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The Established and the Outsiders:
Cyberbullying as an Exclusionary Process

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B.A, M.Ed, M.Sc

Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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Abstract

Cyberbullying has become increasingly problematic over the past decade with extreme instances of young people committing suicide due to their victimisation. While the prevalence of cyberbullying along with its effects have been researched and identified, the theoretical underpinnings for determining why young people engage in these behaviours has been under researched. A clear understanding behind the motivations into cyberbullying as exclusion is necessary in order to help decrease the behaviours as well as addressing deficiencies in defining what cyberbullying is.

This study used a mixed methods design, first using quantitative data via a survey designed to target pupils (n=450) in three Catholic Secondary schools in Glasgow, Scotland. Second, qualitative data was collected through interviews with educational professionals (n=13; nine teachers, four non-teacher educators). The discussion of findings focuses on the perceptions of cyberbullying through the eyes of educators and how they understand and recognise the exclusionary process. To facilitate understanding cyberbullying as exclusion, the results of this study were explored through the lens of the Established and Outsiders framework.

The research finds that while teachers are undereducated and uninformed on social media and cyberbullying, young people continue to increase their knowledge and access to these sites for both socialisation and exclusion, which is having a significant effect on their physical and mental well being. While most young people surveyed claim not to have been victims of cyberbullying, the evidence from both the survey and interviews agree that girls were more likely to engage in cyberbullying as both victim and bully. Teachers from the three participating schools experienced challenges in understanding and recognising cyberbullying and the usage of social media by young people. Their abilities to recognise these behaviours were often underpinned by their lack of training in areas of technology in conjunction with their negative attitudes toward social media.
This study enriches the wider literature by examining cyberbullying as exclusion through the lens of Elias’s Established and Outsider framework, providing a novel approach to understanding the exclusionary process. The study also provides evidence asserting the need for providing in-service teachers education, training and support in understanding and recognising cyberbullying behaviours.

**Keywords:** cyberbullying, Established and Outsiders, exclusion, bullying, young people, social media, teachers, educators
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Dedication

For my beloved parents, Linda and Peter, who unfortunately did not live to see the culmination of this journey. Thank you for always believing in me.
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I would like to express my deepest appreciation to Stephanie Baker. Thanking you is not enough for all of the support and love that you have given me on our journey here in Scotland. I am forever indebted to you.

I would also like to thank my sister Jennifer and her two lovely daughters, Stephanie and Katie, for their love and texts of encouragement and laughter.

Last, but most certainly not least, I wish to thank Stina, Annette, and Brendan for their e-mails and valued friendship over these long years.
Author’s Declaration

I, Cindy L. Corliss, declare that except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, that this doctoral thesis entitled “The Established and the Outsiders: Cyberbullying as an Exclusionary Process” is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.

Signature __________________________
Printed name ___Cindy L. Corliss____________________
Date __________04/03/2017___________________
**Definition of terms**

Ask.fm: Ask.fm is a social networking site that launched in 2010, where users create profiles and are able to ask questions of other members.

Facebook: Facebook is an online social media site that launched in 2004, that was initially limited to access by students attending Harvard University, and later on other universities. Since 2006, users over the age of thirteen have been able to create and access accounts on the site.

Instagram: Instagram is an online photo and video sharing service launched in 2010, where users can post photos and videos that are available to the general public or restricted privately to friends only. Users can comment on the photos and videos that they can view.

Instant message (IM): Instant messaging or IM is a real-time texting application between two or more people and can also incorporate other forms of digital media such as images and videos. Individuals with Blackberry mobile phones (or those that have another mobile and have the BBM application) can utilise Blackberry’s IM service called BBM.

IP address: IP address stands for Internet protocol address. It refers to the numerical address that is assigned to each device (mobile phone, computer, tablet) that is connected to the Internet.

Sexting: Sexting is the act of texting (forwarding, sending or receiving) sexual content in the form of text, images and/or videos.

Snapchat: Snapchat is a social media site, launched in 2011, that allows you to share photos with friends or users of the application as a whole. The images delete after a set period of time, often seconds, allowing for devious content to be shared and then quickly removed without consequences.
Social media: Social media is a form of online technology that allows individuals to collaborate and share information and views informally (via pictures, videos and other forms of media expression).

Texting: Texting is the act of sending a text-based message to one or more mobile phones.

Trolling: Trolling is purposely harassing another person through comments in an attempt to provoke an argument or altercation (Nadali et al., 2008).

Tumblr: Tumblr is an online social media site, launched in 2007, where individuals can post various media content and text as a micro-blog, and share with other users.

Twitter: Twitter is an online social media site where individuals can send and receive messages up to 140 characters long, along with images and videos. It was launched in 2006.
Chapter 1
Introduction to the study

This chapter provides the background to the study and locates cyberbullying within a sociological context. The main purpose of this study is to determine why and how young people are engaging in cyberbullying as a means to exclude their peers.

1.1 Introduction to the problem

Over the past fifteen years there has been an increase in the number of young people excluded through cyberbullying. (Jones, Mitchell, and Finkelhor, 2013). Those who have been victimised often experience depression, anxiety, and other behavioural problems (Patchin and Hinduja, 2011; Shariff and Holt, 2007; Ybarra and Mitchell, 2004). Many victims have been so relentlessly tormented that they have made the unfortunate decision to commit suicide. Over the years, several young people including Tyler Clementi in 2010 (Byers, 2013), Phoebe Prince in 2011 (Neiman, Robers and Robers, 2012; O’Higgans Norman and Connolly, 2011; Ryalls, 2012), and Amanda Todd in 2012 (Davis et al., 2015), have taken their own lives and their stories have made headlines and influenced public perceptions of the phenomenon of cyberbullying (Neiman, Robers and Robers, 2012). While an extreme example of the outcomes of cyberbullying, a correlation has been found between individuals experiencing cyberbullying and suicidal ideation, also known as having suicidal thoughts (Hinduja and Patchin, 2010).

School bullying is not a new occurrence and traditionally it was not considered a problem, but as a normal part of childhood and school life (Limber and Small, 2003; Campbell, 2005). Bullying behaviours were often justified with the phrase “kids will be kids” (Arnette and Walsleben, p. 3, 1998) or considered as something that naturally happens throughout adolescence (Pellegrini, 2002). It

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1 Cyberbullying, as a relatively new term, will be discussed and defined in detail later on in this thesis in section 2.3.
was not until the 1970s that bullying began to be investigated and defined by researchers.

Bullying has changed since it first became an object of scientific study in the late 1970s by Dan Olweus. It is no longer limited to the classroom, corridors, or schoolyard, but is a degrading and invasive means of aggression and harm towards young people using technological means (Junoven and Gross, 2008; Hoff and Mitchell, 2008). This is what is known as cyberbullying.

According to Patchin and Hinduja (2006), cyberbullying is defined as “willful and repeated harm inflicted through the medium of electronic text” (p. 152). Cyberbullying can occur in various parts of cyberspace: on online webpages, such as Facebook, via text message, using instant messages through IM (Instant Messaging) and BBM (Blackberry Messaging), through the sharing of images and videos, and through the use of social media websites and mobile applications including, but not limited to, Twitter, Tumblr, Instagram, Snapchat, and ask.fm (boyd, 2014; Chisolm, 2014). Young people actively engage in accessing these sites for social means and keeping in touch with friends and peers. However, social media is also being used as a venue for exclusion and denigration of others through words, images, and videos.

Research has followed the trend of technological development, with an increasing number of studies being carried out on cyberbullying and its various aspects (Hinduja and Patchin, 2008; Hoff and Mitchell 2008; Kowalski et al., 2008; Rivers and Noret, 2010), and with a large focus on investigating its prevalence. Throughout recent years, despite the continued research into the prevalence of cyberbullying, a definitive percentage has yet to be obtained (Hinduja and Patchin, 2014). This has been found to be due to the wide variance within the research, ranging from the usage of different definitions (Tokunaga, 2010), geographical differences where the studies was undertaken, the ages of those participating in the research, as well as various theoretical perspectives and understandings of this phenomenon.

2 The author chooses to use lowercase letters for her name.
Both bullying and cyberbullying are generally located within psychological frameworks (Bauman and Yoon, 2014; Cowie and Jennifer, 2008; Espelage, Holt, and Henkel, 2003; Espelage and Swearer, 2008; Festl and Quant, 2013; Hoff and Mitchell, 2008; Olweus, 2013). In this thesis, sociological theory is examined as a more useful frame for social settings - in this thesis, schools.

This thesis explores cyberbullying using Established and Outsider relations as the theoretical framework. This framework, first developed by Elias in 1965 in his research on stigmatisation, has been used to explain and understand conflicts and power differentials between groups. Elias’s study investigated the figuration of the neighbourhood studied, a suburban area in central England, known as the fictitious town of Winston-Parva, and the power relations that occurred between the longstanding inhabitants and the newcomers in the community. According to Fletcher, Elias’s work has been used as “a model for social tensions as power differentials between groups which may or may not generate violent conflict” (p. 70, 1997).

The theory of Established and Outsider relations has been used to explore power in relation to dominant and non-dominant groups. Definitions of traditional bullying have historically included an imbalance of power (Olweus, 1999; Smith and Sharp, 1994; Rigby, 2002). However, concerning cyberbullying, many researchers have removed power from the definition (Tokunaga, 2010). This is due to the difference between traditional bullying and cyberbullying and how power has been characterised. In traditional bullying, the perceived physical or psychological power characterises the power differential (Dooley, Pyzalski and Cross, 2009), whereas in cyberbullying, the power differential is related to the bully having technological savvy or by the lack of power felt by the victim (Dooley, Pyzalski and Cross, 2009; Vandebosch and Van Cleemput, 2008). The power differential was also thought to be a result of anonymous cyberbullying, however, it has been found that most young people know their perpetrator (Smith et al., 2008; Smith and Slonje, 2010).

Using Established and Outsider relations to understand exclusion via cyberbullying addresses the lack of power felt by the victim in addition to using
it as an overall framework to understand this exclusionary behaviour. Elias’s theory is used to suggest that those who are cyberbullied are the “outsiders” of their peer or gender group and are excluded by the “established”, in other words, those who hold greater power, position, and social standing. Established and Outsider relations is explored further in Chapter 2.

Understanding why young people exclude one another using cyberbullying is crucial to the current technological environment. As technology continues to change, expand, and advance at a rapid pace, it is important to be able to understand the motives behind using technology and social media to exclude, as well as to gain a better sociological understanding of why young people exclude others at all. With this better understanding, young people can continue to access and engage online safely, and teachers and parents can better assist their charges in maintaining this safety online.

1.2 Purpose of the research

The main purpose of this study is to determine why young people are engaging in exclusion through cyberbullying behaviours. This research offers an examination of the theory of Established and Outsider relations and determines whether or not cyberbullying allows for a greater applicability of Elias’s theory. It offers a new way to understand cyberbullying from a sociological rather than psychological perspective. In this study, the school setting has been selected for the social context. The setting also examines the prevalence of cyberbullying within a selection of Glasgow schools, as well as determining how both young people and teachers are dealing with the issues and concerns related to cyberbullying.

1.3 Research questions

On the basis of the above discussion, the following five questions are examined in the thesis:

1. Why do young people cyberbully?
2. How do young people utilise social media in relation to cyberbullying?

---

3 Exclusion as a social process will be discussed in detail in section 2.2.2.
3. How are young people experiencing cyberbullying?
4. How are educators handling the challenges of cyberbullying?
5. To what extent can Elias’s Established and Outsider relations provide a framework for understanding cyberbullying?

The first question aims to explore why young people cyberbully, while the second question explores how young people are utilising and engaging with social media. The third question then links the previous two and aims to understand how young people experience cyberbullying and how it is being carried out. The fourth question connects the theoretical framework of Elias’s Established and Outsider relations and the phenomenon of cyberbullying and aims to determine if the framework can provide a deeper understanding of cyberbullying. As the majority of the fieldwork for the analysis takes place in schools or with individuals with close ties to schools, it is important to ask the final question about educators to determine how this group is handling the challenges of cyberbullying. This is due to their pivotal role in working with young people as well as the ways and means they deal with exclusionary behaviours.

1.4 Significance

This study aims to contribute to the general understanding of why young people engage in cyberbullying, and whether or not Established and Outsider relations can be used to explain this behaviour. As such, this analysis adds to the knowledge base of cyberbullying and why young people choose to engage in this behaviour. Additionally, it also adds to the literature on how educators understand and recognise cyberbullying. Therefore, this study makes recommendations for those involved with young people such as teachers, local education authorities, youth groups, policy makers, researchers, and those who work to understand and decrease cyberbullying. The findings of this study are to be of particular interest to the following:

a) Teachers, schools, and local education authorities

The findings of this study may help teachers, schools, and local education authorities understand the scope of cyberbullying and how it is affecting both young people and teachers. Additionally, understanding why young people
exclude their peers can help this group address concerns that have arisen with regard to cyberbullying such as investigation, disciplinary actions, and police involvement.

b) Anti-bullying campaigners and non-profit organisations
The findings of this study may also assist those that campaign against bullying and non-profit organisations that work with those who have been affected by bullying and cyberbullying. Having a wider understanding as to why young people exclude others using cyberbullying can help educate the wider public as well as assist those currently in need.

c) Social sciences and educational research
The utilisation of the sociological theory of Established and Outsider relations in this thesis is a different approach to understanding cyberbullying as exclusionary behaviour. This may allow further research to take place using the same theoretical lens and thereby contribute to further educational and sociological research.

1.5 Research design and methods
This study utilises a mixed methods approach, which combines both qualitative and quantitative methods. The qualitative findings consist of semi-structured interviews with nine teachers and four non-teacher educators. The quantitative research includes an analysis and statistical measures of the data provided by the 450 pupils who participated in the survey. The qualitative data is compared with the quantitative results and allows for a deeper understanding of both sets of results.

1.6 Scope of the study
This study is limited to the city of Glasgow, United Kingdom (UK), and took place within three Catholic schools. The quantitative portion of the study is limited to the 450 participants who voluntarily took part in the survey. At the same time, the qualitative portion of the analysis was limited to the teachers at these schools who were voluntarily interviewed. Additional interviews took place with non-teacher educators who worked in youth services within the city of Glasgow.
1.7 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is organised into eight chapters, including this introductory chapter, which has provided a background to the study. Chapter two critiques and analyses the current research on traditional bullying and cyberbullying, as well as providing a context concerning how young people and educators are handing the issue. Chapter two also explores the theoretical framework of Established and Outsider relations.

Chapter three then provides the methodological approach for the empirical research. This chapter elaborates on the research design for both the quantitative and qualitative methods used in this research, methods of data collection, and the means used to analyse the data in both phases of the research.

Subsequently, chapters four, five, and six present the findings of this research using the framework of Established and Outsider relations to explain exclusion via cyberbullying. Chapter four first addresses the challenges of cyberbullying faced by both teachers and students. Chapter five then explores the impact of cyberbullying on young people and chapter six addresses the prevalence of cyberbullying and social media usage by young people. The main findings are then presented and analysed with respect to the wider literature and the theoretical framework at the ends of these chapters and in chapter 7.

Chapter 8 concludes the analysis. This chapter draws conclusions and reflects on the theoretical framework of Established and Outsider relations as it relates to this study. Finally, this chapter addresses the implications and limitations of this study and offers recommendations for further research.

1.8 Conclusion

This thesis seeks to understand why young people engage in exclusion via cyberbullying behaviours. In doing so, this provides for a greater understanding, sociologically as well as practically, of this subject and includes practical applications and implications for teachers and pupils. In the following chapter,
the literature on traditional bullying as well as cyberbullying, its characteristics and its prevalence, are reviewed. Once the foundations of cyberbullying have been documented, theories that help understand why young people cyberbully are presented, culminating with Elias’s Established and Outsider relations.
Chapter 2
Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Over the past 20 years, a new form of bullying has permeated the lives of young people. Cyberbullying is a form of bullying utilising the use of technology including computers, mobile phones, and social media (Li, 2006; Smith et al., 2008; Chisolm, 2014). Technology is easily accessible in today’s society, as computers and other mobile devices are commonly found in homes and schools (Chisolm and Day, 2013). A recent study showed that 97.5% of surveyed young people aged 11-14 had been online in the past thirty days (Patchin, 2013). With the ease of accessibility, young people are able to use these devices, in conjunction with the Internet, social media sites and mobile applications, to victimise and harass members of their peer group.

The literature review focuses on studies that have been published within the last decade as cyberbullying research became more popular. An important feature to note is the lack of theoretical perspectives found in the literature discussed in the first half of this chapter. This lack of theoretical scope is discussed and analysed in the second half of the chapter, which focuses on the theoretical framework utilised within this research, Elias’s Established and Outsider Relations. It is this framework that allows a more meaningful understanding of the behaviours that are delineated in the first half of this chapter by providing a rationale in which to understand and explore exclusion through the act of cyberbullying.

This chapter begins with an introduction to bullying, including how bullying has been identified as an exclusionary process (2.2), followed by cyberbullying in the third section (2.3), which includes definitional issues that have arisen. The fourth section (2.4) then provides profiles of bullying and cyberbullying behaviours. The fifth section (2.5) describes the similarities and differences found between males and females in terms of engaging in cyberbullying behaviours. Following this, the sixth section (2.6) explores the prevalence of bullying and cyberbullying, while the seventh section (2.7) discusses the role of
the school and the role of teachers. The eighth section (2.8) explores potential motivations into why young people cyberbully. Finally, section nine (2.9) discusses a range of theoretical perspectives, which help explain cyberbullying, and identifies and justifies the particular sociological lens selected for this thesis.

2.2 An introduction to bullying

This section provides a historical background of bullying, a precursor to cyberbullying, considers some of the definitions of bullying and cyberbullying, and also addresses some of the larger definitional issues within the research. When bullying research was in its infancy, it was primarily devoted to determining prevalence and working towards solutions to combat it in schools (Olweus, 1978). Since then, the research has evolved into exploring definitional issues as well as understanding the differences between traditional bullying and cyberbullying, and the effects that bullying has on both the perpetrator and victim.

2.2.1 Defining bullying as an exclusionary process

In the late 1970s, Dan Olweus published *Aggression in Schools: Bullies and Whipping Boys*. Olweus (p. 318, 1993) defined bullying as: “a student is being bullied or victimized when he or she is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more students.” He later modified this to “a person is being bullied when he or she is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other persons” (p. 10, 1999). The definition of bullying that is used in current research (Beckman et al., 2012; Brank et al., 2012; Espelage and Swearer, 2003; Forsberg et al., 2014; Tokunaga, 2010) is rooted in Olweus’s initial and subsequent research on bullying and aggression in schools.

Olweus’s work concentrated primarily on the psychological aspects of bullying and on describing and analysing the “anatomy of peer harassment” (Olweus, 2013), with a focus on individual behaviour. This is not to say that the group processes or sociological construct of bullying is not important - Olweus acknowledges this in his oeuvre of 2013, referring to the Bullying Circle (see
Figure 2-1) that he developed in 2001. This depicts the group processes involved in bullying and the roles that young people play in the phenomenon. Olweus’s research has tended to focus on the causes of peer aggression from the perspective of the individual, focusing on behavioural concerns using the Olweus Bullying Questionnaire (OBQ) in his empirical research. When his study delved into sociological constructs, it has been more about the influence of family and school on bullying behaviours; the group perspective remains limited to the specific context of the perpetrating individual, rather than the involvement of greater societal factors.

Figure 2-1 The Olweus Bullying Circle

As bullying research has advanced, it has evolved in a way that is similar to Durkheim’s approach to suicide. Suicide was initially understood and explained in individual terms, but Durkheim believed that suicide was related to social factors, that individual explanations were inadequate and that suicide is based on “social causes and is itself a collective phenomenon” (Durkheim, p. 145, 1951). Those researching bullying and cyberbullying are now moving towards furthering the conceptual and theoretical frameworks as to why young people are bullied and which groups are more vulnerable to social exclusion.
2.2.2 Defining social exclusion

Social exclusion has been defined as a form of indirect or relational bullying that involves “social isolation and intentional exclusion from a group” (Olweus, p. 496, 1997). This is the definition that will be used to understand social exclusion throughout this thesis. It occurs when one is deliberately denied access to group activities in person (Smith et al., 2002) or online (Wang et al., 2010) by a perpetrator who perceives the victim as weak or inferior (Williams and Guerra, 2007).

There have been several permutations of the definition of social exclusion since Olweus’s in 1993 (see Table). In most cases, social exclusion as it pertains to traditional bullying and cyberbullying includes intentional exclusion from group activities and the spreading of rumours through indirect means.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study (by year)</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Olweus, p. 87, 1993</td>
<td>Social exclusion has been defined as a form of indirect or relational bullying that involves “social isolation and exclusion from a group.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olweus, p. 496, 1997</td>
<td>Social exclusion is a negative action including “spreading rumours and intentional exclusion from a group.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagerspetz, Bjorkvist and Peltonen, 1998</td>
<td>Bullying includes indirect aggression which can be covert in nature and can involve gossiping, spreading rumours and social exclusion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith et al., p. 1120, 2002</td>
<td>“Indirect aggression, characterised by its somewhat covert nature and use of third parties, had principal forms of gossiping and spreading rumors and social exclusion (deliberately not allowing a person into a group).”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silver, p. 15, 2007</td>
<td>Social exclusion is “a multidimensional process of progressive social rupture, detaching groups and individuals from social relations and institutions and preventing them from full participation in the normal, normatively prescribed activities of the society in which they live.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wang et al., p. 1103, 2010</td>
<td>“Social exclusion and spreading rumors are often considered an indirect or relational form of bullying.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The addition of the word ‘intentional’ to the terms used between the 1993 and 1997 definitions provided by Olweus was significant. It makes clear that the intent must be there in order for social exclusion to occur; it is not a passive act.

In contrast the definitions provided by Lagerspetz, Bjorkvist and Peltonen in 1998, Smith et al., in 2002 and Wang et al., in 2010 all contain the main aspects of both 1993 and 1997 definitions provided by Olweus with the exception of the declaration of intent. However, Smith et al., do include the caveat of deliberate action but is not entirely explicit in intent.

While the definition provided by Silver in 2007 is founded in exclusion as it pertains to society as a whole, and is not specific to traditional bullying or cyberbullying, it is relevant to this body of work. It has been found that both forms of bullying cause a severe impact on those who are victimised (see section 2.4) and the Silver definition explores these effects by delineating that those involved are detached from their groups and peers by the action and are left unable to participate fully in normative activities.

As is discussed further on in this chapter related to the definition of cyberbullying, it may be necessary to address the deficiencies in the operational definitions of social exclusion as they pertain to the act of cyberbullying (See section 2.3.1). While Olweus’s 1997 definition is the one that is utilised as part of this thesis, a new operational definition may need to be developed to incorporate the addition of cyberbullying. For example, exclusion, or social exclusion as it is also known as, is a negative action intended to exclude, isolate, or cause harm to another individual or group through the usage of rumour spreading, denigration, or exclusion from social activities or relations either in person or online.

2.2.3 Types of bullying

Research on bullying has found that it occurs in several ways including, physical, verbal, and indirect bullying. Physical bullying is an overt type of bullying as it involves a direct attack on the victim by the perpetrator (Olweus, 1993; Shariff,
It can involve physical contact such as hitting (Nansel et al., 2001), kicking or punching or, in more extreme cases, using weapons or other serious forms of violence (Shariff, 2009). Boys traditionally have involved themselves more in physical bullying than girls (Nansel et al., 2001; Colaroso, 2002).

At the same time, physical bullying can also be covert, when it occurs out of the sight of other individuals. This normally occurs in situations involving sexual harassment, homophobic bullying, and racial attacks (Shariff, 2009). While all three of these types of bullying can also be coupled with verbal bullying, there is a physical nature involved. When it comes to sexual harassment, the perpetrator may physically assault another person by touching or exposing their genitals or by forcing someone into performing a sexual act (Shariff, 2009). It can also involve “using sexual terms (e.g. “slut,” “bitch”) to put someone down” (Dupper, p. 10, 2013), in addition to exposure, and physical and inappropriate contact.

Furthermore, verbal bullying is a type of bullying where the terms of abuse are chosen by the instigator. This can involve name-calling and threats (Nansel et al., 2001) vocally as well as in written form. Additionally, it can involve taunting, threats, and malicious teasing (Dupper, 2013). This can occur both in person and online (see section 2.3).

Moreover, indirect or relational bullying is done to cause harm to an individual through gossip and exclusion. Additionally, it “includes the spreading of vicious rumours intended to damage one’s reputation, rejecting and humiliating the victim, and manipulating friendships” (Dupper, p. 10, 2013). Again, this type of bullying can also occur online as cyberbullying, as is discussed in the following section.

2.2.4 Bias bullying

Bias bullying is also known as identity based bullying or prejudice bullying and can take place utilising any of the aforementioned types of bullying (physical, verbal, indirect, cyberbullying). While this type of bullying is not specified in much of the wider research literature, it is necessary to be mentioned. Forms of bias bullying include race, sexual orientation, gender based, including sexual and sexist forms, and social status (Buchianeri, Eisenberg and Neumark-
Sztainer, 2013; Carragher and Rivers, 2002; Ditch the Label, 2014; Eslea and Mukhtar, 2000; Hunt and Jensen, 2007; Renold, 2006) forms of exclusion. Other additional risk factors for bias bullying include weight, hair colour, or wearing glasses (Farrington and Ttofi, 2009).

2.3 Defining cyberbullying

In this section, cyberbullying is discussed, along with issues that have arisen in undertaking and conceptualising a definition for the phenomenon. According to Tokunaga (2010), cyberbullying is “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” (p. 278). The definition developed by Tokunaga is the working definition that will be used to understand and explain cyberbullying behaviours throughout this thesis.

Cyberbullying behaviours can range from stalking, exclusion, outing, impersonation, denigration, harassment, and trickery (Kowalski et al., 2008; Willard, 2007). The behaviours can differ based on the technological means used to exclude, such as texting, social media, photos and videos, or email. Not all behaviour can occur on all platforms and are subject to change as technology advances (Heirman and Walrave, 2008). These behaviours, especially exclusion, occur when young people actively engage in denying others access to their online groups and activities or by participating in forms of gossip (Chisolm and Day, 2013), and occur on various social media sites (See 2.3.2).

Similar to traditional bullying, power can be a factor in cyberbullying. Pieschl et al., (2013) found that power relative to the popularity of the cyberbully was a factor. Participants experienced more psychological side effects to cyberbullying when victimised by someone with increased perceived popularity.

2.3.1 Definitional issues

There is currently no universal definition for cyberbullying (see Table 2.1 for definitions). Young people and teachers may have different ideas as to what constitutes bullying or cyberbullying behaviours (Naylor et al., 2006). Additionally, young people of different ages may also have different ideas about what bullying specifically involves (Smith et al., 2002). This difference in
understanding between ages can impact investigations into bullying and cyberbullying (Naylor et al., 2006; Craig and Pepler, 2007).

Deschamps and McNutt (2016) stated, that defining cyberbullying is compounded by “issues of measurement around prevalence, predictors, and outcomes” (p. 46). In this vein, Tokunaga (2010) argued that without a universal definition, studies and their results are left open to question and debate, as each study may be investigating something different, depending on the definition or interpretation of the definition used. Moreover, Notar et al. (2013) state, absence of a single definition can lead respondents astray and invalidate subsequent findings since most people lack an even rudimentary understanding of cyberbullying and conclusions and eliminates the possibility of drawing meaningful cross-study comparisons”(p. 2, 2013). Table 2-1 explores the various differences found in the conceptual definitions of cyberbullying from 2000 onwards, demonstrating that studies using different definitions may have been measuring different experiences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study (by year)</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finkelhor et al., (2000)</td>
<td>Online harassment: Threats or other offensive behavior (not sexual solicitation) sent online to the youth or posted online about the youth for others to see (p. x)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ybarra and Mitchell (2004)</td>
<td>Internet harassment: An overt, intentional act of aggression towards another person online</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patchin and Hinduja (2006)</td>
<td>Willful and repeated harm inflicted through the medium of electronic text (p. 152)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slonje and Smith (2008)</td>
<td>Aggression that occurs through modern technological devices and specifically mobile phones or the Internet (p. 147)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willard (2007)</td>
<td>Sending or posting harmful or cruel texts or images using the Internet or other digital communication devices (p. 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juvoven and Gross (2008)</td>
<td>The use of the Internet or other digital communication devices to insult or threaten someone (p. 497)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Li (2008) Bullying via electronic communication tools such as e-mail, cell phone, personal digital assistant (PDA), instant messaging, or the World Wide Web (p. 224)

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

Besley (2009) The use of information and communication technologies to support deliberate, repeated, and hostile behavior by an individual or group, that is intended to harm others

All of the definitions listed have one similar component, which is the use of the Internet or electronic means in which to instigate harm. There have been changes over time, as technology has advanced. Initially, Finkelhor et al., (2000) included youth in their definition, whereas the other authors do not include an age demographic as part of their definitions, as it is not only youth who involve themselves in cyberbullying behaviours. Moreover, only three of the nine definitions listed mention that the cyberbullying act needs to be repeated in order for it to be considered cyberbullying. This is an important distinction, as repetition has often been found to play an integral role in cyberbullying and is discussed further on in this chapter.

Again, it may be that the speed of technological development is outpacing research output in this field (Kessel Schneider et al., 2012) and there is a gap between definitions and understandings. Similarly, Law et al., (2011) argued that as the construct of bullying is not fully understood or defined, it is difficult to conceive of the entire scope of the term.

There are other issues that are still being explored when it comes to both the widely accepted definition of bullying by Olweus and the definition of cyberbullying, as given by Tokunaga at the beginning of this section. The issue of repetition is one such issue. In instances of traditional bullying the repetition is easily pinpointed, whereas in cyberbullying the repetition may not be occurring by the initial perpetrator. According to Slonje, Smith and Frisen (2013), “a single
act by one perpetrator may be repeated many times by others, and experienced many times by the victim. If the repetition is not carried out by the perpetrator, is this still cyberbullying?” (p. 27).

An important part of the former definition states that it occurs “over time” (Olweus, p. 10, 1999). Interestingly, it has been argued that long-lasting anxieties over a bullying incident may make it feel repetitive (Tattum, 1989). Additionally, it was found that young people did not consider the frequency when deciding whether or not a bullying act had occurred, and that once or twice was enough (Guerin and Hennessy, 2002) to be thought of as bullying.

This is increasingly important when applied to the pervasive and repetitive nature of cyberbullying; even if young people turn off their computers or mobile devices, when they are turned back on, the victimisation begins anew, or continues on from where it left off (Kowalski et al., 2008). It has been suggested that young people who are cyberbullied suffer from an increase in symptoms of anxiety and depression over those who have not been similarly victimised (Kowalski and Limber, 2013). In order to further explore the damaging, pervasive and repetitive nature of cyberbullying, it is necessary to investigate the online media through which young people engage in these activities.

### 2.3.2 The role of social media

According to boyd (2007) social media refers to the phenomenon of Internet based applications that allow people to create and exchange content using digital network technology. Social media websites and applications allow users to socialise, engage with peers and acquire knowledge (Hamm et al., 2015). These can be accessed from a computer, tablet device, or mobile phone.

Early usage of social media occurred on sites such as Myspace (boyd, 2007; Hinduja and Patchin, 2008), as well as through the use of texting and e-mail (Hoff and Mitchell, 2008). Today, websites and social media applications including Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and Snapchat (Chisolm, 2014; Marwick and boyd, 2014) are used by young people and adults the world over. 81% of American youth were found to use social media in 2012 (Hamm et al., 2012) and according to Pew Research, 94% of young people in the UK use social media as
well (2012). Additionally, 93% of teenagers use Facebook (Lenhart, 2012; Purcell, 2012) and the average adolescent has 300 friends on their social media accounts (Madden et al., 2013).

Young people use social media as an extension of their social life and it is a part of their quotidian activities (boyd, 2014). Instagram, Twitter and Facebook are all used to connect with peers socially when they are unable to connect in person. Social media is the mall of the digital generation allowing for young people to maintain connections and socialise and ‘hang out’ (boyd, 2014) with one another. The usage of social media allows for numerous opportunities to connect with friends and peers and others with similar interests (O’Keefe et al., 2011).

Young people use social media to construct their persona by setting up their profile to allow aspects of their personality to be shared (Livingstone, 2008). This is often done by sharing their likes and dislikes in conjunction with profile pictures and status updates. Peers then can comment on these profiles and pictures, which allows for “a reciprocal exchange of mutual support” (Livingstone, p. 399, 2008).

This was most explicit on the now less popular MySpace, where users could change and update their profiles and backgrounds easily. Profile pictures associated with a user account are often used to emphasise assets and to de-emphasise body size, especially by girls. In addition, these images are given value by their friends and peers ‘liking’ their pictures in addition to comments given on sites and applications, like Facebook, Twitter and Instagram (Ringrose et al., 2013).

As young people are often likely to ‘friend’ the majority of students in their year or school, this opens up the possibility for a larger audience to witness messages and images of those who were not the original participants of the conversation, especially on Facebook (Marwick and boyd, 2014). Conflict and drama may ensue, among girls in particular (boyd, 2014).
Social media is now an important part of the social lives of young people and quickly developed significant cultural resonance (boyd, 2007) in a short period of time. According to Livingstone, Mascheroni and Staksrud (2016), “today’s children are - or wish to be - ‘always on,’ with both they and their families and their schools relying on the Internet for any and all dimensions of childhood” (p2).

The attraction of various platforms of social media, according to boyd (2014) is that each form of mobile technology is used for a different purpose. For example, Facebook is often used to connect with friends and share photographs after an event. While young people use multiple forms of social media, often at once, it has been found that one application does not replace another, “but, rather, becomes integrated into a bundle of media use that includes online and offline forms of communication” (Quan-Haase and Young, p. 350, 2010). Each form of social media communication has unique communication needs that other forms cannot fill (Quan-Haase and Young, 2010).

While social media can be used for both socialisation and education, it has also become a venue for cyberbullying behaviours. It can be used to exclude, denigrate, and ridicule through the usage of behaviours such as posting a public message or threat on someone’s Facebook wall, or deleting someone from their friends list (Chisolm and Day, 2013). Furthermore, there is a range of articles that have begun to focus on young people and the ways in which they use social media for nefarious purposes. A multitude of them focus on the negative aspects of social media and exclusion, including issues related to body image, sexting and sexual identities, which was not a focal point of the research undertaken in this thesis, but are important to mention.

As mentioned before, images are given value by the number of likes and comments pertaining to each. In order to find ways to increase the value of their images, it has been found that girls often utilise provocative images, despite the inappropriate attention that such an image may garner. Those taking such pictures may face slut-shaming from peers or legal consequences as a result (Ringrose et al., 2013). In addition, platforms such as Facebook and BBM allow for body objectification and sexting to occur, which then provides a further
means of quantifying which peer is better looking via the number of likes on a picture posted therein (boyd, 2007; Ringrose et al, 2013).

Social media has replaced the “the street or coffee shop as the ‘place’ where much discussion, interaction, and ‘hanging out’ between teens goes on” (boyd, p. 5, 2014). It is an important part of their daily lives and is used to help model their identities (boyd, 2007). While it is a way for young people to maintain contact with one another, it is also used for devious and nefarious purposes such as cyberbullying. In the next section, what characterises both victims and bullies as related to traditional and cyberbullying will be discussed.

2.4 Bullies and victims

Building on the concept and definitions of bullying, this section illustrates the various characteristics of both bullies and cyberbullies. This section also addresses the traits that victims possess in both traditional and cyber form, and concludes with a discussion of the effects of cyberbullying.

2.4.1 Characteristics of bullies and cyberbullies

Research has shown that traditional bullies share predictors of bullying behaviours including anger, depression, anxiety (Crawford and Manassis, 2011), substance abuse, fighting, below average academic achievement, and early school termination (Ericson, 2001; Nansel et al., 2001; Ybarra and Mitchell, 2004). Young people who are involved in cyberbullying, share similar characteristics to their traditional counterparts (Festl and Quant, 2013). While some studies have contended that cyberbullies tend to be males (Li, 2006; Slonje and Smith, 2008), several others have found either no gender difference (Patchin and Hinduja, 2006; Smith et al., 2008) or have found girls to be more actively involved than boys (Kowalski and Limber, 2007). Moreover, Hinduja and Patchin (2006) found that gender and race were not significant characteristics and that youth who maintained an online presence were more likely to be targeted. This suggests that addressing online activities overall is the key to addressing cyberbullying, rather than a gendered approach aimed at prevention.
2.4.2 Characteristics of victims and cybervictims

According to O'Higgins-Norman and Connelly (2011), bullying “transcends social boundaries and can result in psychological and emotional trauma, including low self-esteem, poor academic performance, depression, and in some cases, violence and suicide” (p. 287). While cyberbullying occurs in the virtual realm, the physical and emotional responses have a devastating effect on young people (Connell et al., 2013). Victims report being depressed, anxious, lonely (Beran and Li, 2007; O'Moore, 2012; Patchin and Hinduja, 2006; Ybarra, Mitchell, Wolak and Finkelhor, 2006) as well as rejected (Hinduja and Patchin, 2007).

While cyberbullying is relatively new compared to traditional bullying, its effects are similar. Young people who are on the receiving end experience anxiety and depression, as well as a long list of physical and mental issues such as anger and frustration (Hinduja and Patchin, 2007). It can also cause insomnia (Murray et al., 2012), isolation (Gámez-Guadix et al., 2013), and difficulties in school (Hoff and Mitchell, 2009), including a reduction in attendance and performance (Bauman and Yoon, 2014), abuse of drugs and alcohol, and suicidal ideation (Hay et al., 2010; Marr and Field, 2011; Sabella et al., 2013; Wölfer et al., 2014). Consequences are not limited to those who are victims as research has found that cyber victims, bullies and bystanders have all experienced psychological issues in being involved cyberbullying activities (Junoven and Gross, 2008; Rivers and Noret, 2013).

Having established that young people experience a wide range of physical and mental issues after experiencing cyberbullying, we must also now consider how young people respond to instances of bullying and cyberbullying. Pupils are more likely to report instances of traditional bullying to their teachers rather than issues of cyberbullying (Cross et al., 2010). This is often due to the fact that young people believe that a positive outcome may occur when reporting traditional in school bullying than they would in reporting cyberbullying (Hunter et al., 2004). Moreover, young people tend not to report cyberbullying to their teachers as they believe that there is a lack of understanding about what is occurring in cyberspace (Cassidy, Brown and Jackson, 2012). Research has also found that young people are reluctant to report incidents of cyberbullying at all
in fear of losing access to technology and the Internet as well as fearing recrimination from their cyber perpetrator (Yilmaz, 2010).

