 45,* 513 – 520.

Madlock, P. E., & Westerman, D. (2011). Hurtful Cyber-teasing and violence: Who's laughing out loud? *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *26*(17), 3542-3560.

Marczak, M., & Coyne, I. (2010). Cyberbullying at school: Good practice and legal aspects in the United Kingdom. *Australian Journal of Guidance and Counselling, 20,* 182-193.

Mark, L., & Ratliffe, K. T (2011): Cyber worlds: new playgrounds for bullying, *Computers in the Schools, 28*(2), *92*-116.

Marks, A. D., Hine, D. W., Manton, G. C., & Thornsteinsson, E. B. (2012). Can outcome expectancies help explain sex differences in direct and indirect aggression? *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *42*(1), 151-169.

Mathieson, L.C., & Crick, N. R. (2010). Reactive and proactive sub-types of relational and physical aggression in middle childhood: Links to concurrent and longitudinal adjustment. *School Psychology Review, 39*(4), 601-611.

McEachern, A. G., McEachern-Ciattoni, T. T., Florida, P., & Martin, F. (2012). *Sexting, new challenges for schools and professional school counsellors,* (p1-28). Retrieved from http://jsc.montana.edu/articles/v10n20.pdf

McEwan T., Mullen P. E., & Purcell, R. (2010). Identifying risk factors in stalking: a review of current research. *International Journal of Law Psychiatry, 30,* 1-7.

Mc Guckin, C., Cummins, P., & Lewis. C. (2010). F2f and cyberbullying among children in Northern Ireland: Data from the kids life and times surveys. *Psychology, Society, & Education, 2*(2), 83-96.

McKenna K.Y. A., & Bargh J. A. (2000). Plan 9 from cyberspace: The implications of the internet for personality and social psychology. *Personality and Social. Psychology Bulletin, 4*, 57-75

McLoughlin, C., & Burgess, J. (2010). *Texting, sexting and social networking among Australian youth and the need for cyber safety education. Australian Education Journal, 17-25*. Retrieved from http://aare.edu.au/09pap/mcl091427.pdf

McMahon, S., Reulbach, U., Keeley, H., Perry, I., & Arensman, E. (2012). Bullying and victimisation, selfharm and associated factors in Irish adolescent boys. *Journal of Social Science and Medicine, 74*(4), 490-497.

Menesini, E., Fonzi, A., & Smith, P. K. (2002). Attribution of meanings to terms related to bullying: A comparison between teacher's and pupil's perspectives in Italy. *European Journal of Psychology of Education, 17,* 393-406.

Menesini, E., & Nocentini, A. (2009). Cyberbullying definition and measurement: Some critical considerations. *Zeitschrift für Psychologie / Journal of Psychology*, *217*(4), 23-32.

Menesini, E., Nocentini, A., & Calussi, P. (2011). The measurement of cyberbullying: Dimensional structure and relative item severity and discrimination. *Cyberpsychology & Behavior, 14*(5), 267–274.

Menesini, E., & Spiel, C. (2012). Introduction: Cyberbullying: Development, consequences, risk and protective factors. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology, 9*(2), 163-167.

Miles, M., & Hurberman, M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook.* London. Beverley Hills.

Mishna, F., McLuckie, A., & Saini, M. (2009a). Real-world dangers in an online reality: A qualitative study examining online relationships and cyber abuse. *Social Work Research*, *33*(2), 107-118.

Mishna, F., Cook, C. Saini, M., Wu. M. J., & MacFadden, R. (2009b). Interventions for children, youth and parents to prevent and reduce cyber-abuse. *Campbell Systematic Reviews*, 11-54.

Mishna, F., Cook, C. Saini, M., Wu. M. J. & MacFadden, R. (2011). Interventions to prevent and reduce cyber abuse of youth: a systematic review. *Research on Social Work Practice, 21*(1), 5-14.

Monks, C. P., & Coyne, I. (2011). (Eds.) *Bullying in different contexts.* Cambridge University Press.

Monks, C. P., Smith, P. K., Naylor, P., Barter, C., Ireland, J., L., & Coyne, I. (2009). Bullying in different contexts: Commonalities, differences and the role of theory. *Aggressive and Violent Behavior,14*, 146–156.

Morgan, R. K. (2009). Student stalking of faculty: Impact and prevalence. *Journal of Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 9(*2), 98-116.

Mostyn, M. M. (2000). The need for regulating Anonymous Remailers. *International Review of Law Computers and Technology, 14*(1), 79-88.

Mullen, P. E., Pathé, M., Purcell, R., & Stuart, G.W. (1999). Study of stalkers. *American Journal of Psychiatry, 156*, 1244-1249.

Myers, M. (2000). *Qualitative research and the generalizability question: Standing firm with Proteus. The Qualitative Report.* Retrieved from http:www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR4-3/myers.html.

Nagin, D. S., Farrington, D. P., & Moffitt, T. E. (1995). Life-course trajectories of Different types of offenders, *Criminology, 33,* 111-139.

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

National Centre for Victims of Crime (2002). *Stalking victimization. Office for Victims of Crime.* Available from https://www.ncjrs.gov/ovc_archives/reports/help_series/pdftxt/stalkingvictimization.txt11212

National Children Bureau (NCB): retrieved from at http://www.ncb.org.uk/

National Crime Prevention Council (2007). Available from *www.examiner.com/relationship-counseling-in-anaheim/dealing-with-cyber-bullying111212*

National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (2012). *Children, young people and 'sexting': summary of a qualitative study*. NSPCC. London.

Nickerson A.B., Mele, D. & Princiotta, D. (2008). Attachment and empathy as predictors of roles as defenders or outsiders in bullying interactions. *Journal of School Psychology, 46*, 687-703.

Nicol, A., & Fleming, M., J. (2010). *"I h8 u": The influence of normative beliefs and hostile response selection in predicting adolescents' mobile phone aggression. Journal of School Violence, 9,* 212-231.

Nie, N., & Erbring, L. (2000). "*Internet and Society: A Preliminary Report.*"

Retrieved from

http://www.bsos.umd.edu/socy/alan/webuse/handouts/Nie/ErbringInternet/Society/Re

port.pdf

Nishina, A., & Juvonen, J. (2005). Daily reports of witnessing and experiencing peer

harassment in middle school. *Child Development, 76,* 435–450.

Nixon, C. L., & Werner, N, E. (2010). Reducing adolescents' involvement with relational

aggression: evaluating the effectiveness of the creating a safe school (CASS)

intervention. *Psychology in Schools, 47*(6), 605-620.

Nobles, M. R., Fox, K. A., Piquero, N & Piquero, R. A. (2009). Career

dimensions of stalking victimization and perpetration, *Justice Quarterly, 26*(3), 476-

503.

Office of Communication (2008). *Social Networking: A quantitative and qualitative*

research report into attitudes, behaviours and use. Research document. Available

from http://stakeholders.ofcom.org.uk/binaries/research/media-

literacy/report1.pdf010112

Office of Communication (2012). *Adult media use and attitudes report. Research*

Document, 1-136. Available from

http://stakeholders.ofcom.org.uk/binaries/research/media-literacy/media-use-

attitudes/adults-media-use-2012.pdf050213

Ogilvie, E. (2000). Cyberstalking: trends and issues in crime and criminal justice.

Australian Institute of Criminology, 166, 1-6.

O'Keeffe, G. S. & Clarke-Pearson, K. (2011). Clinical report—the impact of social media on

children, adolescents and families. *Paediatrics, 127*(4), 800-804.

Ophelia Project (2006). Retrieved from *http://www.opheliaproject.org/main/index.htm*

Oliver, C., & Candappa, M. (2003). *Tackling Bullying: Listening to the views of children and young people.* Institute of Education, Thomas Coram Research Unit. Nottingham: DfES.

Olthof, T., & Goossens, F. (2008). Bullying and the need to belong: Early adolescents' bullying-related behavior and the acceptance they desire and receive from particular classmates. *Social Development, 17*, 24–46.