For the purpose of gaining insight into the characteristics of bullies and victims, the use of research favouring psychological factors is important. Specifically, it is critical to understand who is more likely to bully or cyberbully. In addition, it is just as valuable to understand what happens to those who are victims. These predictors and outcomes can then be used to determine trends and patterns that can lead to a sociological approach. For example, General Strain Theory (see section 2.9.2) is a theory that is used to understand why people turn to crime or acts of violence. It has been shown that both bullies and victims may be acting in response to this strain. However, without the understanding of the psychological stressors, the patterns that emerge may pass unnoticed.

2.5 Gender differences

In this section, differences in gender as it relates to both bullying and cyberbullying will be discussed. Despite increasing numbers of research on cyberbullying, there continues to be contradicting information available regarding gender differences and how it pertains to the phenomenon. In terms of traditional bullying, boys tended to be the ones involved in physical and more forceful forms of bullying (Boulton and Smith, 1994; Boulton and Underwood, 1992; Olweus, 1993) and girls tended to favour relational and verbal attacks (Connell et al., 2014; Craig and Pepler, 2003; Rigby 2002; Sullivan, 2000).

Research into cyberbullying and gender has had mixed results. According to Shariff (2008), “sufficient research suggests that girls, internationally, are increasingly found to perpetrate cyber-bullying in groups and are more frequent users of social networking tools” (p. 40). Many other studies have also found that girls engage in cyberbullying more (Connell et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2013; Merrill and Hanson, 2016; Schenk and Frewmou), whereas others have found that males are more involved in the behaviour (Ackers, 2012; Anderson and Hunter, 2012; Edur-Baker, 2010; Hinduja and Patchin, 2009). Additionally, research has also found that there is no gender difference at all (Beran and Li, 2007; Hinduja and Patchin, 2008; Jolliffe and Farrington, 2006; Monks et al., 2012; Smith et
As cyberbullying continues to be an investigated phenomenon, researchers are still determining how gender plays a role in cyberbullying (Ang and Goh, 2010; Connell et al., 2014).

There are varying differences when it comes to cyberbullying and females. In a four-year study undertaken in the UK, it was found that girls were being cyberbullied more frequently via text and email as the duration of the study went on (Rivers and Noret, 2010). However, this particular study began before the advent of social media sites such as Facebook and MySpace, and focused on email, text, and chatrooms.

Similarly, in 2008, Smith et al., found that females were more likely to be cyber victims but that there was no gender difference when it came to cyberbullying others. It was also found that girls might be likely to instigate cyberbullying due to disinhibition (Ang and Goh, 2010). The online disinhibition effect is the tendency for a young person to say and do things online that they would not do if they were in the victim’s presence (Bauman, 2013; Suler, 2004). According to Lapidot-Lefler and Barak (2012), “many of the human behaviors that are witnessed in cyberspace, including violence, incitement, flaming, and verbal attacks, on the one hand, and self-disclosure, philanthropy, and the dispensing of help and advice, on the other, may be attributed to the online disinhibition effect” (p. 434).

In 2006, Li found that 22% of males and 11% of females (n=256) were cyber bullies and that 25% of males and 25.6% of females were cyber victims (p. 163), illustrating that gender effected perpetration rather than victimisation. The study took place in an urban area and may not be applicable to other regions as is stated in the conclusion of the article. In a related study, Wang et al. (2009) had similar results where boys were more likely to be cyber bullies and girls were more likely to be cyber victims.

Furthermore, in 2011, Mark and Ratliffe found that the greatest discrepancy in terms of gender and cyberbullying was in victimisation rates. They found that out of those surveyed that 25% of females and 15% of males (n=247) were cyber victims (Mark and Ratliffe, 2011). Moreover, recent studies have shown that boys
tend to cyberbully more than girls (Tarabulus, Heiman and Olenik-Shmesh, 2015) but there was no correlation between gender and victim or gender and audience (Lapidot-Lefler and Dolev-Cohen, 2015).

While more research is necessary in understanding gender differences in cyberbullying, it is clear that cyberbullying is an increasing issue and gender may play a role in the behaviour. Akin to the prevalence rates reported throughout the research, as there are such a wide variety of studies being undertaken worldwide, and using different questionnaires and definitions, it is hard to determine a consensus on the issue of gender in cyberbullying research, leading Patchin and Hinduja (2006) to state that engaging online is what leaves young people vulnerable to cyberbullying, rather than differences in gender.

### 2.6 The prevalence of cyberbullying

Building on the discussion of prevalence rates in relation to gender, the overall prevalence of cyberbullying will be discussed in this section. As stated in section 2.3 cyberbullying is “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” (Tokunaga, p. 278, 2010). As research interest has increased in this area, reported prevalence rates for victims have been varied, ranging as low as 2% and as high as 72% (Hinduja and Patchin, 2014). Additionally, according to Li (2007), over half of the pupils surveyed knew someone who had been cyberbullied.

In terms of perpetration, the offender rate averaged out to be approximately 15%, but has a range of 2% to 44% (Hinduja and Patchin, 2014). However, due to self-reporting, these figures could vary due to reluctance to report negative behaviours (Swearer et al., 2014) and the challenges of defining and comprehending the definition, as well as researchers using differing definitions (Naylor et al., 2006; Palfrey et al., 2008). Other factors to take into consideration are the increase in use and popularity of mobile devices that do more than allow one to make a phone call, and the increase in Internet and social media access (Junoven and Gross, 2008; Chisolm, 2014).
While the global average for cyberbullying appears to be at 15% (Hinduja and Patchin, 2014), it is necessary to explore the rates of cyberbullying within the UK, and additionally Scotland, as a means of comparison to the empirical data that is discussed in chapter 6. It is important to note that data from the UK is not as prevalent in academic research as in the United States (US) and that studies outside of the UK may need to be applied.

2.6.1 England

In 2005, a study by the National Children’s Home (NCH) reported 20% of young people surveyed had been cyberbullied (Slonje and Smith, 2008). After additional research, the study actually found that the 20% referred to “digital bullying,” as these specifically mention “e-mail, Internet chatroom or text” (NCH, 2005). While this study has been mentioned widely in the research, it is important to note that it was not an academic study, as it was sponsored by Tesco Mobile.

In 2010, Rivers and Noret published a paper reporting the findings of their five-year study, which focused on young people in the north of England and the receipt of pernicious or threatening emails and/or texts. The findings concluded that over the five-year period, pupils receiving “one or more nasty or threatening text messages or emails” (p. 643) increased, especially among girls. However, the receipt of these messages in general remained stagnant.

While these findings are useful, they tend to be lost among the dramatic changes that came about with regards to the ways that young people cyberbully. The study originated before the invention of Facebook and MySpace, and therefore were not included as part of the study parameters or results. It is also important to note that this study used a short version of the Olweus Bully/Victim questionnaire, along with a definition of bullying to explain to the respondents what bullying is. This definition failed to mention cyberbullying or the use of technology in bullying, which may have led to a lack of understanding by the respondents.

Furthermore, in 2008, Smith et al. published the results of two mixed-methods studies. Both studies found that cyberbullying was less prevalent than traditional
bullying, that it occurred outside of schools more than inside schools, and that phone call and text cyberbullying were the most frequent kinds that occurred. It was found that in both studies, 5-10% of young people reported being cyberbullied in the last few months or term (p. 382).

In addition, statistics compiled in March 2013 by nobullying.com stated that 38% of young people in the UK have been victims of cyberbullying. According to ChildLine, 4,507 cases were reported in the past year. This indicates that the number of individuals experiencing bullying nearly doubled from the previous year, where the reported cases numbered 2,410 in total (Sellgren, 2014).

2.6.2 Scotland

Overall, academic research on bullying and cyberbullying in Scotland is lacking. In 2005, a paper by Sophie Johnston, with support from LGBT Youth Scotland, surveyed seventy-six young people in Edinburgh in order to explore the experience of homophobic bullying among 13-19 year olds. The small-scale study, focusing on LBGT youth, found that of those surveyed 74% experienced homophobic bullying (Johnston, 2005).

The academic research specific to cyberbullying in Scotland is even more limited than the academic research on bullying. A paper published by Scotland’s Commissioner for Children and Young People, gave an overview of bullying and cyberbullying including the definition, types, and ways to work toward prevention. It also stated that 16% of youth reported being cyberbullied, which was taken from a study by Respect Me, the Scottish Anti-bullying service (2011). Other studies such as Ditch the Label (2014) had Scottish youth participating, but they were not a considerable part of the population surveyed. While these selected studies show that there continues to be widespread bullying and cyberbullying in UK schools, further on-going studies are required to monitor the levels and assist those working towards its reduction, as well as to add to the body of knowledge concerning why young people engage in cyberbullying behaviours.
2.7 The role of the school

In the previous sections, the definitions of bullying and cyberbullying have been presented along with the ways in which the behaviours impact young people. As cyberbullying has been found to affect young people inside and outside of school, it is necessary to address the role of the school as it pertains to cyberbullying. In this section the role of the school will be addressed, in addition to how the Catholic ethos impacts the school. In addition, teachers and their perceptions of cyberbullying behaviours will be explored.

The role of the school in issues of cyberbullying has been found to be mixed (Cross et al., 2009). Studies have found that cyberbullying can cause problems with learning and attainment in school (Hoff and Mitchell, 2009) and that the emotional and psychological effects of cyberbullying carry over from the victimisation and into schools (Patchin and Hinduja, 2006). While cyberbullying occurs primarily outside of the school day, research has found that events at school often precipitate cyberbullying occurring (Cassidy, Jackson, and Brown, 2009). However, questions remain in how schools address issues of cyberbullying ranging from punishment to jurisdiction (Addington, 2013; Hoff and Mitchell, 2009; Kowalski et al., 2008; Shariff, 2009).

In order to combat issues of cyberbullying, schools have attempted to ban mobile phone usage in schools. Despite this, Smith et al., (2008) found that young people would still attempt to use them secretly or continue the victimisation after school hours. Even if banning mobile usage during the school day was to occur, cyberbullying will continue outside of school and the predicaments that relate to cyberbullying will continue to affect young people throughout their daily lives, including while they are attending school (Smith et al., 2008).

Further research showed that young people who were victimised were reluctant to report the cyberbullying for fear of retribution from their bully (Cassidy et al., 2008) in addition to believing that there would not be a feasible outcome (Hunter et al., 2004) or that their teachers were unable or ill equipped to handle the issue (Eden, Heiman and Olenik-Sherman, 2013).
The U.K government recommended that all schools have cyberbullying incorporated within their anti-bullying policies, yet only 32% of schools had done so by 2008 (Smith et al., 2012). The study concluded that the policies evaluated had a reasonable establishment of sanctions that included involving parents, however there was little mention in evaluating practices, or explanations of how to address continued victimisation.

2.7.1 The Catholic school ethos

Having established the role of the school, it is important to also consider the role of the Catholic school ethos as the research that has taken place as part of this thesis occurred within Catholic schools. In the UK, faith based schools are state-funded (McKinney and Conroy, 2014). In Scotland, Catholic schools make up most of the faith based schools providing education (McKinney and Conroy, 2014; The Scottish Government, 2013). Within these schools, teachers wish to instil faith and respect in their pupils through the use of the Gospel (Johnson and Castelli, 2000; Sullivan and McKinney, 2013).

According to Rutter et al., (1979) ethos is the embodiment of values, attitudes and behaviours that make up a school in its entirety. In a Catholic School, this is embodied in its mission and teachings. In Gravissimum Educationis, Paul VI (1965) stated:

So, indeed the Catholic school, while it is open, as it must be, to the situation of the contemporary world, leads its students to promote efficaciously the good of the earthly city and also prepares them for service in the spread of the Kingdom of God, so that by leading an exemplary apostolic life they become, as it were, a saving leaven in the human community (8).

This statement suggests that the learning environment of the Catholic school is founded in the Gospel teachings, yet open to the considerations of the secular world.

The purpose of the Catholic school “is fundamentally a synthesis of culture and faith, and a synthesis of faith and life” (Congregation for Catholic Education, n. 37, 1977). Catholic schools should be endeavouring to focus on these relationships and relationship building (Cook and Simonds, 2011; O’ Neill, 1979).
This would mean having respect for oneself, God, and others. Therefore, this relationship in conjunction with the school ethos should lead to decreased instances of bullying activities.

The overall mission of the Catholic Church is to continue the work of Jesus Christ. Furthermore, the “mission of the Church to all people means that the Church must be concerned with all aspects of the life of humanity, including education” (McKinney, p. 149, 2011). Therefore, the ethos of the Catholic school involves the creation of an environment where “a special atmosphere animated by the gospel spirit of freedom and charity (Paul VI, 8)” exists.

While the ethos of the school is built upon these religious foundations, the Church has provided statements that address the concerns of the secular world, including issues of the Internet. The Pontifical Council for Social Communications stated In Church and the Internet (2002):

> The Internet places in the grasp of young people at an unusually early age an immense capacity for doing good and doing harm, to themselves and others. It can enrich their lives beyond the dreams of earlier generations and empower them to enrich others’ lives in turn. It also can plunge them into consumerism, pornographic and violent fantasy, and pathological isolation.

While not specifically stated, this statement can be applied to issues related to cyberbullying as it alludes to the dangers that can be experienced engaging in online activities.

### 2.7.2 The role of teachers

As both the school and the Catholic ethos have been considered, it is also important to address the role of the teachers and their role in working with young people and how they recognise, understand, and address cyberbullying incidents.

A small-scale study on bullying and efficacy in intervening in bullying was undertaken by Byers, Caltabiano and Caltabiano (2011). Sixty-two Catholic schoolteachers in Australia participated and the results found that overall, teachers found overt incidents of bullying (such as physical and verbal altercations) were more serious than covert acts of bullying. Furthermore,
teachers often believed that acts of social exclusion were not considered bullying, and they were more likely to intervene in overt incidents of bullying over covert. Teachers also reported having a lack of training related to addressing and recognising bullying apart from classroom management strategies that were obtained during teacher training.

Very few studies have focused on the role of educators and perceptions of cyberbullying. Most research has focused on pre-service teachers rather than those who are currently teaching. One such study was conducted by Li (2008) where it was found that the majority of teachers who responded did not feel confident in identifying or managing issues of cyberbullying within their classrooms.

In a replication of Li’s 2008 study, Yilmaz (2010) found that more than half of the respondents felt confident in handling and managing issues of cyberbullying. This was a surprising find, as was the finding that the majority of teachers were willing to learn more about cyberbullying. This was a contradiction of Li’s findings where less than half of those who responded were willing to learn more about cyberbullying. Moreover, in a study by Altricher and Posch (2009), it was found that few teachers (23%) felt they were equipped to handle cyberbullying. This may be due to not being aware of the victimisation, unlike with traditional bullying, which teachers have more awareness of (Eden, Heiman and Olenik-Shemesh, 2013).

Eden, Heiman and Olenik-Shemesh (2013) found that teachers strongly agreed that cyberbullying is a problem and that they are concerned about it. However, only 20-38% agreed that they felt confident in identifying and managing it, which is in alignment with previous findings. In addition, teachers felt that schools need a strict policy regarding cyberbullying and agreed that more knowledge and education was necessary in order to be prepared to deal with these behaviours. Furthermore, Cassidy, Brown and Jackson (2012) found that the knowledgebase regarding cyberbullying was lacking. Teachers were unfamiliar with the main means of cyberbullying occurring and older teachers did not understand the technology (Greenhow, Robelia and Hughes, 2009).
Overall, it has been found that teachers are unsure when faced with issues of cyberbullying (De Smet et al., 2015) and are often uncertain if they can legally intervene in these issues that have been brought to their attention (Festl et al., 2014). Others have argued for the suggestion of partnerships between schools and the wider community (Mason, 2008; Vandebosch, Poels and Deboutte, 2014) to address the wider implications of cyberbullying.

Cross et al. (2012) found that teachers were addressing cyberbullying issues regularly in their classrooms, not only with regard to their pupils, but also concerning instances of bullying of other teachers as well. They found that pupils were dealing with abusive messages on social media and via text, and teachers who experienced victimisation were victimised via Facebook and a website called RateMyTeacher.com.

In conclusion, research has identified that teachers need to be prepared for issues of bullying and cyberbullying prior to entering the classroom (Stauffer et al, 2002). Once they are teaching, they need professional development to assist them in addressing issues of cyberbullying.

### 2.8 Motivations for cyberbullying

This section explores some of the reasons that young people engage in the act of cyberbullying. While the majority of research has been cross-sectional data acquisition focused on measuring rates of cyberbullying, prevalence, and comparing it to traditional bullying, studies also tend to focus on preventative measures and their effectiveness as part of their efforts. Gaining insights into and understanding why young people use electronic devices and social media to inflict harm on others would help determine the root cause of bullying and cyberbullying and work towards its eradication.

According to Tokunaga (2010), the majority of research on cyberbullying has been conducted without the use of theoretical frameworks. Moreover, there have also been few studies conducted to determine the motivation for cyberbullying. Motivation in cyberbullying has been found to be for fun (Mishna
et al., 2010), revenge (Hinduja and Patchin, 2009), and to improve self-esteem (Wilson and Campbell, 2011).

Cyberbullying is a relevant societal issue, yet most of the empirical research that has been done has focused on the psychological aspects (Festl and Quandt, 2013). In 2011, Wilton and Campbell published a paper that explored the reasons why young people, specifically adolescents, engaged in bullying activities and behaviours. The study measured the attitudes of 400 pupils, ranging in age from twelve to seventeen. The results found that the majority of responses for both bullying traditionally and online were “to get attention from others, making themselves feel better, to get their own way, and picking on someone who was different” (p.13). Due to the size limitations of the population involved in the study, it was found that there were no significant reasons for engaging in cyberbullying from those individuals who self-reported as a cyberbully (p.13). Though the data collected is useful the study only focused on the psychological factors, which in this case was the disinhibition effect, where young people using the Internet may say things that they would not normally say in person (Suler, 2004; Wilton and Campbell, 2011). In order to extend this to the sociological, it would be important to inquire why this disinhibition effect occurs and, from the social perspective, what is causing young people to act in this manner.

Notar et al., (2013) provide a comprehensive list of reasons for why young people cyberbully, including envy, prejudice, religion, gender, and anger. It has also been found that young people engage in cyberbullying as a need for power and dominance over another, as well as to raise their own status within their peer group (Kowalski et al., 2008). Additionally, victimisation has been found to occur due to appearance, especially body size (Frissen et al., 2007) and obesity (Griffiths et al., 2012). Young people who identify as gay, lesbian, bisexual, transgender or queer (GLBTQ) are also particularly subjected to bullying and cyberbullying (Pascoe, 2013).

All but one of these inquiries focused on the psychological. Pascoe (2013) wrote:

A sociology of bullying would shift the unit of analysis from the individual to the aggressive interaction itself, attend to the social contexts in which bullying occurs, ask questions about meanings
produced by such interactions and understand these interactions as not solely the province of young people (p. 89).

This shift in focus would allow the way in which bullying and cyberbullying to be understood from the sociological rather than the psychological perspective, allowing for a broader conception of the phenomenon. If 38% of young people in the UK have been cyberbullied, then the cause is greater than the individual factors listed above. What societal pressures are causing young people to act in this way? Is it due to structural and cultural inequalities that make up society, causing young people to become involved in bullying and cyberbullying behaviours?

In addition to the issues surrounding the definition, prevalence and gender issues in relation to cyberbullying, is the lack of a unified conceptual or theoretical framework. The majority of the research has focused on the psychological and the demographic issues of the phenomenon (Festl and Quant, 2013). As addressed in the following section, 51 papers analysed in this thesis explicitly mentioned a theoretical or conceptual framework. Of these, the theories ranged from the biological to the psychological, the sociological or a combination of both perspectives.

2.9 Theoretical framework

The focus of this thesis is to employ a theoretical framework grounded in sociology in order to understand the complexity of cyberbullying as a form of exclusion. In particular, this study seeks to elucidate why young people exclude others to the point of alienation and utilise bullying and cyberbullying behaviours as a means of exclusion.

In this section, the theoretical approach to position cyberbullying sociologically is explored with particular reference to social exclusion. A greater explanation and understanding is necessary of this phenomenon, particularly in light of the increased media reports on young people, cyberbullying and suicide (Hinduja and Patchin, 2010).
As stated in the Introduction, the theoretical approach that is utilised in this thesis is Elias’s Established and Outsider relations and will be presented further on in this section. Prior to addressing this framework, the other theoretical frameworks that have been utilised in cyberbullying research and that were also considered for this paper, as well as used to address the deficiencies of Established and Outsider relations will be explored.

There are various theories that have potential value for understanding cyberbullying. These theories come from the fields of both psychology and sociology. Throughout the survey of literature undertaken here, 51 had explicitly stated theoretical frameworks. In reviewing these studies, there was an overlap in theories utilised, thus offering a starting point for addressing the various theories and concepts that are used to understand and/or explain bullying and cyberbullying. Despite this, the majority of the research undertaken has been completed without a theoretical agenda according to Tokunaga (2010). While numerous frameworks have been utilised and recommended, few scholars have shared similar theoretical underpinnings, while the majority of the scholarship that is available fails to include a theoretical approach.

In order to explain and understand the causes of cyberbullying and social exclusion, it was important to view the phenomenon using various psychological and sociological theories. This does not mean that a single theory approach should be employed, even if possible, but rather a common approach would be prudent in providing a conceptualised framework that researchers can draw on, compare, and refer to in future research undertakings.

2.9.1 Psychological theories

When investigating the motives behind cyberbullying and social exclusion, using psychological theories is heavily favoured in the research (Tokunaga, 2010; Festl and Quant, 2013; Olweus, 2013). Psychological theories focus on the perspective of the individual and their internal motivations to engage in these behaviours. Social identity theory, for one, was selected in part due to its incorporation of the social groups that make up the lives of young people. In addition, socio-ecological theory was selected as it was widely used in the literature because, by its nature, many other theories are rooted in this overarching framework.
(Bauman and Yoon, 2014), and due to the fact that bullying and cyberbullying can be explored with a greater context related to the individual.

Social identity theory

Social identity theory assesses the connections between the social groups that make up the lives of young people. Henri Tajfel initially defined social identity as “the individual’s knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of this group membership” (p. 292, 1972). These group memberships help shape a young person’s identity and the “group identity becomes an integral part of their self-concept and how that individual perceives him- or herself within the social world” (Killen and Rutland, p. 62, 2013). At the same time, social identity is linked to how we perceive group membership (Tajfel and Turner, 1979). When an individual joins a group, they become labelled as a member, or a part of the group and it becomes part of their identity.

Young people use bullying, cyberbullying, and social exclusion to maintain group status and to foster their sense of identity (Espelage, Holt, and Henkel, 2003). They also use their status within a group (especially one with a higher social or popular standing) to exert power over others and exclude those that they find less desirable (Craig and Pepler, 2003).

Hoff and Mitchell (2008) studied the causes and frequency of cyberbullying in addition to exploring the psychological impact that it had on young people using social identity theory as their theoretical lens. The study took place over an academic year and involved 351 students and employed a mixed-methods approach. It was found that over 56% of respondents were affected by cyberbullying, with females experiencing a significantly higher rate at 72.1% versus 27.9% of males (Hoff and Mitchell, 2008). They found that cyberbullying emerged from relationship issues between peers; that victims experienced negative effects on their self-esteem; and the responses from other young people and schools were ineffectual (p 654-5). Additionally, it was found that the exclusion that occurred (in terms of relationship issues) fell into four categories: “break-ups, envy, intolerance, and ganging up” (p. 656).
It is within this categorical exclusion that Hoff and Mitchell (2008) were able to classify the exclusionary behaviour as “out-group abuse” and “object abuse.” “Out-group abuse is cruelty to anyone not in “the in group.” The term “out-group” comes from social identity theory” (p. 656-7). Coming from a psychological perspective, they found this connected well with their original premise. In terms of exclusion and cyberbullying related to “out-group abuse,” it was found that females were more likely to experience this in terms of popularity and appearance. Males also experienced abuse related to appearance, usually related to physical ability (p. 657) as well as receiving abuse related to sexual orientation, perceived or otherwise.

While the results are well within the parameters of the established norm in terms of rates of cyberbullying (see section 2.4), the method employed in obtaining the data appears to be flawed as it asked respondents to reflect back on experiences that occurred in earlier years of schooling, rather than what was currently occurring. Moreover, this data ends up being widespread, rather than targeted to a specific locality, as the population in question was attending university and the responses relate to earlier experiences in elementary and secondary schools across the country. In addition, the survey asked the respondents to relay past acts and information, which may not be reliable or valid, as it relies on individual recollections of past events (Himmelweit, Biberian, and Stockdale, 1978).

In conclusion, young people use their sense of self to foster a sense of identity within and outside of the group by excluding others from the group through cyberbullying. In doing so, they are protecting the group and maintaining their group status or even increasing it. While this framework is useful in analysing the empirical data of this thesis, and would be helpful in understanding why young people join certain groups, social identity theory has not at this time been used to determine why young people engage in social exclusion and cyberbullying.

**Social-ecological approach**
Espelage and Swearer (2004) and Cowie and Jennifer (2008) favour an ecological model for understanding bullying behaviours, similar to the one used by Bronfenbrenner, a developmental psychologist, as a way of examining bullying and cyberbullying behaviours. “This framework views youth behaviour as shaped by individual characteristics and a range of nested contextual systems of schools, adults, neighborhoods, and society” (Swearer et al., p. 42, 2010). This model places the individual at the centre and society as the overarching feature surrounding it. The reciprocal model endeavours to clarify how young people situate themselves and behave within the society to which they belong. It was developed to help understand the interactions between personal and environmental factors.

As Swearer and Doll (2001) explain:

Bronfenbrenner (1977) describes this eco-system with his classic diagram resembling a target, with the child at the center and concentric, reciprocal circles representing contexts from those closest to the child (family) to those furthest away (community) (p. 10).

![Figure 2-2 The social-ecological model](http://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/overview/social-ecologicalmodel.html)

The studies favouring the socio-ecological model have focused on the application of the model in a theoretical sense, rather than focusing on an investigative approach. First, Swearer and Doll (2001) believe bullying is an ecological phenomenon that has emerged from individual, social, physical, institutional, and community contexts (p.9). Once bullying is understood in this way, the results can go on to shape and change policy and procedures in schools in order to lessen the degree of bullying and social exclusion occurring.

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4 From [http://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/overview/social-ecologicalmodel.html](http://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/overview/social-ecologicalmodel.html)
While the research by Swearer and Doll focuses solely on bullying, it would be interesting to find out if cyberbullying can be conceptualised in the same manner that traditional bullying was and if so, what kinds of conclusions would be presented. Swearer and Doll (2001) conclude that partnerships need to occur between families and schools in order to intervene in bullying behaviours. As cyberbullying takes place online, this would require getting online agencies like Facebook, for example, to cooperate with any recommendations along with schools and parents in order to facilitate such partnerships.

Similar to Swearer and Doll's (2001) perspective, Espelage (2014) focuses on peer victimisation rather than social exclusion. Once again, the socio-ecological model is used as a framework, rather than a conduit for empirical research. The outcome favours additional investigation into the chronosystem, which includes the family structure and changes to it as well, including the family history.

As mentioned earlier, there would be an impact if additional research and exploration were to occur with regard to the socio-ecological system and cyberbullying. Perhaps another layer would need to be added to the system to include social media and its ilk, or the current model could be modified to fit it within the chronosystem, which has historically been positioned to include the societal perspective.

In conclusion, socio-ecological theory is an intricate system of interplaying facets. This allows for an understanding of the causes of social exclusion through the interaction of the different levels or risk factors that make up the foundation of the model. While this model may have its uses in gaining an understanding of social exclusion, it has only been used in one empirical study. In a study by Festl and Quandt (2013), the socio-ecological approach was used to explain and explore the socio-demographics (the groups and classes) of the schools involved. Results showed that boys tended to be perpetrators and girls and younger students tended to be victims.

Both social identity theory and socio-ecological theory are frameworks that could be useful in various aspects of social exclusion and cyberbullying. However, neither of these perspectives accurately provides a reliable framework
to address the reasons why young people engage in cyberbullying and social exclusion. The model has been used to help address the causes of school bullying and violence (Cowie and Jennifer, 2008), as well as assist in the understanding of school bullying and violence and future implications and prevention programmes (Swearer and Doll, 2001).

### 2.9.2 Sociological theories

Sociology is the study of social problems, which thus include cyberbullying and social exclusion. The aim of this section is to offer a theoretical model allowing for a greater understanding of social exclusion and cyberbullying. The sociological perspective has not been prevalent in research into bullying and cyberbullying thus far, but recently some researchers have become interested in the sociology of bullying (Bansel et al., 2009; Neves and Pinheiro, 2010; Pascoe, 2013; Søndergaard, 2012).

Furthermore, Chatzitheochari et al., (2016) and Faris and Felmlee (2014) have explored the sociological perspective of bullying and cyberbullying. These approaches have begun to focus on “asymmetric power relationships and the role of bullying for social climbing” (Chatzitheochari, Parsons and Platt (p. 4) as opposed to focusing on the motivation of the individual in engaging in victimisation and exclusionary practices.

Following this framework, bullying behaviours are seen as a means of attaining social status within the peer group at school. Victimisation therefore occurs in order to reinforce the aforementioned power relationships and maintain their position within the group hierarchical structure. The victimisation and bullying often occurs by means of exclusion and denigration as described earlier in this chapter. It also often occurs toward those who are described as ‘easy targets,’ or who are weak and vulnerable (Chatzitheochari, et al., (2016). In addition, it is those who do not fit the established norms of the peer group that are more likely to be targeted (Olweus, 1993; Sweeting and West 2001; Wang, Iannotti, and Luk, 2010).

While the research undertaken by Chatzitheochari, et al., (2016) focused on the experiences of young people who are disabled, the research could apply to other
marginalised groups who are seen as ‘others’ or ‘outsiders’, as they are the populations that are frequently victimised (Faris and Felmlee, 2014). This would include any of the groups or reasons discussed earlier in this chapter, in section 2.8, such as those who identify as GLBTQ (Pascoe, 2013).

Understanding bullying and cyberbullying sociologically means understanding the “normalised practices of power in schools” (Bansel et al., 2009). This power clash usually involves those who are viewed as strong engaging in exclusionary and denigrating practices in order to gain status (Faris and Felmlee, 2014). Young people will readily exclude others in person or online using both overt and covert behaviours, including but not limited to taunting and text messaging (Faris and Felmlee, 2014). Furthermore, this bullying may evolve out of the panic of anxiety faced by an individual or group member toward another peer who “displays the vulnerability and exposure that group members share and most fear” (Søndergaard, p. 362, 2012).

This sociological framework of bullying is strongly connected with the theoretical framework employed in understanding cyberbullying, Elias’s Established and Outsider relations, was selected due its ability to help understand the inequalities, power dynamics, and social exclusion that make up bullying and cyberbullying behaviours which will be discussed further on in this section. Despite this, Elias’s theory does have its shortcomings for understanding social exclusion and cyberbullying, in particular issues with anonymity and exclusion between peers for revenge. For these reasons, General Strain Theory was selected as it helps address issues with peer exclusion in addition to helping understand the emotional aspects behind cyberbullying with a sociological framework. A further reason is that it has received a great of attention in the literature.

**General Strain Theory**

General Strain Theory (GST) is a theory of criminology developed by Robert Agnew in 1992. The theory states “individuals who experience strains or stressors often become upset and sometimes cope with crime” (Agnew, p. 169, 2010). Agnew describes strains as the following: “Strains are said to be most
likely to result in crime when they (1) are seen as unjust, (2) are seen as high in magnitude, (3) are associated with low social control, and (4) create some pressure or incentive to engage in criminal coping” (Agnew, p. 319, 2001). Such individuals may engage in crime to “end or escape from their strains” (Agnew, p. 169, 2010). We can thus interpret crime as acts of exclusion.

Furthermore, Agnew states that “a student may assault the peers who are harassing him” (Agnew, 2010), and we can interpret assault as a verbal, physical, or cyberbullying attack. We can infer that the student was experiencing stress or multiple stressors from being harassed and turned to assault (a crime) to alleviate the stress or stressors. Moreover, Agnew (2006) also argues that “they become upset, experiencing a range of negative emotions, including anger, frustration, and depression. And they cope with their strains and negative emotions through crime. Crime may be a way to reduce or escape from strains” (p. 2-3). This can be interpreted from the perspective of both the bully and the victim.

There are many thoughts as to why students bully. Bullies are thought of as the dominant figure in the bully/victim dynamic. It has been thought that bullies are aggressive, prone to violence, and do not suffer from a lack of self-esteem. Bullies may be combative toward both peers and adults. According to Olweus, “[g]enerally, bullies have a more positive attitude toward violence than students in general. Further, they are often characterized by impulsivity and a strong need to dominate others” (p. 1180, 1994). This definition resonates strongly with Agnew’s GST. Bullies are experiencing some type of strain, be it trouble at home, school, and clearly with peers. They bully and/or turn to violence, aggression, or acts of crime to alleviate this strain.

At the same time, victims can also cope with strains through crime. Victims of bullying experience a wide range of emotional complexities. Olweus states that victims are “more anxious and insecure than other students in general. Further, they are often cautious, sensitive, and quiet. When attacked by other students they commonly react by crying (at least in the lower grades) and withdrawal. Also, victims suffer from low self-esteem, they have a negative view of themselves, and their situation; they often look upon themselves as failures and feel stupid, ashamed and unattractive” (Olweus, p, 1178, 1994). Compounded by
all of these negative emotions, victims also show a predisposition to mental health issues. These issues arise as a result of the constant strain of torment, including depression, anxiety, parasuicide, self-harm (cutting), and suicide (Marr and Field, 2011).

Hay, Meldrum, and Mann surveyed approximately 400 young people in the US in 2008. They were interested in the criminogenic effects of bullying, the effects of bullying on criminal and non-criminal behaviour, and whether or not there were differences in the effects of bullying on males and females. The results showed that cyberbullying was a source of strain that can lead to other forms of victimisation, but it did not explain why young people engage in cyberbullying.

In 2011 Patchin and Hinduja published an article analysing the study of bullying and cyberbullying behaviours using GST. They were looking to determine whether or not young people experiencing strain were more likely to engage in bullying behaviours.

Using both traditional and non-traditional types of bullying Patchin and Hinduja (2011) surveyed approximately 2,000 students of middle school age. The findings showed that a significant portion of middle school students were involved in both types of bullying. It was also found that there was a direct relationship between strain and both traditional and cyberbullying; more strain led to more engagement in both traditional and cyberbullying behaviours. As a result, Patchin and Hinduja hypothesized that young people may engage in bullying activities as a response to strain in their lives (2011).

As this study was specific to the sample surveyed, it would be interesting to find if the results would replicate to young people in other parts of the world. It would also be thought provoking to find if the results would be similar if measured again in a year, especially with the older students. As this study was done using a middle school population with an average age of twelve, seeing if the results surrounding strain changed as they moved further into adolescence would be helpful in understanding cyberbullying and its causes.

It was found that there was a direct relationship between strain and both traditional bullying and cyberbullying. The more strain experienced by youth equalled more engagement in bullying and cyber bullying behaviours. It could be
inferred that engagement in bullying behaviours could lead to further delinquent behaviours.

In a related study by Cullen et al. (2008), GST was used as a basis of their investigation and survey of 2,437 middle school students on bullying behaviours and their relationship to involvement in juvenile delinquency. They specifically looked at whether or not being bullied led to juvenile delinquency and whether or not age and gender played a role.

School bullying had a significant but small effect on delinquency across the board and that the more victimisation occurred so did the likelihood of misbehaviour and criminal acts. There were no significant differences in terms of gender and delinquency (Cullen et al., 2008). However, males were more likely to use drugs and alcohol as a result of bullying.

The data analysis showed that “school bullying victimisation has a small but significant direct effect on delinquency,” and that peer victimisation plays a role in “fostering wayward conduct” (p. 356). However, just because a small effect may be shown, it does not necessarily mean that there is no association or connection. This study took place over a short period of time, and bullying happens over time. Had the study been conducted later on, or as part of a longitudinal study, results could be different.

The studies by Hinduja and Patchin (2011) and Cullen and colleagues (2008) both show a distinct correlation between bullying victimization and delinquency as a result of strain. Strain can be thought of as a variety of different concepts including, as stated in Cullen et al., (2008) issues with parents, self-esteem issues, low self-control, aggression, and social bonds with the school and peers.

In conclusion, GST is when individuals experience strain or stress and to deal with this they engage in “crime.” For the purposes of this thesis, crime here would be the act of engaging in cyberbullying as an act of social exclusion. Young people who are experiencing strain in their lives will act out and one of those ways is to act out and engage in cyberbullying to cope. GST focuses more on "types of strain rather than sources of strain" (Agnew 1992), which is a
limitation of this particular theory. It also does not help explain why young people engage in cyberbullying and social exclusion; rather that “peer abuse” was a “strain that should be especially consequential for delinquency” (Hay et al., p. 131, 2010). Also, not all young people that experience strain go on to engage in deviant acts, including cyberbullying, and the reverse is most likely the same.

Table 2-2 A summary of the theoretical approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Strength</th>
<th>Weakness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Identity Theory</td>
<td>“The individual’s knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of this group membership” (Tajfel, p. 292, 1972).</td>
<td>Helps explains young person’s sense of self.</td>
<td>Does not explain why young people would engage in cyberbullying.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socio-ecological approach</td>
<td>“This framework views youth behaviour as shaped by individual characteristics and a range of nested contextual systems of schools, adults, neighborhoods, and society” (Swearer et al., p. 42, 2010).</td>
<td>Helps explain bullying/cyberbullying as part of a societal approach.</td>
<td>Does not explain why young people would engage in cyberbullying.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Strain Theory</td>
<td>“Individuals who experience strains or stressors often become upset and sometimes cope with crime” (Agnew, p. 169, 2010).</td>
<td>Explains why a young person may get involved with cyberbullying as a result of experiencing strain.</td>
<td>Focuses more on the types of strain, rather than the cause of the strain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Established and Outsider Relations</td>
<td>“Provides a model for social tensions as power differentials between groups which may or may not generate violent conflict” (Fletcher,</td>
<td>Explains why young people engage in cyberbullying due to challenge in power by another group or individual and helps explain stigmatisation, marginalisation, and</td>
<td>May not address issues with anonymity in cyberbullying. Also may not explain why peers/friends fall out and bully/cyberbully</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2-2 provides an overview of the theoretical approaches considered. This includes the definitions, as well as strengths and weaknesses of each theory as they relate to understanding cyberbullying as exclusion. Strengths to the above approaches allow for a deeper understanding of the motivations of young people and why they engage in the practice of exclusion through understanding sense of self in the case of SIT. SIT is drawn on later in this thesis in sections 7.3.1 and 7.5 to help explain the distraction of social media and how group involvement in engaging in cyberbullying can help young people maintain their sense of self. The socio-ecological approach provides an understanding of the individual as it relates to themselves and the rest of the world. For both the sociological theories, GST and Established and Outsider relations help explain the motivations for engaging in cyberbullying behaviours. Both SIT and the socio-ecological approach do not provide a rationale as to why young people engage in exclusionary practices. GST provides a foundation as to why young people may engage in cyberbullying, but as a response to strain rather than its cause. The GST framework is utilised later in this thesis in sections 7.3.1 and 7.5 to help further explain the emotional impact of cyberbullying. It is also used in the discussion in section 8.6 as an additional approach to help understand cyberbullying in conjunction with the Established and Outsider framework.

While Established and Outsider relations (the approach utilised in this thesis and discussed in the following section) helps understand why young people engage in exclusionary practices, the theory does have its limitations. These limitations include issues with anonymity in cyberbullying as well as cyberbullying between specific individuals as there are often other motivations involved in engaging in cyberbullying, such as psychological factors. While an individual may carry out exclusionary tactics as part of an established group, there may also be other motivations or causes that lead to these behaviours. Synthesising the Established and Outsider framework with GST, for example, allows for the understanding of cyberbullying and exclusion where psychological factors are also part of the situation. For example, if a young person is already experiencing strain due to being cyberbullied or due to other mental health or psychological reasons and
then engages in cyberbullying toward another individual group in order to cope with the strain and stress (Patchin and Hinduja, 2011). Additionally, the Established and Outsider framework was synthesised with SIT to help understand group identity as it pertains to cyberbullying behaviours. When young people have a strong group identity, they are also likely to have a stronger sense of self, based on group membership and identity. Therefore, these group members may be more likely to engage in cyberbullying as part of a group. In doing so, they may find themselves increasingly distracted by, and engaged in, social media and acts of exclusion of other groups and individuals online (boyd, 2014; Elias and Scotson, 1994; Espinoza and Junoven, 2011; Tokunaga, 2010).

**Established and outsider relations**

Established and Outsider relations is the framework that is used in this thesis to help explain the sociological phenomenon of cyberbullying. In this section, the origins of Established and Outsider relations are explored, as well as how it has been used in other sociological research, and how the theory is applied to the empirical data in this thesis. It has not, to date, been used in research surrounding the phenomenon of bullying and cyberbullying, but has been used to explore issues of inequality and power between groups and communities.

This theory could be extremely useful in explaining sociologically, the reasons, motivations, and driving forces behind social exclusion as it occurs through the medium of cyberbullying. The outcomes of this research, using established and the outsiders can provide an expanded understanding of social exclusion and marginalisation of young people not just within the context of this small study, but could be applied to larger scale research projects and case studies of victimised youth.

The initial study by Elias and Scotson endeavoured to examine delinquency and the differing rates that were occurring between the established community and the two newer settlements that made up Winston-Parva. As the study developed, the focus changed from delinquency to a study on the community of Winston-Parva and its internal relationships. The community became a paradigm for group behaviour and power conflicts (Elias and Scotson, 1994). It has been
used as a model to explore the power differentials, social inequalities, and conflicts between groups in sociological research since the 1970s.

First, the community, Winston-Parva, as it was known for the purposes of the study, was made up of three separate communities: one a long standing settlement and two more recently established ones (Elias and Scotson, 1994). The three communities had similar demographics with regard, but not limited, to class, religion and ethnicity (Elias and Scotson, 1994; Powell, 2008). The primary difference between the groups was related to the amount of time that they had lived in the community (Loyal and Quilley, 2004; Powell, 2008). In addition, the established, tightly cohesive group, held greater cultural and social capital over the outsiders (Lake, 2013). Throughout the duration of the study, it was found that the established group had stigmatised the newer neighbourhood due to the high rate of delinquency found in the community. However, by the third year into the project, the delinquency was no longer an issue; despite that, the established neighbourhood continued with its practice of stigmatisation (Elias and Scotson, 1994).

This exclusion and stigmatisation allowed them to regard themselves (the established) as superior to the newcomers, blaming them for any social disorder within the community (Scott, Carrington, and McIntosh, 2011), as well as going so far as to not have any contact with them, unless it was required by their occupations (Elias and Scotson, 1994). The established group felt that the perceived power that they held due to their longevity within the community was in danger of being usurped by the “outsiders”. They felt that the “outsiders” were less worthy than they were, despite no factual basis to support their assertions (Sutton and Vertigans, 2002). In order to establish their power and superiority, they used stigmatisation, exclusion, and gossip as weapons to tarnish the reputation of the outsiders, relying on the cohesion that the established group had with one another due to their longevity in the community (Elias and Scotson, 1994; Dunning and Hughes, 2013).

Elias found that the differences in status of established and outsider groups were rooted in differences in power, notably inequalities of power (Van Krieken, 1998). Moreover, Elias and Scotson (1994) state:
In Winston-Parva, as elsewhere, one found members of one group casting a slur on those of another, not because of their qualities as individual people, but because they were members of a group which they considered collectively as different from, and as inferior to, their own group. (p. xx).

Established and outsider groups are reinforced by the unequal power dynamics between them, and without this dynamic, the characterisations of the outsiders would not have merit and influence. Additionally, according to Sutton and Vertigans (2002), “when outsider groups are seen as a threat, competitors for available work, for instance, established groups respond by exaggerating their own positive aspects and the outsiders’ negative ones (p. 60).

This unequal balance of power left the outsiders at a disadvantage within social and employment networks within the community. Moreover, the lack of power left them “vulnerable to the gossip and stigmatisation of the more powerful groups, and over time, members of the outsiders came to accept and take on the stigmatised form of identity created for them by the established” (Sutton and Vertigans, p. 61, 2002). Their consequent internalisation of the stigma pressured the group, causing them to see themselves as inferior, thus reducing their power in the community even further. Elias and Scotson add that:

their own conscience was on the side of the detractors. They themselves agreed with the ‘village’ people that it was bad not to be able to control one’s children or to get drunk and noisy and violent. Even if none of these reproaches could be applied to themselves personally, they knew only too well that they did apply to some of their neighbours. They could be shamed by allusion to this bad behaviour of their neighbours because … the bad name attached to it … was automatically applied to them too. (Elias and Scotson, p. 101, 1994).

It is this unequal balance of power between the two groups where the issue is ultimately rooted. It is not to say that other factors are not an issue when it comes to power, stigmatisation, or marginalisation. Instead, Elias chooses to prioritise the power dynamic over other sociological conventions such as class, race, and religion (Loyal, 2011).

Using the Established and Outsiders as a framework is one way in which social exclusion can be explained. The established group actively excludes in order to “maintain their identity, to assert their superiority, keeping others firmly in their place” (Elias and Scotson, p. xviii, 1994). Additionally, it allows an understanding of the changes in power dynamics between groups and how these
differences manifest in terms of group superiority and inferiority and how exclusion occurs. This once again shows the strong connection to the sociology of bullying frameworks mentioned at the beginning of this section and Elias’s framework.

Elias’s work has thus been used to explain exclusion and stigmatisation. One such study focused on social exclusion within British tennis clubs. An ethnographic study was conducted at one specific tennis club to determine whether or not social exclusion was occurring and at what levels. Lake (2011) found that despite earlier changes in policy having to do with exclusivity and clothing, new members were stigmatised by those who had been members of the club for some time. Lake spent ten months conducting ethnographic research and was affected by how “precisely and decisively the club was divided” (p. 4).

Using Elias’s framework, Lake (2011) discovered that established club members, who formed a large cohesive group, actively excluded the new club members by taking up locker room space, utilising court space at peak times, and ignoring newer members (p. 7-8). Established members (EM) even went as far as supporting one another against issues with newer members (NM), as well as “ignoring breaches of conduct by EMs and siding with each other in disagreements with NMs” (p. 9).

The tennis club in question was very similar to the figuration of established-outsider relations found in Winston-Parva. Both the EM and NM groups acted in similar ways to the established and outsider groups as documented by Elias and Scotson. Lake’s study illustrated the use and validity of using such a framework to show how exclusionary tactics both legitimised the EM’s position and weakened and stigmatised the NM’s position.

In addition to Lake’s study, Loyal (2011) explored established and outsider relations in Ireland. Between 1999-2008, Ireland’s population increased by 18%, with immigrants to the country increasing by more than 10% (p. 181). Moreover, exclusionary tactics experienced by immigrants in Ireland also increased with the change to the population and culture of the country.

Utilising the Established and Outsider framework, Loyal examined the exclusion and discrimination faced by the outsiders, the recent immigrant population, by
the established group of predominantly Irish citizens. Not unlike the situation described in Lake’s tennis account, the established group was the one that held the power and knew the social norms (p. 191). They were also the ones who discriminated against the immigrants, providing low wages, long working hours and unfair tactics in their hiring practices.

Loyal’s study differs from Elias’s work in that an entire country is being used as opposed to a smaller community. Issues related to race and ethnicity are also being explored that were not a focus in Elias’s work. These issues do not detract from the basic premise that the established citizens held power and used it to stigmatise the other, the outsiders, using verbal abuse in some cases. In other cases, the established group made it increasingly difficult for skilled immigrants to find employment to improve their status and station. Often immigrants were left with no choice but to take unskilled labour positions that they were overqualified for (p. 190), rather than being hired for positions that they had qualifications for.

Loyal recognises that there were both differences along and similarities between the Irish situation and Winston-Parva. There are issues of class, social position, and racism here, issues that were not present in the original study. Nevertheless, there are still clear and significant barriers between the two groups that justify the use of the established-outsiders framework in this context. Loyal expands on the similarities in stating that “the newcomers are bent on improving their position and the established groups are bent on maintaining theirs. The newcomers resent, and often try to rise from, the inferior status attributed to them; and the established try to preserve their superior status, which the newcomers appear to threaten” (p. 198).

In conclusion, Loyal’s study was far more expansive and covered a great deal more ground than that of Elias and Scotson. For one, it was no longer a dual model scenario, but rather one that was comprised of many facets (p. 197). This does not mean that the established-outsider framework was not useful in the analysis of the Irish situation. It merely means that, as Elias intended, that the model could be interpreted to change and adapt as needed according to changes in society, and according to changes power and stigmatisation as well.

While there are other social theories that could be applied to this particular
study, the Established and Outsiders framework is extremely effective in understanding cyberbullying as an exclusionary process. This study consequently begins with a focus on three schools in Glasgow, all of which statistically are similar in terms of demographics, population, and league tables. Elias’s model can be used to explore how stigmatisation, marginalisation and power differentials are employed between young people in these three schools.

The Established and Outsiders framework is first used to show how social exclusion occurs. While in the case of this particular study, established and outsiders could be replaced by those that are perceived to have power or status or a lack thereof, or those that have a high perceived social status versus those with a perceived lower status (Maguire and Mansfield, 1998; Velija, 2012), or just by being perceived as different, as long as there is a perceived imbalance of power between individuals or groups that are involved. Young people exclude and marginalise through the medium of bullying and cyberbullying, a modern technique of using victimisation and social exclusion (Wang et al., 2010), similar to how gossip was used to marginalise the outsiders in Winston-Parva.

Utilising Established and Outsider theory, however, entails some difficulties. For one, it may not address issues regarding cyberbullying with anonymity. It also may not explain how peers within a group may exclude one another. As such, other theoretical perspectives, such as Social Identity Theory and GST, may be employed to address the gaps within Established and Outsider relations.

2.10 Conclusion

Cyberbullying is a form of social exclusion with an imbalance of power that affects the lives of many young people. Throughout the past 35 years, bullying research has focused on various aspects of the phenomenon ranging from prevalence in schools to the establishment and critique of the anti-bullying programmes that are being used in schools today.

This paper argues that it is only the medium that has changed, not the power dynamics, especially as cyberbullying is an extension of traditional bullying in many cases. Bullying is thus being carried over into the cyber world and young people no longer can count on being outside of school as a safe haven (Olweus, 1978; Dooley, et al. 2009). With technology easily accessible (O’Higgans Norman
and Connolly, 2011), it now allows the individuals who would have been characterised as weak in the past to be those who have the power if they have access to the necessary technology (computers and mobile phones). Recent statistics confirm that young people do use computers and mobiles, with 97.5% stating they have been online in the past five days, 63% owning a mobile device (Hinduja and Patchin, 2013) and 75% of young people using social media sites (nobullying.com) and knowledge of how to use them to their advantage (Law et al., 2011). It is the behaviour that is the issue being addressed here, rather than the medium through which this behaviour is occurring.

Understanding the relationship between power and status, using the established and outsiders theory, and applying it to cyberbullying as social exclusion is crucial in assisting prevention efforts and working toward reducing bullying and cyberbullying behaviours. Given this rationale, and combined with the critical review of the literature, this study is conducted through questionnaires circulated among young people in three Glasgow schools and combined along with the interviews and perspectives of teachers and educational professionals.
Chapter 3
Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodological approach that was applied in this study. Methodology, according to Billig (1988), involves the procedure concerning the collection of data and the subsequent analysis of this data. Moreover, methodology also refers to how a researcher chooses to address their research overall, including their ontological and epistemological stances.

In the first section (3.2) the research approach is outlined, including both the ontological and epistemological approaches. Additionally, the research aims and questions that guided and drove this study are elaborated. In the third section of the chapter (3.3), the research design is addressed, which explores how the research project evolved from a quantitative methods study to a mixed methods approach. The factors that led to this change are outlined in detail.

The following section (3.4) details the first phase of the study, namely the pupil survey. It explores how the survey was developed, in addition to addressing sampling and recruitment. It also explores the benefits and limitations of the survey development and usage.

In section 3.5 the second phase of the study, the educational professional interviews, is explained. This includes the development of the survey, recruitment, as well as the interview process itself. The benefits and limitations of the developed interview guide are also illustrated.

Section 3.6 discusses data management and handling of the data, including the methods of analysis used in both the quantitative and qualitative phases of research. In section 3.7, the overall reliability and validity of the study are discussed. In section 3.8, the relevant ethical considerations are discussed and lastly, in section 3.9 the role of the researcher concludes the chapter.
3.2 Research approach

In this section the approach to the research project is illustrated, including the ontological and epistemological approaches used. These philosophical approaches to inquiry helped determine the approach that was utilised in this research project.

Research into cyberbullying is constantly changing and evolving, especially as technology continues to advance. While the majority of research on cyberbullying has been found to be quantitative in nature, there has been an increase in qualitative and mixed methods research focusing on motive, means, and opportunity, rather than prevalence. The focus of this research has also evolved from a focus on prevalence to a focus on understanding motivations behind the phenomenon of cyberbullying. In order to do so, the detailed conception of the object of study and how the analysis was to be done, needed to be defined at the outset.

3.2.1 Ontological and epistemological approach

In social research there are two approaches that can be undertaken, quantitative and qualitative research. Each has its own framework. Research methods are influenced by their own philosophical stance as well as the methodologies employed within the research itself. Quantitative research is an objective way to measure reality using statistical measures, facts, figures, and experiments. Qualitative research emerged from a naturalistic or interpretive paradigm, where the data is collected from a wide-ranging variety of methods including interviews and focus groups. Once the data is collected, it is analysed into themes and the findings and theory emerge.

Before the research approach can be determined, a research paradigm needs to be selected. A paradigm represents the worldview, which includes the nature of the world, the place of the individual within that world and the range of relationships to the world and its parts (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The choice of paradigm guides the inquiry. From this paradigm, methodology emerges, which is consistent with the choice that has been made.
The first paradigm that was considered was that of the positivist approach. A positivist approach is consistent with that of scientific inquiry. Knowledge can be measured empirically and the results replicated through experiments and analysed quantitatively. The researcher is independent from the research and does not influence the research process (Waring, 2012).

The second paradigm that was considered was interpretivism. This study takes an interpretivist approach, a perspective which acknowledges that reality and social phenomena are in a constant state of flux (Bryman, 2012). Moreover, these phenomena are based on the individual’s own experiences and circumstances (Guba and Lincoln, 1994), which is a key part of the qualitative aspect of the research outcomes.

The interpretivist paradigm stipulates that there are multiple realities (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) and that these realities emerge from those participating in the research, rather than being driven by the researcher (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998). Moreover, this approach seeks to understand “the world of human experience” (Cohen and Manion, p. 36, 1994). In addition, those who follow an interpretivist paradigm, allow the data collected to guide their research (Cresswell, 2009). While initially this research project would have aimed for a more positivist paradigm, once the initial data was analysed it was clear that interpretivism would be more appropriate. The project evolved to a mixed methods approach, which is explored later in this chapter.

3.2.2 Research aims

Out of this inquiry, the aims of the research were developed. The aims of the research are as follows, in addition to the research questions as introduced in Chapter 1. In order to provide context to the methods used throughout the research, this will be summarised here. The research aims are:

1. To determine whether or not cyberbullying is a relevant issue in the Glasgow schools that participated in this research and whether or not the results apply to the population at large.
2. To explore the perspective of educational professionals as it relates to cyberbullying among young people.
3. To determine the nature of cyberbullying.

Once the aims were ascertained, it was then necessary to narrow the perspective of research by the production of research questions. In this case, along with the aims, I wished to generalise the findings to the population (Glasgow), while also examining the findings on a more specific individual level.

According to Bryman (2012), research questions should have focus and should also be related to one another. Moreover, they should be clear, researchable, connected to theory and research, and allow the researcher to make an original contribution to the field of research (p. 90). The research questions (See Chapter 1) were developed after careful study and after extensive reading and research into the topics of cyberbullying and exclusion.

As these questions focus on experiences as well as opinions, it was necessary for the research to be flexible in design, rather than taking a fixed approach. Flexible design allows for changes and encourages revisiting all phases of the research design as the process continues, allowing the framework of the study to emerge as it progresses (Robson, 2011).

### 3.3 Research design

In this section, the research design is discussed. This includes the change from quantitative methods to a mixed methods approach.

Initially, the study began as a purely quantitative study (Phase One), but soon evolved to a mixed methods approach comprised of an online survey and semi-structured interviews with educational professionals (Phase Two). The survey was utilised to inform the study, beginning with measures to obtain information from students. Moreover, the interviews were conducted to elicit information from educational professionals on the impact of cyberbullying on young people. A third phase was proposed and approved by the ethics committee, but ultimately was unsuccessful (See Chapter 8 for the discussion of limitations of this study).
The research aims were established in order to gain a greater understanding of cyberbullying as exclusion in Glasgow secondary schools due to the limited research that has taken place regarding cyberbullying and why young people engage in the behaviour. While the initial aims of the research were purely quantitative, it was determined that a different methodological approach would be needed in order to explore research aims two and three. A mixed methods design was implemented that applied both quantitative methods and qualitative methods. A mixed methods approach allows the researcher to utilise quantitative and qualitative information as well as all tools of data collection.

This approach has become more popular and prevalent in social research over the past twenty years (Robson, 2011). While there have been criticisms over combining the two methods such as timing issues in completing research, and difficulty integrating findings (Bryman, 2004), there are also benefits in using a mixed methods approach. Mixed methods allows for the integration of both methods to assist in gaining a greater appreciation for the research aims and questions. Moreover, they are complimentary and allow for the researcher to obtain a more robust analysis when used together (Ivankova, Cresswell and Stick, 2006).

In the case of this research project, the utilisation of only one method was not advantageous. In order to gain a greater understanding of the research aims, the addition of a qualitative study was necessary. It has been found that one research approach, for example a quantitative study that did not yield anticipated conclusions, found value added to the data when adding in a qualitative approach such as a case study. This approach is identified as ‘salvage qualitative work’ (Weinholtz et al., 1995), where the mixed methods approach is used consecutively. This research follows such an approach, where the second research method employed is informed by the first, which is known as the ‘priority sequence model’ (Morgan, 1998).

Using the salvage qualitative work approach allowed for the small qualitative study to be utilised to help understand, evaluate and interpret the quantitative results (Morgan, 1998). This further enabled the interpretation of the differences between the rates of traditional bullying and cyberbullying within...
the schools surveyed and a wider understanding of the original premise that cyberbullying was the primary way in which young people engaged in exclusionary practices.

While this research used qualitative methods as the second approach, it was necessary to include it pragmatically rather than as ‘salvage’ research in order to answer the aims and questions of the study accurately. Therefore, the utilisation of the quantitative survey provided validity, reliability, and generalisibility and the qualitative interviews provided credibility (Bryman, 2006). Moreover, the benefits of using both approaches include being able to answer different research questions, explaining findings, and dealing with complex phenomena and situations (Bryman, 2006).

To inform this research, one quantitative survey was developed for pupils (see appendix) that aimed at determining prevalence of bullying, cyberbullying and bias bullying and cyberbullying within a selection of Glasgow Secondary Schools. The survey obtained information from 450 pupil participants. The interview protocol that followed, aimed at a greater understanding of cyberbullying behaviour, attitudes and perceptions of cyberbullying. These interviews were conducted with educators. The interview protocol was informed by the data deemed missing from the quantitative survey results and allowed for stronger conclusions to be deduced from the research as a whole.

### 3.3.1 Mixed methods design

As the mixed methods approach was determined after the quantitative data was collected, using explanatory design was the best way for design and analysis. Explanatory design, according to Ivankova, Cresswell and Stick (2006) allows for the collection and analysing of quantitative data followed by the collection and analysing of qualitative data consecutively as part of one research study. This research utilised the explanatory approach adapted from Cresswell and Clark (p. 218-9, 2011):

1. Collect the quantitative data.
2. Analyse the quantitative data.
3. Design the qualitative strand based on the quantitative results.
4. Collect the qualitative data.
5. Analyse the qualitative data.
6. Interpret how the connected results answer the research questions.

In following this approach, I was able to determine what information was missing from the quantitative approach and what needed to be collected in the interviews. Moreover, I was able to use the qualitative results to better explain what was found in the surveys (Cresswell and Clark, 2011).

3.4 Pupil surveys

In this section, the pupil surveys that were undertaken are discussed, including the use of surveys, the survey design, the sample selection, and the recruitment of participants. Surveys are designed to collect information. This survey set out to collect information on young people in Glasgow schools with regard to how they are experiencing and perceiving cyberbullying in their schools.

3.4.1 Use of surveys

As previously stated, the initial research question was designed to determine the prevalence of cyberbullying in Glasgow schools. In order to measure the occurrence of cyberbullying through texts and social media, a short survey was developed, which was the most appropriate way to gather this data on prevalence. Survey usage allowed for reaching a wider sample of students, which was initially hoped for. A web-based survey was created for this purpose for ease of access and anonymity. It was also used to allow students to access the survey at school in a supervised location in order to ensure an adequate response rate.

The survey was designed to describe, as part of the objective along with collecting data during a given period of time, to gather views on a particular issue (Creswell, 2008; Hedges, 2012). The study was developed as a cross-sectional analysis, which is easier to administer and allows results to be analysed in a “short amount of time” (Cresswell, 2003, p. 398). This contrasts with longitudinal studies, which are designed to measure individuals or attitudes over time (Cresswell, 2003). As I was interested in cyberbullying behaviours six
months prior to the study, through to when the survey was completed, a cross-sectional study was best suited for this approach.

Advantages for the use of online surveys are ease of access, low cost, and flexibility (Ary et al., 2010; Roberts and Allen, 2015; Wright, 2005). Surveys are easily analysed and are a cost efficient method of obtaining information (Zohrabi, 2013). Limitations of surveys have been found to include inaccuracies in responses, wording of surveys causing misunderstanding, and issues in self-reporting (Zohrabi, 2013). Participants may have been less than truthful or frightened to answer truthfully for fear of retaliation, despite the anonymity of the survey. As the survey was administered at school during a time when multiple students would be accessing the survey website at the same time, this is a possibility. Additionally, as the target population was comprised of young people who use social media and technology with ease, the use of an online survey was a prudent approach. The cost to administer the site (SurveyGizmo) was low and allowed for the data to be easily downloaded and imported into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for the researcher to analyse, saving time and effort.

Disadvantages for the use of online surveys have found to be low response rates as well as ethical considerations, such as breaches of privacy and anonymity that are still being researched (Roberts and Allen, 2015). In order to address breach of privacy issues, the head teacher or school contact disseminated the survey URL to the teachers who administered the survey in small groups at the two schools that utilised the online survey. Additionally, a further disadvantage is subject to access to technology by respondents (Tymms, 2012). While the response rate was adequate, there were schools who were unable to guarantee responses due to computer availability, which would not have occurred in a traditional or mailed, self-administered survey. Ethically speaking, the concerns that have arisen have mostly been related to university ethics committees not understanding the role or usage of online surveys and the potential for issues surrounding consent (Roberts and Allen, 2015). In this case, the ethics committee was given a full documented research plan, complete with the survey and how the survey was to be administered. Moreover, the Glasgow City Council also had to approve the research project (see Appendix 2-3), as well as each
school (See Appendix 4) that was involved in disseminating the survey. Pupils who accessed the survey had a full explanation (See Appendix 5) of what was being asked of them, and it was emphasised that they could opt out at any time and that the survey was completely anonymous.

3.4.2 Pupil survey design

In developing a quantitative survey, consideration was given to validity and reliability, in addition to ensuring that the survey was accessible to the population responding to them. This meant warranting that the language used was appropriate for the audience. The quantitative data aimed at reaching a large audience, of upwards of 1000 individuals. Moreover, it allowed for the collection of data that would allow for comparisons between groups (school, year, gender). These comparisons could then be used to draw wider conclusions about the larger population from which the sample was produced.

The quantitative portion of this study began with the development of a survey designed to gather information on pupils’ attitudes and opinions on bullying and cyberbullying in their schools. The survey was researcher developed, according to a cross-sectional comparative survey design. Additionally, it was developed for usage at the secondary school level. Moreover, the issues it addressed were attitudes and problems surrounding bullying and cyberbullying in the respondents’ schools. A standard definition of cyberbullying was provided from Willard (2004), which explained that cyberbullying is a form of bullying through electronic means (See Appendix 6).

Validity in survey data collection refers to the agreement of what is being asked by both the researcher and the participant. The interpretation of data is reflected by the responses that are given. Questions asked regarding both bullying and cyberbullying were asked in similar ways and used the same verbiage for each, allowing for the respondents to construe the questions similarly, maintaining validity.

In developing the survey for distribution, the use of a checklist of questions for designing a survey, such as the one advocated by Cresswell (2014), would have been a more advantageous approach for this researcher. This would have
ensured that certain steps in the research process were undertaken, such as a pilot study. A pilot study was not utilised in this study. Had one been undertaken, the types of responses could have been checked for accuracy, thus making sure that each questions meaning was clear to those responding. Also, this would have allowed for a reduction of questions, especially in the case where there was a repeated question. Moreover, allowing for the use of age selection by the respondent would have been an important addition to the survey results.

No pilot study was utilised because as it transpired, gaining permission from schools to participate was extremely difficult. Had the first participating school (School A) been used as the pilot, this would have reduced the population of the entire study by 128, therefore bringing the total participants to just 322, which would have made the study far less feasible and acceptable.

There were limitations in using a survey. Questionnaires and surveys are used in order to “establish a general pattern across a population” (Tymms, p. 231, 2012). The survey was constituted by multiple-choice questions, with Likert-type scale options, single-choice, and multiple-choice options, depending on the question with no open-ended questions. In doing so, these questions were unable to have stronger statistical tests performed. A Chi-square test proved to be the valuable choice in analysing the data. Analysis occurred with version 21 of SPSS. The research analysis from the survey appears primarily in Chapter 6.

While the questionnaire accomplished the task of surveying this population, a better-designed survey, or the utilisation of an established survey or questionnaire such as the Olweus Bullying Questionnaire in the realm of bullying and cyberbullying research would have been a more prudent option. The use of established questionnaires and surveys have led to increased reliability and validity of the research conducted and are often designed to better meet the needs of researchers.

The survey did not collect any biometric data (only gender, school, and the school year were collected as “identifiers”), resulting in total anonymity of the subjects participating. Once the online data had been downloaded, the survey
was removed from the Internet and the files deleted. Similarly, once the paper copies that were used in School C had been manually input, they were destroyed (See section 3.4.4 for further explanation).

Ethical concerns in dealing with a younger population led to the established survey parameters. This was due to the increasing concerns in universities allowing research to be conducted with young people as the focal point (Morrow and Richards, 1996; Skelton, 2008). Moreover, there should be particular care when dealing with young people according to the British Sociological Association (BSA) and their statement of Ethical Practice (2002), which states, “Special care should be taken where research participants are particularly vulnerable by virtue of factors of age, social status, and powerlessness.” Furthermore, according to the British Educational Research Association (BERA), “care should be taken with interviewing children and students up to school leaving age [i.e 16 years]” (Balen et al, 2006). As the subjects involved would be under the age of sixteen, it would have necessitated further approval from the council, the schools, the parents, and the students themselves to allow participants. It would have set the time scale back on the research further in order to obtain the appropriate permissions.

Age and vulnerability were the primary reasons that the second phase of the research, the interviews, were conducted with adults, rather than young people. After discussions with members of the ethics committee, it was suggested that conducting interviews with adults involved in the lives of young people would be more appropriate in consideration of the vulnerability of the population of young people of interest to the study who had been victimised and cyberbullied, and who therefore needed to be protected from further potential stress and harm.

Williamson et al., (2005) found that in bullying and child protection-related research the “the notion of harm which is frequently used in this context, does not necessarily translate to an understanding of child protection” (p. 400). This is because the notion of harm has been defined as “ill-treatment or the impairment of health or development” (p. 401) according to the Children Act 1989. Furthermore, the researchers found that children did not recognise harm in this manner, leading to further difficulties in determining the abilities of
young people to maintain informed consent. Due to the vulnerability of the young people in question, issues with informed consent, and time constraints, it was determined that discussing these sensitive issues would be more appropriate with adults who worked with, and had close ties to, young people.

### 3.4.3 Pupil sample selection

Quantitative research encourages a randomly selected sample. As the research was initially interested in prevalence of cyberbullying in Glasgow schools, this resulted in all 30 public secondary schools in Glasgow being approached to survey students in years S2-S4. This was a manageable sample size and once approval had been obtained by both the University of Glasgow’s ethics committee and the Glasgow City Council, a letter of introduction to the research, along with a copy of the survey questions, and the council approval were sent to head teachers at all 30 secondary schools at the end of August 2012 with my contact details in full. The aim was to obtain 750-1000 respondents.

### 3.4.4 Recruitment

A month after the letters were sent out, in September 2012, there had been no response from any of the schools that were contacted. A second batch of letters were sent out in late September 2012 via both post and email and two schools wrote back stating that they were unable to assist.

Once again, letters (See Appendix 4) were sent out to all Glasgow secondary schools for a third time at the beginning of January 2013 (See Figure 3-1 for a timeline of events). Personal contacts and connections at the University of Glasgow were also employed to attempt to make contact. At this time three schools wrote back stating that they were unable to assist, and three responded that they would be interested in participating.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Years Surveyed</th>
<th>Total Number of Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 3-1 A breakdown of participating schools
The selection of schools was based on which school was willing to participate rather than a theoretical approach to selecting schools based on demographics, for example. The three schools that participated were random, but extremely similar concerning their resulting demographics, including their place in the league tables. Additionally, the three schools that participated were Catholic schools. This may be due to random chance, or perhaps the participating schools were more interested in learning about cyberbullying prevalence within their schools.

Glasgow Public Schools constitutes 30 secondary schools. The three schools that participated are referred to throughout this research as A, B and C for reasons of anonymity (See Table 3-1). The participation rate of Glasgow secondary schools came to 10%. Out of the schools that participated, the participation rate overall came to 38%, which is low given that a minimum of 60% is seen as acceptable (Robson, 2004). Other studies, such as Baruch (1999), found that the average response rate in academic surveys is 55%, whereas Nulty (2008) found that the average response rate for online/web based surveys was 33%, over 20% lower than paper-based ones. While the response rate was low (see Table 3-2), this did appear to be due to time constraints at the schools, as well as limited access to technology.

### Table 3-2 Participation rates per school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School A</th>
<th># of students</th>
<th># of respondents</th>
<th>% completed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td># of students</td>
<td># of respondents</td>
<td>% completed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th># of students</th>
<th># of respondents</th>
<th>% completed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>504</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Meetings took place with heads and deputy heads at each school to explain the process of surveying young people, in addition to what would be required of each school. Schools A and B had difficulties in encouraging all students to participate due to time constraints and as a result, response rates were low. School C was the most reluctant to participate and subsequently requested to complete the survey on paper rather than online, which the survey was designed for. This required an extended period of time to manually enter 250 surveys into the system. The data collection and data entry concluded in June 2013. Once all the data was entered, it was then analysed and reports were generated and sent to each school.

The survey was conducted in the spring of 2013, at the end of the school year using a secure online survey tool (SurveyGizmo).
The link was provided to the contacts at School A and School B, and the students who participated accessed the survey during appointed class times. It took approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. School C requested that the survey be done on paper. The survey was typed up, printed, and delivered to School C. Two weeks later, the completed surveys were collected. In total, three schools participated, with a total of 450 respondents.

### 3.5 Interviews

In this section interviews are discussed, including survey design, recruitment, and the procedure of interviewing teachers and educational professionals. Once I was aware that the quantitative data was not robust enough, this second phase of research was developed, thus creating a mixed methods study. It was understood that there would be difficulties in obtaining ethical approval to discuss cyberbullying with a representative sample of young people who had participated in the previous portion of the research. Therefore, it was decided that interviewing teachers with regard to their experience with cyberbullying would be the best possible solution. It was also decided that other educational professionals, such as youth workers, would also be approached in order to obtain a wider variety of responses and attitudes. The interviews would be the
best possible way to understand the point of view of the persons interviewed (Bryman, 2012).

In March 2014, I submitted my request to the University of Glasgow ethics (See Appendix 7) committee to interview teachers and other educational professionals on their experiences and attitudes towards cyberbullying. For reasons often outside of my control, the project was not approved until September 2014, six months later. Once approved, the recruitment and contact with the schools that were utilised in the first phase as well as with youth agencies were initiated, and interview appointments were made for November and December 2014.

3.5.1 Interview guide

According to Bryman (2012), producing a questionnaire or interview guide for interviews “allows the interviewer to glean the ways in which research participants view their social world” (p. 473). The questionnaire was designed to help answer the research questions, but also allowed for flexibility. This allowed for responses elicited from the initial questions, which then could be elaborated on further by participants (Bryman, 2012).

3.5.2 Recruitment

The purpose of the interviews of teachers and educational professionals was to explore the experiences of young people as witnessed and observed by them. The participants were selected using purposive sampling, allowing for those involved to represent individuals who have experience with the subject matter (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), in other words, dealing with cyberbullying and young people in this case.

Interview participants were recruited following a two-fold process. Head teachers or deputy head teachers in the schools (A-C) that participated in the initial survey were contacted and selected participants based on their availability and interest.
Recruitment for those who participated from outside agencies was conducted by utilising contacts within the University of Glasgow and through word of mouth. This allowed for the additional interviews of four individuals working in youth services (see Table 3-3 for participant information).

Table 3-3 Participant information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Pseudonym</th>
<th>School/Agency</th>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Recent CB training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Smith</td>
<td>School A</td>
<td>PT Pastoral Care</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Jones</td>
<td>School A</td>
<td>Teacher of Business/Computing</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. James</td>
<td>School B</td>
<td>PT Pastoral Care</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Price</td>
<td>School B</td>
<td>PT Pastoral Care</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Watson</td>
<td>School B</td>
<td>Head of Creative Arts</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Holmes</td>
<td>School B</td>
<td>PT Pupil Support</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Betts</td>
<td>School C</td>
<td>PT Pastoral Care</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Hill</td>
<td>School C</td>
<td>PT Pastoral Care</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Holt</td>
<td>School C</td>
<td>Pastoral Care</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Morgan</td>
<td>Catholic Liaison Agency</td>
<td>Director</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Barnes</td>
<td>Youth Work</td>
<td>Young People Coordinator</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Young</td>
<td>Youth Work</td>
<td>Support Worker</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Wright</td>
<td>Youth Work</td>
<td>Youth Worker</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5.3 Interviewing teachers

Once the schools arranged for participants to take part, a time was set and I travelled to each school for the interviews. Interviews were conducted with the use of an electronic recorder (Cresswell, 2007) in order to record what was being said with their expressed permission. They were carried out face-to-face in order to ensure any non-verbal communication was not missed (Cresswell, 2007). At the beginning of each session, each participant read the Plain Language Statement (See Appendix 10) and signed the consent form (See Appendix 11).
When this research project was developed, it was intended that teachers would be interviewed one at a time. However, when I arrived at each participating school, this was not possible and interviews at the schools were held with all teachers participating at the same time due to the time constraints of those taking part. For the same reason, these group interviews could take no longer than forty minutes.

Group interviews, such as focus groups are interactive group interviews, where the opinion of the group is as important as each individual group member. In addition, “the group itself may take on a life of its own not anticipated or initiated by the researcher” (Gibbs, p. 186, 2012). Focus groups also allow for the collection of a large amount of data in a relatively small amount of time, which was paramount in this particular case. While a questionnaire was used in order to guide the interviews (which became focus groups) (See Appendix 9), it was semi-structured to fulfil the research interest and inquiry (Kvale, 1996; Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

3.5.4 Interviewing educational professionals

Once the research had been approved, I made contact with a liaison at the University of Glasgow who had contact with various youth work agencies within the city of Glasgow. A request for assistance was e-mailed out, and respondents were asked to contact me if they wished to participate in the research. I made contact with several individuals and was able to make arrangements to interview four individual respondents. Given the way that respondents chose to be involved, this may affect generalisability, the way that the results can be generalised to the greater population.