Olweus, D. (1973). Personality and Aggression. In Cole, J. K., & Jensen, D. D. (Eds.). *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

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

Olweus, D. (1983). Low school achievement and aggressive behaviour in adolescent boys. In Magnusson, D., & Allen, V. (Eds.) *Human development: An interactional perspective* (pp.353-365). New York, Academic Press.

Olweus, D. (1989). Prevalence and incidence in the study of antisocial behavior: Definitions and measurement. In M. Klein (Ed.), *Cross-national research in self-reported crime and delinquency* (pp.187-201). Dordrecht. The Netherlands: Kluwer.

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

Olweus, D. (1997). Bully/victim problems in school: Facts and intervention. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, *12*, 495-510.

Olweus, D. (1999). *Olweus´Core Program against Bullying and Antisocial Bahaviour. A Teacher Handbook.* Research Center for Health promotion. Bergen: Hemil Center.

Olweus, D. (2001). Peer harassment. A critical analysis and some important issues. In J. Juvonen & S. Graham (Eds.), *Peer harassment in school. The plight of the vulnerable and victimized* (pp.3-20). New York: Guilford.

Olweus, D. (2003). A profile of bullying at school. *Educational Leadership, 60*(6), 12-17.

Olweus, D. (2005). Bullying in schools: facts and intervention. Research centre for health promotion. University of Bergen, Norway.

Olweus, D. (2012). Cyberbullying: An overrated phenomenon? Invited expert discussion paper. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 1–19.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Leech, N. L. (2004). Enhancing the interpretation of "significant" findings: The role of mixed methods research. *The Qualitative Report, 9,* 770–792.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Leech, N. L. (2007). Validity and qualitative research: An oxymoron? *Quality & Quantity: International Journal of Methodology, 41*, 233–249.

Oshri, A., Rogosch, A. F., Burnette, M. L., & Cicchetti, D. (2011). Developmental pathways to adolescent cannabis abuse and dependence: child maltreatment, emerging personality and internalizing versus external psychopathology. *American Psychological Association. 25*(4), 634-643.

Patchin, J. W., & Hinduja, S. (2006). Bullies move beyond the schoolyard: A preliminary look at cyberbullying. *Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice, 4*, 148–169.

Patchin J. W. & Hinduja, S. (2010). Cyberbullying and self-esteem. *Journal of School Health. 80, 614-621.*

Pathe´, M., & Mullen, P. E. (1997). The impact of stalkers on their victims. *British Journal of Psychiatry, 170,* 12–17.

Paul, S., Smith, P. K., & Blumberg, H. H. (2012). Investigating legal aspects of cyberbullying. *Psicothema, 24,* 640-645.

Pikas, A. (1989). A pure conception of mobbing gives the best results for treatment. *School Psychology Internation, 10*, 95-104.

Pellegrini, A. D. (2002). Bullying, victimization, and sexual harassment during the transition to middle school. *Educational Psychologist, 37*, 151–163.

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

Perren, S., & Gutzwiller-Helfenginger, E. (2012). Cyber-bullying and traditional bullying in adolescence: Differential roles of moral disengagement, moral emotions and moral values. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology 9*(2), 195-209.

Pfetsch, J. (2010). *Zivilcourage in der Schule. Konzeption und Evaluation eines Zivilcourage-Trainings zur Prävention aggressiven Verhaltens unter Schülern* [*Civil courage in schools. Development and evaluation of a bystander intervention training for the prevention of aggressive behaviour among students*]. Doctoral dissertation, University of Luxembourg.

Pfetsch, J., Steffgen, G., & König, A. (2009, November). *Banning solves the problem!? Effects of banning mobile phone use in schools on cyberbullying.* Poster presentation at the 14th Workshop Aggression, Berlin, Germany.

Piazza, J., & Bering, J. M. (2009). Evolutionary cyber-psychology: applying an evolutionary framework to internet behaviour. *Computers in Human Behavior, 25*, 1258-1269.

Postmes,T., Spears, R.,& Lea, M. (1998). Breaching or building social boundaries? SIDE-effects of computer-mediated communication. *Communication Research*, *25*, 689-715.

Postmes, T, Spears, R, Sakhel, K & De Groot, D. (2001). Social influence in computer-mediated communication: The effects of anonymity on group behaviour. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 27,* 1243.

Prior, M., Sanson, A., Smart, D., & Oberklaid, F. (2001). *Pathways from infancy to adolescence: Australian temperament project 1983-2000.* Australian Institute of Family Studies, Melbourne.

Protection from Harassment Act 1997. In Reece, H. (2011). Unpalatable messages? Feminist Analysis of United Kingdom Legislative discourse on stalking 1996-1997. *Feminist Legal Studies, 19*(3), 205-230

Protection of Freedoms Acts 2012. Factsheet from National organisation for local support and development organisation. Department for Education overaching strategic partnership. NAVCA. Available from www.navca.org.uk/downloads/generate/3145

Purcell, R., Pathé, M., & Mullen, P. E. (2004). When do repeated intrusions become stalking*? The Journal of Forensic Psychiatry and Psychology, 15*(4), 571-583.

Pyzalski, J. (2011). Electronic aggression among adolescents: An old house with a new facade (or even a number of houses). In Hällgren, C. Dunkels, E., & Frånberg, G-M. (Eds.). *Youth culture and net culture: online social practices* (pp. 278–295)*.* Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

R. v Gardener (2010). Criminal Law Reviews on Stalking and Harassment. Available from http://www.ilo.org/oshenc/part-v/psychosocial-and-organizational-factors/interpersonal-factors/item/22-sexual-harassment05/07/12

R v Miah (2002). Criminal Law Reviews on Stalking and Harassment. Available from http://www.ilo.org/oshenc/part-v/psychosocial-and-organizational-factors/interpersonal-factors/item/22-sexual-harassment05/07/12

R v Nasy (2000). Criminal Law Reviews on Stalking and Harassment. Available from http://www.ilo.org/oshenc/part-v/psychosocial-and-organizational-factors/interpersonal-factors/item/22-sexual-harassment05/07/12

Rauskaukas, J., & Stoltz, A. D. (2007). Involvement in traditional and electronic bullying among adolescents. *Developmental Psychology, 43*(3), 564-575.

Raver, J. L., & Nishi, L. H. (2010). Once, twice or three times as harmful? Ethnic harassment, gender harassment and generalized workplace harassment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*(2), 236-254.

Regehr, C. (2010). *Stalking victims.* Retrieved from *http://samples.jbpub.com/9780763772109/72109_Ch09_Roberts.pdf*

Ridout, V., Roberts, D. F., & Foehr, U. G. (2005). *Generation M: Media in the lives of 8–18 year-olds: Executive summary.* Menlo Park, CA: Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation.

Ringrose, J., Gill, R., Livingstone, S., & Harvey, L. (2012). *A qualitative study of children, young people and 'sexting': a report prepared for the NSPCC*. London.

Ritchie, J., & Lewis, J. (2003) *Qualitative research*: *A guide for social science students and researchers*. Sage. London.

Rivers, I., & Noret, N. (2010). "I h8 u': findings from a five-year study of text and email bullying', *British Educational Research Journal, 36*(4), 643- 671.

Robenhurst, M. M., Thomsen, C. J., & Milner, J. S. (2012). Spouse abuse and combat-related deployments in active duty air force couples. *Psychology of Violence*, *2*(3), 273-284.

Roberts, A., & Dziegielewski, S. (1996). Assessment typology and intervention with survivors of stalking. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 1*(4), 359–368.

Robson, C., & Witenberg, R. (2013). The influence of moral disengagement, morally based self-esteem, age and gender on traditional and cyber-bullying. *Journal of School Violence, 12*(1), DOI:10.1080/15388220.2012.762921

Rollers, R. (2010). Principles supporting qualitative research: qualitative research defined. Retrieved at www.cedu.niu.edu/~sorensen/502/powerpoint/topicD/qlnotes.htm

Rosch, E. (1973). On the internal structure of perceptual and semantic categories. In T. E. Moore (Eds), *Cognitive development and the acquisition of language.* (pp.111-144). New York: Academic Press.