I travelled to the workplace of two of the interviewees, and the other two were met at a mutually arranged location. Interviewees were recorded, personally interviewed, and all read the Plain Language Statement and signed the consent form to participate. Again, the questionnaire was used as a guide for the interviews and any school-specific questions were not addressed with these participants.
3.6 Data management

In this section, data management is examined. Furthermore, the ways and means that the mixed methods approach was analysed are outlined.

3.6.1 Surveys

Once the surveys were completed, the data was downloaded and transferred to a computer. A backup copy was saved on a memory stick for data protection in case of loss. All files were stored and backed up on password-protected devices. A copy of the results by school was generated from SurveyGizmo, which was provided to the contact person at each school (see appendix). Once this was completed, the survey was deactivated and deleted. The data was downloaded to SPSS to be analysed by the researcher. Chapter six details the results of the statistical analysis in full.

Frequencies and descriptive statistics were easily correlated within SPSS by exploring the differences between schools, years within schools, and gender. Without having age as an independent variable, this made generating higher-level statistics like Chi-squares difficult. Two new variables were recoded: younger (S1 and S2) and older (S3 and S4) to assist in statistical measures.

3.6.2 Interviews

The interviews were recorded using a digital recording device and were then downloaded to computer. A backup copy was saved on a memory stick for data protection in case of loss. All files were stored and backed up on password-protected devices. Due to time constraints, as well as assisting the researcher in understanding the verbiage and accents spoken, a paid transcriber was employed to transcribe the interviews in verbatim.

Due to the small sample size, the interview transcripts were analysed by hand. This was accomplished by initially identifying categories and themes (Merriam, 2002). Once these initial categories and themes were developed, it was determined that a second more formal approach should be undertaken. Using the phases of thematic analysis as illustrated by Braun and Clarke (2006), the
sequential list detailed by Miles and Huberman (1994), as well as the phases of coding as explained by Robson (2011), I was able to analyse, code, and develop the corresponding themes that emerged from the interview data. Coding allows for the examination of what has emerged from the data as well as the definition of the findings (Gibbs, 2007; Robson, 2011).

First, repeated readings of the transcripts were undertaken to ensure accuracy and understanding of the materials. This continued throughout the entire analysis process. I then began to take notes and highlight key words and phrases. This coding process was completed manually. NVIVO, a computer software package that is used to analyse qualitative data was not utilised in this research due to the small sample size involved.

Second, with each subsequent re-reading of the transcripts and the code words checked for accuracy, codes began to emerge from the coded data. Repeated readings were conducted for clarity and understanding. Codes were then grouped together and themes began to emerge. These themes were then reviewed. 12 themes were reduced to the seven that were developed into chapters four and five, by having some themes be categorised and utilised as sub-themes.

Then, a thematic map (see Figure 3-2) was created to help show how the themes and subthemes were interconnected. This also allowed for a visual representation of the process, and additional changes and moves were made to ensure the flow of the connected themes and subthemes.
Figure 3-2 Thematic Map

**Theme 1: Knowledge of cyberbullying by educational professionals**
- Understanding
- Recognition

**Theme 2: Differing levels of knowledge of social media/technology by respondents**
- Fear and apprehension of social media
- "Correct" usage of social media
- Does professional development impact knowledge?

**Theme 3: Widespread use of social media by young people**
- Culture of social media
- Safety concerns
- Dangers due to a lack of understanding by young people

**Theme 4: Role of the school**
- How to address Cyberbullying
- Responsibility/legality
- Proactivity/reactivity

**Theme 5: Emotional impact on young people**
- Mental health
- Lack of school engagement
- Extreme reactions

**Theme 6: The Catholic Ethos of the School**
- The school as family
- Values
- Dignity/respect

**Theme 7: Why do young people cyberbully?**
- Pressures on young people
- Unhappiness/insecurity
- Power
Lastly, the report was written up. The themes that were developed as part of this process were connected with the research questions, the relevant literature described in chapter 2, as well as the theoretical underpinnings of the research as also delineated in chapter 2.

3.7 Reliability and Validity

In this section, the reliability and validity for both the quantitative and qualitative portions of the research are determined.

3.7.1 Pupil Surveys

Online surveys are useful as they can collect information quickly and are cost-effective. The information can be collected and then analysed in an objective and scientific manner. The results obtained can then be used to compare with other empirical research within the field of study.

Researchers, according to Cresswell and Clark (2011) must design their research to reduce threats to both internal and external validity. Internal validity refers to the cause and effect relationship among variables. One threat to internal validity has to do with self-reporting on surveys. Participants may be untruthful, and may not self-report as a cyberbully, for example. Another threat to internal validity in cyberbullying research according to Vandebosh and VanCleemput (2008) is respondents may not consider definitions of cyberbullying. In order to improve internal validity, a common definition was provided at the outset.

External validity has to do with the extent of the results being applied to a larger population (Cresswell and Clark, 2011). As a result, in part due to the small sample size and the non-diverse sample of all pupils being from Catholic Secondary Schools, the findings in this study may not be able to be generalised to the larger population, but may be generalised to other Catholic Secondary Schools.

Using the results obtained from the survey along with the results of the interviews increased the construct validity of the research. The survey questions
were analysed in conjunction with the transcripts of the interviews, thus allowing for the comparability of data, which is known as triangulation (Cresswell and Clark, 2011), increasing the validity of the overall data.

According to Bryman (2012), reliability refers to the “consistency of measures” (p. 168). One way to determine reliability of a survey or questionnaire would be to re-test the sample as a measure of stability. This was not done due to time constraints and the difficulty that occurred in obtaining the initial sample.

Reliability also can be referred to as both internal and external reliability. Internal reliability was calculated using Cronbach’s Alpha, the industry standard in determining internal reliability of the data. While .80 is accepted as a sample having internal reliability, Westergaard et al., (1989) consider a value of .70 as satisfactory (p. 93). Three sets of questions were compared that utilised the same scale measure in their responses. The first set of questions that were compared were whether one experienced bullying at school versus being cyberbullied and resulted in Cronbach’s Alpha of .72. The second set of questions compared measured bullying via text versus bullying via email or online and resulted in Cronbach’s Alpha of .86. Lastly, being victimised by text versus bullying via email and online was compared and resulted in Cronbach’s Alpha of .79. With scores over the aforementioned .70, it can be assumed that there is internal reliability.

3.7.2 Educator interviews

Throughout the interview process the information was obtained first-hand and was obtained in both group and one-on-one settings. This allowed for the measuring of attitudes, obtaining the information in depth, and high response rates of those interviewed. Both settings allowed for both individual points of view as well as a collective view of the information being collected.

According to Cresswell and Clark (2011) qualitative validity means, “assessing whether the information obtained from the qualitative data collection is accurate” (p. 211). There are several procedures that can be utilised for qualitative validity. One such procedure is triangulation, where the data is collected via multiple methods. In this study, the interviews were carried out
with both teachers and youth workers, allowing for the triangulation of the data. Another approach is to have others examine the data (Cresswell and Clark, 2011) once it has been collected and transcribed, which was also done for this research by an individual not affiliated with the research. As stated in 3.7.1, the quantitative data was also triangulated with the interview transcripts.

Furthermore, validity in qualitative research also refers to establishing trustworthiness (Guba and Lincoln, 1985). Trustworthiness incorporates the following aspects in determining validity: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Credibility allows that the findings have reflected the views of those interviewed, rather than that of the researcher (Guba and Lincoln, 1985). Credibility was accomplished through member checks of the data and transcripts ensuring that there was an understanding between the researcher and the “constructed realities” (Guba and Lincoln, p. 237, 1985) of the respondents. Transferability refers to how the findings can be applied to other contexts. In this case, given the small sample size and the fact that the research was conducted in within Catholic Secondary schools, it can be speculated that these results may not be applicable to other secondary schools, but would be applicable to other Catholic Secondary Schools. Dependability allows for consistent findings and was done by keeping a “detailed chronology of research activities and processes” (Morrow, p.252, 2005) throughout the research process. Finally, confirmability allows that the “findings should represent, as far as is (humanly) possible, the situation being researched rather than the beliefs, pet theories, or biases of the researcher” (Gasson, 2004, p. 93). This was accomplished through the rigorous thematic analysis process as described in 3.6.2.

3.8 Ethical considerations

In this section, the ethical concerns and considerations that were undertaken are elaborated. When undertaking any research project, it is necessary to follow ethical guidelines that are set out by the researcher’s establishment (Bryman, 2014; Cresswell, 2014). In this case, the researcher first applied to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) (Cresswell, 2014) of the University of Glasgow for ethical approval for both phases of the research. This involved completion of
the ethics application forms, which guaranteed compliance in data handling, privacy, and issues of informed consent of participants. Second, approval was also necessary from Glasgow City Council in order to approach the schools, and took place after the university had approved the research project.

Survey participants were assured that they could choose to opt out of doing the survey at any time, and that all responses were anonymous. As no identifying markers were collected in the survey, the Glasgow City Council and the three schools that participated were assured that privacy would be respected. With regard to the paper surveys that were employed at School C, it was assured that once the copies had been entered into the survey database they would be shredded and destroyed. Points of contact at each school also received a copy of the summarised data points for their own use.

Lastly, interview participants were provided with a copy of the Plain Language Statement (See Appendix 10), which they were allowed to keep for reference. They also signed and dated the consent form (See Appendix 11) and they were assured that any responses quoted within the context of this research would be kept anonymous and they would be provided with a pseudonym. They were also assured that at the conclusion of this research project and subsequent thesis write up and defence, these consent forms would also be destroyed.

### 3.9 Role of the researcher and reflexivity

While reflexivity has often been found to be problematic (Finlay, 2002), it is also necessary when reflecting on the research process. While undertaking the study in Glasgow made geographical sense, it also put me in a position of not having insider status. Insider status in research refers to being a part of the group that one is studying and is frequently found to have both positive and negative connotations, especially with regard to qualitative research (Dwyer and Buckle, 2009).

As I am not a native to the UK or Glasgow, I was unaware of the local power structure and school organisational hierarchy, and who to contact to get the initial research started. I spent a lot of time and effort sending emails and
letters, and not enough time asking questions and making phone calls. Without this insider status, I spent more than six months trying to make contact, something that with insider status would have taken far less time.

On the one hand, this lack of insider status resulted in the change to a mixed methods approach, which improved the project overall. However, the lack of insider status with regard to the qualitative portion of the research led to further issues, such as difficulty in understanding the speech patterns of respondents. This ultimately led to the necessity of hiring an outside contractor to transcribe the interviews, as frequently the language was hard to decipher.

Additionally, I believe it is also important to consider reflexivity as introspection. While I have personal experience in both issues of bullying and cyberbullying, I worked diligently to not allow my personal feelings and bias to contribute or influence the outcome of this study. This was particularly challenging when conducting the interviews, as I often felt a kinship or connection with the stories being shared. Therefore, I attempted to focus on what was being said, rather than allowing my own voice to take over the experiences being shared (Finlay, 2002).

Finally, I believe that while being an outsider of the subject community was a hindrance at the outset, it also served me well as the research process continued and evolved. It allowed me to maintain subjectivity in analysing the quantitative data and allowed me to step back as far as possible when it came to listening to the qualitative interviewees, as well as analysing and coding the interview transcripts.

### 3.10 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to explore research methods and methodologies and issues that impact on research design.

This chapter introduced the paradigm selection of the researcher, which influenced the subsequent choice of method, quantitative methods. This then emerged to a mixed methods design. Following that, the design of the quantitative portion of the research, the survey was illustrated, including the
creation of the survey, obtaining approval to conduct the research, and survey administration. Once the conduction of the survey concluded and the discovery of the initial findings emerged, it was clear that a second phase of research would need to be carried out. This led to the qualitative data portion of research; the semi-structured interviews. An explanation of the design and process of carrying out the research was described, followed by how the data was transcribed and analysed for discussion in Chapters 4 and 5.

The following chapter details the first themes that emerged from the qualitative data. The qualitative data is being presented first, despite the fact the research was conducted after the survey, due to its ability to help understand and explain the survey data more fully.
Chapter 4
Educators and Cyberbullying: A New Challenge

4.1 Introduction

While the act of cyberbullying usually occurs during out of school hours (Beale and Hall, 2010; Shariff, 2008; Smith et al., 2008), the harmful effects of this form of exclusion are visible throughout the school day (Willard, 2007). The widespread utilisation of social media as part of the exclusionary process enables young people to victimise those who are seen as others or outsiders by stigmatising them (Elias and Scotson, 1994) online. Teachers are not just teaching, but they may also face the challenges of young people who are distracted by exclusion via cyberbullying, social media and technology, thus affecting them academically and socially (Li, 2008). Furthermore, given their experience in engaging on social media sites, young people are able to use this knowledge, making them the technologically “established” group who are able to engage in online activities that their teachers have limited knowledge and experience in understanding.

In this chapter the findings are presented on educators and cyberbullying and how they are handling the challenge. This chapter addresses research questions two and three that are both concerned with how young people use social media in relation to cyberbullying and how they experience cyberbullying. This chapter also addresses research question five which focuses on how educators handle the challenges of cyberbullying. While the interviews were conducted after the survey data was collected (See Chapter 6) it was important to present the findings that arose from the interviews at the outset as they help explain and support the quantitative findings. Several main themes emerged from the analysis of the data collected through interviews with teachers from the three schools in this study (see Chapter 3) and educational professionals employed by local youth resource agencies to further enrich the data collection, as explained in Chapter 3.
This chapter addresses how technology is influencing cyberbullying and how educators are handling the challenges of cyberbullying. It begins with an analysis of the first main theme (4.2), the varying degrees of knowledge concerning cyberbullying of educational professionals. The subthemes addressed under this include the differing approaches to understanding and recognising cyberbullying behaviours.

The second theme explores the differing levels of knowledge of social media and technology (4.3), as used by young people today. The subthemes addressed include fear and apprehension of social media, “correct” usage of social media, and how professional development and training courses have affected educator understandings of social media.

The third theme (4.4) further examines the widespread usage of social media as it relates to cyberbullying and how and why young people have adopted this particular approach today. The subthemes addressed include the culture of social media and its importance in the lives of young people, safety concerns, and how a lack of understanding of social media by young people could impact their lives.

The final theme addressed in this chapter (4.5) is the role of the school in addressing issues of cyberbullying and social media abuse. The subthemes include how schools deal with issues of cyberbullying, issues of responsibility and legality, and how schools can be proactive rather than reactive.

### 4.2 Varying degrees of knowledge of cyberbullying by educators

As was seen in Chapter 2, understanding, recognising, and defining cyberbullying has not been an easy task. There are many definitions in the literature, not to mention the changing face of the technology and social media landscape, which leads to difficulties in understanding and recognising cyberbullying related incidents. Therefore, it was important to explore participants’ knowledge of cyberbullying and how they were able to recognise issues related cyberbullying, such as usage of social media.
As stated previously, cyberbullying is “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” (Tokunaga, p. 278, 2010). Cyberbullying was seen as an extension of traditional bullying by the participants. It was perceived as a prevalent and pervasive part of the lives of the young people whom they work with on a daily basis. While it was found to be an issue of high importance, the way in which it was perceived differed in terms of the philosophical and the practical aspects. Teachers and non-teacher educators also perceived cyberbullying differently. In this section, the varying attitudes of teachers and non-teacher educators are discussed concerning their understanding and recognition of cyberbullying.

Out of all of those who participated, only one respondent provided a definitional answer to the first question that was asked: “How do you understand and recognise cyberbullying?” This suggests that interviewee understandings and, subsequently, their recognition of cyberbullying is rooted in their own experiences in dealing with the phenomenon in school, their personal experiences, as well as how cyberbullying is portrayed in the media.

Between the two groups, there were varying levels of understanding of what constitutes cyberbullying. Some teachers and non-teacher educators were clear in their explanations of how they understand and recognise cyberbullying.

Ms. Jones (School A):
It's just the same as an ordinary bullying incident, but it’s done through the mobile.

Ms. Barnes (outside agency):
It’s bullying that occurs on an online format or at some point in the bullying process occurs in an online format because obviously it can progress.

Mr. Smith (School A):
It’s very easy for somebody to fire away a quick comment and start chipping away at their self-esteem and their confidence.
Ms. Price (School B):

Pupils can approach any member of staff if they feel they’re being bullied, whether it’s cyberbullying or other types of bullying.

Ms. Hill (School C):

We often deal with incidents relating to bullying or comments that have been made on social media sites maybe over the weekend or during the evening.

With the exception of Ms. Barnes, who works with youth at an outside agency, there was no explicitly stated definition of what cyberbullying is by teachers or other youth workers. However, it is clear from the responses that the act of cyberbullying itself is understood as something that is brought to their attention by students and sometimes parents, and that takes place online on social media and is connected to this technology. While these views show understanding, it was surprising that a more operational definition was not given, as a clear definition of what constitutes cyberbullying is a part of all of the relevant materials related to bullying and cyberbullying at each school. These include bullyproofing materials and as well as materials related to the Glasgow schools’ anti-bullying policy.

Despite the lack of explicitly stated definitional understandings, teachers were able to recognise cyberbullying, especially when it was brought directly to their attention, which was a common and frequent occurrence. It is clear from the responses that their ability to recognise cyberbullying was heavily influenced by the information given to them by their students as these excerpts illustrate.

Ms. Watson (School B):

You’re relying on the pupil telling us what they think’s happened. They might say ‘somebody has text me with this’ or ‘something is on Facebook.’

Ms. Holt (School C):

Young people, quite often girls, are the ones that bring our attention to cyberbullying.

Mr. Wright (outside agency):

I’ve had a handful of reports in the past six months. You know, maybe one a month that they are actually coming to me. This is because I’m
preparing young people with the told to where they actually go for help when it happens. So more young people are probably more equipped to go to their teachers when it happens.

The way in which recognition occurs has an impact on both student and teacher. Students who report issues of cyberbullying felt comfortable approaching teachers with the incident that had occurred or is occurring. However, what stood out was the fact that not one educator stated that they were concerned about a young person who had withdrawn or were experiencing issues within school or outside of school, as was discussed in Chapter 2. It is unclear from the interviews why this was the case. However, the way in which cyberbullying was pointed out to teachers may be related to this, along with the way that they understand and perceive cyberbullying, social media, and technology.

4.3 Differing levels of knowledge of social media and technology by educators

In this section, the differing levels of understanding of social media and technology are discussed. The impact of the manner that cyberbullying is recognised is closely tied to the way in which social media usage is understood and, to a lesser extent, used by teachers. The following excerpts illustrate educator knowledge regarding social media.

Overall, teacher knowledge and understanding of social media was low. Many expressed a lack of knowledge of some of the more popular sites and terms that are being used by young people, as well as terminology regarding social media and technology related to social media and Internet usage.

Mr. James (School B):

You mentioned ASK.FM. Well, I’ve had a couple of incidents. I don’t know about yourself, Ms. Price.

Ms. Price, Ms. Holmes, Ms. Watson (School B):

I’ve never heard of that.

Ms. Watson (School B):
What’s IP?

While it is understandable that teachers may not be aware of all of the social media sites and terminology being used by young people, the discrepancies are wide. These statements made by teachers are also problematic when taking into account their own understanding of social media, which is generally low to average.

Mr. James (School B):

I think it’s just gone too far; maybe it’s my age.

Ms. Watson (School B):

We don’t understand it, really.

Ms. Betts (School C):

They text or they Facebook or the MS-. I don’t know half of the sites now.

Three quarters of the teachers at School B were unfamiliar with most social media; only one had heard of ask.fm and none of them had heard of Tumblr. Moreover, none of them used social media themselves, though teachers at Schools A and C were more familiar with sites like Facebook and Twitter.

Ms. Betts (School C):

We really maybe should be kept up to date because it’s massive.

They acknowledge that they have a lack of understanding, yet there was no mention of any initiative taken to alleviate this knowledge gap, despite the awareness of the problem. The implications due to the suggested knowledge gap are clear from the responses, as teachers are aware of the continuing concerns of technology and social media usage.

In contrast, non-teacher educators understood how social media sites worked as they themselves used them and encouraged young people to be safe while using social media. They spoke with familiarity about Facebook, ask.fm, Instagram and other social networking sites. Mr. Wright, for example, explained how he had been conducting workshops on Internet safety to primary school students, and
Ms. Barnes had also been involved in training young people on Internet safety.

Mr. Wright:

Technology and social media, and other forms of communication or instant communication, is now more widely available to young people than it’s ever been, even going back to 2002.

While all teachers were not completely knowledgeable of social media, they did understand that there was reason to be concerned for young people regarding its usage. Teachers expressed their fear and apprehension over social media, showing their concern and warning of its usage by their students.

Mr. Smith (School A):

You know, you say to the kids, ‘don’t go near Snapchat. It’s, as the campus officer will say, it’s ‘full of bad folk’ because it’s instant. And we try and say, ‘stay away.’

Ms. Hill (School C):

We warn them that they are distancing themselves using social media.

Ms. Holt (School C):

You could end up being on these websites like the Lad Bible and stuff like that that comes up on Facebook.

Respondents illustrated the impact of this fear in two ways. First, they perceived the usage of social media sites such as Snapchat as being dangerous and filled with people who wish young people harm. Second, the extensive usage of social media by young people is also causing them to distance themselves by focusing on Internet and social media communication as the primary way in which they communicate with one another.

Additionally, teachers also brought up “correct” usage of social media as a concern.

Ms. Holmes (School B):

Facebook’s a great thing but only if it’s used correctly.

Ms. Hill (School C):

They put photos up of people and get people to comment on them or saying nasty things about, I've had that as well.
Ms. Holt (School C):

They use the sites but they don’t really understand the sites. [...] And they are very surprised to see photos of themselves coming up in Google images and links to all sorts of things that they’re involved in because they forget how much they’re joining up things, putting their names to things.

The issue with educators’ emphasis on the correct usage of social media is that this is a subjective judgment. Young people may believe that they are using these sites correctly, despite their educators’ opinions.

Understanding how social media sites work in addition to how these sites are used in cyberbullying and the exclusion of younger people appears to be correlated with training. Cyberbullying awareness training for both teachers and non-teacher educators was split between those that had no training at all and those who had undergone recent training. Teachers at School A had recently completed Child Exploitation and Online Projection (CEOP) training. CEOP training is provided to teachers and others who work with young people to help increase child safety online. Teachers at Schools B and C had experienced no training in recent years. It is worth mentioning that the two teachers from School A also were familiar with social networks and technology.

While their experiences with young people were vastly different, those who worked for youth organisations had received training concerning cyberbullying and were familiar with social media and technology. Ms. Young had recently undergone CEOP training at her place of employment at the time of the interview, while Ms. Barnes had taken several professional development courses and was also trained to teach others about issues pertaining to cyberbullying.

There was awareness by some outside agency respondents that training has not caught up with the pace of technology.

Mr. Morgan (outside agency):

From my understanding, which isn’t full, but I can compare it to my own teaching background that technology has moved faster than teacher training and education.
Dealing with cyberbullying and its many different facets is a challenge that both teachers and students are being confronted with. Students are often wary to approach teachers about these issues because they are unsure if there is anything that they can do, and often because teachers are unfamiliar with the means and the technology. One teacher shared, “and they [Glasgow City Council] were telling us about the changes to some of these websites. And maybe teachers need a wee bit training regularly about the different sites, because we don’t use them.” They continued to discuss some of the more popular sites, Facebook and Twitter, and most confirmed they did not use them personally or professionally. The combination of lack of training as well as not using social media in their personal or professional lives appears to be a factor affecting their unfamiliarity.

Having addressed the differing levels of understanding of social media, along with the differences in training that respondents have attended, the next section addresses young people and the culture of social media and how it has permeated their lives.

4.4 Young people, cyberspace and the culture of social media

In this section, the theme of young people, cyberspace and social media is examined. The subthemes addressed in this section comprise the culture of social media and its importance to young people, safety concerns, and how young people’s lack of understanding of social media can seriously impact their lives. Throughout the interviews conducted, it was evident that respondents felt that young people were interacting primarily through the use of social media, a change that has occurred within this younger generation of students. It was clear that many of those interviewed did not understand the reasoning behind this, nor was there a lot of familiarity of the sites being used to socialise and engage in cyberbullying behaviours. However, these changes in the ways that young people interact with one another are occurring and it is up to professionals to be able to recognise these changes and how they impact the lives of young people.
Despite not always fully understanding the technology and terms, as explored in the previous section, teachers were able to understand the importance of the role that social media and technology has in the lives of young people.

Mr. Smith (School A):

We do recognise that given today’s kids with their gadgets, their phones, iPods, mobile, laptops, all that kind of thing, they’re on Facebook, Snapchat.

Ms. Jones (School A):

The phones are attached to them.

Ms. Watson (School B):

They’ve never known a world or anything different.

Ms. Price (School B):

I think if they could, they would have their phones in their hands twenty-four/seven if they could.

Ms. Hill (School C):

Young people are much more au-fait with these sites and how to access other people than we are. It’s a different culture nowadays and it’s very much a part of their world.

Ms. Holt (School C):

It’s very difficult for them to escape from that culture even if they want to because a lot of it is the way they contact one another nowadays.

As such, the responses indicate that educators are aware that this new culture has come hand in hand with different concerns that need to be addressed, such as safety.

Ms. Jones (School A):

Although they have access to all these things they don’t really know how to use them and set up the security that should be on it. It’s trying to educate the kids and keep them safe from being potential victims.

Ms. Holt (School C):

We warn them that they should never say anything that they wouldn’t actually be brave enough to say to someone’s face.
Additionally, teachers were concerned about how young people engage with each other online, especially when they feel that it was being used inappropriately or in ways that caused harm to others. They often faced scenarios where they were put into the position of having to explain and educate why the interaction that had been carried out was unsuitable, unsafe, and was considered cyberbullying.

Mr. Smith (School A):

A lot of our senior children have had fake websites set up in their name. And a lot of cyberbullying is taking place. A lot of fake websites, I think Mr. X’s dealing with it. And there’s about three that I know of with the personal details on it and it’s obviously someone that knows them. And saying really horrible things like rest in peace.

Ms. Watson (School B):

It was everybody else jumping on the bandwagon and everyone having an opinion and everybody taking this slight really personally. It literally snowballed; it was a post on Facebook and then the friends of the pupil in the show tagged that person (and he had never even met her). Because he was tagged they all [his friends] saw it. And people then tagged each other saying ‘Have you seen this?’ ‘Who does she think she is? I’m going to kick her head in!’

Ms. Betts (School C):

It was a really inappropriate page. And he was naming people on it. And we spoke to him about it and we warned him. We did say it was going to become a police matter. I think that it was reported to the police and the page was taken down, but the boy in question couldn’t quite understand why it was such a big issue.

Quite often these discussions led to dealing with parents, the police or both, in order to make sure that the victims were being assisted properly and being kept safe, and that the perpetrators were also being dealt with appropriately.

Ms. Holmes (School B):

They had all got carried away with sitting in their bedrooms on their phones. It wasn’t typical of what their personality would be, but they let the heat of the moment take over them, and the things they were writing were quite awful. Really quite threatening that if you said it to a young person, you’d get some form of repercussion; it was a threat. And I don’t think the young people realised that it could be traced back to them. They got carried away with themselves but they were responsible for these comments of a quite threatening nature. [...] We had to involve
parents and the parents were astounded that was what their son or daughter had written.

Ms. Holt (School C):

We have to make it clear that we don’t have a lot of control over what they [the students] are doing in their homes and the parent might need to monitor their use of Facebook or whatever sites they’re on. Sometimes we have to advise the parent it may be a cause of blocking and deleting and if that isn’t working then it’s a case of raising it with the police, because our hands are tied.

From the responses, there is a clear indication of frustration and concern about the online activities of young people. At the same time, there is also an understanding that this is the way in which young people communicate with one another today. However, teachers acknowledged that their control is limited, as they are unable to monitor the online lives of their students. There was a strong indication that parents needed to take a greater part in monitoring the online activities of young people. While the scope of this research did not involve parental roles, there was a concern about the roles and activities of parents as they relate to cyberbullying and the online lives of young people. It was suggested by educators that either parents have a limited role in monitoring young people, or they are also engaging in similar behaviours as their children.

It was also felt that young people were so wrapped up in their online lives that they were not communicating with their parents about issues that were occurring.

Ms. Holmes (School B):

I think as well it’d be interesting to know if all the parents of these young people know all these sites they’re on. Because how many parents go in and check their kids Facebook account?

Ms. Hill (School C):

Their parents don’t know and they won’t tell their parents because they don’t want their phone taken from them or their computer taken from them.

As such, it is clear that young people are protective of their online lives. They also want to maintain their connection to their friends and the outside world through the use of their mobile devices and their computers. However, when it
comes to issues of safety, there is evidence for keeping communication open with their parents and teachers.

### 4.5 The role of the school

As explained in the previous section, the culture of cyberbullying has permeated the lives of young people and is having an impact on their daily lives, including their academic experience. Given that the culture of the lives of young people has changed and will continue to change as technology evolves, it is important to look at the role of the school regarding social media and cyberbullying, especially concerning issues of legality and proactivity in dealing with arising concerns.

Addressing who is responsible for handling cyberbullying has been a point of contention due to the fact that in most cases, cyberbullying is occurring outside of school. Nevertheless, teachers are called on to deal with the issues that have been brought to their attention by students, and in some cases, parents.

*Mr. James (School B):*

> A parent would contact you if there have been incidents over the course of the weekend. And they’re contacting us because it may impact on the children’s interaction when they come to school.

*Ms. Hill (School C):*

> We often deal with incidents relating to bullying or comments that have been made on social media sites, maybe over the weekend or during the evening.

Additionally, those working in outside agencies often suggested bringing issues regarding cyberbullying to teachers in order to have them investigate and address these concerns.

*Mr. Wright (outside agency):*

> The advice I give young people is not to be quiet and to speak to an appropriate adult. [...] Generally most times it would be go to the school teachers.
Once an issue had been reported to them, teachers felt it was necessary to address the issue. This was true of incidents occurring outside of the school day, which is generally the time during which cyberbullying occurs, as students are not allowed to use their mobiles during the school day.

**Ms. Hill (School C):**

We take it very seriously and deal with it in the same way as we would deal with a bullying incident in school. We write it up in our bully proofing policy sheet. And then we would involve all of the people named and investigate it the way we would investigate other matters, and contact the parent.

Once teachers are made aware of the cyberbullying incident, school and city procedure states that it must be investigated. While it was expressed that all bullying and cyberbullying incidents were investigated, those interviewed ultimately believed that in addition to teachers, other agencies need to share the responsibility of handling these situations. Teachers clearly felt pressured to deal with the issues of cyberbullying that were brought to their attention, but felt that it should not be solely their responsibility. They understand that it has become their responsibility due to school policy; however, they felt parents, police, and the companies who own social media sites should be the ones responsible for dealing with these issues.

**Mr. James (School B):**

I mean responsibility of parents, good parenting. Parents have got to have a role as well.

**Ms. Price (School B):**

And also the responsibility of these companies. They are pulling in mega money. They’re making absolute fortunes, you know.

**Mr. James (School B):**

And what are they doing about, what’s the government doing about it?

**Ms. Hill (School C):**

It’s not the school’s responsibility at this stage anyway. To punish people who are using Facebook; it’s not a school issue. It’s not about school. It’s about what’s been said out there.

How Internet and social media companies handle cyberbullying is not addressed as part of this research. However, it is evident that there are concerns regarding
how these companies are protecting young people from victimisation, and perhaps why they do not have a greater role in handling these matters. It could be suggested that perhaps the respondents felt that it was easier to lay blame on the sites used by young people, rather than address the shortcomings in their own knowledge and training as described in the previous sections.

Respondents were also concerned about issues of legality. While teachers understood it was necessary to address issues of cyberbullying when they were brought to their attention (following the anti-bullying policy) there were concerns about who was ultimately responsible for dealing with these issues overall: the police, the government, or the companies that own social media sites. Any incident that was inflicted in order to cause harm, based on disability, sexual orientation or transgender identity, should have been reported to the authorities on the basis of the Offences (Aggravation by Prejudice) (Scotland) Act 2009. Additionally, the Communications Act of 2003 protects against any cyberbullying act:

Sending by means of the Internet a message or other matter that is grossly offensive or of an indecent, obscene or menacing character; or sending a false message by means of or persistently making use of the Internet for the purpose of causing annoyance, inconvenience or needless anxiety is guilty of an offence liable, on conviction, to imprisonment. This wording is important because an offence is complete as soon as the message has been sent: there is no need to prove any intent or purpose.\(^5\)

Despite this, teachers were vague about bullying incidents and how they were handled, police involvement or not.

Mr. Smith (School A):

And with cases of cyberbullying, nine times out of ten, you know, you’re involving the police, you know, cause they, they want to get and crack down on it as well. . . . If they want to pursue it, they will go down the line and use the campus officer to help them. Nine times out of ten the kids will just say, ‘do you know what, I’ll just block them from my site.’ And blocked, they can’t get access to me, and it stops.

When asked later about the repercussions of cyberbullying, the police were again mentioned.

\(^5\) http://www.gov.scot/Topics/Education/Schools/HLivi/behaviour/legislation
Ms. Jones (School A):
I think it’s cautions now that the police are trying to do rather than...

Mr. Smith (School A):
They’ll get a talk about, how they shouldn’t be doing it. And how it can affect their future if they were to get a police record.

Particularly when discussing a matter of cyberbullying that had occurred at their school, teachers brought up police involvement.

Ms. Betts (School C):
And so we spoke to him about that and we warned him. And we did say it was going to become a police matter. Now I’ve got to be honest I think that it was reported to the police and the page was taken down.

Ms. Hill (School C):
I often recommend the police. Do you know what I mean because it’s an offence?

Those working with outside agencies also shared their concerns over issues of campus police and the legal issues within their organisations.

Mr. Wright (outside agency):
I think it’s sad that there has to be a case where there is an actual police officer based on site. However, the few instances that I’ve got to know a campus police officer, they are there in the right reasons. They are supportive of young people. . . . .And then the legal structure round about where if a boy does get caught sending a photograph, let’s just say, of his girlfriend, to another boy, it’s then a sex offenders cause because he’s passing on imagery of a child.

Ms. Young (outside agency):
I think that’s what they were stressing here, is the police can become involved in this as well. It is serious enough to warrant in doing that. But people don’t really realise that. They think, ‘oh it’s just kids. It’s just young people.’ But it’s not, really.

While the role of the authorities was not a focus of this research, it can be speculated that the involvement of the police was not meant as a means to punish the perpetrator of cyberbullying, but to address issues of safety for the young people in their care.
When I asked what the impact was on the young people experiencing these issues, I was told that as far as they knew, if it had become a police matter, that was where the responsibility of the school ended and if they had any additional information, the teachers were not forthcoming. This seemed to be the case at all three schools. Once the issue had been dealt with, especially if the police had been involved, the school officially stepped back from the issue. In cases where the issue did not warrant authority involvement, the teachers try to sit down with the affected parties and have an open discussion. Mr. Smith (School A) elaborated:

You're looking at your parents being brought in and you’re discussing it with the parents, ‘look this is what your, your son or daughter is done’. As I say they think, they’re pretty horrified at the fact that they’ve done that or didn’t realise you could do that. That’s, that’s what tends to happen. And if required, they would get an exclusion or a suspension. That’s extreme. Or if the other parents or the other pupils want to, you’ll involve the police and they’ll get a talk from the, the campus officer or charged, I would imagine.

Once the issue was deemed to be resolved either by those involved or the school, the schools felt they no longer had a role in dealing with the issue. A teacher at School C said that it was out of their hands once the issue was resolved.

In terms of proactivity, the focus was on assisting young people in remaining safe online by educating them to the best of their abilities.

Mr. Smith (School A):

So we do recognise it is a problem and we try and educate the kids as best we can to say, ‘Look this is happening. Keep the evidence, there’s people that can help you.’

Ms. Jones (School A):

I decided this year to develop a new unit for S2 because listening to their conversations last year and the kind of things that I overheard; I thought ‘they don’t know enough.’ Mr. Smith and I both went on a CEOP course and I brought some of that back to the classroom.

Ms. Betts (School C):

As part of the Health and Wellbeing course we will cover cyberbullying.
Mr. Morgan (outside agency):
I think there needs to be more systematic education of children and young people so that they realise the harm and so that they are able to resist joining in [to cyberbullying].

While there was evidence of some proactivity, most respondents felt they were reacting to the incidents of cyberbullying reported to them, rather than getting ahead of them before they started.

Mr. James (School B):
You’re then having to pick up what’s happened at the weekend and try and make sure that the children are not falling out within the school.

Ms. Holt (School C):
Young people, quite often girls are the ones that being our attention to cyberbullying.

Ms. Hill (School C):
An awful lot of our time is spent trying to make sure what’s going on out there on Facebook doesn’t come into the school.

Mr. Wright (outside agency):
The teachers get the young people involved immediately the next morning, even though this [cyberbullying] was happening outside of school hours. It was curbed pretty quickly. They’ve got the network of support and the way of dealing with it in place.

Reacting to the challenges of cyberbullying appears to be the case in most situations, as they appear to continually occur. While the respondents were not fully proactive, they do represent a small percentage of teachers who are working with young people in these schools and the instruction of cybersafety is perhaps beyond their realm of responsibility. There was evidence that best practices were being used to the best of their abilities, although the lack of training for teachers may also be a factor in this area as well.

4.6 Summary of findings
This chapter has addressed the experience of cyberbullying from the perspective of educational professionals. There is evidence that educators are able to understand and recognise cyberbullying, but the scope appears to be limited to
having the issues brought directly to their attention, rather than actively deducing that a young person is experiencing difficulties and that it may be related to online victimisation. It has also addressed varying degrees of knowledge of social media by educators, the wide spread usage of social media by young people, as well as the role of the school in dealing with both cyberbullying and social media.

First, participants expressed varying levels of knowledge regarding cyberbullying. Levels of understanding differed between all demographics of participants: by age, by school and between school personnel and educational professional personnel. Out of all respondents, only one provided a definitional response, however, this may be related to the way the question was worded rather than the lack of knowledge by those interviewed.

Following the teacher responses, evidence showed that all teachers had familiarity and general awareness and understanding of what constitutes cyberbullying. However, teachers at School A had by far the most knowledge and understanding of cyberbullying out of the teachers who were interviewed. Moreover, with exception of the teachers at School A, older teachers appeared to have limited knowledge of cyberbullying and frequently relied on pupils to bring their concerns to them, rather than being able to recognise these without prompting.

On the other hand, educational professionals from outside agencies had a greater knowledge of cyberbullying and were able to discuss the issues fluently. While they may have had less day-to-day experience with handling the issues themselves, they were able to both understand and recognise the issues clearly.

Furthermore, there were varying degrees of social media knowledge and understanding. All respondents had an understanding of social media and how young people generally used it. There is also evidence, however, to show that teachers had a great deal of fear and apprehension when it comes to social media and online activities. It was also understood that social media was used for communication and photo sharing amongst peer groups and friends. However, knowledge about specific sites and applications used by young people
was limited overall, especially concerning teachers. Many of the popular sites and applications were not known or heard of by teachers, nor did they understand why they were being used apart from the aforementioned reasons. Despite the general lack of knowledge, surprisingly, teachers often felt that there was a correct way to engage in these sites and activities.

Moreover, misconceptions were prevalent among teachers. They often were unfamiliar with basic terminology like internet protocol address (IP), in addition to not knowing how easy it is to set up a fake Facebook profile or establish a blog or a website, as these things take little technical knowledge in the present climate. Additionally, there was widespread fear around social media usage by young people.

In contrast, it appeared that those who work outside of the school involved in youth work have greater knowledge of social media and the online activities of young people today. There are indications that less professional development training concerning cyberbullying and technology of respondents correlated with a lack of understanding and knowledge of student usage of social media, and social media and technology in general. It was also found that both students and professionals could benefit more training in the dangers of cyberbullying and how to use social media safely and appropriately.

The majority of teachers had not experienced training and were very aware that the lack of training had an impact on their knowledge of cyberbullying and their ability to recognise social media sites and applications. Moreover, they understood that young people held the upper hand in experience and usage of social media and technology.

While many interviewees did not understand the logic and reasoning behind their students’ use of social media, they were able to recognise the importance that social media and technology plays in their lives. Teachers especially felt the cultural difference between themselves and their students and their pre-occupation with social media.
The school has a role in addressing these issues and maintaining the safety of the pupils in attendance. Schools need to continue to be proactive rather than reactive in handling issues surrounding cybersafety and work with other shareholders in the lives of young people to meet the needs of both school and pupil. The teachers appeared to be aware of this issue. Despite the difference in “digital nativeness” between teachers and young people, there was still a concern for their online safety and well-being of their pupils. Teachers especially were frequently put into a position where they needed to explain that the online interactions that were occurring were not appropriate. Teachers often had to take action, which frequently included contacting parents and in some case the authorities, in order to ensure online safety.

Finally, the role of the school was discussed, particularly its part in issues of responsibility, legality, reactivity and proactivity. While it was found that most instances of cyberbullying and exclusion took place outside of school, teachers were often pressured to deal with them by students, parents, and other educational professionals who encouraged young people to bring these issues to the attention of their teachers. Moreover, teachers often felt pressured to deal with these issues, even when they felt they were out of their purview, and that parents, police, and the companies that run social media and technology sites needed to have a greater role in dealing with issues of cyberbullying.

With this comes an issue of legality. This is a particularly complex issue, as determining who is ultimately responsible for dealing with cyberbullying is circumspect. As young people have often gone to their teachers for issues related to traditional in-school bullying, cyberbullying has followed a similar path.

More complexities are added to this when dealing with issues surrounding disability, sexuality, sexual orientation, and transgender identity according to the Offences (Aggravation by Prejudice) (Scotland) Act 2009. Despite this being the law since 2009, respondents were vague about how issues brought to their attention may or may not have been handled with respect to the law.
While teachers were also able to pinpoint where they were proactively addressing issues of cyberbullying, such as in health and wellbeing courses, it was evident from responses that the majority of the cases are handled in a reactive manner. Incidents are usually brought to their attention, pupils and parents, if necessary, are interviewed, the police are involved, if necessary, and then the issue is considered and dealt with.

The majority of the research surrounding teachers and social media is related to those who actively use social media in the classroom to engage their students. There is little data regarding knowledge of social media and technology and much of what is available refers to teachers who engage in collaborative practices with their pupils and other educators in the classroom.

4.7 Discussion

This chapter examined the experience of cyberbullying from the perspective of educators. Issues related to knowledge, recognition and understanding of cyberbullying and social media were explored, along with how young people engage on social media. The findings suggest that the Established and Outsider framework can be applied as a means to understand the possible motivations behind the exclusionary practices. Elias and Scotson (1994) imply that gossip and stigmatisation are used to tarnish the reputation of those considered outsiders; a similar process utilised by young people engaging in exclusion and gossip on Facebook.

The role of the school as it pertains to cyberbullying was also presented. Although cyberbullying is a phenomenon that is widely recognised due to its portrayal in the media (Davis et al., 2015), the findings show that teachers especially have limited knowledge and understanding of both cyberbullying and social media, unlike their educational professional counterparts. It is clear from the interviews that this is due to a lack of training. There were also negative perspectives and portrayals of social media utilisation, which again appeared to be due to a combination of factors including lack of knowledge and training.
Teachers were upfront about how cyberbullying incidents were handled by the school. However, they were vague about any repercussions, such as emotional or behavioural issues resulting from a young person being involved in a cyberbullying incident (Cassidy, Brown and Jackson, 2012). The findings also suggest that teachers interviewed believe that the school should not be as involved in addressing issues of cyberbullying, rather that it was a matter for the police, the government, or social media corporations.

These findings have revealed that issues of cyberbullying are greater than the interpersonal or intergroup struggles of young people. Teachers especially play a role in the lives of young people and if they are unable to conceptualise and understand the issues being faced (Byers, Caltabiano and Caltabiano, 2011), this may increase the already significant levels of young people either not reporting or underreporting victimisation (Prince and Dagleish, 2010; Stauffer, Heath, Coyne and Ferrin, 2012; Yilmaz, 2010).

While the victimisation may be occurring outside of the school day, as many interviewees expressed, the effects of the cybervictimisation are carrying over into the school day (Willard, 2007). It has been suggested that the school community is an important factor in combating issues of exclusion and the school should be playing a crucial role in combating cyberbullying (Eden, Heiman, and Olenik-Sherman, 2013) rather than foisting the issues to the police or outside agencies.

It is evident from the interviews that the lack of training is the crucial factor in addressing all of the aforementioned issues. Providing training in cyberbullying prevention strategies as well in how cyberbullying is perpetuated (Cross et al., 2009) would provide the background that was missing by the majority of interviewees.

Following the Established and Outsider framework, it is the young people who hold the established position, due to the fact that young people are digital natives who increasingly live their lives online and on social media; a digital gap (Greenhow, Robelia, and Hughes, 2009). This allows young people to continue to perpetuate cyberbullying and engage on social media furtively, as teachers are
often unaware of these activities. In contrast, you have teachers who are uncomfortable with or are reluctant to use technology and social media, and as a result find it difficult to understand the jargon that is being used by young people in addition to the frequently changing social media sites that they use as well, making them “outsiders.”

The next chapter builds upon these findings with the exploration of the impact of cyberbullying on young people from the perspective of these educational professionals and further expands on the theories discussed in chapter two to help explain and understand why cyberbullying is occurring among young people.
Chapter 5
The Impact of Cyberbullying on Young People

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the findings on Educators and Cyberbullying: A New Challenge were presented and discussed. The purpose of this chapter is to address the remaining themes that were identified through the interviews conducted with teachers from the three schools that were utilised in the quantitative results, as well as through the interviews that were carried out at local youth work and resource agencies.

The impact that cyberbullying has on young people has been found to be varied throughout the literature. It has been found that young people may experience depression, anxiety (Patchin and Hinduja, 2011; Shariff and Holt, 2007; Ybarra and Mitchell, 2004), and poor academic achievement (Hinduja and Patchin, 2007; Smith et al., 2008) as well as many other symptoms related to being both cyberbullies and cybervictims. Elias’s research offers insight into those engaging in cyberbullying as exclusion. Young people find themselves distracted by the lure of social media as a way of maintaining their established position, while victims may experience emotional difficulties as a result of being stigmatised. While the respondents interviewed could not specify the long-term impact on their students in many of these cases, they were able to give their perspectives on how the young people in their classes cope with cyberbullying as well as the impact that the exclusionary behaviour has on their mental health. There may be some repetition carried over from Chapter 4, as it is necessary to revisit some aspects of cyberbullying in order to discuss its impact thoroughly.

This chapter seeks to evaluate the impact of cyberbullying on young people from the perspective of educational professionals. It addresses the following research questions: Why do young people cyberbully? How do young people utilise social media in relation to cyberbullying? How are young people experiencing cyberbullying? How are educators handling the challenges of cyberbullying? The
beginning of this chapter focuses on the themes that emerged from the interview data dealing with the emotional impact on young people today (5.2), including issues of mental health, lack of school engagement, and extreme reactions to cyberbullying. Second, (5.3) the ways in which the Catholic Ethos of the school has shaped the responses to cyberbullying is examined. Last, this chapter addresses why young people engage in cyberbullying and exclusionary behaviours (5.4). Why young people engage in exclusionary behaviours is presented in this chapter as it concludes the qualitative research and understanding the motivations that lead to cyberbullying can lead to greater understanding of the impact of the behaviour. The themes that emerged regarding why young people exclude one another include the pressures on young people, including peer and societal pressure, unhappiness and insecurity, and power.

5.2 The emotional impact on young people

In this section the impact on the wellbeing and mental health of those affected by cyberbullying is discussed. While teachers were seeing the daily impact of exclusion, non-teacher educators seemed to take a greater interest in the wellbeing of the young people they worked with, perhaps because they could see the situations differently, especially since their roles were different to that of teachers. They also seemed to be more aware of the emotional and long-term impact on those involved in bullying and cyberbullying activities. For reasons of confidentiality, the scenarios that were brought up in the interviews were vague and at no time were any identifying markers mentioned about the individuals who had experienced cyberbullying.

Cyberbullying largely is thought to have an impact on the mental health of the victim as well as the bully. Those who have experienced cyberbullying as a bully or victim have often experienced deterioration of their mental health, including depression, anxiety, and instances of self-harm. The following excerpts from teachers illustrate some of the ways that young people have had their mental health impacted through cyberbullying.

Ms. Betts (School C):
I would say we’ve got several young people under pressures. I think we’ve seen an increase in self-harming.

Ms. Holt (School C):
It’s at the stage where it consumes their thoughts for a large part of the day.

Ms. Hill (School C):
There’s a cry for help going out a lot with young people.

Ms. Betts (School C):
It’s often vulnerable children who are targeted or vulnerable young people are targeted on these sites.

Teachers witness the impact that cyberbullying and victimisation is having on the mental health and wellbeing of their students. Young people are affected by cyberbullying victimisation and it is causing emotional upheaval, anxiety, self-harm, and sleep disturbances. This is especially a concern for young people who may already be particularly at risk for such behaviours beforehand. Perhaps due to issues of confidentiality, respondents seemed to be reluctant to share more details about how young people fared after issues of cyberbullying. It may also be due to the fact that after the issues were resolved, teachers felt they had to recover and overcome what had happened. Whether or not mental health issues occurred after the fact is not known in this case, however, it has been found throughout the research (see Chapter 2) that these issues may take time to develop after experiencing cyberbullying.

On the other hand, non-teacher educators were able to elaborate more on some of the mental health issues that young people were experiencing. In a more detailed scenario, Mr. Wright (outside agency) discussed a cyberbullying situation that he had been made aware of. He encouraged the victim to bring it up at school, which she did. He said that both parties were spoken to and their families were called in to discuss the situation, and that the entire situation was resolved within twenty-four hours. When I asked if there were any repercussions after the fact, he said that the issue ended up highlighting the fact that this incident of cyberbullying was an extension of the physical bullying that had been going on in school. He concurred that there were issues that remained after the
case was technically closed, ones that were affecting the mental health of the victim.

It’s the whole mental health deterioration of it. It’s the symptoms that you can’t see. It’s the negative effect of how it affects them and their, and every aspect of their life, be it their confidence, be it their self-esteem, be it their ability to want to go to school. Be it their ability to learn. Be it their ability to mix with others.

It is again evident that young people are experiencing issues with mental health as a consequence of victimisation. These mental health issues have long lasting effects that range from confidence issues to school attendance and often continue long after the bullying or cyberbullying has ended. Mr. Wright and those who work for outside agencies are witnessing this deterioration and how it is impacting young people after the school day is over, and have been able to see first hand that the impact is greater than the incident that has occurred.

Ms. Young (outside agency) also was very concerned about mental health effects on those that were bullied, especially her son who had been victimised both in school and online. She reiterated that the impact was long-term and on going, especially as the issues were not being addressed fully by the school. She explained:

But you’re keeping an eye on, but there are obviously changes and different things, mood swings, whatever else. Then I had the extensive, which had never occurred before, bedwetting [. . .] And they said this was their coping mechanism, or not coping with what was actually going on with them.

Her son became withdrawn, depressed, and began to wet the bed at night, something that had never occurred before. Stakeholders in her son’s mental health explained that this was a way that young people cope with the strain that they are experiencing when they have been bullied. This example illustrates the toll that cyberbullying takes on the mental health and wellbeing of young people who have been cyberbullied.

Increasingly, it has been found that young people have been having more extreme reactions to cyberbullying in addition to self-harm, as mentioned in the previous section. Some have attempted suicide, while some have actually
committed the act. While this had not occurred at the three schools that participated, they were aware that these issues were occurring.

Ms. Watson (School B):

I mean let’s be truthful, when you get to the situation of suicide and stuff like that, it’s not on.

On the other hand, those who worked for outside agencies had some experience with young people who had attempted suicide or experienced suicidal ideation.

Ms. Young (outside agency):

Another incident I’m thinking of, somebody I dealt with at a young age was near enough suicidal because they were in a relationship and something got posted on Youtube.

The most extreme illustration was that of a young girl that Ms. Barnes (outside agency) worked with. The young person in question had been bullied at school and online through the social media site ask.fm. This situation unfortunately escalated due to the anonymous nature of the site, combined with its ability to be linked to individuals’ personal social media accounts if they so chose to allow this. Ms. Barnes explained how the cyberbullying occurred:

...everything that you have on ask.fm; all these social networks are all kind of linked now. So if I post something on my Twitter it goes on to my Facebook. So if I post something on ask.fm it’ll go on to my Facebook. So therefore it can then spill over to people who don’t use ask.fm but see it on Facebook. And they had commented on individuals going in and kind of fanning the flames a wee bit.

The information was shared across multiple platforms (ask.fm, Twitter, Facebook); therefore, the risk to the young person increased as many individuals, including people she knew directly, witnessed the victimisation. Ms. Barnes elaborated further about what happened to the young victim:

And the girl had spent an extended period of, I think it was, about three or four months in hospital after she’d attempted suicide as a result of bullying through the ask.fm site.

This was clearly an extreme reaction to the victimisation that occurred. Young people are clearly experiencing cyberbullying and the repercussions of this exclusionary behaviour. However, the majority of these young people were
shown to persevere after the bullying occurred. While suicide and parasuicidal thoughts do occur in young people who have been cyberbullied (see Chapter 2), this appeared to be an isolated incident with respect to these interviews.

This incident did have an impact on the victim, her family, and her friends. Once she had recovered, the victim did not return to school. Ms. Barnes shared that “the school didn’t feel the need to continue to provide support for her.” She felt that the school should have done more in supporting this student and in getting her the assistance and support she needed to return to school. She also felt that the school had done a disservice to this young person and that there needed to be more awareness of the impact of cyberbullying. Additionally, Ms. Barnes shared that the victim’s group of friends were badly affected by the cyberbullying and suicide attempt, as well as her family.

As in the above scenario, many interviewees were concerned with how social media usage and cyberbullying was effecting school engagement. The students are so distracted by their mobile phones and Facebook pages that their focus is not on their academic work. Young people were also coming into school exhausted because they were staying up late on their mobiles and tablets.

Ms. Betts (School C):

They can’t concentrate in school because the phone is such a temptation.

Ms. Price (School B):

In the first weeks of school we spoke about attendance and how it’s important to look after yourself and sleep and everything like that. So we were having a general conversation and it’s like what do you do when you are in your rooms at night, and your mum and dad think you’re sleep? They were on their phones. They were on tablets. I mean it’s twenty four seven.

Ms. Hill (School C):

You can see why young people are stressed to the max sometimes. And it’s because they cannot get away from it. They don’t get a minute’s peace. And partly it’s because they won’t allow themselves but I think it’s a very difficult thing for them to deal with cause they’re naturally going to check who’s saying what. And that just creates absolutely mayhem sometimes.
Mr. Wright (outside agency):

It’s following into their home life, into their bed routine. And it’s affecting them as soon as they open their eyes before they even get to school.

These findings illustrate the distracting effect that social media usage and cyberbullying is having on young people. Social media usage has become rooted in their lives and is affecting them when they check their email and texts in the morning and throughout the day, and continues to impact them after school when they return home.

Additionally, when young people are experiencing cyberbullying they often withdraw from school, peers, and family. Teachers shared that they had pupils who did not want to attend school due to the online harassment they were facing. The cyberbullying was clearly having an impact on both their mental health and education by the distraction of their mobiles and social media accounts.

Ms. Holt (School C):

I have pupils who are saying...they’re not coming into school because they’re being bullied. And when you dig in, the person that’s maybe doing the bullying doesn’t even come into school either. They’re doing it over Facebook and social media. So...it’s also about...anxiety and...I think an awful lot of them are under more pressure because it’s constantly there. It’s the bit that I was saying, they don’t get away from it. It’s always with them.

Teachers are also seeing the changes and distractions of social media and cyberbullying as young people are continually pressured and distracted by the allure of texts and Facebook. As it is such a large part of their lives in addition to how they communicate with their peers, many are unable to part from the distraction. They find themselves sneaking their phones out during or between classes. This in turn causes issues with school engagement as they are distracted and unable to focus in school, or are continually distracted with what occurred online the previous evening.

Mr. Smith (School A):

It’s like Pavlov’s dogs, the phone goes, they pick it up automatically and then we’re saying ‘What are you doing with that in class?’
Mr. James (School B):
They are not allowed to use their phones during classroom time. Technically, a lot of them do use it at, during the breaks. But they don’t have access to the Internet in the school.

Ms. Watson (School B):
It’s such a natural thing for them that they probably do it subconsciously. They would have their phones out in every class if we allowed them to. You know, you see them walking down the stairs from class and they’ve got their phones in their hands checking it.

Whether subconscious or not, young people are engaged in social media and their mobile phones that has been likened to addictive behaviour by respondents. The distractions are clearly prevalent and pervasive and are another challenge that both students and teachers must deal with on a daily basis.

Overall, it is evident from the interviews that young people are increasingly involved in online communities and social media. They are especially vulnerable to the pressures of what they experience online, in addition to pressures of their peers and the pressures of society. The impact goes beyond hurt feelings caused by a comment on their Facebook wall, but to depression, anxiety, withdrawal from every day situations and school, as well as suicide in the most extreme cases.

It is clear from the responses given that the distractions caused by social media are concerning to the educators who are dealing with these issues every day. Some of them described their students’ behaviour as addictive, as young people were reluctant to let their mobile phones out of their sight as well as staying up into the early hours of the morning using social media. These behaviours are most concerning to respondents. As will be seen later, some of these behaviours can be linked to why young people engage in exclusionary behaviours.

Having discussed the emotional impact of cyberbullying on young people, the next section addresses how the Catholic ethos of the school impacts how the schools and participants handle issues of cyberbullying.
5.3 The Catholic ethos and cyberbullying

The three schools that participated in this research were Catholic schools. Additionally, one of the individuals from the outside agencies was a former Catholic Head Teacher. It was important to determine whether or not being a Catholic school or the Catholic ethos itself, as the interviewees described it, was a factor that could impact how cyberbullying was handled and treated within these schools.

Despite the differences found in faith-based schools versus state schools, none of the respondents felt that the fact that the schools were religious schools affected their approach to addressing cyberbullying in particular. Rather, it was suggested by the interviewees that the Catholic ethos of the school was what affected their approach to all challenges that young people were facing.

One contributing factor was that the school community is akin to a family.

Mr. Smith (School A):

It’s got to do with the whole school ethos and how we approach things. That’s all the way through the year groups. And it’s about the kids recognizing that ‘ok, you’re here during the day and that we’re a family.’

This may allow young people, who are feeling particularly vulnerable or experiencing issues of cyberbullying, to appreciate their school as a safe place where they can talk about the issues that they are facing. Mr. Smith elaborated further:

It’s how we approach it in here with the kids. And I think the kids might appreciate it. They realise that ‘ok things might be a bit chaotic at home or my mum and dad’s at work.’ They appreciate the fact that the staff will talk to them and the teachers will talk to them and treat them the same as they would treat their own kids.

The view here is that the school is an extension of the family for the young people it serves. Teachers and staff are there to help counsel young people who may be experiencing issues that they feel they cannot address at home. While these sentiments may seem to differ from some of the comments that were made in regard to dealing with issues of cyberbullying in Chapter 4, it is evident that the teachers interviewed genuinely cared for the students that they worked
with. This spirit was echoed and recognised by the other two schools, showing that they still aimed to instil respect as a core value in the lives of their students.

**Mr. James (School B):**

It’s the Catholic ethos that you’re trying to instil in the children, you know. They talk about gospel values and how to treat people and stuff like that.

**Ms. Hill (School C):**

But certainly everything that drives the way we operate within the Catholic sector is adherence to the gospel, values about respect, and about nurture. Nurture is one of the things that this school is moving forward on. And it’s about respecting the individual. Helping to bring the individual to a realisation of what other people needs are, that type of thing. And that’s very much what comes with, within the Catholic sector. But that’s not to say it doesn’t happen in other schools as well.

**Mr. Morgan** also felt that it was about dignity and respect, and that these are the values that should be emphasised when it came to dealing with issues of cyberbullying.

In the Catholic school, the way that should be explained and understood is that the, is that there are reasons why it’s wrong. And it’s not just wrong because it’s wrong. It’s wrong because it, it contradicts the basic understanding that we have that every person’s life is precious. That each person as a child of God, if we use the language that we would use, and is made in God’s own image and likeness. And because of that deserves absolute respect. We’re not naive enough to, to teach that we would all love each other consistently but irrespective of that, we should respect other people and we should certainly not be harming them in any way. Every person deserves to have their dignity protected. So that kind of language is quite important in that young people kind of understand it’s not just a school rule. It’s because the nature of what it is to be human.

Respondents illustrated that the ethos and values were present within the school and shared with young people through the curriculum, and in the ways in which issues were handled within the school. Whether or not the young people chose to act and live the message of the school ethos was the challenge.

**Mr. James (School B):**
You’re at least mentioning that [the ethos and gospel values] to the children. You’re trying to get them to live their lives that way. Whether they actually do and whether it impacts on cyberbullying, maybe that’s a grand claim. But it’s a possibility.

This viewpoint shows that there is an understanding of the fact that teachers are trying to instil these values within their students; however, they are not too naive to realise that their values may not be shared by young people today. Ms. Watson elaborated further:

I think it’s very much a generational thing. And although as Mr. James says that you’re trying to instil that ethos and gospel values, the way of the world now is technology. And I don’t even know if young people have that thought process before they do whatever they are going to do.

This statement symbolizes what is occurring in these schools. Teachers are doing their best to instil the Catholic ethos and gospel values in young people today. However, young people today are focused on technology and their thought processes may not involve thinking about respect and dignity before replying to a comment on Facebook or Twitter.

Finally, all three schools felt that it was part of their ethos, as well as their inherent values to deal with cyberbullying from a position of compassion, dignity, and respect. Despite the Catholic ethos found in the schools that took part in this research, it seemed that a focus on respect in general was key in helping address any issues of bullying or cyberbullying in schools.

In the next section, why young people engage in these behaviours is discussed. In doing so, it is important to keep in mind the impact that exclusion has, as the motivations behind young people’s participation in exclusionary tactics, such as cyberbullying, is addressed.

5.4 Why do young people engage in cyberbullying?

The last question asked in each interview was “Why do you think young people bully and cyberbully?” This question evoked a lot of discussion and a variety of responses from both the teachers and educational professionals. The consensus among participants was that this was a difficult and profound question that had
more than one answer. In this section, why young people engage in bullying behaviours is determined, with a focus on the themes and subthemes that emerged from the interviews.

As was stated in Chapter 2, determining the reasons why young people bully is a complex and multifaceted problem. One of the themes that emerged related to the pressures that young people are facing today. They are facing pressures to look a certain way, behave a certain way, and attain status symbols, such as certain mobile phones or brands of clothing and shoes in order to gain approval from peers. These beliefs were shared both by teachers and educational professionals.

The pressures for young people to look a certain way have an impact on their behaviour. These pressures come from the media as well as their peers, who may even be in competition with one another to meet certain standards.

Mr. Wright (outside agency):

You’ve got to look a certain way. You’ve got to have a certain thing to be; you’re under pressure to have Addidas trainers, to have Nike trainers.

If young people fail to meet these standards or choose to stand out, they often face ridicule and bullying.

Mr. Morgan (outside agency):

I can think of a couple of young women in schools who were being bullied because of their appearance. At the time they were dressing as moshers. They wanted to dress and wear makeup and so on. And they had a really difficult time with that. It was for them a kind of badge of identity that they were establishing for themselves. They were deliberately putting themselves apart from the others and didn’t like the adverse reaction understandably.

These standards are not limited to the clothes that young people wear. Frequently, the status symbol that is used is the mobile phone.

Ms. Holmes (School B):

I can’t believe first and second years in this school have the same phone as me. I’ve got the latest technology. And you think ‘you’re twelve years old and you’ve got a £600 phone in your hand.’
Ms. Holt (School C):

They have to be seen with the latest phones and the latest gadgets.

The argument presented illustrates that young people experience increasing pressures to acquiesce to the pressures of both peers and society. These pressures do not solely pertain to the acquisition of technology and status symbols, but also to how young people use technology. While pressures may differ for boys and girls, the need to conform to these pressures is similar.

Mr. Wright (outside agency):

The sexting issue is hugely on the increase. And you know what, I could be here another four hours talking about that to do with the pressures on young girls to why they feel the need to be having to send the images on in the first place.

Mr. Wright’s view, which was shared by others, is that girls are increasingly pressured to send provocative images. He was unclear as to who was pressuring them to do so overall, female or male peers. While it may be a combination of both, it was clear that the pressure was found to be increasingly from males, as Mr. Wright elaborated further.

I could go on hugely to do with why young women feel the need and the pressure to be portrayed in a certain way or to send images onto young men and how young men depict females in general.

Both young men and women are pressured to conform to these behaviours within their peer groups by sharing inappropriate images online. The pressure that young people felt from their peers appeared to be far-reaching and widespread.

Mr. Morgan (outside agency):

In today’s world peer pressure seems to be the dominant factor that determines behaviour.

Ms. Barnes (outside agency):

However there is, in my opinion, a massive peer pressure to participate within bullying.

Ms. Watson (School B):
I think there’s a gratification with it as well because sometimes bullying is seen as you’re dead cool and to inflate your own ego perhaps or to make your peers, sometimes young people, hopefully not adults but they might think that they will get some form of sort of pat on the back.

Mr. Wright (outside agency):

Kids get brought up in it with so many pressures put on them to look and behave in certain ways. And if you stand out from that it’s easy, you’re easily picked upon.

Moreover, they are also pressured by society to behave in these ways.

Mr. Wright (outside agency):

Let’s just say that the availability of porn and the state of advertising and society and the way it portrays women and society putting on these pressures.

Ms. Barnes (outside agency):

Because they look at the media and they look at the twisted perceptions of females in the media. And that’s where this is coming from. It’s coming from a place of low self esteem and self confidence because people are taught now to fit into a system and be part of a system and not be an individual within a society and to not give themselves any more value than they would give anyone else.

As such, it was felt that cyberbullying, as a form of exclusion was an issue that had to do with society as a whole. Respondents felt that the bullying behaviours exhibited were learned outside of school, be it from parents, peers, or society.

Ms. Young (outside agency):

It can be a bit of learned behaviour, what they’re seeing at home.

Mr. Wright (outside agency):

Generally the way, society makes us competitive. Generally the way, we live in a greedy look after number one society that kids look for weaknesses in others. To be better than other people in some way or other.

With society and technology changing and evolving, Ms. Barnes believed that something was missing in the lives of young people as “it’s about the social and emotional; the holistic approach to parenting. Something’s missing somewhere for those children to end up bullies.”
Unhappiness and insecurity was also seen as motivation for engaging in cyberbullying behaviour. Some respondents believed that exclusion occurred as part of a survival instinct, especially if the young person had been bullied before. Some thus felt that adolescents resort to bullying due to unhappiness.

Ms. Young (outside agency) felt that bullies were unhappy:

So if something’s not right in their life and they, I feel that...something they’ve no got control over or whatever, for whatever reason or something that’s going on in their life that’s affecting them. So they then translate that out in another form. And quite often it comes out in the form of bullying.

Insecurity was another possible reason considered by the respondents. “It’s insecurity for a lot of them,” shared a teacher at School C. Ms. Barnes elaborated and said that it was “because they’ve not had their own support and stuff like that that they needed in their lives.” Similarly, Mr. Morgan felt that it is done “out of a sense of vulnerability themselves or inadequacy in order to assert a position out of fear that they might be bullied” and in doing so, they felt that “to get in first, you strike first.” From these comments, it is clear that the interviewees felt that the young people that they had worked with were often vulnerable and at risk, leading them to believe they that they needed to act out in order to keep from being bullied, or to assert their dominant position among their peer group.

One way in which young people are able to assert their dominance is through the use of power. Power is a key concept within the dynamic of both bullying and cyberbullying.

Mr. Morgan (outside agency):

What the technology has done, as I said, has made it easier to get the word out quicker because if someone is only bullying really when, they exert that power and then they proclaim it to somebody else, they share it with somebody else. They encourage others to join in.

Power in the cyberbullying dynamic shows a form of inequality between the victim and the perpetrator.

Mr. Wright (outside agency):
We don’t live in a society where everyone is equal.

This power is often lauded over in the forms that have already been discussed, such as societal pressures on young people. These pressures yield the behaviour of exclusion.

Mr. Morgan (outside agency):

The reasons for the behaviour are just the same. It’s about me imposing my behaviour and my authority over you, and trying to render you helpless, really.

As stated in Chapter 2, power and how it is yielded is important in dealing and understanding issues of bullying and cyberbullying. This power, perceived or otherwise, is another component of the bullying and cyberbullying dynamic and is used as another way to denigrate.

Overall, the respondents felt that this was a challenging question brought forth, as it was considered a complex problem with many variables, and that each bullying or cyberbullying occurrence has different motivations. Generally, it was believed that there was most likely more than one possible reason that cyberbullying was occurring and that a combination of factors is responsible for the phenomenon.

5.5 Summary of findings

This chapter has explored the impact of cyberbullying from the perspective of teachers and education professionals. Again, the schools involved (Schools A, B, and C) were the same schools where the original research took place, as illustrated in Chapter 4. Others who were interviewed came from youth organisations and outreach programmes. These youth organisations and outreach programmes serve young people in Glasgow in a variety of ways, for example, by offering sports activities and supporting vulnerable youth. Insights into what young people are experiencing were discussed and much of what was said confirmed what is already known. Overall, it is ascertained that young people are dealing with cyberbullying on a daily basis and that it is invasive as well as pervasive.
The first section addressed the emotional impact on young people in relation to cyberbullying. This included the subthemes of mental health impact, lack of school engagement and extreme reactions to cyberbullying, including suicide. While all of the information was garnered from the interviews with teachers and educational professionals, it is still clearly evident that cyberbullying has an impact on all of those involved, especially the victim.

This impact can range from general malaise and upset to depression, anxiety, and self-harm. The emotional impact affected their lives overall, not just at school. It was also found that the mental health impact was not something short lived, but had a long-reaching impact on the lives of young people, and ranged from depression to self-harm to suicidal ideation.

The most severe reactions from cyberbullying were those of suicide and suicidal ideation. There were a few occasions where this was addressed by the interviewees. This is troubling, showing that the impact of cyberbullying is severe and can be costly to the lives of young people. However, following the accounts of the interviewees, incidents concerning suicide have been found to be isolated.

Out of numerous concerns that were raised, the issue of school engagement was one that was considered most prevalent. Young people were found to be extremely distracted by their mobiles and social media accounts. This distraction was found to be impacting their sleep, as they would be online late into the night, which would in turn affect their ability to pay attention and focus throughout the school day. This affects their academic lives, as young people are spending an increased amount of time online and/or worrying about what is occurring on social media at home and during the school day.

Furthermore, as the three schools involved were Catholic schools, investigating whether or not the Catholic ethos had any impact was necessary. However, this was much more difficult to determine. It was felt by respondents that the ethos and community of the schools made teachers more approachable in the eyes of students. Moreover, respondents felt that the school was a community akin to a
family where young people had many they could reach out to if they were in need. It was also felt that the values of dignity and respect were being instilled via the curriculum and the ethos of the school to the best of their abilities. However, the unknown factor in this is whether or not young people are recognising the ethos and values instilled by the school before engaging in exclusionary behaviours.

Finally, there were diverse and varied responses from the educational professionals concerning why young people bully. Pressures on young people accounted for one of the reasons it was felt that young people exclude their peers via cyberbullying. These pressures ranged from those that are placed on them by peers, such as looking a certain way or having a certain type of mobile phone. Media and social media also play a role in the way pressure impacts young people. It influences their behaviour and the status symbols such as mobile phones, which they use. These status symbols, or lack thereof, are often used as reasons to exclude. This is similar to the way traditional bullying took place, only now the exclusion is being carried out on Facebook walls.

Another subtheme as to why young people cyberbully is unhappiness and insecurity. Whether this is a result of societal changes or individual problems, it was felt that young people were unhappy and perhaps engaged in bullying to feel better about themselves or to improve their station in their peer group. Similarly, insecurity was also mentioned, where respondents felt that young people may fear exclusion and strike out first, as a bully, instead.

Finally, power was another subtheme concerning why young people cyberbully. It was felt that power was used against another individual in the bullying dynamic, that a young person would be attempting to impose their will over the victim through exclusionary tactics and cyberbullying.

Most respondents agreed that a combination of one or more of these factors was most likely the case. It was also felt that this was an on-going issue that was not limited to this generation of students. Bullying has been around for centuries: only the ways and means to do so have changed.
These educators face challenges of educating young people, while simultaneously dealing with the challenges of cyberbullying in their classrooms. Often, victims are troubled or fearful, and teachers have to take time away from learning activities to address these issues (Eden, Heiman, and Olenik-Sherman, 2013; Li, 2008; Yilmaz, 2010).

Overall, those interviewed felt that the young people in their care were good people and teachers especially felt that the Catholic ethos of the school helped them to develop into caring young adults. Those who worked for outside agencies saw young people in a different way, as they experienced them in an setting external to the school environment, and saw them dealing with these issues without any religious connotation, but navigating a complex world that, as adolescents, they may not understand fully.

5.6 Discussion

Again, this chapter explored how cyberbullying impacts young people from an educator perspective. The analysis of the impact has revealed that the implications for cyberbullying are associated with a lack of school engagement (Darden, 2009; Espinoza and Junoven, 2011; Hinduja and Patchin, 2007; Price and Dagleish, 2010; Shariff and Strong-Wilson, 2005; Smith et al., 2008), mental health issues (Beran and Li, 2005; Huang and Chou, 2010; Kowalski, Giumetti, Schroeder and Lattaner, 2014; Patchin and Hinduja, 2006; Patchin and Hinduja, 2011; Shariff and Holt, 2007), and in some cases suicidal ideation (Hinduja and Patchin, 2010; Patchin and Hinduja, 2012; Schneider, O’Donnell, Stueve and Coulter, 2012). Furthermore, young people are distracted by their involvement in social media for both socialisation and exclusion. It can be surmised that those involved in acts of exclusion via social media feel the need to connect with other established members, not just to exclude those considered outsiders, but to continue to reinforce their established personalities with each other. This appeared to be occurring to those considered outsiders, such as vulnerable pupils or those perceived as different in some manner (Elias and Scotson, 1994).

Respondents felt that the Catholic ethos of the schools involved allowed for the spirit of the Gospel driven community to be available to young people. Whether
pupils shared these values is unknown, although respondents understood that pupils might not share these values they attempted to instil.

The findings show that the motivations for engaging in bullying behaviours were wide ranging and most likely due to a combination of factors including pressures on young people, (including peer pressure), unhappiness and insecurity (Hoff and Mitchell, 2009), and power (Dooley et al., 2009; Kowalski et al., 2008; Olweus, 1993; Olweus et al., 2007). While no psychological or sociological theories were directly purported by interviewees, given the discussions that arose regarding the causes of bullying behaviours, the findings reinforce the established versus the outsiders (Elias and Scotson, 1994) in addition to out-group abuse (Hoff and Mitchell, 2009), as being means to understand these behaviours, especially in the realm of girl escalated bullying.

In the following chapter, the quantitative data will be presented and analysed. The survey findings will also be compared with the results found in this chapter and from Chapter 4.
Chapter 6
The Prevalence of cyberbullying

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the survey on cyberbullying that was administered for this research. It addresses the following research questions:

*How do young people utilise social media in relation to cyberbullying?* How are young people experiencing cyberbullying? *How are educators handling the challenge of cyberbullying?* The data focuses on the outcomes that were obtained through data analysis using SPSS. While this portion of the research was conducted first, it is being presented in this chapter so that the results that were obtained from the qualitative research as described in Chapters four and five can be combined with the survey results to provide confirmation and further elaboration of the findings.

The prevalence of cyberbullying has been found to be varied throughout research. The victimisation rate has been reported from as low as 2% to as high as 72%, and rate of cyberbullying as a whole globally has been found to be 15% (Hinduja and Patchin, 2014). In 2013, it was reported that the victimisation rate in the UK was 38% (Sellgren, 2014), whereas in Scotland specifically, the rate was found to be 16% according to Respect Me, the Scottish Anti-bullying service (2011).