Rosch, E. (1975). Cognitive representations of semantic categories. *Journal of Experimental Psychology General, 104*, 192-233.

Rosch, E. (1978). Principle of categorization. In Rosch, E, & Lloyd, B. B. (Eds), *Cognition and categorization* (pp.27-48). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Rosch, E., & Mervis, C. B. (1975). Family resemblances: Studies in the internal structure of categories. *Cognitive Psychology, 7,* 573–605.

Rosch, E., Mervis, C. B., Gray, D. W., Johnson, M. D., & Boyes-Bream, P. (1976). Basic objects in natural categories. *Cognitive Psychology, 8,* 382-439.

Ross, D. (2003). Childhood bullying, teasing, and violence: What school personnel, other professionals, and Parents can do. Alexandria, VA: American Counselling Association.

Ryan, T., Kariuki, M., & Yilmaz, H. (2011). A comparative analysis of cyberbullying perceptions of preservice educators: Canada and Turkey. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, *10(3),* 1-12.

Salmivalli, C. (2001). Group view on victimization. Empirical findings and their implications. In Juvonen, J. & Graham, S. (Eds.), *Peer harassment in school. The plight of the vulnerable and victimized* (pp. 398-419). New York. Guilford.

Salmivalli, C. (2010). Bullying and the peer group: A review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 15,* 112–120.

Salmivalli, C., Kaukiainen, A., Kaistaniemi, L. & Lagerspetz, K. (1999). Self-evaluated self-esteem, peer-evaluated self-esteem, and defensive egotism as predictors of adolescents_ participation in bullying situations. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 25,* 1268–1278.

Salmivalli, C., Kärnä, A., & Poskiparta, E. (2009). From peer putdowns to peer support: A theoretical model and how it translated into a national anti-bullying program. In Shimerson, S., Swearer, S., & D. Espelage (Eds.), *The handbook of bullying in schools: An international perspective* (pp. 441–454). New York: Routledge.

Salmivalli, C., Lagerspetz, K., Björkqvist, K., Österman, K., & Kaukiainen, A. (1996). Bullying as a group process: Participant roles and their relations to social status within the group. *Aggressive Behavior, 22,* 1–15.

Salmivalli, C., & Peets, K. (2008). Bullies, victims, and bully–victim relationships. In K. Rubin, K., Bukowski, W., & Laursen, B. (Eds.). *Handbook of peer interactions, relationships, and groups* (pp. 322–340). New York. Guilford Press.

Salter, M. & Bryden, C. (2009). I can see you: harassment and stalking on the internet. *Information & Communication Technology Law, 18*(2), 99-122.

Sanders, P. L., & Chester, A. (2008). Shynes and the internet: social problem Panacea. *Computers in Human Behavior, 24,* 2649-2658.

Sandelowski, M. (2000). Focus on research methods: Whatever happened to qualitative description? *Research in Nursing and Health, 23*, 334-340.

Schrock, A., & Boyd, D. (2008). "Online threats to youth: Solicitation, harassment, and problematic content." enhancing child safety and online technologies: *Final report of the internet safety technical task force.* Retrieved from
 http://cyber.law.harvard.edu/pubrelease/isttf/

Schultz, V. (2003). The sanitized workplace. *Yale Law Journal, 112*(8), 2061–2197.

Schneider, K. T., Swan, S. & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1997). Job-related psychological effects of sexual harassment in the workplace: Empirical evidence from two organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(3), 401–415.

Schneider, S. K., O'Donnell, L., Stueve, A., & Coulter, R. W. S., (2012). Cyberbullying, school bullying, and psychological distress: A regional census of high school students. *American Journal of Public Health, 102*(1), 171-177.

Schwandt, T. A. (2001). *Dictionary of qualitative inquiry* (Eds) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Selfhout, M. H. W., Branje, S. J. T., Delsing, M., ter Bogt, T. F. M., & Meeus, W. H. J. (2009). Different types of internet use, depression, and social anxiety: the role of perceived friendship quality. *Journal of Adolescence, 32,* 819-833.

Settles, I. H., Buchanan, N. T., & Colar, B. K. (2011). The impact of race and rank on the sexual harassment of black and white men in the U.S. military. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*. Advance online publication. Doi: 10.1037/a0024606

Sevcikova, A., Smahel, D. (2009). Online harassment and cyberbullying in the Czech Republic: comparison across age groups. *Zeitschrift für Psychologie / Journal of Psychology, 217*(4), 227-229.

Scheithauer, H. (2002). *Unprototypical forms of aggression among children: A meta-analysis.* Presented at the 7th Workshop on Aggression, Vienna, Austria.

Shenton, A., K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information, 22,* 63-75.

Sheridan, L. P., & Grant, T. (2007). Is cyber-stalking different*? Psychology, Crime & Law, 13* (6), 627-640.

Skinner, B. F. (1963). Operant behaviour. In Hogg, M. C., & Vaughan, G. M. (Eds) *Social Psychology.* (pp. 21). Pearson: Prentice Hall.

Slee, P., Spears, B., Campbell, M. A., & Cross, D. (2011). Addressing bullying and cyberbullying in schools: translating theory into practice. *Centre for Strategic Education Occasional Papers*, 1-12.

Slonje, R., & Smith, P. K. (2008). Cyberbullying: Another main type of bullying? *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 49,* 147–154.

Smith, J. A. (1995). Semi-structured interviewing and qualitative analysis. In Smith, J. A. R. Harre, R., & Van Langenhove, L. (Eds.). *Rethinking methods in psychology* (pp. 9–26). London: Sage.

Smith, P. K. (2003). Interventions to reduce school bullying. Review. *Canadian Journal of Psychiatry, 48*(9), 591-599.

Smith, P. K. (2012). Cyberbullying: Challenges and opportunities for a research program. A response to Olweus (2012). *European Journal of Developmental Psychology, 9,* 553–558.

Smith, P. K. (2010). Understanding children's worlds: children and play. Book Reviews. Wiley Blackwell.

Smith, P. K., & Brain, P. (2000). Bullying in schools: Lessons from two decades of research. *Aggressive behaviour, 26,* 1-9.

Smith, P. K., Ananiadou, K., & Cowie, H. (2003). Interventions to reduce school bullying. *Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*, *48,* 295–303.

Smith, P. K., Cowie, H., Olafsson, R., & Liefooghe, A. P. D. (2002). Definitions of bullying: A comparison of terms used, and age and sex differences, in a 14-country international comparison. *Child Development*, *73*, 1119–1133.

Smith, P. K., Madsen, K., & Moody, J. (1999). What causes the age decline in reports of being bullied at school? Towards a developmental analysis of risks of being bullied. *Education Research, 41*, 267-285.

Smith, P. K., Mahdavi, J., Carvalho, M., Fisher, S., Russell, S., & Tippett, N. (2008). Cyberbullying: Its nature and impact in secondary school pupils. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 49*(4), 376-385.

Smith, P. K., Mahdavi, J., Carvalho, M., & Tippett, N. (2006). An investigation into cyberbullying, its forms, awareness and impact, and the relationship between age and gender in cyberbullying. Research Brief. London: DfES.

Smith, P. K., Morita, Y., Junger-Tas, J., Olweus, D., Catalano, R., & Slee, P. (1999). *The nature of school bullying: A cross-national perspective*. London & New York: Routledge.

Smith P. K. & Sharp, S. (1994). *School bullying: Insights and perspectives*. London: Routledge.

Smith, P. K., & Shu, S. (2000). What good schools can do about bullying: findings from a survey in English schools after a decade of research and action. *Childhood*, *7*, 193-212.

Smith, J. A., Osborn, M. (2008). Interpretative phenomenological analysis. In Smith JA (Ed) *Qualitative psychology: a practical guide to research methods*. (pp. 53-80). London, Sage.

South, C., & Wood, J. (2006). Bullying in prisons: The importance of perceived social status, prisonization, and moral disengagement. *Aggressive Behavior, 32,* 490–501.

Sproull, L., & Kiesler, S. (1991). *Connections: New ways of working in the networked organization.* Cambridge, Mass. MIT Press.

Standing Senate Committee on Human Rights 2012. Cyberbullying hurts, respect for life in the digital age. Available from
http://www.parl.gc.ca/Content/SEN/Committee/411/RIDR/DPK/01Dec12/news-e.htm06/12/12

Stavrinides, P., Georgiou, S. Nikiforou, M., & Kiteri, E. (2011). Longitudinal investigation of the relationship between bullying and psychological adjustment. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology. 8*(6), 730-743.

Stevenson, M. C., Bottoms, B. L., & Diamond, S.S.S. (2010). Jurors' discussion of a defendants history of child abuse and alcohol abuse in capital sentencing deliberations. *Public Policy and Law, 16*(1), 1-38.

Street, A. E., Gradus, J. L., Stafford, J., & Kelly, K. (2007). Gender differences in experiences of sexual harassment: Data from a male-dominated environment. *Journal of Counselling and Clinical Psychology, 75*(3), 464-474.

Supplemental Victimization Survey (2006) United States Department of Justice. Available from
http://web.archive.org/web/20110828151246/http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/svs1_06.pdf121112

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

Swahnberg, K. Davidsson-Simmons, J. Hearn, J., & Wijma, B. (2012). Men's experiences of emotional, physical and sexual abuse and abuse in health care: a cross-sectional study of Swedish random male population. *Scandinavian Journal of Public Health 40(2),* 191-202.

308

Tajfel, H., Billig, M., Bundy, R. P., & Flament, C. (1971). Social categorization and intergroup behavior. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *1*(2), 149-178.

Tani, F., Greenman, P. S., Schneider, B. H., & Fregoso, M. (2003). Bullying and the big five. A study of childhood personality and participant roles in bullying incidents. *School Psychology International, 24*, 131-146.

Taki, M., Slee, P., Hymel, S., Pepler, D., Sim, H., & Swearer, S. (2008). A new definition and scales for indirect aggression in schools: Results from the longitudinal comparative survey among five countries, *International Journal on Violence and School*, 1-19.

Teddlie, C., & Yu, F. (2007). Mixed Methods Sampling: A Typology With Examples. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research 1*(1), 77-100.

Tedeschi, J. T., & Felson, R. B. (1994). *Violence, aggression and coercive actions*. Washington, DC. APA.

Tepper, R., J. & White, C., G. (2011). Workplace harassment in the academic environment. *St Louis University Law Journal 56*(81), 81-110.

Thompsen, P. A. (1994). To be or not to be: An exploration of e-prime, copula deletion and flaming in electronic mail. *A Review of General Semantics 49*(2), 146-64.

Thompsen, P. A. (1994). An episode of flaming: A creative narrative. *A Review of General Semantics, 51*(1), 51-72.

Thompson, F., & Smith, P., K. (2011). *The use and effectiveness of anti-bullying strategies in schools: Research report DFE-RR098,* retrieved from *https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/DFE-RR098.pdf*

Tokunaga, R. S. (2010). Following you home from school: A critical review and synthesis of research on cyberbullying victimization. *Computers in Human Behavior 26*, 277–287.

Tremblay, R. E. (2000). The development of aggressive behaviour during childhood: what we learned in the past century? *International Journal of Behavioural Development 24*(2), 129–141.

Tremblay, R. E. (2008). Understanding development and prevention of chronic physical aggression: towards experimental epigenetic studies. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society Biological Science, 363*, 2613–2622.

Tulving, E. (2005). *Episodic memory and autonoesis: Uniquely human?* In The Missing Link in Cognition. Origins of Self- Reflective Consciousness. In H.S. Terrace and J. Metcalfe, (Eds, pp. 3–56). Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press.

Turkel, A. R. (2007). Sugar and spice and puppy dog's tails: The psychodynamics of bullying. *Journal of the American Academy of Psychoanalysts and Dynamic Psychiatry*, *35(2),* 243-258.

Turner, J. C. (1978). Social comparison, similarity and intergroup favouritism. In Jetten, J., Spears, R., & Postmes, T. (2004). Intergroup distinctiveness and differentiation: A meta- analytic intergration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 86* (6), 862-879.

Underwood, M. K. (2003). *Social aggression among girls.* New York: Guilford Press.

Underwood, M. K., Galen, B. R., & Paquette, J. A. (2001). Top ten challenges for understanding gender and aggression in children: Why can't we all just get along? *Social Development, 10,* 248 – 266.

UNISON (2008). *The public service union: Harassment at work:* A UNISON guide. UNISON Communications Unit.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (2012). Global

survey on intertenet privacy and freedom of expression. UNESCO series on internet

freedom. UNESCO. Available from

http://www.rapecrisisscotland.org.uk/workspace/publications/Unison-Harassment-at-

work-guide.pdf241313

Van Der Zwaan, J. M., (2012). Embodied conversational agent for social support.

International foundation for autonomous agents and multi-agent systems. *International*

Foundation for Autonomous Agents and Multiagent Systems. Retrieved from

http://www.ifaamas.org/Proceedings/aamas2012/papers/DC_21.pdf

Vandebosch, H., & Van Cleemput, K. (2008). Defining cyberbullying: A qualitative

research into the perceptions of youngsters. *Cyber Psychology & Behaviour, 11,* 499-

503.

Vandebosch, H., Van Cleemput, K., Mortelmans, D., & Walrave, M. (2006). *Cyberpesten bij*

jongeren in Vlaanderen. [*Cyberbullying amongst youngsters in Flanders*]. Brussels:

viWTA

Victims of Crime Survey (1958). In McEwan, T., Mullen P.E., & Purcell R. (2010)

Identifying risk factors in stalking: a review of current research. *International Journal*

of Law Psychiatry, 30, 1-7.

Vieno, A., Gini, G., & Santinello, M. (2011). Different forms of bullying and their

association to smoking and drinking behavior in Italian adolescents. *Journal of School*

Health, *81*(7), 393-399.

Vitaro, F., Gendreau, P., L, Tremblay, R. E., & Oligny, P. (1998). Reactive and proactive

aggression differentially predict later conduct problems. *Journal of Child Psychology*

& Psychiatry 39(3), 377-385.

Walrave, M., & Heirman, W. (2011). Cyber bullying: Predicting victimisation and perpetration. *Children and Society 25***,** 59-72.

Walker, S., Sanci, L., & Temple-Smith, M. (2011). Sexting and young people: Expert views. *Youth Studies Australia, 30*(2), 1-16.

Watson, J. B. (1913). Psychology as a behaviourist views it. In Hogg, M. C., & Vaughan, G. M. (2005). *Social Psychology* (pp.27). Pearson: Prentice Hall.

Willard, N. (2004). *Educator's guide to cyberbullying: Addressing the harm caused by online social cruelty.* Retrieved from http://www.asdk12.org/MiddleLink/AVB/bully_topics/EducatorsGuide_Cyberbullyin g.pdf.

Willard, N. (2007a). The authority and responsibility of school officials in responding to cyberbullying. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 41*, 64–65.

Willard, N. (2007b). *An educator's guide to cyberbullying and cyberthreats.* Retrieved from *http://csriu.org/cyberbully/docs/cbcteducator.pdf*

Willard, N. (2007c). *Cyberbullying and Cyberthreats: Responding to the Challenge of Online Social Agression, Threats, and Distress,* Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Williams, K., Chambers, M., Logan, S., & Robinson, D. (1996). Association of common health symptoms with bullying in primary school children. *British Medical Journal, 313*, 17-19.

Wilson, S. J., & Lipsey, M. W. (2007). School-based interventions for aggressive and disruptive behavior. Update of a meta-analysis. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine, 33*(2), 130-143.

Wimmer, S. (2009). Gender differences in bullying. *Griffith Working Papers in Pragmatics and Intercultural Communication, 2*(1), 18-26.