Despite the magnitude of research conducted on cyberbullying prevalence, determining whether males (Ackers, 2012; Anderson and Hunter, 2012; Edur-Baker, 2010; Hinduja and Patchin, 2009) or females (Connell et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2013; Merrill and Hanson, 2016; Schenk and Frewmou, 2012) are more involved in the behaviour is uncertain. From the perspective of those interviewed in the previous two chapters, girls are the ones who have engaged more frequently in exclusionary practices. Through the theoretical lens of Elias’s Established and Outsider relations, understanding cyberbullying as exclusion as it relates to gender can be employed.
The chapter begins with a (6.2) focus on the prevalence of cyberbullying in the three schools, including how it compares with rates of traditional bullying. The following section addresses the social media and technology (6.3) that young people are accessing. The fourth section (6.4) addresses the instances of bias bullying and cyberbullying reported, including bullying related to religion, race, gender, and sexual orientation. The fifth section (6.5) addresses attitudes and opinions that young people have in regard to cyberbullying, including how they think their schools are dealing with the challenge.

Three Catholic secondary schools in Glasgow allowed their pupils to take part in the survey portion of this research project. The total population of the schools came to 1157 pupils, and 450 surveys were returned. There were 128 respondents from School A (28%), 82 respondents from School B (18%), and 240 respondents from School C (53%). Of these respondents, 210 were male (47%) and 240 were female (53%).

Students from years S1-S4 took part and out of the 450: 36 were from S1 (8%), 206 were from S2 (45%), 124 were from S3 (28%), and 84 were from S4 (19%).

While age was not a demographic that was recorded by the survey, the variables were recoded to obtain a better picture of the ages of the respondents using the age ranges provided by the Scottish Government. The age range that is utilised is 11-15 years.

According to Education Scotland, at the start of the school year, School A had 148 pupils in S2, 139 in S3, and 158 in S4. The total percentage of pupils registered for free meals was 35%, compared to the average of 27% in the city of Glasgow, and 16% within Scotland. There were a total of 60 staff members. School B had 77 pupils in S1 at the start of the year, 70 pupils in S2, and 81 in S3. The total percentage of pupils registered for free meals was 48%. There were a total of 35 staff members. Finally, School C had 170 pupils in S2 at the start of the year, 167 in S3, and 167 in S4. The total percentage of pupils registered for free meals was 30%. There were a total of 61.8 staff members.
6.2 Prevalence of bullying and cyberbullying in surveyed schools

This section assesses the prevalence rates of both bullying and cyberbullying as it relates to this study. The overall results for traditional bullying are first evaluated. Following these results, the prevalence rates related to cyberbullying are presented.

Overall, most students reported not being bullied in school over the past 12 months, with 76% reporting this, as illustrated in Figure 6-1. On the other hand, 12% of students reported being bullied once or twice, while 3% of students reported being bullied 2-3 times per month, 1% of students reported being bullied once per week, and 7% of students reported being bullied more than once per week.

The results show that most pupils are not being bullied. However, when they are, it occurs once or twice most often. It could be speculated that it is an isolated incident or that a parent, teacher or friend intervenes and the bullying comes to an end.

The second highest per cent of incidents occurs more than once per week at 7%. These are not isolated incidents; in fact, they occur more than once per week and are perhaps not being intercepted by bystanders or school personnel.
With regard to cyberbullying, most students reported that they had not been cyberbullied, with 82% reporting this, as shown in Figure 6-2. Conversely, 8% of students reported being cyberbullied once or twice, while 2% of students reported being cyberbullied 2-3 times per month as well as once per week. In addition, 6% of students reported being cyberbullied more than once per week.
Eight per cent of respondents were being cyberbullied in incidents that occurred once or twice. These may be isolated incidents of cyberbullying. The victim may have known their attacker and blocked them on social media or blocked their mobile number, keeping the incidents from occurring further. At the same time, the issue may have been reported to a parent, adult or teacher, also ceasing the victimisation. However, the second highest percentage within this sample indicates that 6% of young people are being cyberbullied more than once per week. Whether or not one or more individuals are perpetrating cyberbullying behaviour in these cases is unknown. However, if the incidents are occurring more than once per week it can be assumed that the victim has not blocked the perpetrator, nor have they been able to get an adult involved in stopping the exclusionary behaviour as it is continuing to occur.

Students reported experiencing more traditional bullying than cyberbullying. However, in both instances of traditional and cyberbullying, young people are being bullied more than once per week compared to those experiencing bullying two to three times per month or once per week. This may be due to the fact that once the bullying has begun it becomes increasingly difficult to stop. Young people also may be afraid of the perpetrator, especially if they are being harassed by the same individual both online and physically in school.

In a related question, respondents were asked to state when within the past year they had been cyberbullied. Once again the majority of respondents stated that they had not been victims of cyberbullying at a rate of 84%. Those that experienced cyberbullying the most reported it occurring either within the last week (5%) or within the last 12 months (6%). The latter results correlate with what teachers shared during the interviews: that incidents are being reported to them frequently.

In a follow-up question, respondents were asked to state what type of bullying they had experienced: physical, verbal, or indirect. Physical bullying refers to bullying where they have been physically attacked by being hit, kicked or punched. Verbal bullying refers to being bullied by the use of words, either in person or online. Indirect bullying refers to being excluded or ostracised, having rumours spread, or notes passed about you, and can occur both in person and
online. Respondents were able to select more than one option. 5% responded saying they had been physically bullied, 22% said they had been verbally bullied, and 10% said they had experienced indirect bullying.

Within this sample, the subtype of bullying that occurred the most was verbal bullying. It can be speculated that higher levels of verbal bullying imply that students are engaged in behaviours such as name-calling and ridiculing both online and in person. It can also be speculated that verbal bullying occurs the most as it is the easiest type of exclusion to engage in, and can be done both in person and online. It is also difficult to prove, as it is the word of the victim against the word of the perpetrator.

Verbal and indirect bullying could refer to either bullying or cyberbullying activities, as both subtypes fit into these bullying categories. It is impossible to determine which type of bullying was occurring from this question, with the exception of physical bullying, which occurs with traditional bullying behaviours. Again, this data correlates with what the interviewed teachers were experiencing.

6.2.1 Differences according to gender

While most young people reported not being bullied in school, there are differences in the gender breakdown. To determine whether or not there were relationships between bullying and cyberbullying victimisation and another variable, such as gender in this case, Pearson’s chi-square test was used. This test is based on comparing frequencies observed in the data to the frequencies that could be expected by chance. Assumptions for the chi-square tests were met in all instances.

Females reported higher instances of bullying in school in all categories except once per week. Overall, 20% of males reported traditional bullying compared with 27% of females. To determine whether there was any statistical significance, the data was recoded for a yes or no response to whether traditional bullying had occurred. A chi-square test was performed, and no relationship was found, $X^2 (1, N=450)=2.674 p=.96$. 
With regard to cyberbullying, females reported a higher overall rate of cyberbullying of 21%, compared with 14% of males [not statistically significant Include chi square]. To determine whether there was any statistical significance, the data was recoded for a yes or no response to whether cyberbullying had occurred. A chi-square test was performed, $X^2 (1, N=450)=3.818$ $p=.51$ and no significance was found between the two variables.

Additionally, the question denoting “Have you been cyberbullied in the last 12 months,” where the responses were related to time (last week, last month, last term, last 12 months), the answers were recoded into yes or no options. 11% of males and 21% of females reported being cyberbullied. A chi-square test was performed and was found to have significance, $X^2 (1, N=450)=8.644$ $p=.03$. This indicates that gender plays a role in the case of cyberbullying.

These results are pertinent, especially in respect to the wider literature. Historically, it has been found that males are typically involved in traditional bullying behaviours over females (Olweus, 1993). However, these results within the literature often focused on physical bullying behaviours, rather than traditional bullying as a whole. For females to be involved at a higher rate of traditional bullying than males, it can be speculated that girls have become more aggressive and involved in exclusionary behaviours over the course of twenty years of research literature. Teachers at all three schools stated that in terms of both bullying and cyberbullying, girls were the ones who were involved the most and who reported issues of bullying and cyberbullying to them.

Moreover, concerning cyberbullying, again females had a higher rate of reported incidents at 21% versus 14% for males. Previous research has had mixed results with respect to gender and cyberbullying prevalence rates. It has found that males tend to be more likely to report cyberbullying (Li, 2006), whereas Mark and Ratcliffe (2011) had similar results to this analysis. This also correlates with what teachers at the schools stated - in other words, that girls were the ones most involved in issues of cyberbullying. This was illustrated by a comment shared by one of the teachers at School B. “ . . . and it was all girls. Girls had just got really quite carried away with themselves. And I think they were all egging each other in in various houses around Castlemilk.”
6.2.2 Differences by school

While all three schools are very similar in the sense that they are Catholic schools and serve similar catchment areas, there were differences to be found within reporting on bullying and cyberbullying. School C had a higher percentage of students reporting traditional bullying at 28% overall, compared with 21% of students at School A, and 13% of students at School B. A chi-square test was performed, $X^2(2, N=450)=8.156$, $p=.17$ and no significance was found between the two variables.

School B had the lowest instances of traditional bullying at 13%. While all three schools are Catholic, it could be speculated that the particular ethos of the school is encouraging young people to be more inclusive than excluding. This is a particularly interesting finding regarding School B. Teachers interviewed at this particular school were found to be the least involved and educated concerning bullying and cyberbullying out of those interviewed. Is it due to their lack of competence that pupils chose not to report instances of bullying, therefore allowing the reporting rate to be lower?

With respect to cyberbullying, again School C had an overall higher reporting rate of 23% compared with 12% of School A and 12% of School B. A chi-square test was performed, $X^2(2, N=450)=8.695$, $p=.13$ and no significance was found between the two variables. This revealed that School C had nearly twice the number of cyberbullying cases than the other two schools.

6.2.3 Differences by age

In addition to differences between the schools, there were also differences found in reporting with regard to age. In particular, younger students reported being traditionally bullied more than older students at a rate of 27% versus 20% overall. A chi-square test was performed, $X^2(1, N=450)=3.361$, $p=.67$. When this was further analysed according to the specific school years, students in S2 experienced the highest rate of traditional bullying overall, at 28%. A further chi-square test was performed, $X^2(3, N=450)=4.652$, $p=.19$ and no significance was found between the two variables.
As such, the results revealed that younger pupils are much more involved in traditional bullying compared to their older counterparts. Perhaps these younger pupils are more impulsive in their actions and tend to think less about their actions before engaging in bullying activities.

Pupils in S2 had the highest rate of traditional bullying at nearly 30%. These pupils would have spent an entire year in their school and should therefore have felt comfortable with their surroundings, as they were no longer new to the school. As such, the question to be asked is whether students from other year groups are bullying them, or if their own peer group is targeting them.

With respect to cyberbullying, younger students reported an overall higher rate of cyberbullying at 20% compared to 15% of older students. A chi-square test was performed, $X^2 (1, N=450)=1.358$, $p=.24$ and no significance was found between the two variables. When broken down by individual school year, students in years S1 and S4 experienced the highest rates of cyberbullying at approximately 21%. On the other hand, students in year S3 had a much lower rate of 11%. A chi-square test was performed, $X^2 (3, N=450)=4.899$, $p=.17$ and no significance was found between the two variables.

It can be expected that younger pupils are experiencing bullying because they are new to the school and are easy targets for older, more established pupils within the school. Why there is an increase in bullying in S4 is unknown, but it may be due to issues developing within the peer groups or other unknown factors.

6.3 The usage of social media

In this section, the usage of social media by those surveyed is determined. The survey asked questions in regard to text messaging, e-mail, and other online activities, such as on Facebook, which could be used to cyberbully. Respondents were also asked which forms of online technology they used. Respondents were able to select “Text messaging,” “Facebook,” “Twitter,” “Instant Messaging,” “Blogging,” “other,” or “none.”
Overall, respondents reported using Facebook at 84%, texting at 79%, Twitter at 48%, Instant Messaging at 48%, other at 34%, blogging at 11% and none at 3%. Older pupils were more likely to text, Facebook, Twitter, and instant message, whereas younger pupils were more likely to use “other”. “Other” may refer to social media applications such as Instagram, Secret (which was used for a short period of time), online games, and Tumblr, all of which were thought to be used by pupils according to teachers at the three schools. Additionally, those that were older were twice as likely to blog than younger pupils. This may be due to the fact that older pupils are more familiar with technologically, which has also been found in the wider research literature (Boyd, 2007).

Moreover, Facebook is the most popular social media site among those surveyed. This correlates with research, which has shown that the majority of young people have profiles on the site (Lenhart, 2012; Purcell, 2012). This also correlated with what teachers shared during the interviews: that Facebook was the primary site used for social media and for much of the cyberbullying that they were aware of.

As students went on through school, their Internet usage increased up to S4, where it often peaked or dropped slightly, as shown in the following table (6-1). It can be speculated that social media usage may decrease due to increased demands on pupils’ time due to schoolwork, employment, and preparation for future educational endeavours.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Facebook</th>
<th>Twitter</th>
<th>IM</th>
<th>Blog</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>None</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3.1 Cyberbullying via text

As was found in the previous section, the majority of pupils reported not being cyberbullied via text at 84%. Overall, 8% were bullied once or twice via text, 3% two to three times per month, and 5% experienced being bullied by text a few times per week, as shown in Figure 6-3.

It was found that those that were younger in age and those that were female were more likely to have experienced this type of cyber harassment. 18% of positive responses came from younger respondents and 20% of females reported having experienced cyberbullying by text. Teachers interviewed did not provide details of the age of the pupils involved in issues of cyberbullying, but they did share that it was girls that were most likely to be involved, as described in Chapters 4 and 5.

In the follow-up question, which asked if the individual has initiated bullying behaviour by text, overall respondents reported cyberbullying by text at 6%.
There was no difference in response rate between gender or age, as there was an even breakdown between both demographics. A chi-square test was performed, $X^2 (1, N=450)=0.03, p=.95$. Similar results were found when the same test was performed as compared to age, $X^2 (1, N=450)=0.01, p=.97$.

However, those in years S1 and S4 experience the highest rate of bullying via text at just over 11%. Students from both Schools A and C reported engaging in cyberbullying behaviour at a rate of 6%. A chi-square test was performed, $X^2 (2, N=450)=.827, p=.66$ and no significance was found between the two variables. Moreover, the same test was performed to test the relationship between the school year and whether or not cyberbullying by text occurred - no statistical significance was found, $X^2 (3, N=450)=8.191, p=.42$.

Generally, younger pupils may be more vulnerable to both bullying and cyberbullying due to the fact that they are new to the school and are easy targets for established pupils. As to why there is an increase in traditional and cyberbullying amongst individuals in S4 is unknown. It is possible that the increased demands on pupils’ lives lead to increased victimisation via cyberbullying.

### 6.3.2 Cyberbullying online (via email, Facebook)

Eighty-three per cent of respondents stated not being cyberbullied via email or other online means (See Figure 6-4). However, nearly 8% responded that they had been cyberbullied online once or twice in the past 12 months. As was stated previously, it can be speculated that these incidents occurred and did not reoccur, as they were either isolated incidents, or the cybervictim blocked the cyberbully or had an adult intervene, thus ceasing the victimisation.
In response to being bullied online, it was once again found that those who reported being younger in age (See Table 6-2) and female (See Table 6-3) were more likely to be cyberbullied online. 19% of positive responses came from younger pupils and 21% of females reported being victimised online overall.

Table 6-2 Cyberbullying victimisation by age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Once or twice</th>
<th>2-3 times/week</th>
<th>A few times/week</th>
<th>None</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Younger</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total %</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6-3 Cyberbullying prevalence by gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Once or twice</th>
<th>2-3 times/week</th>
<th>A few times/week</th>
<th>None</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total %</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the follow-up question, which asked if the respondent had bullied someone online, the responses were very similar to the texting responses with 6% of positive responses. However, in this case, 8% of males reported being online bullies compared to 4% of females. This is the only area where males had a higher perpetration rate than that of females. A chi-square test was performed, \(X^2 (1, \text{N}=450) = 2.493, p = .11\) and no significance was found between the two variables.

Pupils in S1 and S4 again reported the highest rates of cyber perpetration at just over 8%. A chi-square test was performed, \(X^2 (3, \text{N}=450) = 2.12, p = .54\) and no significance was found between the two variables.

In addition, it was found that males were more likely to cyberbully online rather than by text. It is unknown why within this sample males were more likely to be online perpetrators. Li (2006) found this to be the case in their study, but research that followed either found that females were more likely to be perpetrators, or that there was no difference between males and females in terms of engaging in cyberbullying activities.

In conclusion, those that were cyberbullied via text had an overall victimisation rate of 16% of positive responses. In addition, younger pupils and females were more likely to be victims of cyberbullying via text than other respondents. Nearly 6% of respondents were perpetrators of cyberbullying via text message. Yet no significance was found between age and gender in perpetration rates. However, the very youngest and oldest pupils had the highest rates of perpetration.

Overall, 17% of pupils had a positive response rate to being cyberbullied via online means. Again, younger females were more likely to be victims of online cyberbullying. Nearly 6% of respondents were perpetrators of online cyberbullying; however in this case, males had the highest indices at 8%.
6.4 Bias bullying and cyberbullying

This section discusses bias bullying and cyberbullying and the issues therein. Bias bullying and cyberbullying comes in various forms and can be found within different subtypes of bullying. Those who responded to the survey were asked to report on the types of bullying or cyberbullying that they had experienced themselves, as well as bullying or cyberbullying they witnessed. The respondents could choose from the following options: “cyberbullying,” “racist,” “religious,” “homophobic,” “sexual,” “sexist,” “none of the above,” or “n/a (not applicable).”

The rates for bias bullying were low and the largest percentage of respondents reported not experiencing any type of bullying at 70%. Approximately 3% of students experienced racial bullying, 4% of students experienced homophobic bullying, and 5% experienced sexually inappropriate bullying, comments or actions.

At the same time, nearly 14% of students experienced bullying or cyberbullying that did not fit into the categories provided (See Table 6-4). The bullying or cyberbullying that was experienced may have been related to appearance, weight, interest, grades, disability, or culture.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total%</th>
<th>CB</th>
<th>Religious</th>
<th>Racial</th>
<th>Homophobic</th>
<th>Sexual</th>
<th>Sexist</th>
<th>Social status</th>
<th>None of the above</th>
<th>Not bullied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These results are on par with what has been found in previous research (see Chapter 2, Chapter 7 and the discussion section of this chapter). However, when compared with the bullying or cyberbullying that was witnessed in school, there is a glaring discrepancy between self-reported bullying and cyberbullying/bullying that was witnessed.
### Table 6-5 Total percentage of witnessed bias bullying [multiple responses allowed]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CB</th>
<th>Religious</th>
<th>Racial</th>
<th>Homophobic</th>
<th>Sexual</th>
<th>Sexist</th>
<th>None of the above</th>
<th>Not seen bullying</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total%</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There seems to be an extreme difference in self-reporting bullying and cyberbullying behaviours, and reporting what kinds of bullying were witnessed within these three schools (Table 6-5). According to the data presented here, young people observed four times as much racial and homophobic bullying or cyberbullying, more than double the number of sexual bullying or cyberbullying, and nearly double the number of bullying or cyberbullying that fit into the category “none of the above.” These findings suggest that either more bullying or cyberbullying is occurring than was self-reported, or the question was not understood. One reason for this discrepancy is perhaps young people felt more comfortable stating what was witnessed, rather than what was experienced by them personally. Another possibility is that the bullying or cyberbullying witnessed was related to issues that were not mentioned in the questionnaire, such as issues relating to transphobia, weight, or appearance, all of which were found to be issues of concern in the survey conducted by Ditch the Label (2014).

Moreover, when compared with the information obtained in the initial question “Have you seen bullying in your school in the past 12 months,” it is entirely possible that this data is correct (Figure 6-5), as nearly 60% of students have witnessed bullying or cyberbullying within their schools in the past 12 months.
6.5 Opinions on bullying and cyberbullying

In the previous chapters (4 and 5), bullying and cyberbullying in these schools were discussed with teachers and educational professionals. A group of three questions was asked at the end of the survey inquiring about student attitudes towards exclusionary behaviours in their school. The first question asked: “How well do you think your school deals with bullying?” The answer choices were: “very well,” “quite well,” “not very well,” “badly,” “bullying is not a problem in my school,” and “do not know.”

Most respondents were unsure how their school handles bullying with an average response rate of 29%. Younger pupils felt that their school handled the challenge well; other than that, there is little distinction between the age groups.

Table 6-6 How well does your school deal with bullying?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very well</th>
<th>Quite well</th>
<th>Not very well</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Not a problem</th>
<th>I don’t know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Concerning the differences between schools (See Table 6-6), School B scored the highest on very well, with 28% of students believing that their school handled bullying very well and 29% felt it was handled quite well. School A had the highest rate of being unsure at 34%. School C had similar results for the responses of "quite well" and "I don’t know."

Comparatively, in 2010, School A underwent a governmental inspection. As part of the inspection, questionnaires were handed out to parents, students, and teachers. Most students attending School A stated that they felt safe and cared for in their school, with 95% of students agreeing or strongly agreeing to the statement. While the populations surveyed are different, there is a degree of difference in response to feeling safe, especially if it is believed that handling issues of bullying promotes safety.

In 2012, School B underwent the same inspection. 84% of the pupils surveyed agreed or strongly agreed that they felt safe or cared for in school.

The follow up question then asked “Does your school care for pupils who are worried or sad about bullying?” The responses were “yes, all the time,” “yes, some of the time,” “no,” and “not sure.” Overall, most students believed that their school cared about pupils who were worried or sad about bullying, with a positive response rate of 36%. However, the second most popular response was “not sure,” at 28% (See Table 6-7).

Moreover, male respondents were more likely to be unsure about how the school cared for pupils at 31%. Also, older pupils were unsure at 30%. This is an interesting development, as the older the pupil, the better they should know how the school handles issues such as bullying.
Table 6-7 Does your school care about pupils who are being bullied?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes, all</th>
<th>Yes, some</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additionally, nearly half of those in year S1 felt that the school handled bullying well all the time, but nearly half of those in S2 responded “no” or “not sure”. This is a puzzling response, as those new to the school in year S1 would most likely have the greatest chance of being unsure, as opposed to students who had been enrolled in the school for a year or longer.

Comparatively, according to a government report as part of the school inspection for School B in 2012, the same year that the survey was administered, 72% of pupils agreed or strongly agreed that staff dealt with bullying issues well. Additionally, 8% disagreed, 3% strongly disagreed, and 16% did not know how well the staff dealt with bullying. Results were similar for School A, where 74% of pupils agreed or strongly agreed that staff dealt well with bullying issues, 8% disagreed, 1% strongly disagreed, and 18% did not know.

The next question asked, “Who would you tell if you were being bullied?” Respondents could choose from the following and were able to select more than one option: “no one,” “a teacher or member of staff at school,” “a friend,” “a parent or caregiver,” “another adult (police officer, youth worker),” “brother or sister,” or “an online community.” The responses that achieved the highest percentages were “parent” (57%) or “friend” (53%). Males and females were nearly equivalent concerning informing a teacher or staff member (35% versus 32%) (See Table 6-8). Yet overall, both older and younger respondents were more likely to tell a friend or parent over a teacher. However, respondents from School B were less likely to inform their teachers about issues of bullying, which is interesting, as students from School B felt that their teachers and school cared for pupils who were concerned with issues of bullying.
Table 6-8 Who would you tell if you were being bullied? [Multiple responses allowed]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No one</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Friend</th>
<th>Parent</th>
<th>Another adult</th>
<th>Sibling</th>
<th>Online comm.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Within the HMIE (Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Education) reports, pupils were asked if they had adults to talk to at school. 82% of pupils surveyed at School B agreed or strongly agreed, whereas 10% disagreed, 1% strongly disagreed, and 7% did not know (Timmons, 2012). The number of pupils who agreed or strongly agreed from School A was 94%, a significantly higher percentage (Ritchie, 2010). While students may have agreed that they had teachers and staff to speak to regarding their concerns, this does not mean that they would necessarily approach them for issues such as bullying.

Additionally, students from S1 were less likely to tell teachers about issues of bullying. As they are new to the school, perhaps they were uncertain how to approach their teachers with these issues. However, this did change and increase slightly in years S2 and S3.

In conclusion, most students felt unsure about how their school handles issues of bullying or cyberbullying at 29%. In response to pupil care, most felt that the school cared for those concerned with issues of bullying or cyberbullying at approximately 36%. When stating whom they would turn to if they were being victimised, most respondents stated that they would tell a parent or a friend.

### 6.6 Summary of findings

Four hundred fifty pupils in three Catholic, Glasgow Secondary Schools took part in the survey portion of the research project. Approximately 47% of the respondents were male and 53% were female. Most respondents were from year

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6 The report for School C was published in 2007 and has not been updated since and does not contain any pupil, teacher or parent survey results wherein (Robertston, 2007).
S2 at approximately 45%. More than half of the pupils who took part were from School C at approximately 53%.

Twenty-four per cent of students reported experiencing any traditional bullying and 18% reported experiencing any cyberbullying over the twelve months prior to the questionnaire distribution. The majority of respondents reported not having been a victim of either type of bullying. Of those that experienced cyberbullying, nearly 5% reported it occurring with in the past week and approximately 6% within the last 12 months. Verbal bullying was the type of bullying or cyberbullying that was experienced the most at approximately 21%.

Females experienced more traditional bullying (27%) and cyberbullying (21%). No statistical significance was found, with the exception of the question “Have you been cyberbullied in the last 12 months” where gender was found to have had a role in the recoded response.

School C had a higher rate of both traditional bullying (28%) and cyberbullying (23%). There was no statistical significance found between school membership and bullying rates.

Younger students were found to have a higher rate of both traditional bullying (27%) and cyberbullying (20%). Again, there was no statistical significance found between age and bullying rates.

The majority of students were active with online technology and social media. Only approximately 3% of respondents stated that they did not use any forms of technology. Most students used Facebook at approximately 84%, followed by texting, Twitter, and instant messaging (IM). As age increased, so did Internet technology usage up to S4, where it peaked or dropped off slightly in terms of use.

Sixteen per cent of respondents reported being victims in being cyberbullied by text message. Younger females were once again more likely to be victims of this type of cyberbullying. Of those who reported being cyber perpetrators
(approximately 6%), there was no difference in age or gender. No statistical significance was found.

Seventeen per cent of respondents reported being cyber victims of online, email, or Facebook cyberbullying. Again, those who were younger and female were more likely to be victims of this type of cyberbullying. Of those who reported being cyber perpetrators, (approximately 6%), the majority reported being male at nearly 8%.

In regards to bias bullying, most pupils reported not experiencing any type of bias bullying at approximately 70%. Most significantly is the 14% who reported bias bullying in “none of the above” category. In the following section, the types of bullying or cyberbullying this could have been categorised will be touched upon which includes appearance, weight, interests, grades, disability, or culture.

While the respondent rates for other types of bias bullying or cyberbullying are on par with research, which will be detailed below, the reported bullying that was witnessed was often double the number self-reported. This leads to questions relating to reliability and validity of self-reporting as well as issues related to the clarity of the questions utilised in the survey.

Finally, most pupils were unsure how their school handles issues of bullying or cyberbullying, yet the majority felt their school cared for pupils who were concerned with issues of bullying. However, most respondents stated that they would tell a parent or a friend over telling a teacher if they were being victimised.

6.7 Discussion

This chapter addressed the pupil perspectives on cyberbullying and social media. The analysis of the prevalence of both traditional bullying and cyberbullying revealed that while most young people surveyed were not victims, those that were were more likely to be victims of traditional forms of bullying. Of those that experienced cyberbullying, it was usually verbal in nature and was more
likely to be experienced by younger pupils, those who were female, and those attending School C. An overwhelming majority utilised social media, with Facebook being the most popular. Lastly, young people were overall unsure as to how their school handled issues of bullying. However, they also felt that the school cared for those with concerns related to bullying. To further confound the results, pupils stated that they would approach a parent or friend over a teacher if they were being victimised.

The findings show that while cyberbullying is an issue of concern, traditional bullying is the most prevalent, reinforcing Olweus’s 2012 claims that traditional bullying is utilised more by young people. Prevalence for both forms of bullying were found to fall within established research (Modecki and Minchin, 2013). Additionally, this can also be said about the usage of social media by those surveyed (Lenhart, 2012; Marwick and boyd, 2014; Purcell, 2012).

As the results stated, females were more likely to be involved in cyberbullying activities. This evidence is also supported by the qualitative research, which indicated a higher female participation rate in exclusionary practices. While wider research findings have been mixed on this topic, there is ample evidence to support these findings (Connell et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2013; Merrill and Hanson, 2016; Rivers and Noret, 2010; Schenk and Fremouw, 2012).

Elias and Scotson (1994) suggest that the established group used gossip to exclude and denigrate the outsiders on the estate in Winston-Parva. This in turn allowed others to also think negatively upon the outsiders, and elevated the social position of established members of the estate. As indicated by the findings, girls engaged in such behaviours on social media using Facebook as a means of gossiping about and excluding others in order to marginalise them, while elevating their own social position in doing so.

Younger pupils were also found to have experienced more cyberbullying than older pupils. Younger pupils were believed to be within the age range of eleven to thirteen years of age (Years S1 and S2). This corresponds to research which has found that cyberbullying reaches its peak during what is often referred to as the middle school years (Williams and Guerra, 2007).
While pupils were unsure about how their school handled and addressed bullying, they also believed that the school supported young people who were victimised. Lastly, pupils surveyed stated that they would approach a parent or a friend (Vandebosch and VanCleemput, 2009; Waasdorp and Bradshaw, 2011) rather than a teacher if they were being bullied. Again, wider research is mixed on this topic, with findings ranging from the aforementioned to stating that the majority of young people do not disclose to anyone if they are being cyberbullied (Junoven and Gross, 2009; Yilmaz, 2010).

In the following chapter, the discussion of the results found in Chapters 4, 5, and 6 will be conducted and examined within the wider literature.
7.1 Introduction

The overall purpose of this research was to employ a theoretical framework grounded in sociology to gain a deeper understanding of cyberbullying as an exclusionary process. Understanding and determining why young people exclude (Heirman and Walrave, 2012; Smith et al., 2008) through cyberbullying may assist in reducing the behaviours and provide insights into the motivations that drive young people to engaging in them. Furthermore, these insights may allow teachers and schools to better recognise the tensions that occur through exclusion, and potentially alleviate them through establishing appropriate programmes in schools (Cassidy, Faucher and Jackson, 2013).

This research adds to the understanding of cyberbullying as an exclusionary process by aiming to determine the motives behind the behaviours, in addition to obtaining a picture of what is occurring in schools from the educator point of view. The sociological theory of Established and Outsider relations proposed by Elias and Scotson (1994) was selected for its potential in understanding the motivations and possible reasons that young people engage in behaviours which exclude one another. Obtaining a wider, unified theoretical perspective has been found to be an area lacking in research (Smith, 2015; Tokunaga, 2010), which has contributed to the varied results in determining prevalence of cyberbullying.

The framework was critically applied to the challenges educators face in dealing with cyberbullying in the schools identified for the study. While Established and Outsider relations is the primary framework utilised in this research, other theories, including Social Identity Theory and General Strain Theory will be incorporated as necessary, as explained in Chapter 2. The impact of cyberbullying on young people, and the prevalence of cyberbullying were explored.
Using a sociological construct such as Established and Outsider relations is traditionally not the norm, with researchers choosing to utilise psychological theories to understand why young people exclude (Cowie and Jennifer, 2008; Espelage, Holt, and Henkel, 2003; Espelage and Swearer, 2004; Hoff and Mitchell, 2008). While some have used sociological theories to understand exclusion, (Agnew, 2010; Cullen et al., 2008; Hay et al., 2010; Patchin and Hinduja, 2011) they have tended to be focused on the behaviours rather than the motivations behind the actions. Despite this, these additional theories have been supplied as possible frameworks in which to view cyberbullying as exclusion, when the application of Established and Outsider relations is not appropriate.

The purpose of this chapter and the chapter that follows is to critically discuss the findings of the research. Section 7.2 summarises the main findings of the themes presented in Chapters 4, which addresses cyberbullying as a challenge that both educators and young people are facing daily. The themes that emerged include the varying degree of knowledge of cyberbullying and social media by educators, discussed in 7.2.1, which includes the concerning finding that the majority of teachers interviewed had not undergone any training related to cyberbullying or technology. Furthermore, the widespread usage of social media by young people, which is discussed in 7.2.3, and how teachers perceive it, may be connected to this lack of training. The role of the school in dealing with cyberbullying is presented in 7.2.4 and addresses concerns that educators had relating to handling exclusion overall, including whom ultimately should be addressing cyberbullying.

Section 7.3 addresses the main findings of the themes presented in Chapter 5, on the impact of cyberbullying on young people from the point of view of teachers and educators. The themes that emerged include the emotional impact of cyberbullying on young people in 7.3.1, where the concerns and stressors that arise from being involved in cyberbullying are discussed. The Catholic Ethos, and the atmosphere of the school are explored in 7.3.2. Lastly, in section 7.3.3, the question into why young people cyberbully is discussed from the viewpoints of
those interviewed and examined through the various theoretical frameworks presented in Chapter 2.

Section 7.4 discusses the findings on the prevalence of cyberbullying and social media usage via the results of the quantitative data analysis reported in Chapter 6. These findings are also connected with what was discussed in the interviews and are further examined in relation to the wider research literature.

Finally, Chapter 8 will provide conclusions to these findings as well as address practical implications of the research. Limitations to the study and future recommendations will also be explored.

7.2 Educators and cyberbullying: A new challenge

This section discusses the main findings and themes from Chapter 4, as well as the research questions it sought to answer: How do young people utilise social media in relation to cyberbullying? and How are educators handling the challenges of cyberbullying? These questions focused on determining how the use of technology and social media by young people influenced cyberbullying as well as establishing how educators were handling the challenges within their schools.

7.2.1 The varying degree of knowledge of cyberbullying

The findings of this study illustrated varying levels of knowledge and understanding of cyberbullying among the participants, highlighting a moderate difference between teachers and non-teacher educators. Teachers were able to understand and recognise cyberbullying to an extent as they stated that the majority of incidents were brought to their attention directly or indirectly, rather than them deducing or witnessing any occurrences. While non-teacher educators had less direct experience, they all were able to fluently discuss the issue of cyberbullying with significant understanding.

This is relevant because it backs up what was also found in relation to teachers; a lack of training. The majority of teachers interviewed had not received any training in understanding, recognising, or addressing cyberbullying. Given this
lack of training, the evidence is suggestive that the lack of training (Mason, 2008) is connected with their lack of ability to recognise cyberbullying. However, it is unknown if this can be applied to all teachers at these schools. Research on teachers and cyberbullying knowledge has been mostly confined to pre-service teachers, where it has been found that they have limited confidence and competence in the area (Craig, Bell, and Leschied, 2011; Li, 2008; Ryan and Kariuki, 2011; Yilmaz, 2010). While the lack of identifying cyberbullying has been widely discussed in the literature, there is evidence that it may be the type of exclusion that teachers find problematic, as they are able to perceive overt violence as a key factor in bullying behaviours (Byers, Caltabiano and Caltabiano, 2011), as it is physical and tangible. Teachers may have issues with relational types of bullying as they determine it to be bickering and exclusion and avoid addressing the behaviours (Byers, Caltabiano and Caltabiano, 2011; Cassidy, Brown, and Jackson, 2012; Ryan et al., 2011).

If new, younger teachers are entering the profession, who have more practical experience with the Internet and social media landscape, and are feeling that they are unable to deal with issues of cyberbullying, it can be surmised that older, experienced teachers may feel even less confident (Ryan, Kariuki and Yilmaz, 2011). Moreover, participants from this aforementioned study strongly felt that professional development days should be used to train staff on dealing with cyberbullying, and curricula should be developed to further educate students on cyberbullying.

In contrast, a recent study by Spears et al., (2015) found that the majority of pre-service teachers felt confident in addressing and recognising cyberbullying. These new findings may be impacted by the fact that young, pre-service teachers are products of the digital age and have not known a time without technological advances, mobile phones and social media, making their abilities to recognise and understand cyberbullying and technology far easier than their older counterparts.

What has been discovered throughout this research is that there is a need for awareness, understanding, and training for both pre-service and current teachers regarding cyberbullying. This was made evident throughout the
interviews, as many teachers stated that they had little to no training in technology or cyberbullying (Li, 2008), which made it difficult for them to understand the terminology being used by young people as well as being able to comprehend the issues being brought forth by their students. While they acknowledged that they had little training as a whole, there was little indication that they attempted to obtain or arrange training or encourage the school to provide it. This is contrary to what was found by Eden, Heiman, and Olenik-Shemesh (2013) where teachers who were surveyed overwhelmingly were for training, further education and study of cyberbullying.

Mason (2008) argued that teachers were generally more aware of traditional bullying over cyberbullying and that they were unaware to the extent that it (cyberbullying) was occurring. This may be due to the fact that the majority of cyberbullying occurs outside of the school day (Yilmaz, 2010) and may be additionally confounded by pupils choosing not to report incidents as they are fearful of the perpetrator (Eden, Heiman, and Olenik-Sherman, 2013) as well as not believing that teachers would have an understanding of what was occurring (Yilmaz, 2010). Throughout these interviews, it was felt that teachers were aware cyberbullying was happening, but were generally unaware of the specifics (Eden, Heiman and Olenik-Sherman, 2013) unless the issue was brought directly to them.

7.2.2 The varying degrees of knowledge of social media

There is little current research about the attitudes that teachers have towards social media as it relates to teaching practices and its use in general. A study conducted in the US showed that 58% of teachers surveyed used a smartphone, 78% used social networking sites such as Google+, Facebook or Linked In, and 26% used Twitter. Additionally, 42% of them felt that their students were more social media and Internet savvy (Purcell et al., 2013) than they were.

This aforementioned knowledge gap was not found solely in levels of understanding and recognition of cyberbullying, but in regards to social media sites, their usage, and technology overall (Cassidy, Brown, and Jackson, 2012). Most teachers interviewed viewed social media negatively. They were also far less likely to use social media for themselves, unlike the majority of non-teacher
educators. Moreover, teachers often found the reasons young people used social media lacking; not understanding why it was something to be engaged with, which many stated was due to age or a generational gap. Furthermore, it has also been determined that the perceptions held by teachers affects their behaviours (Li, 2008; Pepler et al., 2004). If they perceive social media in a negative light, they may avoid addressing issues that are brought to their attention or avoid obtaining education related to it. These results somewhat support the findings of Purcell et al., (2013) where it was found that younger teachers were more confident in using digital technologies, as opposed to their older counterparts.

Few teachers interviewed admitted to using Facebook personally as social media in addition to texting, with most preferring traditional methods of contacting others, such as making a phone call. Again, there is little within the current research in regards to teachers and social media usage with the exception of teachers who actively engage with technology and social media in the classroom as part of pilot or collaborative practices. However, these results deviated from the findings of Purcell et al., (2013) where 78% of teachers surveyed used social media.

Regarding age, O’Bannon and Thomas (2014) found that teachers older than 50 were less likely to own or use smartphones and perceived usage of mobiles more problematic. They also found that all age groups were opposed to the use of mobiles as part of classroom usage and engagement for reasons including but not limited to disruptions, cyberbullying, and lack of training and issues with technology integration. It has also been found that teachers who have a greater technological knowledge, which is often related to age, are better able to handle issues of cyberbullying in the classroom (Woodward, 2011).

The Established and Outsider framework could be tangentially applied to this tenuous relationship between pupils and teachers. Pupils would take on the role of the established, where they have the wider understanding of technology and social media and have not known a time in their lives when it was not available. Teachers, on the other hand, appear to be the outsiders in this case. While they are in a position of authority over pupils, they do not have the technological
understanding or knowledge to circumvent what is occurring in schools. Due to this, young people are able to continue to carry out acts of exclusion toward their peers and even towards teachers (Strom and Strom, 2006) due to this digital divide.

7.2.3 Widespread usage of social media by young people

Those interviewed were in agreement that young people were using social media as a means to exclude. While the motivations for exclusion were not always clear, the application of Elias's Established and Outsiders provides a framework in which to understand the motivations behind these activities. In light of the examples provided it can be surmised that an individual or group of young people acted or behaved in a way that the “established” peer group took exception to and as a result engaged in practices of exclusion and blame-gossip. However, in these instances, instead of engaging in these practices in person (as occurred in Winston-Parva) it occurred online in real time. This immediately enforced their established position over those seen as outsiders or “other.” Furthermore, this immediately diminished the outsiders, as they were able to witness the exclusion and denigration immediately as it occurred on Facebook.

While teachers and non-teacher educators agreed that social media was being used extensively, this is where the similarities end. The majority of teachers did not use or engage with social media and were on the whole uninformed about the applications and their purpose. Those who were employed outside the school actively used and engaged with social media and technology on a regular basis and were familiar with its uses and functions.

In addition to having lesser knowledge, there was also a degree of fear and apprehension of the sites used by their pupils, which was not shared by their non-teacher counterparts. This apprehension appeared to lead to uncertainty when encountering a pupil who has experienced cyberbullying. While teachers interviewed followed school policy in addressing issues of cyberbullying, there was a great deal of indecision about who should be addressing these issues, which appeared to be intensified by their lack of knowledge about how cyberbullying was occurring over social media. Similar results were found by

While schools may not be the place to address issues of cyberbullying, given the fact that many teachers expressed spending a lot of time dealing with issues surrounding incidents that had occurred, their understanding of social media and how young people were bullying and excluding was limited. This concurs with much of the research showing that teachers generally feel unconfident in identifying and managing issues of cyberbullying (Eden, Heiman and Olenik-Sherman, 2013; Li, 2008). Moreover, it has been found that many of those in education are unfamiliar with newer forms of technology, and are most familiar with email and mobiles (Cassidy, Brown, and Jackson, 2012), which was the case among many of the teachers interviewed, who were unfamiliar with Facebook and newer forms of social media such as Snapchat and Tumblr.

7.2.4 The Role of the School

Teachers and the school have a crucial role in addressing issues of exclusion (Eden, Heiman, and Olenek-Shmesh, 2013). Training is one of the issues that was discussed. Issues surrounding training may be connected to staff uncertainty about legally intervening in cyberbullying issues brought to their attention, as they most frequently occur outside of school hours (Festl, Scharkow, and Quandt, 2014). It can be surmised that this is why teachers interviewed often recommended going to the authorities as opposed to investigating the issues themselves. It is unknown how many of the incidents that teachers encouraged pupils to bring to campus police or the authorities actually were undertaken. A study by Hinduja and Patchin (2009) showed that only 2.7% of young people reported incidents to the police. In contrast to what was mentioned by teachers, Addington (2013) found that there is only anecdotal evidence to suggest that schools suggest going to the police and that school officials tend to be reluctant to directly contact authorities themselves (Kowalski et al, 2008).

Furthermore, as pupils, other staff, and parents brought the majority of victimisation situations directly to staff attention, rather than having the ability to recognise of the effects of cyberbullying young people may experience after victimisation, it gives them little additional motivation to gain awareness. Cross
et al., (2009) found that both teachers and young people need to be aware of how cyberbullying can be perpetuated so that the incidents can be more easily recognised. If both students and teachers are more aware of how cyberbullying is carried out, the instances may decrease.

As stated earlier in this chapter, the findings of this research imply overall that teachers are not sufficiently trained when it comes to issues of technology, Internet, social media, and to an extent, cyberbullying. Few teachers felt that they had the tools or were equipped to handle these issues that appeared to be on the increase (De Smet et al., 2015). They need to be more proactive in educating themselves about cyberbullying and social media (Altrichler and Posch, 2009), rather than allowing fear and misconceptions to cloud their judgement, as the findings suggest. Moreover, it also indicates that teachers are less likely to pursue addressing this knowledge gap on their own. Therefore, the schools need to make sure that educators are obtaining the tools and resources needed in a digital world and must provide their staff with appropriate training (De Smet et al., 2015) and keep them updated to changes that effect the young people they serve. The digital gap that was found between these educators and pupils (Greenhow, Robelia and Hughes, 2009) needs to be reduced. By ensuring staff are educated in dealing with cyberbullying and issues related to it, allows for a more proactive rather than reactive stance as the findings imply is currently occurring within these particular schools. This would also assist educators understand motivations in engaging in cyberbullying and exclusionary behaviours.

While issues of responsibility and legality were of concern throughout the interviews, it is important to remember that any changes in policy regarding the handling of cyberbullying is not going to be changed or implemented any time soon. Teachers should instead be focusing on being proactive in their dealings with cyberbullying rather than reactive.

In the UK, the Department for Education guidelines stress that if a young person is a victim of cyberbullying then they should save the information and contact “your school in the first place or someone you trust if it happens outside school, e.g. in a club or online” (Bullying at School, 2015). This is certainly where
teachers felt concerned, as they do not often feel that they have appropriate or adequate training to deal with these issues and that parents and police need to have a greater role in dealing with these situations.

Tokunaga (2010) found that while most cyberbullying occurs outside of school, it has sufficient impact on students to affect the school environment. Moreover, Welker (2010) found that teachers recognise this impact. Therefore, schools should be more proactive in dealing with cyberbullying from prevention to recognition and follow-up of cyberbullying incidents. This was not occurring according to interviewees, who explained that once an incident had been investigated, it was closed and not revisited.

It has also been found that there must be parental involvement in dealing with such issues in helping to monitor the online activities that young people engage in, in order to prevent cyberbullying as well as dealing with any victimisation that has occurred. Additionally, Internet service providers and social media sites need to be involved in prevention and detection of cyberbullying behaviours (Vandebosch, Poels, and Deboutte, 2014). There have been suggestions that partnerships should be developed between schools, parents and Internet service providers (Mason, 2008; Vandebosch, Poels, and Deboutte, 2014) so that a communal approach can be undertaken in dealing with the issue of cyberbullying, which supports the assertions of teachers involved in this study.

Teachers expressed that they were often reacting to the cyberbullying incidents and dealing with conflicts, rather than educating students about what cyberbullying is. Taking steps, such as explaining the dangers of cyberbullying and providing clear rules and guidelines in classrooms and the school at large, are approaches that teachers can initiate to be proactive against cyberbullying, rather than only reacting to the specific incidents brought to their attention.

In terms of law in regard to duty of care, both British and North American law gives teachers the right of duty of care in place of their parents, also known as “a duty of care in loco parentis” (Shariff, p. 89, 2009). Additionally, in the Scottish Government publication, A National Approach to Anti-Bullying for
Scotland’s *Children and Young People*, the following guidelines were provided (Stone, 2014):

“Raising awareness of rights and responsibilities.

Inclusive, supportive school cultures where bullying and discrimination are not accepted.

Prosocial approaches in the classroom and wider school.

Restorative practices.”

Not once in these guidelines was there a mention of either the Communications Act 2003 or the Offences (Aggravation by Prejudice) (Scotland) Act 2009, both of which state that engaging in these behaviours is a criminal act. However, “The case of DPP v Connolly [2008] 1 W.L.R. 276 established that the persons to whom the message was directed would have to be grossly offended for a prosecution to be made as opposed to the message being grossly offensive to those who were not the intended recipients” (Bishop, 2013). This may be why, while young people were encouraged to alert campus police and other authorities when dealing with issues of cyberbullying, young people chose to block the individuals causing harm or to not pursue the matter further. As so little detail was provided in the interviews in order to preserve issues of anonymity, it is difficult to determine the possible reasons why young people may choose to follow either route.

The unanswered question is ultimately who is responsible for dealing with issues of cyberbullying. For now, it appears that teachers, parents, and police (when necessary) will continue to work together to address the needs of those who have been victimised. However, this does lead to considerations of change to current policy and involving companies like Facebook. This would be an area for future research. Additionally, it could also lead to addressing the motivations behind the reasons that young people engage in these behaviours along with the fact that personal responsibility also needs to be factored in, which was surprisingly not mentioned throughout the course of the interviews.

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7 Blocking refers to blocking a person’s mobile number from contacting you or deleting someone from social media accounts.
In conclusion, educator knowledge and understanding needs to be improved and increased (Stauffer et al., 2002) to allow for greater proactivity and overall reduction of cyberbullying victimisation in schools. This would keep with the favourable school ethos, which will be discussed in the next section. This environment would allow for students to continue feeling comfortable and safe and therefore more likely to approach staff with cyberbullying related issues (Tosolt, 2008).

7.3 The impact of cyberbullying on young people

This section discusses the findings in Chapter 5, The Impact of Cyberbullying on Young People. The chapter addressed the following research questions: Why do young people cyberbully? How do young people utilise social media in relation to cyberbullying? How are young people experiencing cyberbullying? To what extent can Elias’s Established and Outsider Relations provide a deeper understanding of cyberbullying? In addressing these research questions, interviews with teachers and educational professionals were undertaken, analysed, and categorised into themes.

7.3.1 The emotional impact of cyberbullying

This study revealed that young people are strongly impacted by cyberbullying. Participants expressed that young people were impacted by any cyberbullying that was experienced. The impact was found to range from depression and anxiety symptoms (Patchin and Hinduja, 2011; Shariff and Holt, 2007; Ybarra and Mitchell, 2004), sleep disturbances (Kowalski, Giametti, Schroeder and Lattaner, 2014), school attainment and achievement issues (Hinduja and Patchin, 2007; Smith et al., 2008), inadequacy socially and academically (Hoff and Mitchell, 2009), and in extreme cases, suicidal thoughts and attempts (Hinduja and Patchin, 2010; Patchin and Hinduja, 2012; Schneider, O’Donnell, Stueve and Coulter, 2012). In addition, it has been found that cyber victims, bullies and bystanders all experience emotional and psychological issues as a result of being involved (Junoven and Gross, 2008; Rivers and Noret, 2013).

While all who were interviewed were concerned about the impact that cyberbullying had on young people, the non-teacher educators shared the
majority of incidents that resulted in severe psychological issues. Furthermore, non-teacher educators also felt that the teachers and schools were lacking in their responsibility in providing a duty of care in regard to specific incidents.

In the two specific incidents shared, the schools did not take the incidents seriously; both young people in question went on to have psychological issues that have greatly impacted their lives. While the schools that participated in this research were not the ones that were involved in these two specific cases, it did leave the commentary provided by the educators as open to interpretation. It is entirely feasible that there were incidents like the ones described by Ms. Young and Ms. Barnes occurring at these schools; perhaps the teachers were not privy to this information, or the incidents had been reported to other pastoral care teachers. At the same time, they may have been apprehensive in speaking about any major issues, especially if serious issues had occurred as a result.

It is also entirely possible that the teachers who had been involved with the cyberbullying experienced by Ms. Young’s son and the young person that Ms. Barnes mentioned were reluctant to get involved due to being apprehensive about student and or parent retaliation (Stauffer et al., 2012). However, contrary to this, Shariff (2009) found that when victims reported instances of cyberbullying that school staff “put up a wall of defence” (p. 461) and often believed that victims made up or exaggerated claims. They may also be disinclined to involve themselves in issues that they perceive to be beyond their authority or responsibility, as cyberbullying mostly occurs outside of the school day (Yilmaz, 2010).

The findings regarding emotional impact lend themselves to analysis with GST, which was the other sociological theory that was presented in Chapter 2. Depression, anxiety, and other related psychological components in addition to school avoidance, could be related to GST. GST is a theory that explains how young people and others cope with stressors. A young person, who has come under strain by experiencing cyberbullying behaviours, may react by engaging in similar behaviours toward others. Moreover, young people who have experienced strain outside of cyberbullying, where they are already experiencing depression,
anxiety, and other symptoms, may also be likely to react similarly (Patchin and Hinduja, 2011) and engage in behaviours that help alleviate strain.

Another reaction that was mentioned throughout the course of the interviews was that young people are extremely distracted by the lure of their mobile phones, tablets, and social media accounts, often to the point of keeping them up late into the night. In addition, they are often reaching for them in school, despite their presence not being allowed. This analysis connects distraction to a decrease in academic achievement (Hinduja and Patchin, 2007).

This distraction could be related to SIT. As discussed in Chapter 2, SIT explains a young person’s sense of self in being a member of a group. Once young people have established themselves as part of a group and have a group identity, they are bonded and it helps them maintain a sense of self and belonging to the group.

Staying up late engaging in social media; sharing images on Facebook, Instagram, and Snapchat helps them keep and enforces their group membership, even if it is to the detriment to their health by staying up late into the evening engaging with their peers. Espinoza and Junoven (2011) found that social media had impacted and interfered with sleep patterns in young people. Additionally, Tokunaga (2010) found that it is difficult for young people to detach from social media despite the fact it may be causing them serious distress. Similarly, they may not be able to avoid the lure of social media during the school day; if they get a notification they want to check it, in order to see what is going on. This constant checking of social media has become almost a compulsion among young people (Lewis and West, 2009). Teachers expressed that pupils had difficulties concentrating in school due to the fact that their mobile phones were both a temptation and a distraction.

This could also extend to the Established and Outsider relations framework. As introduced in Chapter 2, Established and Outsider relations is a sociological framework used to explain exclusion. Established members of a group may want to connect with other members in order to exclude or ostracise outsiders (Elias and Scotson, 1994). It may not necessarily be a compulsion, but a way to keep in
contact in a media driven society. While there are differences between Winston-
Parva, the community studied by Elias and Scotson (See Chapter 2) and the
online communities that young people build and engage in today, the means that
they use to establish their position are the same, via stigmatisation, exclusion
and gossip (Elias and Scotson, 1994; Dunning and Hughes, 2013). Young people
today are able to extend any exclusion that occurs in school by engaging in
cyberbullying. As mentioned previously, Facebook has become an extension of
the school day (boyd, 2014) and can be used for both social and nefarious
purposes.

7.3.2 The Catholic ethos

In seeking to determine the extent to which the cyberbullying was impacting on
young people, the Catholic School ethos was also thought to have an impact, but
it was difficult to determine without additional data from the pupils themselves.
The ethos of the school, as delineated in Chapter 2, allowed for the creation of
an environment where a “special atmosphere animated by the gospel spirit of
freedom and charity” (Pope Paul VI, 1965) exists. Teachers felt that the ethos
made the schools more community oriented (O’Neill, 1979) and that pupils were
more likely to approach them when in need. This was not correlated with the
pupil survey data, where pupils stated they would go to parents and friends
before alerting teachers.

Catholic school teachers are called to spread the word of the gospel and are
involved in communicating those values to young people, leading them to the
Truth (McKinney, 2011). This was confirmed in a study of Catholic school head
teachers by Johnson and Castelli (2000), who found that the teachers and the
school by extension wanted to instil faith and respect and support their pupils in
their endeavours through the Gospel. In addition, Catholic schools are spaces
where teachers can assist pupils in developing their faith and making it
applicable to their lives (Sullivan and McKinney, 2013). However, it has often
been found that young people today are disconcerted by the changes of modern
life and have rejected these values that are being espoused by their teachers
(McKinney, 2011). It can be surmised from the results that the young people
involved in this research study may not feel comfortable alerting their teachers because of the heavy gospel presence involved.

Furthermore, wider research has mixed results in determining whom young people approach regarding bullying and cyberbullying. Stauffer et al., (2012) found in a study of high school teachers that if cyberbullying happened during the school day, it was reported. However, if it occurred outside of the school day it was less likely to be reported or dealt with by school staff. This was correlated by Festl, Scharkow, and Quandt (2014) who found that staff was uncertain in intervening when cyberbullying incidents occurred outside of school.

Whether or not the gospel values were being instilled in these young people is unknown. While young people today have often rejected these values as stated above (McKinney, 2011), O’Neill (1979) argued that the school community is not impaired by students who do not share the same beliefs, but helps others enrich and broaden their perspectives. While O’Neill was speaking about non-Catholics attending Catholic schools, this could apply to those students who are Catholic by baptism, but who have rejected the values of the Church.

7.3.3 Why do young people cyberbully?

There were varying understandings provided by educator respondents as to why young people engage in bullying, cyberbullying and exclusionary behaviours. Pressures on young people ranging from stresses related to appearance to media and social media influences were discussed. Status symbols and societal pressures were motivations for engaging in exclusionary practices. Additionally, survival, unhappiness and insecurity were also found to be a cause for such behaviour, and were used to assist the perpetrator improve their own self-esteem. These symptoms could possibly be a result of GST, where the young person is experiencing strain and then engages in cyberbullying as a coping mechanism (Agnew, 2010).

Pressures on young people
Pressures on young people incorporate a wide range of factors including societal pressure, the need to belong, as well as pressures that young people place on themselves including issues of self-worth. Several respondents mentioned peer pressure as a factor triggering cyberbullying. Those interviewed found it significant enough to mention that young people were instrumental in persuading their peers and friends to engage in cyberbullying behaviours. This was illustrated when teachers at School C discussed how one girl convinced another girl to ask a third girl questions about the first girl. While there has not been substantial research on peer pressure and cyberbullying, a recent study by Shim and Shin (2016) showed that young people who engaged in group chats on social media applications such as Facebook and WhatsApp may more willingly engage in cyberbullying behaviours in “an effort to maintain a sense of belonging to a group by supporting the dominant values, beliefs and attitudes of group members” (p.21). This need for belonging featured in many interviews. It was thought by several respondents that the drive to cyberbully was due to a lack of support and the need for validation, in addition to peer pressure.

Shim and Shin’s (2016) paper is particularly relevant to this study, especially as it intersects with the theoretical underpinnings of this thesis. Cyberbullying, in this thesis, is a proxy of social exclusion, which is viewed through the lens of Established and Outsider relations as a theoretical framework. Previous research has focused on the interactions of group members and exclusion through traditional means of gossip and ostracism (e.g. Lake 2011). In this vein, what is happening in peer group-related and peer group cyberbullying is that young people are maintaining their group membership by excluding others via cyberbullying, be it on Facebook, Twitter, or any other social media application that allows for group participation or group tagging. Furthermore, Bauman, Toomey and Walker found that young people were excluded to maintain or gain social status by excluding others from their social groups. It was mentioned in several interviews that the posting of photos on various forms of social media (Instagram, Facebook, Twitter) was used to target, exclude, and ridicule others as a means of exclusion and denigration. Through the use of social media and online technology it is merely the 21st century’s way of actively participating in blame gossip, rumour mongering, and exclusion that were used in Scotson and Elias’s Winston-Parva (Elias and Scotson, 1994). Technology has not changed
bullying; it has merely offered new avenues for young people to exclude and victimise one another.

It is this new way that young people relate to one another via Facebook comments and texts that contributes to this behaviour. In some cases, it may be that their peers are encouraging such behaviours, especially if they are being encouraged online. As it was elaborated on throughout the interviews, the nature of exclusion is wielding power over someone perceived to be weaker, which is at the centre of Established and Outsider relations.

Those in power are the ones that are pointing out those who are standing out from the crowd or who have not fallen to the pressure of looking and behaving a certain way. Young people notice the differences between each other and they use that to their advantage to exclude those who do not fit within the parameters that they have established. The power and authority that is being held over young people in regard to cyberbullying is thus twofold. First, it can be held over another individual by having technology that is more costly and of a higher value as a status symbol. Second, it can also be about who has more friends on Facebook or Twitter, for example, in the social circle of the victim.

Throughout the interviews, respondents alluded to or explicitly stated that it was vulnerable young people who were targeted. While not specifically mentioned wider research has found that homophobia, racial intolerance, and revenge are all possible motivators in engaging in exclusionary behaviours (Hinduja and Patchin, 2007; Shariff, 2008). These outsiders were the ones who experienced cyberbullying, and were sometimes unaware that what was happening was unacceptable or inappropriate. Whether or not this was due to being a part of a vulnerable population or because of the culture that makes up social media is unknown. Moreover, they often have little recourse, as they are afraid to involve their parents in fear of losing usage of their mobile phone or computer. This is not dissimilar to those attending the tennis club in Lake’s (2011) study. Those being excluded could either deal with the segregation or choose not to attend, thus having to give up something that was enjoyable to them (Lake, 2011).
Survival

Survival was a theme that emerged to illustrate how those that engage in cyberbullying endeavour to keep from being attacked themselves, or to protect themselves if they have already been victimised. If a young person has been cyberbullied, they have experienced strain according to Hinduja and Patchin (2007). In response to that strain, they may act out and engage in the same behaviours they experienced in order to relieve strain (Thaxton and Agnew, 2004). Cyberbullying as a survival tactic may be a way for young people to protect themselves from potential aggressors, especially if they have experienced bullying or cyberbullying in the past. This is often found in what is called proactive cyberbullying (Wingate, Minney, and Guadagno, 2013), when an individual may create a website impersonating another, or when an individual disseminates personal information about someone who has victimised them as means of retaliation or in order to protect themselves from further retaliation.

Power

An issue that was only touched upon once in the interviews, which has known to be integral to bullying and cyberbullying, is the issue of power. In traditional bullying scenarios, the bully is often depicted as being stronger or more physically powerful than the victim, or uses his or her power to physically harm, verbally denigrate, or exclude another individual (Olweus, 1997; Swearer and Doll, 2001). In cyberbullying, the issue of power usually is a matter of perception, in terms of social exclusion. Yet it also could pertain to matters of technological sophistication and savvy (Patchin and Hinduja, 2006). Moreover, power between groups was found to be a factor in stigmatisation (Elias and Scotson, 1994; Powell, 2008). The group that has the inherent power over the other is the one that is in the established position.

The fact that it was not brought up or considered by teachers and other educational professionals implies that the issue of power has either been overlooked by those dealing with it as a potential issue, or it has been found to have importance within the research literature, where it possibly may not be as relevant as previously thought. Issues of power in regard to cyberbullying have
been uncovered, especially concerning the definition, as it has been found that a power imbalance may be implied in cases where the perpetrator has increased technological savvy over the victim (Thomas, Connor, and Scott, 2015). In a study by Nocentini et al., (2010), it was found that the imbalance of power might be less relevant when it comes to cyberbullying. Moreover, the discussion of power has been addressed in issues of defining cyberbullying. As previously discussed in Chapter 2, many widely utilised definitions of cyberbullying to not address the issue of power, instead focusing on the use of online and digital media use. In this case, it can be understood why those interviewed did not mention it as a reason why young people engage in these behaviours, as it frequently is not utilised in the most commonly used operational cyberbullying definitions.

However, the definition used to define bullying as part of the Glasgow City Council anti-bullying policy does feature power. It states bullying is:

> . . .any behaviour in which an individual or group exerts power in an abusive or negative way which results in the harming or demeaning of another individual or group. It is normally, but not necessarily, a process that is repeated over a period of time and people can feel bullied even when those displaying bullying behaviour are not conscious of the harm they are causing or are wilfully seeking to hurt or demean. [p. 4 Emphasis theirs.]

This definition is available as part of the anti-bullying policy guidelines online, but does not feature on the incident reporting sheet that teachers use to document issues of bullying and cyberbullying. There is also no mention of power as it relates to bullying or cyberbullying on the anti-bullying policies that each school has published on their websites.

**Unhappiness and insecurity**

Unhappiness and insecurity, in addition to societal pressures, can all lead young people to engage in exclusionary practices. There has been some correlation found between loneliness, unhappiness and cyberbullying and cyber victimisation (Sahin, 2012). In a study of university age students, Hoff and Mitchell (2009) found that insecurity was a predictor of cyberbullying. Moreover, it has also been argued that these types of feelings produce a negative effect leading to strain (Hinduja and Patchin, 2007), which has found to be a predictor of both
engaging in cyberbullying and becoming a cybervictim (Patchin and Hinduja, 2011).

On the contrary, wider research has found that the unhappiness leading to exclusion had foundations in relationship problems such as a breakup (Hoff and Mitchell, 2009) or issues within the peer group, and that insecurity related victimisation might be related to issues surrounding the life situation of the perpetrator (Levine, 2006). As the specific motivations are unknown, the evidence from the quantitative data and interviews is suggestive of that those engaging in bullying and cyberbullying behaviours, especially girls, could be using Established and Outsider relations in order to exclude. The quantitative data ascertained that younger pupils and girls were more likely to be involved in these behaviours. Girls tend to establish groups and cliques and actively exclude others who do not fit the mould using exclusionary practices to maintain their social position as “established” versus “the outsiders.” This is done through gossip and other exclusionary tactics that take place on Facebook and other social media outlets by ridiculing, exclusion, and name-calling.

Lastly, it was surmised by respondents that one likely cause of bullying and cyberbullying is unlikely and that it was likely a combination of factors that drove young people to exclude. It was also felt that this was not a novel problem as bullying and victimisation have been occurring for a long time, historically speaking. From the responses obtained, it can be speculated that there is not one theory or approach that can fully explain bullying and cyberbullying behaviours in young people. Respondents each had their own take and opinion as to why these behaviours were occurring and they were subsequently a product of information garnered from the media in addition to their own personal experiences as a young person or as a parent facing these issues with their own child.

### 7.4 The prevalence of cyberbullying

This section summarises the findings in Chapter 6, The Prevalance of Cyberbullying. This chapter addressed the following research questions: *How prevalent is cyberbullying within these schools? How is technology influencing
cyberbullying? How are educators handling the challenge according to pupils? How are young people experiencing cyberbullying? In addressing these questions a survey was designed and sent out to the three participating schools with a 450 pupils in total participating.

While most young people completing the survey were not victimised, this study found that more young people surveyed experienced traditional bullying than experienced cyberbullying at some point during the twelve months prior to the survey being administered. This indicates that within this sample, that traditional bullying is still the primary way young people exclude one another. As stated in Section 6.7, this reinforces Olweus’s 2012 claims that traditional bullying is still the primary way that young people exclude one another. This can be correlated with other research studies (Lapidot-Lefler and Dolev-Cohen, 2015; Schneider, O’Donnell and Smith, 2015; Sjurso, Fandrem and Roland, 2016). However, while responses to Olweus’s claims agree that traditional bullying is more prevalent than cyberbullying (Hinduja and Patchin, 2012; Smith, 2012), the figures that Olweus (2012) presented regarding overall cyberbullying prevalence (4.1%-5% for cybervictims and 2.5-3.2% for cyberbullies) are not in agreement with wider evidence (Bauman, 2013; Hinduja and Patchin, 2012; Hinduja and Patchin, 2014; Modecki and Minchin, 2013). Furthermore, there may also be an indication that the victimisation begins in school as traditional bullying, but then continues on outside the school as cyberbullying (Cassidy et al., 2009; Olweus, 2012). While cyberbullying prevalence found in this study is within parameters of other research, it has been found that with self reported studies there may be issues with the response rates due to the fact that young people worry about retribution (Junoven and Gross, 2008) in acknowledging being cyberbullied by their peers in addition to being reluctant to report negative behaviours (Swearer et al., 2014).

7.4.1 Gender differences

It was found that females experienced both traditional bullying and cyberbullying in higher numbers than males, with no statistical significance found. Historically, research has had mixed results with respect to gender and cyberbullying prevalence rates. Some researchers have found that boys engage in cyberbullying more (Ackers, 2012; Anderson and Hunter, 2012; Aricak et al.,
2008; Beran and Li, 2005; Hoff and Mitchell, 2009; Patchin and Hinduja, 2006; Slonje and Smith, 2008; Vandebosch and Van Cleemput, 2009) whereas others have determined that girls engage in cyberbullying more (Connell et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2013; Schenk and Fremouw, 2012). Others have found that there is no difference in gender and engaging in cyberbullying behaviours (Li, 2006; Monks et al., 2012, Smith et al., 2008; Ybarra and Mitchell, 2004).

According to Shariff (2008), “sufficient research suggests that girls, internationally, are increasingly found to perpetrate cyber-bullying in groups and are more frequent users of social networking tools” (p. 40). As cyberbullying is a relatively new phenomenon, researchers are still uncertain as to how gender plays a role in cyberbullying (Ang and Goh, 2010; Connell et al., 2014).

It was clear from many of the interviews that it was felt that girls were more likely to be involved with cyberbullying and social exclusion using social media. While it was not explicitly mentioned in the interviews, research has found that girls may be more likely to involve themselves in cyberbullying due to its relational or indirect aspects. Historically, girls have tended to engage in covert and indirect forms of bullying as it is less likely to be noticed and can be carried out in ways such as gossip, exclusion, and intimidation (Coloroso, 2002; Kowalski and Limber, 2007; Nansel et al., 2001).

Again, as stated in 7.3.3, the Established and Outsider framework is effective in understanding cyberbullying as exclusion as it relates to girls and these behaviors. As it was illustrated in the interviews, girls were frequently found to be congregating on social media and actively gossiping and excluding those outside of their established peer groups for perceived slights or threats (Maguire and Mansfield, 1998; Sutton and Vertigans, 2002) while maintaining their own position socially (Elias and Scotson, 1994).

This study found that females were more likely to have experienced cyberbullying overall. Females also were cyberbullied by text more frequently, and were more likely to have been bullied in school overall. They also experienced more sexual instances of bullying and verbal bullying. The reason for this is not clear from the data, but may have something to do with the fact
that according to Li (2006), females tend to self-report or notify adults about bullying/cyberbullying at a higher rate than males. While this is contrary to what Hinduja and Patchin (2009) found, where females were more likely to tell a peer and boys were more likely to inform a teacher, overall evidence relating to reporting is an area of research that is widely mixed.

Males were slightly more likely to be cyberbullied online or via email and also reported being a cyberbully more often than females. Again, while the overall results related to gender are mixed, research has suggested that males were more likely to be cyberbullies (Aricak et al., 2008; Slonje and Smith, 2008; Tarablus, Heiman, and Olenik-Shmesh, 2015; Vandebosch and Van Cleemput, 2009). While 3% difference is small, with a small population that has been surveyed, that is still thirteen more male victims than female victims, which out of 450, is significant. The reason for this difference is unclear from the data but may have something to do with the ease of the use of technology compared to what it was in research that was conducted previously. All but twelve students used some form of online technology in these schools, showing that the use is increasing and widespread. As stated previously, a majority of young people use the Internet, and of those 80% use social media (Lenhart et al., 2011).

Males also experienced higher rates of homophobic bullying/cyberbullying. It is unknown whether or not any of the young people experiencing this type of bullying were gay. However, it has been found that verbal bullying, such as name calling is frequent, but is not always directed at GLBTQ students and has been found to be used to build in-group and out-group identities (Minton et al., 2008). This will be discussed further in section 7.4.4.

Additionally, perpetrators were also accounted for in regards to both types of cyberbullying. 6% of pupils reported being engaging in both text and online victimisation. However, this resulted in an interesting finding, as males were more likely to be online perpetrators at 8%. Perhaps this is due to the way that males access technology, often engaging in online gaming and other activities over texting and social media; activities preferred by females (Beckman, Hagquist and Hellström, 2013; Whittaker and Kowalaski, 2015).
7.4.2 Social media usage

Social media refers to Internet based applications that can be used to share information, text, images, and videos (boyd and Ellison, 2008; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). The use of social media applications was found to be prevalent among the students surveyed. Compared to the Pew Internet research findings, pupils surveyed used Twitter far more than the average of 8%. Those surveyed also texted more often than was found by Pew: 79% compared to 66%. Moreover, according to both Lenhart (2012) and Purcell (2012), 93% of teens are using Facebook. Similarly, 83% of those surveyed in this study reported using Facebook and teachers that were interviewed as part of this research confirmed that Facebook was used extensively by their pupils for both socialisation and exclusion. This confirms the assertion by boyd (2014) that Facebook has become an extension of the school day.

Cyberbullying as exclusion is a complex issue with many components. Since the outset of this research, avenues used to cyberbully until recently are no longer applicable and new ones have arisen to take their place. Mobile applications and social networking sites change frequently and it is important for research to keep up to date with the changes in technology (Whittaker and Kowalski, 2015) for greater understanding, as well as for prevention strategies.

7.4.3 Bias bullying and cyberbullying

There is a dearth of research on bias bullying and cyberbullying, also known as identity-based or prejudice bullying, with researchers appearing to classify the bullying in terms of physical, verbal, relational, and cyberbullying. Overall, the self-reporting rates of bullying incidents by the respondents of this survey are very low. Taken on their own merit, the percentages seem innocuous enough, even when compared to some of the results found in a recent survey of young people in the UK, where 13% experienced bullying in regard to social status, 7% experienced racial bullying, 7% experienced homophobic bullying, 6% were bullied due to their religion, and 14% experienced bullying of a sexist nature (Ditch the Label, 2014). While the results from this data are still low comparatively speaking, the relatively small sample size may have to do with
the lower rates. It is also unclear how many students chose more than one option as was allowed.

**Racial bullying/cyberbullying**

In this study, 3% of students surveyed reported incidents of bullying related to race. This number is troublesome, based on the information obtained from the 2011 Census, where 3.7% of Scotland’s population is made up of ethnic minorities (National Records of Scotland, 2013). Based on population figures alone, it could be extrapolated that all minorities present within these schools had experienced some sort of bullying or cyberbullying based on race. The reason for this is not entirely clear from the data, as racial or ethnic identity was not obtained. However, in 2011 to 2012, approximately 9700 (15%) of students enrolled in Glasgow schools had English as an additional language (Glasgow City Council, 2012). As the majority of bullying and cyberbullying research has been conducted on Caucasian youth (Low and Espelage, 2012), there are little additional academic research studies for comparison. That being said, Bucchianeri, Eisenberg and Neumark-Sztainer (2013) reported that 35% of youth surveyed experienced race related victimisation. However, this particular study was composed of over 2700 socio-economic and racially diverse participants in the United States, where the majority of those surveyed were non-white. Therefore, these results may not be as applicable to a less ethnically diverse population.

**Homophobic bullying/cyberbullying**

Homophobic bullying is directed toward gay, lesbian, bisexual, transgendered, and queer (GLBTQ) persons. Homophobic bullying is often conducted via teasing, name-calling, and rumour spreading (Poteat et al., 2013). 4% of those surveyed in this study experienced homophobic bullying or cyberbullying in the 12-month period covered by the questionnaire. Additionally, 15% witnessed homophobic bullying/cyberbullying in their schools. These findings suggest that this is an area of concern in these schools. While again, the reason for this is not clear from the data, as information on sexual orientation was not collected, this may be linked to homophobia being the underlying cause of such behaviours (Hong and
Garabino, 2012), something that might be exacerbated by being in a Catholic School (Maher and Sever, 2007). Further evidence shows that only 23% of young LGB people had been informed at school that homophobic bullying was wrong and over half of respondents never reported the bullying to staff (Hunt and Jensen, 2007).

In comparison to the above results, 7% of surveyed young people who had experienced bullying experienced homophobic bullying (Ditch the Label, 2014) Furthermore, a study of Suffolk youth by Bond and Carter (2013), found similar results. This number appears to be quite low in contrast to this research and other sources. For instance, Stonewall Scotland reports that 52% of gay teens reported that they had experienced homophobic bullying (Stonewall Scotland, 2012). This is a decrease from a previous Stonewall study where 65% of those who identified as LGB were bullied. However, the percentage increased to 75% when the pupil was attending a faith-based school (Hunt and Jensen, 2007). That being said, the data is representative of the population. Stonewall Scotland reports that around 300,000 Scots are gay, lesbian or bisexual, or about 5% to 7% of the population (Stonewall Scotland, 2013). This is just an estimate, as no survey can be entirely accurate due to the fact that those surveyed may not wish to disclose their orientation (Carragher and Rivers, 2002).

A US based study of Catholic high school students found that especially among males, violence and bullying against GLBTQ persons was acceptable (Maher, 2103). While attitudes are changing toward GLBTQ individuals, it has been found that the curriculum of faith based schools may “inculcate intolerant and bigoted views” (Walford, 2008). These findings suggest that issues concerning GLBTQ persons should be addressed and made part of any anti-bullying programme or policies put in place to address the needs of vulnerable youth.

**Sexual bullying/cyberbullying**

Another form of bias bullying is sexual bullying. This can affect members of either gender and refers to inappropriate comments or physical contact regarding another person’s body and/or appearance, and can occur in person or as cyberbullying. 7% of females and 5% of all students reported experiencing
sexual bullying, while 12% stated that they had witnessed sexual bullying over
the past year. As stated in Chapter 2, there is little research evidence on the
prevalence of sexual bullying or cyberbullying. 25% of surveyed by Ditch the
Label (2014), experienced this type of harassment, which is significantly higher
than these findings, suggesting that sexual bullying is not as prevalent in these
schools. Similar results relating to prevalence were found by Bucchianeri,
Eisenberg and Neumark-Sztainer (2013), where again 25% of those surveyed
experienced harassment that was sexual in nature. When the self reported data
is compared with what was witnessed, it does appear to be an area of concern
for these particular schools. The reason for this is not clear from the data, but
may be connected to how sexual identities are formed throughout adolescent
years (Duncan, 1998).