Wingate, S., V. Minney, J. A., & Guadagno, R. E. (2012): Sticks and stones may break your

bones, but words will always hurt you: A review of cyberbullying, *Social Influence,*

DOI:10.1080/15534510.2012.730491

Witvliet, M., Olthof, T., Hoeksma, J., Smits, M., Koot, H., & Goossens, F. (2009). Peer

group affiliation of children: The role of perceived popularity, likeability, and

behavioural similarity in bullying. *Social Development.* Doi:10.1111/j.1467-

9507.2009.00544.x

Wolak, J. J. D., Mitchell, K., & Finkelhor, D. (2006). *Online victimisation of youths. Crimes*

against children research centre. National centre for missing and exploited children.

office of justice programs. U.S. Department of Justice.

Wolak, J. J. D., & Kimberly, J., Mitchell, D., & Finkelhor, (2007). Does online harassment

constitute bullying? An exploration of online harassment by known peers and online-

only contacts. *Journal of Adolescent Health 41,* 51–58.

Wolfe, D. A., Scott, K., Reiael-Jaffe, D., Wekerle, C., Grasley, C., & Straatman, A. (2001).

Development and validation of the conflict in adolescent dating relationships

inventory. *Psychological Assessment, 13*, 277-293.

Wolke, D., & Samara, M. (2004). Bullied by siblings: association with peer victimization

and behaviour problems in Israeli lower secondary school children. *Journal of Child*

Psychology and Psychiatry, *45*, 1015-1029.

World Health Organization (2004). Available from at http://www.who.int/hpr/ageing

Xie, H., Swift, D. J., Cairns, B. D., & Cairns, R. B. (2002). Aggressive behaviors in social

interaction and developmental adaptation: A narrative analysis of interpersonal

conflicts during early adolescence. *Social Development, 11,* 205-224.

Xie, H., Cairns, B. D., & Cairns, R. B. (2005). The development of aggressive behaviors among girls: Measurement issues, social functions, and differential trajectories. In D. Pepler, K. Madsen, C. Webster, & K. Levene (Eds.), *Development and Treatment of Girlhood Aggression* (pp. 103-134). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Yaffe, G. (2004). Conditional intent and *mens rea*. *Legal Theory, 10,* 273–310.

Ybarra, M. L., & Mitchell, J. K. (2004a) Online aggressors/targets, aggressors and targets: A comparison of associated youth characteristics, *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 45*(7), 1308–1316.

Ybarra, M, L., & Mitchell, J. K. (2004b). Youth engaging in online harassment: associations with caregive-child relationships, internet use and personal characteristics. *Journal of Adolescence, 27,* 319-336.

Ybarra, M. L., Diener-West, M., & Leaf, P. J. (2007). Examining the overlap in internet harassment and school bullying: Implications for school intervention. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 41,* 42–50.

Yilmaz, H. (2010). An examination of preservice teachers' perceptions about cyber-bulling. *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science & Technology Education, 6*(4), 263-270.

Young, E., Nelson, D., Hottle, A., Warburton, B., & Young, C. B. (2010). Relational aggression among students. *Principle Leadership, 11*, 12-16.

Zillmann, D. (1979). *Hostility and aggression*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Zimbardo, P. G. (1970). The human choice: Individuation, reason, and order versus deindividuation, impulse, and chaos. In W. J. Arnold & D. Levine (Eds.), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation, 17* (pp. 237-307). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

Zona, M. A, Sharma, K. K., & Lane, J. C. (1993). A comparative study of erotomanic and obsessional subjects in a forensic sample. *Journal of Forensic Sciences, 38*(4), 894-903.

Appendix 1

Sample interview on people's perception of general online aggression and cyber-bullying.

Interview with IAIN (participant's screen name)

Dorothy says (20:58):
  This interview is part of my doctorate research at the Goldsmiths University of London. It is about aggression and Bullying. Your participation is voluntary. However, should you feel at any point that a question might cause you any form of distress you are not under any obligation to answer it

Iain says (20:59):
  _Ok_

Dorothy says (20:59):
  Whatever information you provide in this research will be treated in full confidence, your name will not be published in any future publication and you will not be identifiable. You can withdraw from participating in this research at any time. Please confirm your consent to participate by stating your name, age, name and initial as signature and today's date

Iain says (21:00):
  Information withheld for confidentiality

Dorothy says (21:01):
  Thank you for that...do you use mobile phones and the internet? By internet I mean the use of pc or laptop?

Iain says (21:01):
  Yes i do both for business and personal use

Dorothy says (21:02):
  Since you use mobile phones and internet, I can ask general questions on both devices which means we will use them interchangeably.

Iain says (21:02):
  _Ok_

Dorothy says (21:02):
  The use of mobile phones and the internet can be fun and enjoyable, but sometimes nasty things happen. What are the sorts of negative things that can happen with people using mobile phones and internet?

Iain says (21:04):
I have had personal attacks, aggressive language and threats, malicious and false information being provided by others to undermine relationships and interactions with others

Dorothy says (21:04):
Are there any other nasty things you may want to add?

Iain says (21:06):
Within the remit of aggressive behaviour you can have intimidator issues and incitement of various responses
Would you like examples?

Dorothy says (21:07):
Yes please provide me with some examples of these negative acts that people's send when they use mobile phones and internet

Iain says (21:08):
People can incite intolerance of other cultures, sexism, racism; i have had them done to me.
Others are incitement to riot and undermine lawful actions
Arrange and coordinate criminal and terrorist related activities

Iain says (21:09):
Extortion and blackmail, trafficking of goods, services and personnel

Iain says (21:10):
An instant communicative medium to arrange both activities and targeting action of people/establishments

Dorothy says (21:10):
OK, thanks for the detailed examples... How would you describe people's negative behaviour via mobile phones and the internet?

Iain says (21:11):
I am not sure what the question is precisely meaning...
It is relating to the attitude of the person receiving the information

Dorothy says (21:12):
What names can be used to classify or describe people's negative behaviour on mobile phones and the internet

Iain says (21:13):
Bullying, coercion, blackmail, intimidation
Callous, lying
Deceiving

Dorothy says (21:13):
Having identified these nasty behaviours, what sort of things do you think could be done about them?

Iain says (21:14):
Monitoring, in serious cases interception evidence, tracking

Dorothy says (21:14):
Please could you explain further?

Iain says (21:15):
For mobile phone use and serious criminal activity laws to allow intercept evidence to be utilised. For Internet via mobile phones, ISPs to be more proactive

Iain says (21:16):
Preventing people accessing exploitive sites,
Use of phone evidence for issues at work

Dorothy says (21:22):
Many thanks for that. Some researchers talk about 'cyber-bullying', what does this mean to you?

Iain says (21:26):
Bullying via the internet

Dorothy says (21:27):
Do you think it is a useful term?

Iain says (21:27):
Yes i do...it reflects the source of the issue
It reflects the use of bullying via internet provided services

Dorothy says (21:28):
How useful a term do you think the term is?

Iain says (21:29):
It is useful for the specifics
Cyber criminality will cover criminal aspects
Cyber terrorism will cover those aspects involved with undermining the state etc.

Dorothy says (21:30):
Thank you, is there anything else you would like to say in the general context?

Iain says (21:30):
I think i have covered all issues raised

Dorothy says (21:31):
I would like to thank you very much for participating in this online interview. We have now concluded the interview session. Is there any questions you would like to ask me?

Iain says (21:31):
Nothing to do with the interview at all

Iain says (21:32):
  It was well conducted and i wish you well in your research programme

Dorothy says (21:32):
  That is noted, thank you, interview now officially ends. 21:32 pm

Iain says (21:32):
  Agreed...

Appendix 2

A copy of help sheet to all participants

If you have a problem with any of the issues relating to bullying or cyberbullying mentioned in this focus group, please talk to someone (such as a teacher, Headteacher, community centre manager) who will be able to help you. If you do not feel comfortable talking to someone in your school or community centre, you can talk to a parent or guardian, and they can come with you to talk to a teacher, or you or they can contact a mobile phone company or internet service provider about the problem.

You can also call Childline FREE on 0800 1111, 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.

If you have access to the internet you can look on the websites below for further information and advice.

Bullying

www.bbc.co.uk/education/bully
www.childline.org.uk
www.kidscape.org.uk

Cyberbullying

www.bebo.com/Cyberbullying.jsp
www.wirekids.com
www.bullyonline.org/schoolbully/

It is important to remember that bullying and cyberbullying happens to many people, and you are not alone. There are people in your school and trained professionals who can listen and offer advice.

REMEMBER

KEEPING QUIET ABOUT BULLYING ALLOWS IT TO GO ON

Appendix 3

Participants' instructions on features' generation (study two)

Goldsmiths, University of London.

Unit for School and Family Studies,

Goldsmiths, University of London,

New Cross, London, SE14 6NW

Features and prototypes of cyber-bullying.

This questionnaire is part of my Postgraduate study at Goldsmiths, University of London. It is about cyber-bullying. Your participation is voluntary. The questions are of a general nature and do **not** ask you about your personal experiences (apart from your frequency of use of mobile phones and the internet). However, should you feel at any point that a question might cause you any form of distress, you are welcome to omit such question(s).

Whatever information you provide in this research will be treated in full confidence, your name will not be published along any future publication and you will not be identifiable. You can withdraw from participating in this study at any time.

Please confirm your consent to participate by signing below:

Name……………… Signature…………………… Date…………….

Age: 18-24 ☐ 25-30 ☐ 31-40 ☐ 41-50 ☐

Sex: Male ☐ Female ☐

Ethnicity White ☐ Black ☐ Asian ☐ Others ☐ (please specify)

Use of mobile phones

Does your mobile phone have internet access? Yes ☐ No ☐

How often do you use a mobile phone for phone calls

I don't use mobile phones ☐ 1-20 hours a week ☐ 50-100 hours per week ☐

20-50 hours per week ☐ More than 100 hours Per week ☐

How often do you use a mobile phone for text messages?

I don't send text messages ☐ 1-20 times a week ☐ 50-100 times per week ☐

20-50 times per week ☐ More than 100 times Per week ☐

Use of a computer (Internet)

Does your computer have internet access? Yes ☐ No ☐

How often do you use a computer for general communications and for social networking?

I don't use a computer ☐   1-20 hours per week ☐   20-50 hours per week ☐

More than 100 hours Per week ☐   50-100 hours per week ☐

"This study has to do with the sort of things we have in mind when we hear and use words. For example, if you heard the word "fruit" you might think of such things as apples and pears. If you heard the word "furniture," you might think of sofa, couch, or table. If you heard the word "extrovert," you might think of outgoing, friendly, and sociable.

WHAT WE WANT YOU TO DO...

Think for a moment about what it means to cyber-bully a person or be cyber-bullied by another person. For example, you might want to list things including what you feel like, think about, or things you do when you cyber-bully or being cyber-bullied. Even if you have never been cyber-bullied or cyber-bully someone else, you can still write things relevant to what you think it might be like to cyber-bully or being cyber-bullied. There are no right or wrong answers. Please list as many words that come to mind when you hear the word cyber-bullying. Please do not take more than 5 minutes to complete this task."

An answer sheet is provided for you in the next page. Please do not take more than 5 minutes to complete this task.

List as many words that come to mind according to the given instruction

Thank you for participating

Appendix 4

Questionnaire: Centrality and peripherality ratings of exemplars.

Goldsmiths, University of London.

Unit for School and Family Studies,

Goldsmiths, University of London,

New Cross, London, SE14 6NW

Central & peripheral prototypes of cyber-bullying.

Cyber-bullying Features and Prototypes

This questionnaire is part of my Postgraduate study at Goldsmiths, University of London. It is about cyber-bullying. Your participation is voluntary. The questions are of a general nature and do **not** ask you about your personal experiences (apart from your frequency of use of mobile phones and the internet). However, should you feel at any point that a question might cause you any form of distress, you are welcome to omit such question(s).

Whatever information you provide in this research will be treated in full confidence, your name will not be published along any future publication and you will not be identifiable. You can withdraw from participating in this study at any time.

Please confirm your consent to participate by signing below:

Name……………… 　　Signature…………………… 　　Date…………….

Age: 　　18-21 ☐ 　　22-35 ☐ 　　35-50 ☐

Sex: 　　Male ☐ 　Female ☐

Use of mobile phones

Does your mobile phone have internet access? Yes ☐   No ☐

How often do you use a mobile phone for phone calls

I don't use mobile phones ☐   1-20 hours a week ☐   50-100 hours per week ☐

20-50 hours per week ☐   More than 100 hours Per week ☐

How often do you use a mobile phone for text messages?

I don't send text messages ☐   1-20 times a week ☐   50-100 times per week ☐

20-50 times per week ☐   More than 100 times Per week ☐

Use of a computer (Internet)

Does your computer have internet access? Yes ☐   No ☐

How often do you use a computer for general communications and for social networking?

I don't use a computer ☐   1-20 hours per week ☐   20-50 hours per week ☐

More than 100 hours Per week ☐   50-100 hours per week ☐

Participants were asked in a previous study to state their views of cyber-bullying. Specifically, they were asked to 'list the features or attributes of cyber-bullying that come to mind'. Below are the responses of some of the participants in the earlier study. Please read each of the descriptions of cyber-bullying below. After you have read each one, please rate how central or important you think each of the features are to the concept of cyber-bullying. Also rate how positive or negative you think they are of cyber-bullying. For example, if you think that a feature is not typical of cyber-bullying, circle "1".

The higher the number you choose, the more typical the feature is to cyber-bullying. So, supposing you tick '6' in the worked question below, it means that you think the said feature is most typical of cyber-bullying. Another example is this, supposing two participants were asked to rate self-esteem as a feature of cyber-bullying. If participant one circled 6 as shown in example 1 below...

1. **Example 1: Low self-esteem (on the part of the cyber-bully)**

Not typical 1----------2------------3--------------4---------------5------------ 6 very typical.

...it means that participant one thinks that low self-esteem is very (most) typical of cyber-bullies. However, if participant two circled '3' in example 2 below...

2. **Example 2: Low self-esteem (on the part of the cyber-bully)**

Not typical 1----------2------------ 3 ----------4--------------5----------------6 very typical.

...it will mean that participant two thinks that low self-esteem is not too typical of cyber-bullies.

Now please complete the following questions, circling 1-6 as not too typical to very typical of cyber-bullying.

1. Abusive messages

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

2. Aggressive messages

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

3. Anonymous messages

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

4. Breeching of information

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

5. Bullying

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

6. Challenging others via internet and mobile phones

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

7. Embarrassing messages

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

8. Fearful messages

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

9. Forming online gangs (against others)

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

10. Grooming (grooming others with messages in order to harm them)

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

11. Hacking (breaking into other people's account to send unwanted messages)

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

12. Harassment (using messages to harass others)

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

13. Harmful messages

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

14. Hate-pages (hateful and spiteful messages on internet walls)

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

15. Hurtful messages (intentionally hurting others with words)

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

16. Invasion of privacy (sending uncalled for/unwanted messages to others at will)

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

17. Malicious mails

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

18. Mean messages

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

19. Name calling

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

20. Nasty messages

Not typical 1-----------2------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

21. Phishing (using false identity in order to exploit others financially)

Not typical 1-----------2------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

22. Rude images

Not typical 1-----------2------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

23. Rumour (spreading false rumours about others online and via mobile phones)

Not typical 1-----------2------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

24. Stalking

Not typical 1-----------2------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

25. Site misuse

Not typical 1-----------2------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

26. Stalking

Not typical 1-----------2------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

27. Swearing (using and sending swear words on others via internet and mobile phones)

Not typical 1-----------2------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

28. Talking in bold fonts

Not typical 1-----------2------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

29. Telling other people off

Not typical 1-----------2------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

30. Threatening messages

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

31. Ugly distorted bold photos of others (creating this types of photos)

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical.

32. Unnecessary argument (causing constant argument via mobile phone and internet)

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

33. Violence (sending violent messages via internet and mobile phones)

Not typical 1-----------2-------------3--------------4---------------5----------------6 very typical

Thank you for participating in the study.

If you have any questions regarding this questionnaire or study in general, please do not hesitate to contact me on 07903 678 731 or send an e-mail to d.grigg@gold.ac.uk

Appendix 5

Experiment answer sheets for participants

Goldsmiths' University of London.

The Unit for School and Family Studies,

Goldsmiths, University of London,

New Cross, London, SE14 6nw

<u>Core exemplars of cyber-bullying.</u>

<u>Core exemplars of cyber-bullying</u>

This questionnaire is part of my Postgraduate study at Goldsmiths, University of London. It is about cyber-bullying. Your participation is voluntary. The questions are of a general nature and do **not** ask you about your personal experiences (apart from your frequency of use of mobile phones and the internet). However, should you feel at any point that a question might cause you any form of distress, you are welcome to omit such question(s).

Whatever information you provide in this research will be treated in full confidence, your name will not be published along any future publication and you will not be identifiable. You can withdraw from participating in this study at any time.

Please confirm your consent to participate by signing below:

Name: ……………………………   Signature……………………………...

Date: ....

Age (years):   please specify ....18-21…   22-35…   35 and over…

Sex: Male… Female…

<u>Use of a mobile phone.</u>

Please tick the answers relevant to you.

Do you have access to a mobile phone?   Yes ….   No….

Does your mobile phone have internet access?   Yes….   No....

How often do you use a mobile phone for phone calls?

(i) I don't use mobile phones…   (ii) 1-20 hours a week…

(iii) 20-50 hours a week…   (iv) 50-100 hours a week…

(v) More than 100 hours a week…

How often do you use a mobile phone for text messages?

(i) I don't use mobile phones…   (ii) 1-20 times a week…

(iii) 20-50 times a week…   (iv) 50-100 times a week…

(v) More than 100 times a week…

<u>Use of a computer.</u>

Please tick the answers relevant to you.

Do you have a computer?   Yes …   No…

Do you have access to internet via computers?   Yes …   No...

How often do you use a computer for internet purposes?

(i) I don't use computers for internet purposes…   (ii) 1-20 hours a week…

(iii) 20-50 hours a week…   (iv) 50-100 hours a week...

(v) More than 100 hours a week...

Please do not turn over until you are told to do so

Now list in alphabetically order as many of the European as possible

Please do not turn over until you are told to do so

RECALL: Remember you were asked to take a very close look at the Power Point presented words?

Now recall as many of the words that were presented to you on the Power Point Slide.

Please do not turn over until you are told to do so

You will shortly be presented with some Power Point slides. Each of these slides may contain words that you have seen at the beginning of this experiment. Below is an answer sheet provided so that you can tick a 'yes' or a 'no' box beside each number to say whether you had seen any of these words that will be presented. For this particular exercise, please assume that each slide is presented in a numerical order starting from the top of the answer page to the bottom page.

Now please turn over to start the experiment

Tick 'yes' or 'no' to whether you had previously seen each of these words

1. Yes ☐ No ☐   12. Yes ☐ No ☐   23. Yes ☐ No ☐

2. Yes ☐ No ☐   13. Yes ☐ No ☐   24. Yes ☐ No ☐

3. Yes ☐ No ☐   14. Yes ☐ No ☐   25. Yes ☐ No ☐

4. Yes ☐ No ☐   15. Yes ☐ No ☐   26. Yes ☐ No ☐

5. Yes ☐ No ☐   16. Yes ☐ No ☐   27. Yes ☐ No ☐

6. Yes ☐ No ☐   17. Yes ☐ No ☐   28. Yes ☐ No ☐

7. Yes ☐ No ☐   18. Yes ☐ No ☐   29. Yes ☐ No ☐

8. Yes ☐ No ☐   19. Yes ☐ No ☐   30. Yes ☐ No ☐

9. Yes ☐ No ☐   20. Yes ☐ No ☐   31. Yes ☐ No ☐

10. Yes ☐ No ☐   21. Yes ☐ No ☐   32. Yes ☐ No ☐

11. Yes ☐ No ☐   22. Yes ☐ No ☐   33. Yes ☐ No ☐

Appendix 6

Qualitative extraction of scenarios: CB and CV exemplars.

Goldsmiths' University of London.

The Unit for School and Family Studies,

Goldsmiths, University of London,

New Cross, London, SE14 6nw

Image retrieved www.cyberbullyingprotection.net/.../3114527.jpg
Visit the anti-bullying alliance at: www.anti-bullyingalliance.org.uk

INFORMED CONSENT:

Please read carefully

This questionnaire asks questions regarding your perception of mobile phones and internet nasty and negative acts/behaviours.

It is not intended to cause harm or distress, therefore, if at any time you would like to discontinue the questionnaire, please do so.

Please do not put your name on it as your questionnaire will remain anonymous and your answer will be kept confidential.

If you would like to continue with the questionnaire, please attest to the agreement below:

I agree to participate.

Signature……………………..

Thank you for your participation.

Age (years):   18-25…   26-35…   36-45…   46-55…   56-70...

Sex: Male…   Female…

Living style: I live alone ...   live with parents ...   house share ...   other   (please

specify)...

Use of a mobile phone.

Please tick the answers relevant to you.

Do you have your own mobile phone?   Yes ...   No...

Do you have a shared mobile phone?   Yes...   No...

Does your mobile phone have internet access?   Yes...   No...

How often do you use a mobile phone for phone calls?

(i) I don't use mobile phones…   (ii) Up to an hour a day...

(iii) 1-2 hours a day …   (iv) 3-4 hours a day…

(v) More than 5 hours a day…

How often do you use a mobile phone for text messages?

(i) I don't use mobile phones for text messages…   (ii) 1-10 times a day…

(iii) 11-20 times a day…   (iv) 21-50 times a day…

(v) More than 50 times a day…

<u>Use of a computer.</u>

Please tick the answers relevant to you.

Do you have your own computer?   Yes …   No…

Do you use a shared computer?   Yes ...   No...

Does your computer or shared computer have internet access?   Yes …   No...

How often do you use a computer for general communication purposes?

(i) I don't use computers…   (ii) Up to an hour a day...

(iii) 1-2 hours a day …   (iv) 3-4 hours a day…

(v) More than 5 hours a day…

How often do you use a computer for internet games purposes?

(i) I don't use computers for games …   (ii) Up to an hour a day...

(iii) 1-2 hours a day …   (iv) 3-4 hours a day…

(v) More than 5 hours a day…

How often do you use a computer for social networking purposes?

(i) I don't use social networking sites…

(ii) Up to an hour a day...

(iii) 1-2 hours a day …

(iv) 3-4 hours a day…

(v) More than 5 hours a day…

Scenarios:

Please examine the following scenarios and give your opinion on what you think about the behaviours and how you can describe them. There are no right or wrong answers, just write down what you feel about the situation(s).

1. David posted false and malicious information about Michael on a social networking site. Many of Michael's friends saw the information. Michael got upset because of the public embarrassment of this information. How would you describe David's behaviour?

   ....
   ....
   ....
   ....
   ....

2. Jane was Steve's girlfriend. Steve had taken photographs of Jane with her consent whilst she was taking her bath one morning during their relationship. But when Jane later broke up with Steve, Steve posted her nude photos on a social networking site. He also sent the same photos to his friends via his mobile phone. How would you describe Steve's behaviour?

   ....
   ....
   ....
   ....
   ....

3   Raji received a rude message from an unknown sender in a chat room. He asked whoever the sender was, not to send him such messages again because he found it offensive. The sender in response to Raji's concerns, threatened to hurt/kill Raji. How would you describe the unknown sender's behaviour?

....

....

....

....

....

4   Jack used a false identity to send unwanted and malicious e-mails to Ruth. Ruth has asked that he stopped sending her these messages because she finds them very upsetting. Jack ignored her concerns and kept sending her malicious messages. How would you describe Jack's actions?

....

....

....

....

....

5   Pam is Carole's best friend. She knows Carole's password because Carole trusted her

with it. Pam has used Carole's identity to send nasty messages to all their friends.

They all got angry at Carole, with the false belief that she was the one sending out

these messages. How would you describe Pam's actions?

....

....

....

....

....

Please turn over

348

Now please take a look at these scenarios again and choose the option that you feel best describes the scenario.

7. David posted false and malicious information about Michael on a social networking site. Many of Michael's friends saw the information. Michael got upset because of the public embarrassment of this information. How would you describe David's behaviour?

a) Cyber-aggression ... b) Cyber-bullying ... c) a and b ...   d) I don't know ...

e) Neither ...

8. Jane was Steve's girlfriend. Steve had taken photographs of Jane with her consent whilst she was taking her bath one morning during their relationship. But when Jane later broke up with Steve, Steve posted her nude photos on a social networking site and send to his friends via his mobile phone. How would you describe Steve's behaviour?

a)   Cyber-aggression ... b) Cyber-bullying ... c) a and b ...   d) I don't know ...

e) Neither ...

9. Raji received a rude message from an unknown sender in a chat room. He asked whoever the sender was, not to send him such messages again because he found it offensive. The sender in response to Raji's concerns, threatened to hurt/kill Raji. How would you describe the unknown sender's behaviour?

a) Cyber-aggression ... b) Cyber-bullying ... c) a and b ...   d) I don't know ...

e) Neither ...

10. Jack used a false identity to send unwanted and malicious e-mails to Ruth. Ruth has asked that he stopped sending her these messages because she finds them very upsetting. Jack ignored her concerns and kept sending her malicious messages. How would you describe Jack's actions?

a) Cyber-aggression ... b) Cyber-bullying ... c) a and b ...   d) I don't know ...

e) Neither ...

11. Pam is Carole's best friend. She knows Carole's password because Carole trusted her with it. Pam has used Carole's identity to send nasty messages to all their friends. They all got angry at Carole, with the false belief that she was the one sending out these messages. How would you describe Pam's actions?

a. Cyber-aggression ... b) Cyber-bullying ... c) a and b ...   d) I don't know ...

e) Neither ...

12. Simon created a computer program that sends virus emails to computer users randomly. Each time messages are downloaded by any targeted computer user; they attack the hardware and transfer their personal information to Simon's computer thereby allowing him to use this information however he wishes. How can you describe Simon's behaviour?

a) Cyber-aggression ... b) Cyber-bullying ... c) a and b ...   d) I don't know ...

e) Neither ...

Note:

Please if you have experienced cyber-bullying/cyber-aggression and you do not mind to be interviewed on questionnaire or face to face basis; or if you have been involved in some of this behaviour and would like to share your experience please contact me. All information are very confidential and you will be anonymous in the study. Thank you.

Email : d.grigg@gold.ac.uk

Text: +44 7830941330

Appendix 7

Categorisation of exemplars into sub-types of aggression.

Goldsmiths' University of London.

The Unit for School and Family Studies,

Goldsmiths, University of London,

New Cross, London, SE14 6nw

Image retrieved www.cyberbullyingprotection.net/.../3114527.jpg
Visit the anti-bullying alliance at: www.anti-bullyingalliance.org.uk

INFORMED CONSENT:

Please read carefully

This questionnaire asks questions regarding your perception of mobile phones and internet nasty and negative acts/behaviours.

It is not intended to cause harm or distress, therefore, if at any time you would like to discontinue the questionnaire, please do so.

Please do not put your name on it as your questionnaire will remain anonymous and your answer will be kept confidential.

If you would like to continue with the questionnaire, please attest to the agreement below:

I agree to participate.

Signature……………………..

Thank you for your participation.

Age (years):   18-25…   26-35…   36-45…   46-55…   56-70...

Sex: Male…   Female…

Living style: I live alone ...   live with parents ...   house share ...   other   (please

specify)...

Use of a mobile phone.

Please tick the answers relevant to you.

Do you have your own mobile phone?   Yes ...   No...

Do you have a shared mobile phone?   Yes...   No...

Does your mobile phone have internet access?   Yes...   No...

How often do you use a mobile phone for phone calls?

(i) I don't use mobile phones…   (ii) Up to an hour a day...

(iii) 1-2 hours a day …   (iv) 3-4 hours a day…

(v) More than 5 hours a day…

How often do you use a mobile phone for text messages?

(i) I don't use mobile phones for text messages…   (ii) 1-10 times a day…

(iii) 11-20 times a day…   (iv) 21-50 times a day…

(v) More than 50 times a day…

<u>Use of a computer.</u>

Please tick the answers relevant to you.

Do you have your own computer?   Yes …   No…

Do you use a shared computer?   Yes ...   No...

Does your computer or shared computer have internet access?   Yes …   No...

How often do you use a computer for general communication purposes?

(i) I don't use computers…   (ii) Up to an hour a day...

(iii) 1-2 hours a day …   (iv) 3-4 hours a day…

(v) More than 5 hours a day…

How often do you use a computer for internet games purposes?

(i) I don't use computers for games …   (ii) Up to an hour a day...

(iii) 1-2 hours a day …   (iv) 3-4 hours a day…

(v) More than 5 hours a day…

How often do you use a computer for social networking purposes?

(i) I don't use social networking sites…   (ii) Up to an hour a day...

(iii) 1-2 hours a day …   (iv) 3-4 hours a day…

(v) More than 5 hours a day…

Please turn over

Please take a look at these scenarios and choose the option that you feel best describes the scenarios. Please tick your chosen category.

1. David posted false and malicious information about Michael on a social networking site. Many of Michael's friends saw this information. Michael got upset because of the public embarrassment of this information. How would you classify David's behaviour?

A). Cyber-aggression ☐   B) Cyber-bullying ☐   C) cyber-harassment ☐

D) cyber-stalking ☐   E) cyber-abuse ☐

2. Jane was Steve's girlfriend. After she broke up with Steve, he sent several of his friends a nude photograph of Jane. Some of his friends also forwarded the messages to their own friends through mobile phone multi-media messaging service; others posted the photo on a social networking site. How would you classify Steve's behaviour?

A). Cyber-aggression ☐   B) Cyber-bullying ☐   C) cyber-harassment ☐

D) cyber-stalking ☐   E) cyber-abuse ☐

3. Raji received a rude name calling message from an unknown sender in a chat room. He asked that the sender stop sending him such messages, instead he received more messages that threatened to kill and hurt him. How would you classify the unknown sender's behaviour?

A). Cyber-aggression ☐   B) Cyber-bullying ☐   C) cyber-harassment ☐

D) cyber-stalking ☐   E) cyber-abuse ☐

4. 'Jack' met Ruth on a chat site, 'Jack' had always pretended to be a male who fancied Ruth. She kept sending violent videos and unwanted e-mails to Ruth. Ruth had asked that he stopped sending her these messages because she finds them very upsetting. Nevertheless Jack ignored her concerns and kept sending her violent videos. How would you classify 'Jack's actions?

A). Cyber-aggression ☐   B) Cyber-bullying ☐   C) cyber-harassment ☐

D) cyber-stalking ☐   E) cyber-abuse ☐

5. Pam is Carole's best friend, she knows Carole's password because Carole had trusted her with it. Pam has used Carole's identity to send nasty messages to all their friends. They all got angry at Carole because of the false belief that she was the one sending out these messages. How would you classify Pam's actions?

A). Cyber-aggression ☐   B) Cyber-bullying ☐   C) cyber-harassment ☐

D) cyber-stalking ☐   E) cyber-abuse ☐

Appendix 8

Stages one and two triangulatory commonality

Commonality between the two stages was observed. The feelings of the victims of virtual aggression were seconded and echoed by stage-two participants who were not victims but expressed their thoughts on virtual aggressive behaviours, e.g.

A recount of Threat scenario from original interview*:*

M/17/B: *"I don't know why I kept getting threats...at first they scared me, but later they started sounding like someone I knew at school..."*

A recount by one of the 114 participants in the second stage and what they thought of Threat scenario:

M/16-25/B: *"Not to worry, just an idle threat which are very wrong and common on the internet. The sender is malicious and cowardly".*

A recount by a perpetrator in the original interview:

M/16/W: *"The best thing that can ever happen to a bully is to bully them back, I'm not proud of what I did, but I am satisfied with all that I did"*

A recount by participants in the second stage:

M/16-25/W: *"He must have a reason for what he is doing but that in no means justifies his behaviour."*