Sexist bullying/cyberbullying

In similar vein, sexist bullying does not appear to be a significant issue here,
with only 2% of positive responses. Sexist bullying is bullying related to the
gender that an individual is identified as having. This does not appear to be an
issue in any of the schools surveyed. Once again, this data contrasts with the
results from Ditch the Label (2014), which reported that 14% of students
surveyed experienced this form of bullying. This could be due to the fact that it
is not an issue for secondary school pupils in these particular schools. However,
in a recent survey of teachers, nearly half of them reported hearing sexist
language between pupils and 38% surveyed were witness to sexist bullying by
pupils (Neill, 2007). It could also be related to pastoral care or religiosity of the
schools, or perhaps students did not feel comfortable sharing this information.
While the teachers interviewed did not mention this type of language, those
working in outside agencies mentioned that it was occurring.

Social status bullying/cyberbullying

Bullying in regard to social status also does not appear to be an area of concern.
One possible reason for this could be that Catholic schools serve the working
class population of Scotland; therefore, the social status makeup of pupils in
Catholic Schools is similar, as they come from similar neighbourhoods and
This is especially the case in the three schools in this study, which serve low-income areas and have a significant number of pupils receiving free lunch. This was a surprising finding, as it was anticipated that there would be a higher percentage of pupils experiencing this type of bullying. In contrast, Bucchianeri, Eisenberg and Neumark-Sztainer (2013) found that 16% of those surveyed experienced bullying in regard to socio-economic status. After speaking to members of staff and other people who worked within the schools (see chapter 5), it was found that, despite the self-reported data, this is an area of concern: young people still antagonise others who do not fit in to what they have deemed as “popular” or “in style.” As such, it is possible that the nature of the question itself, particularly how it was phrased, was the issue, rather than the fact that it was not occurring according to the survey data. This discrepancy may also have to do with the way young people understand bullying and other exclusionary behaviours. In a study by Boulton, Trueman and Flemington (2002) it was found that a “substantial minority” did not view behaviours construed as bullying as had been designated by researchers.

Lastly, 24% of young people who responded stated that they were bullied, but not in a way that fit cyberbullying, racist, religious, homophobic, sexual, or sexist types of bullying. The reason for this is not clear, but may be linked to a number of factors. For one, the respondent could have not understood the question, and clicked “none of the above” as a response. They also could have experienced types of bullying that were not specifically listed or perhaps they were unsure how to categorise their experience. There are many types of bullying that could fill this gap including bullying or cyberbullying targeting transphobia, (Wolfe, Crooks, Chiodo and Jaffe, 2009), disability (Lindsay, Dockrell and Mackie, 2008), or weight (Bucchianeri, Eisenberg and Neumark-Sztainer, 2013; Puhl and Luedicke, 2012) for example.

Bias based bullying or cyberbullying can happen to anyone. While the experiences of this type of bullying or cyberbullying are relatively low overall within this sample of schools, it is still occurring. Recommendations to address these types of peer harassment can be made, including having an inclusive school climate that accepts all and where diversity is celebrated and challenging prejudice and stereotypes is valued.
7.4.4 **Student perspectives on school handling of bullying**

There are few studies that delve into the issues of student perspectives on how the school or teachers handle issues of bullying or cyberbullying. Generally, it has been found that students are concerned with how bullying will be handled and therefore avoid reporting issues to school staff (Rigby and Bagshaw, 2003) as they believe that teachers do not understand (Slonje and Smith, 2008). As a result, they tend to disclose to friends rather than teachers and staff (Houndoumadi and Pateraki, 2001; Rigby and Barnes, 2002; Vandebosch and Van Cleemput, 2009), as was also found in this study. This low percentage rate for disclosure may be due to the fact that pupils do not believe that staff and teachers will respond to their claims. While the teachers who were interviewed as part of this research stated that they addressed every claim that was brought to their attention, it was clear from the interviews that they had a drastic lack of knowledge and understanding of cyberbullying as discussed in section 7.2. If pupils picked up on this, they may have been reluctant to approach teachers with incidents.

Research has found that as few as 25% of students will report issues of bullying to staff (Smith and Shu, 2000). This study found that 34% of young people surveyed would alert a teacher to issues related to bullying, which is significantly higher than what was discovered by Hoff and Mitchell in 2009, where only 17% reported instances of victimisation to a teacher. However, in 70% of those cases the school did not act upon the complaint. Furthermore, Bradshaw et al., (2007) reported that 97% of staff would intervene in bullying related incidents, yet only 21% of pupils reported bullying to school officials. It has been found that in order for anti-bullying programmes to be successful, teachers need to be able to recognise issues of bullying, and students need to report and disclose bullying to staff (Rigby, 1996).

7.4.5 **Established and Outsider relations as it relates to this survey**

In hopes of investigating the findings with the use of the Established and Outsider framework, the data obtained from the survey was initially analysed
according to the different schools, to see if any patterns emerge between victim and bully rates between the years. Students who are in S1 and S2 would be first and second year students in these schools, making them outsiders. Students who are in S3 and S4 would be established students, having attended the school for several years.

There are several issues in analysing the data in this way. For one, the questionnaire was not set up for such theoretical underpinnings and the data is very basic at best. There is little information known about the participants beyond school, gender, and year. Precise ages are unknown, nor is it clear if the students have moved from other schools, areas within the UK, or other countries. There is also no way of knowing if the students were bullied and/or cyberbullied by students attending the same school.

In addition, using the Established and Outsider framework to approach the data concerning School A is not feasible, as the available data is limited. There is only one student from S1 and 6 students from S4, with most of the students making up years S2 and S3 (See Table 7-1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of pupils</th>
<th>% per year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, it was found that 9 (7%) young people were involved in traditional bullying as a bully and 27 (21%) were victims. Once again, there is a substantial discrepancy in the numbers. Students either felt uncomfortable self-reporting as a bully or those who have been victims have been bullied by those who were not part of the survey. In contrast, regarding cyberbullying, 15 (12%) reported being cyber victims and 17 (13%) reported cyberbullying someone else. Here the discrepancy is far less pronounced than the numbers pertaining to traditional bullying.
Table 7-2 Number of pupils in School B by year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>% per year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In analysing the data, it was found that 2 (2%) pupils reported being a traditional bully, and 11 (14%) reported being a traditional victim. Like with School A, there is a large discrepancy in the numbers. However, as no data from students in S3 and S4 was available (See Table 7-2), students in those grades could have been the ones involved in the bullying.

With regard to cyberbullying, 9 (11%) reported being a cyber victim and 19 (23%) indicated that they were involved in the act of cyberbullying. Once again, utilising the Established and Outsider framework with this particular dataset was not helpful.

Table 7-3 Number of pupils in School C by year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>% per year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moreover, 68 (28%) respondents from School C reported being a victim of traditional bullying. Unfortunately, there is no data on being a bully, as the question was inadvertently left out of the paper questionnaire. In addition, 54 (23%) reported being a cyber victim and 30 (13%) reported being a cyberbully, showing that more young people were victims than perpetrators.

While the data does not confirm or deny that older secondary students bully younger secondary students, it can be inferred from the Established and Outsider...
framework that newcomers may experience exclusion. Pelligrini and Long (2002) found that when young people transition from primary to secondary school that the bullying experienced increased, due in part to changes in the social hierarchy. While the literature on cyberbullying and age is composed of varied results, with several studies finding no relationship between age and victimisation (Beran and Li, 2007; Junoven and Gross, 2008; Patchin and Hinduja, 2006; Smith et al., 2008) this does not mean that the exclusion has not occurred, just not reported. Other studies have determined that the majority of cyberbullying incidents occur mid-adolescence (Cioppa, O’Neil and Craig, 2015) or peak in the eighth grade, which corresponds with ages 12-13. It has been found that younger students reported being victimised, while older students reported being the perpetrators (Mishna et al., 2012). Additionally, Raskaukas and Stolz (2007) found that older students were more likely to engage in cyberbullying via text message. These studies all included age markers, whereas the questionnaire used in this study did not and thus the analysis relies on the school year, which may not be an accurate indicator of age.

A more useful way of utilising the Established and Outsider framework may be in terms of gender and exclusion. While we cannot definitively state this, as this questionnaire data is not sophisticated enough, research has shown that girls tend to bully other girls, and boys tend to bully other boys (Chisolm, 2006; Dehue et al. 2008; Kowalski and Limber, 2007; Li, 2007). This is supported by the interview data where teachers stated that it was girls most involved in bullying and cyberbullying activities, and that they were largely engaged in the victimisation of other girls.

In a study focusing on class, gender, and sexuality, Velija (2012) found that the use of stigmatisation and blame gossip, similar to what occurred in Winston-Parva, was also occurring in a girls U15 county cricket team. Girls who were found to be middle-class and secure in their heterosexuality were the insiders, and girls who were less refined or appeared “butch” in appearance were considered the outsiders. They were gossiped about (using blame-gossip) in a way to hold social control over those who were the outsiders. It can be extrapolated that similar activities are being carried out in the three schools
examined in this survey, in the forms of both traditional and cyberbullying, which was addressed in both Chapters 4 and 5.

In similar vein, racial bullying and cyberbullying can be seen from this perspective as well. In Loyal’s (2010) research on immigrant issues and relations in Ireland, it was found that there was a considerable amount of exclusion and discrimination of immigrant workers (the outsiders) by the resident Irish (the established). The established Irish made it incredibly difficult for the recent immigrants to the country to find and obtain work. For example, despite the fact that “23 per cent of Lithuanians had a third level qualification, only two per cent of them are working as professionals” (Loyal, 2010, p. 190). The newcomers sought to improve their lives, but were constantly undercut and overtaken by the established Irish, who worked to maintain their superior status by the use of social exclusion and discrimination.

While racial bullying was only reported by 3% of the respondents, Scotland has a small minority population as it is. This may indicate that racial bullying is a significant issue for the outsider groups in the case of the three Glasgow schools. While this is purely speculation, it can be inferred that similar issues are occurring in these schools.

While the statistical information could be used and compared with similar studies, we cannot accurately determine the root cause of the social exclusion occurring. It also makes it difficult to view this data using a theoretical lens, as there are many inconsistencies and missing variables to consider. The specific ages of those surveyed are unknown, one school had a very small sample to offer, and the same applies for students in one of the years selected. This has rendered making comparisons between years very difficult.

When determining the rates of both cyberbullying and cybervictimisation, it was found that girls (21%) experienced a higher rate of victimisation than boys (13%) and that boys (24%) were more likely to experience cyberbullying online than girls (21%). This is where this comparison ends, however, as the necessary data to determine who was bullying whom is not available, because the question was not asked.
In conclusion, using Elias’s framework allows for a greater understanding into why young people choose to socially exclude others using cyberbullying as a venue to do so. The quantitative data is not sophisticated enough to allow this to be fully ascertained on its own. However, once combined with the qualitative data from the interviews, there is compelling evidence that the application of Established and Outsiders relations as a framework in which to understand cyberbullying as exclusion can be utilised. This is especially the case in understanding how girls engage in social exclusion online and how they work as part of a peer group to carry out these malicious acts. It can also be ascertained that Elias’s framework would be useful and beneficial in understanding forms of bias or identity based exclusion, in addition to understanding why exclusion may be affecting pupils entering secondary school as the perceived outsiders.

7.5 Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to critically discuss the findings of the research. This chapter has critically analysed the findings of the research and located them in the cyberbullying literature and research. First, the knowledge and understanding of educators regarding cyberbullying and social media was evaluated. It was found that there were varying degrees of knowledge, understanding, and experience, with teachers having the least understanding of both cyberbullying and social media. It was found that this was due to a number of factors, including lack of training as well as disinterest. In addition, educators elaborated upon their concerns about the extensive use of social media by young people, how it relates to cyberbullying, and how it is being addressed in school. It was indicated that wider responsibility was needed in addressing the behaviours, not just in schools, but in the wider community, government, and social media corporations as well.

The ways in which teachers understand cyberbullying and social media in addition to the lack of training raises questions about how young people are affected by the aforementioned issues. Does this allow them the freedom and power to engage in exclusionary practices online as they are “the established” group (in relation to cyberbullying and social media)?
Second, the impact of cyberbullying on young people from the educator perspective was discussed. Findings indicated that while those who have experienced cyberbullying have been emotionally impacted, and experience mental health issues as a consequence. Additionally, many young people who engage in social media are distracted in school due to the lure of their mobile phones. Additionally, young people are often struggling academically due to the usage of social media, as its use distracts them from academics and sleep. To further understand the role of cyberbullying as exclusion, those interviewed were asked why young people cyberbully. Responses were wide ranging, including pressure on young people, survival and power. While no theoretical model was expressed by those interviewed, it was felt that there was not one solitary reason that young people engaged in exclusionary behaviours, rather that it was a myriad of reasons that it occurred. This combination of factors could allow for GST, SIT, or Established and Outsider relations to be foundations for marginalisation of peers.

Third, the survey data found that traditional bullying is occurring at a slightly higher rate than cyberbullying, and that younger pupils and females are being impacted by it the most. Bias bullying and cyberbullying were also being witnessed at a higher rate than it was self-reported. Those surveyed also shared that they would go to a friend or parent before reporting incidents of bullying to their teachers. This brings us back to the beginning of the chapter, where the lack of training and knowledge of cyberbullying by teachers appears to be strongly connected to recognising the exclusionary behaviour. This evidence is suggestive of a disconnect between teachers and pupils, despite the attempts of teachers to provide a positive school climate.

Finally, the analysis concluded that Established and Outsider relations could be utilised in understanding why young people engage in exclusionary behaviours. The prevalence of cyberbullying determined from the survey in conjunction with the evidence from the educator interviews illustrates that young people are engaging in exclusionary practices through the medium of cyberbullying. Furthermore, this evidence is suggestive that girls are engaging in these practices of exclusion through the modern form of blame-gossip and stigmatisation: cyberbullying on social media, especially Facebook.
The next and final chapter draws conclusions from the study as a whole, as well as details limitations and provides recommendations and implications.
Chapter 8
Conclusions

8.1 Introduction

The overall purpose of this research was to gain a deeper understanding of cyberbullying as an exclusionary process and provide a theoretical framework grounded in education and sociology to better understand this phenomenon. Understanding and determining why young people exclude (Heirman and Walrave, 2012; Smith et al., 2008) in such a manner can assist in reducing the behaviours and establishing programmes in schools to alleviate these tensions (Cassidy, Faucher and Jackson, 2013). Furthermore, considerations were given to the understanding and recognition of cyberbullying and social media by educators, how educators are handling the challenge of cyberbullying, in addition to exploring how young people are experiencing cyberbullying.

This study was undertaken by utilising a mixed methods approach in which a survey with 450 pupil responses and thirteen educator interviews were conducted. The data was analysed and presented highlighting the pertinent issues relating to cyberbullying and exclusion as faced by both educators and young people. The research findings were presented, discussed, and analysed in relation to wider research literature.

This research adds to the understanding of cyberbullying as an exclusionary process by determining the motives behind the behaviours, in addition to obtaining a picture of what is occurring in schools from the educators’ point of view. It has drawn on the sociological theory of Established and Outsider relations proposed by Elias and Scotson (1994), selected for its potential for making sense of the motivations and possible reasons that young people engage in excluding behaviours. Obtaining a wider, unified theoretical perspective has been found to be an area lacking in this field (Smith, 2015; Tokunaga, 2010), which has contributed to the varied results in determining the prevalence of cyberbullying.
Using a sociological construct such as Established and Outsider relations in this field, with researchers largely opting for psychological theories (Cowie and Jennifer, 2008; Espelage, Holt, and Henkel, 2003; Espelage and Swearer, 2004; Hoff and Mitchell, 2008) to understand why young people exclude allowed a different viewpoint to emerge. While some have used sociological theories to understand exclusion (Agnew, 2010; Cullen et al., 2008; Hay et al., 2010; Patchin and Hinduja, 2011), they have tended to focus on the behaviours rather than the motivations behind the actions. Despite this difference in approach, these additional theories have been used as possible frameworks in which to view cyberbullying as exclusion in this study, when the application of Established and Outsider relations was not appropriate.

In order to understand how young people exclude, a quantitative study was conducted in three schools to determine the level of cyberbullying prevalence. In addition to these findings, teachers at the same schools, as well as educational professionals within the city of Glasgow, were interviewed as part of the qualitative portion of the study to further enrich the survey data, and to gain a greater understanding of why young people exclude their peers.

8.2 Why do young people cyberbully?

The results showed that educators believed that young people engage in cyberbullying for a variety of reasons, including but not limited to unhappiness, insecurity, and power. These findings, while not as theoretical or broad as found in the wider research literature are practical and deal with the realities that educators face when addressing issues of cyberbullying.

Unhappiness and insecurity was one such cause for the behaviour, which caused the perpetrators to improve their own self-esteem through bullying. These motivations could possibly be a result of a young person experiencing strain and then engages in cyberbullying as a coping mechanism (Agnew, 2010) (See sections 2.9.2, 7.3.1, and 7.3.3). Unhappiness and insecurity, in addition to societal and peer pressures, can also lead young people to engage in exclusionary practices. Again, this was an area where the results are to an extent at odds with wider research. Unhappiness and insecurity were not
delineated specifically as motivations for engaging in bullying behaviours. However, issues such as breakups and relationship problems (Hoff and Mitchell, 2009) in addition to problematic life situations such as divorce or illness (Levine, 2006) have been found to be motivations.

In addition, power was brought up as a cause for engaging in cyberbullying, where the bully would attempt to impose their will upon the victim. However, this was brought up in a limited fashion and was not a view that was expressed by all interviewees. Again, this is an area where the findings are at odds with the wider research in some respects, as power is frequently utilised in definitional issues regarding cyberbullying as explored in full in 2.3.1.

It can be surmised that the differences between the responses and the wider research may be related to the lack of knowledge and understanding of cyberbullying that was possessed by the majority of respondents. That being said, the analysis of the responses in conjunction with the discussions that occurred throughout the course of the interviews reinforces the utilisation of Established and Outsiders as a framework in which to understand the process of exclusion via cyberbullying.

8.3 The influence of social media on young people

The results of this study highlighted the fact that young people are using social media extensively. In addition, social media was found to be highly influential and was used for both socialisation and exclusion.

Both the interviews and survey data demonstrated that there is a widespread usage of social media applications (Chisolm, 2014; Marwick and boyd, 2014; Patchin and Hinduja, 2006; Tokunaga 2010) among those surveyed. The majority of pupils engaged in one or more forms of social media, which increased in usage as they grew older. The majority of pupils surveyed used Facebook (Lenhart, 2012; Purcell, 2012). This again correlated with what both teachers and non-teacher educators shared, which frequently included issues with young people using this social media site during the school day as well as engaging in cyberbullying using Facebook.
While young people use social media to communicate and share information with one another, it is also used to for exclusion, denigration, and exaggerating conflict (Marwick and boyd, 2014) between peers and peer groups. This was illustrated in many examples by those interviewed, ranging from simple disagreements to exclusion from Facebook groups, to vicious attacks leading to young people withdrawing from their peer groups, school, and attempting suicide. The effects of social media and cyberbullying will be addressed in the following section.

As young people use these sites with ease, there are concerns, as teachers are often not familiar with technology or with social media. This allows young people to actively engage in exclusion, often without teacher and parent knowledge. While the majority of cyberbullying occurred outside of the school day (Smith et al., 2008), it carried over into the school day, as the interview findings illustrated. As a result, young people are frequently concerned about what has occurred on social media throughout the previous evening or over the weekend, leading to disruption and distractions that require teacher intervention (De Smet et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2008). The findings showed that this was especially the case among girls.

Most teachers interviewed viewed social media negatively in addition to having a lack of knowledge and understanding surrounding it. They were also far less likely to use social media for themselves, unlike the majority of non-teacher educators. Teachers often found the reasons young people used social media lacking; they did not understand its use, which many felt was due to age or a generational gap. These findings highlighted that while teachers were concerned about cyberbullying, these concerns were not enough to encourage them to inquire about training opportunities or undertake personal investigation on understanding the social media sites that their pupils were using. It would appear that this digital gap between teachers and pupils may factor into the reasoning young people undertake when deciding to whom they should report instances of cyberbullying.
In conclusion, while young people continue to use social media easily, overall teachers were found to not engage or understand the use of social media. This may lead to problems when young people approach teachers with concerns about cyberbullying, as teachers are unable to understand the terminology being used or the gravity of such behaviour. In the next section, the effects of social media and cyberbullying will be discussed, especially as it relates to the above findings.

8.4 Young people, cyberbullying and social media

The analysis of the findings revealed two areas of significant interest related to young people and cyberbullying. First, the impact of cyberbullying and social media is extensive. Second, the prevalence of cyberbullying is considered.

8.4.1 The impact of cyberbullying and social media usage

The interview findings provide significant evidence that it is not solely the engagement in cyberbullying that is impacting young people, but the extensive utilisation of social media and technology that is having a dramatic impact on their lives. This is a challenge that both educators and young people face, often with different understandings.

The online activities of young people, especially as it relates to social media, was shown to have a serious impact on their lives inside and outside of school. While wider research has shown that cyberbullying has an extensive impact on the mental health and well being of young people, the findings of this study showed that access and utilisation of social media and technology is also having a detrimental impact. The relative ease of access to mobile phones and social media has allowed young people to be able to engage with others online at any time of day. For instance, this accessibility has led to increased reports of sleep disturbances. Furthermore, the lure of mobile phones and social media has provided young people with an additional distraction and potential source of stress and anxiety. In addition, the teachers interviewed overwhelmingly ascertained that social media distracted students during and outside class, for example, in the hallways. It was unclear as to whether the social aspect of social
media was holding their attention, or the exclusionary behaviours being perpetrated or instigated by young people.

Along with the impact of social media on young people, being a cyber victim was found to have serious repercussions on their mental health. The findings showed that suicidal ideation (Patchin and Hinduja, 2012) was a concern, in addition to the reported increase in self-harm. While these occurrences were not the norm, these cases highlight the importance of addressing the mental health impact that cyberbullying has on young people, especially in light of the suicides that have been found to be a result of victimisation as illustrated in the Introduction to this thesis.

While the evidence suggests that those impacted by cyberbullying experience mental health difficulties, the longevity of those difficulties were not mentioned by respondents; in fact teachers especially were unable to elaborate fully on this matter. Once the cyberbullying incident had been resolved, the issue was closed for discussion. These findings are problematic, as wider research has ascertained that the impact of cyberbullying on young people may continue long term and affect their education and mental health (Beran and Li, 2007; Connell et al., 2013; O’Moore, 2012; Patchin and Hinduja, 2006; Ybarra, Mitchell, Wolak, and Finkelhor, 2006).

8.4.2 Prevalence and engagement in cyberbullying

The findings of this research show that young people are experiencing cyberbullying primarily through the medium of the social networking site, Facebook. However, the most relevant findings to arise from both the survey data and the interviews are that girls were engaging in this behaviour more than boys.

Of those that were experiencing cyberbullying, fewer than 20% reported being victimised both via text and online means (social media, Facebook), and both younger pupils and females reported higher rates of victimisation in both cases. These findings are at odds with those who have asserted males to be the ones experiencing cyberbullying (Ackers, 2012; Anderson and Hunter, 2012; Edur-Baker, 2010; Hinduja and Patchin, 2009) and support those who have found that
females experience cyberbullying at a greater rate (Connell et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2013; Merrill and Hanson, 2016; Schenk and Frewmou, 2012). Gender and its relationship to cyberbullying continue to be an area of evaluation and further research (Ang and Goh, 2010; Connell et al., 2014).

Another important finding related to prevalence verified that traditional bullying was found to be occurring more frequently within these three schools compared to cyberbullying (Lapidot-Lefler and Dolev-Cohen, 2015), thus supporting the work of Olweus (2012). Despite this finding, this study was primarily concerned with the issues of cyberbullying, and a considerable amount of cyberbullying occurring in these three schools, as reported in the survey data and by the teachers interviewed.

In addition to gender and age, bias bullying and cyberbullying also need to be considered. Young people can and will readily discriminate against another individual or group based on gender, religion, sexuality or perceived sexuality, skin and hair colour, nationality, race, and other distinguishing factors (Hoff and Michell, 2008; Rivers and Noret, 2010). While the results were mixed, as illustrated in section 6.4, the findings show that there is a significant amount of exclusion due to such bias occurring. These findings suggest that the utilisation of the Established and Outsider relations framework could be applied here, where the dominant or established group constitutes the majority, which in this case are white, heterosexual young people.

While the issue of bias was not mentioned by teachers, social status bias was addressed by those employed in outside agencies. It was felt that young people bully and exclude those who are unlike them, who hold a lower social status than them due to not having the right markers of prestige, such as correct trainers, mobile phones, or clothes. This would allow again for the usage of Established and Outsider relations, with the established being those who have obtained a higher social status through status symbols, and those who were excluded as the outsiders (Maguire and Mansfield, 1998). However, the results from the survey show that the bullying and cyberbullying rate for social status exclusion was low. While this may be the case, this type of exclusion may still be occurring, especially if the respondents were unsure as to what social status
bullying actually meant. This may explain the large percentage of young people who witnessed bullying and cyberbullying and selected “none of the above” as an option on the survey.

While these findings are presented as overall findings, there were areas where they were differentiated, including by school. This necessitates the need for each school to individually address the types of bullying and cyberbullying occurring, while also maintaining the overall anti-bullying policy established by the Glasgow City Council.

In conclusion, both the utilisation of social media and being a cyber victim become a source of concern for educators. While the majority of pupils reported not being victimised online, younger pupils and female pupils experienced victimisation at a higher rate, with teachers corroborating that girls were the predominant gender involved in cyberbullying. In addition, there was a large discrepancy between self-reported bias bullying and witnessed bias bullying.

8.5 Educators, cyberbullying and social media

Recent evidence in research has found that pre-service teachers have confidence in recognising and addressing cyberbullying in the classroom (Spears et al., 2015). The results of this study highlighted a substantial deficit in both knowledge and understanding of cyberbullying and social media by current in-service teachers. In addition, a significant difference was found between teachers and non-teacher educators as it pertained to their knowledge of cyberbullying, social media and technology.

First, these findings illustrate that interviewed teachers are not equipped to handle issues related to cyberbullying and social media. The overwhelming evidence of the lack of training provided appears to be an integral part of their knowledge gap. This is supported both by their statements to the fact, along with the evidence provided by those who had undertaken training, the non-teacher educators. Non-teacher educators had undergone training and all had understanding and experience using social media. However, despite their
training, non-teacher educators had significantly less experience in dealing with issues of cyberbullying.

The evidence presented showed that teachers at the three schools were overwhelmed by the additional challenge of dealing with issues of cyberbullying. It can be suggested that this is a direct consequence of their lack of training. Furthermore, there appears to be a connection with no training and the assertion that cyberbullying should be handled by entities outside of the school; the government, police, or social media corporations.

These findings are at odds with Yilmaz’s 2010 replication of Li’s 2008 study, where more than half of the respondents felt confident in handling cyberbullying related incidents. While wider research has discovered that the lack of confidence in recognising and managing cyberbullying could be rectified with improved training (Cassidy, Brown and Jackson, 2012; Eden, Heiman and Olenik-Shemesh, 2013) there has been some evidence ascertaining that training has not always had an impact on addressing issues of cyberbullying. This may be due to the fact that current programmes aimed at decreasing cyberbullying have not provided teachers and staff with appropriate guidance in dealing with the behaviours (Van Cleemput et al., 2013). However, in this case, any training and assistance would have been beneficial, as the majority of teachers had little knowledge and understanding of how cyberbullying occurred through the use of social networks, and of social networking sites themselves (Cassidy, Brown and Jackson, 2012).

These findings highlight the need for training to be provided to teachers as well as the need for the schools to ensure that teachers have the training and assistance that is needed. Furthermore, teachers may need to consider taking the initiative in addressing any deficiencies in their training on their own.

While this study did not seek to determine the theoretical underpinnings related to the differences in understanding of social media and technology experienced by teachers and pupils, it can be suggested that the Established and Outsider framework might be effective in understanding the knowledge gap, as discussed in 7.2.2.
Given the evidence provided, teachers especially, are experiencing difficulties in addressing the issue of cyberbullying. As summarised above, the findings provide clear indications that increased education, knowledge, and professional development are necessary in order to address these challenges.

8.6 Established and Outsider relations and cyberbullying

Established and Outsider relations provides a framework for the understanding of the tensions between dominant and subordinate groups, and how the dominant group asserts said dominance over the ‘outsiders’ by using various forms of exclusion.

While the participants were not overly descriptive about the group dynamics or constructs that existed when discussing issues of cyberbullying, it can be surmised that exclusionary group dynamics were occurring at the participating schools. This was most evident in the incident of the prom Facebook group and the cyberbullying incidents that participants described which for the most part involved female participants. The quantitative data backs up these assertions with the findings that females were more likely to be involved in cyberbullying activities, especially as victims (Connell et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2013; Merrill and Hanson, 2016; Rivers and Noreiter, 2010; Schenk and Fremouw, 2012).

What was found through the interviews is that girls were more likely to be engaging in exclusionary practices online. While few details were provided about specific incidents that occurred, the evidence is suggestive of how girls tend to establish groups and cliques and actively exclude others who do not fit conventional norms. In doing so they use exclusionary practices, such as gossiping, name-calling, and excluding others on Facebook and other social media outlets (Marwick and boyd, 2014) to maintain or elevate their social position and denigrate those seen as the “other.” This gossip and exclusion carried out by girls towards other girls was found by both Maguire and Mansfield (1998) and Velija (2011).
As demographics such as race and social status were not obtained from the survey, nor were they mentioned as possible exclusion causes throughout the interviews with teachers specifically, it must be noted that the use of age and gender leads to a great deal of speculation. It is unknown whether or not the young people that took part in this study were cyberbullied by someone of their own gender, age, or peer group. It has been found with some degree of reliability that young people know who their perpetrator is (Lapidot-Lefter and Dolev-Cohen, 2015). Additionally, those who have been victimised via cyberbullying may have also been victimised at school (Cassidy et al., 2009; Olweus, 2012; Raskaukas and Stolz, 2007; Tokunaga, 2010).

Established and Outsider relations can also be used to explain the bias bullying and cyberbullying that was witnessed by young people according to the survey. Those who were victimised through cyberbullying were part of the ‘outsider’ group. This was illustrated in the example provided by Mr. Morgan, when he discussed the exclusion of the young women who chose not to conform to the school uniform standards and therefore were subsequently excluded and gossiped about because they chose not to fit in. Although these findings are generally compatible with the work of Elias and Scotson (1994), Lake (2011), and Loyal (2011), there are areas in which they differ, especially in connection to the way the power differentials and social inequalities were explored. While both power and social inequalities were touched upon in the interviews, there is not enough data to connect this with the cyberbullying occurring, given some of the anecdotal evidence provided was not current. It can thus be ascertained that those in the minority group fit within the outsider demographic and therefore are the ones who were excluded by those in the established position. As elaborated in Chapter 5, peer group cyberbullying is occurring on social media and is being used as a way to exclude and ridicule others. Doing so on Facebook, Instagram and Twitter is the way that today’s young people engage in exclusion and blame-gossip toward the inferior group. The denigration is the same; it is only the means that has changed.

Although these findings are generally compatible with the wider research literature, there are areas where they differ. While cyberbullying is often thought of as individual-to-individual bullying, results of this research often
showed that young people gathered in groups online to actively engage in exclusionary behaviours (Shim and Shin, 2016). In doing so, it has been supposed that they are excluding those who do not fit within the mould of their group by using tools of gossip and ostracism (Lake, 2011; Maguire and Mansfield, 1998; Powell, 2008). This difference between groups, according to Elias (1994), “merely serves as a reinforcing shibboleth which makes members of an outside group more easily recognisable as such” (p. xxx).

In conclusion, the theoretical framework of Established and Outsider relations can provide a greater understanding of cyberbullying and the group dynamics of young people, which are established online or in person. It can be suggested that older established pupils are the ones victimising the younger and that girl groups are engaging in excluding other girl groups (Thornberg, 2011). While this cannot be confirmed by the statistical data, the interviews do confirm that girls tended to exclude and victimise one another through cyberbullying. However, there are limitations, as not all cyberbullying occurs as part of a group dynamic. This is where additional theoretical lenses, such as GST, can be applied to gain a better understanding as to why young people exclude.

8.7 Implications

This section addresses the practical implications of the research as it pertains to the research questions and how these implications may impact those affected by such research.

First, determining the motivations into why young people cyberbully is a complicated issue that is subjective in nature and can be influenced by personal experience as well as the media. It is evident from speaking to educators that understanding what cyberbullying is and how it is perpetuated is complicated and multifaceted. It is suggested to further reduce the lack of understanding and knowledge about the nature of cyberbullying that comprehensive education should be provided to educators starting before they enter the classroom. This should be comprehensive and should encompass both traditional and cyberbullying behaviours, as well as how to both recognise and address them. Furthermore, this education should continue as professional development once they are in the classroom. Supplemental information should also be provided to
teachers and schools on a regular basis as social media continues to change and advance with the advent of new social media sites and applications. In addition, given that pupils are utilising and engaging with social media on a regular basis, they could work with schools and teachers in creating and maintaining websites and a social media presence for school functions and extracurricular activities, allowing pupils to be mentors.

As determining the motivations into bullying related behaviours is necessary and relevant, LEAs’, schools’, and teachers’ understanding of these changes would benefit from contact with researchers and participation in research projects. Furthermore, teachers should draw on the research that has already been conducted in order to obtain a greater understanding of the behaviours that they are witnessing on a daily basis.

Second, social media is being used as a tool for exclusion. It is also used for friendship and the exchange of information, photos, and videos. However, traditional bullying should not be neglected in addressing issues of exclusion as it is still widely utilised and can often be the instigator of further marginalisation through cyberbullying. The lessons that have been learned from traditional bullying and cyberbullying should help prepare for the future and any new forms of exclusion that arise as technology advances.

The results suggest that social media is important to young people and it is heavily relied upon. While the results offer suggestive evidence that limitations should be placed on the access of social media, especially in the light of cyberbullying, issues with school performance, and sleep disturbances, the practical applicability would not be possible. If access to social media became restricted to adults eighteen and over, young people would still find ways to exclude one another, either on illicit sites or in the form of traditional bullying.

In order to ensure that young people are being safe online there should be adequate supervision of young people both in school and at home. To this end, the crucial importance of parental and guardian involvement needs to emphasised and promoted, especially as the results of this study indicate that young people will reach out to parents over teachers when they have been
victimised. Teachers and parents should work together to ensure the safety of the young people with whom they are entrusted.

Third, the issues that arise from being cyberbullied are serious and have massive implications for all involved. Improved education and assistance need to be provided in order to protect the lives of young people.

The evidence suggests that young people, like educators, need training in how to use social media appropriately and safely. As nearly all teens are using social media and technology in some form or another (Madden et al., 2013), having access to education concerning Internet safety is imperative. This would allow those who use social media to understand how to access and utilise privacy controls, making sure that their personal information is kept safe, and showing them how to report issues of cyberbullying and harassment. Additionally, being educated on the consequences of cyberbullying (Stauffer et al., 2012) may also allow for a reduction in the activity.

In addition, support and guidance need to be provided to both educators and pupils, especially in relation to the long-term impacts and effects of cyberbullying. While not largely touched upon throughout the interviews, the impact of cyberbullying is long lasting and can have devastating effects on those involved. While teachers may not best provide this support, guidance through other avenues including outside agencies and mental health professionals might be beneficial.

Fourth, teacher education related to technology and cyberbullying needs to be improved. The evidence is very clear in delineating the lack of training in this area by teachers. The role of the school in combatting cyberbullying needs to be explicitly identified by the LEA, and teachers, pupils, parents, and authorities need to be complicit. Many questions arose from conversations with teachers in determining who handles issues of cyberbullying. While the policy of the schools ensures that each issue is investigated and recorded, teachers often felt that authorities or social media companies should be the ones responsible in dealing with cyberbullying. If it is determined that all teachers are not responsible, then there needs to be designated and trained staff available to assist pupils in need.
This needs to be stated clearly in the school’s anti-bullying policy as posted on each school website and in the schools handbook.

Training and education of educators needs to be regular and continuous (Paul, Smith and Blumberg, 2010), as the nature of cyberbullying through social media is constantly in flux. Professional development should be given to all educators and staff in how to recognise warning signs of victimisation and how to support pupils who have been bullied, and should be reflected in school and LEA policy. It should also include a primer on Internet and social media usage as well as ways to incorporate lessons on addressing cyberbullying through the curriculum and ways to develop “class websites where students and teachers are both users and producers” (Cassidy, Faucher and Jackson, 2013).

As current programmes have been found to provide little direction for staff and teachers (Van Cleemput et al., 2013), it has been found that educators need to educate themselves in these areas (Altricher and Posch, 2009). In doing so, it would help alleviate the digital gap that has been found between teachers and young people (Greenhow, Robelia and Hughes, 2009), as well as allowing educators to recognise how cyberbullying is perpetuated (Cross et al., 2009).

While there is no empirical evidence that supports anti-cyberbullying efforts (Stauffer et al., 2012), programmes that utilise positive behaviour reinforcement have been found to be effective in changing the climate of the school and thus reducing instances of traditional bullying and cyberbullying (Ross and Horner, 2013). With the change in climate and increased understanding by educators, this may allow for young people to be less reluctant in reporting issues of cyberbullying to teachers (Slonje and Smith, 2008).

Fifth, policies related to bullying and cyberbullying should be reviewed annually by LEA’s. This study suggests that the needs of teachers and pupils should be met when changing or modifying the current anti-bullying policy guidelines. They also should ensure that all schools have any changes reflected in their handbooks and websites. These policies should be clear and explicit in addressing how schools deal with issues of bullying and cyberbullying and who young people should address their concerns. Furthermore, schools should also continue to
utilise or re-establish restorative justice programs in school to help young people address issues before they escalate into exclusionary or victimising behaviours.

Last, there is a need for increased theoretical understanding into the motivations behind cyberbullying activities. This study offers suggestive evidence, as was stated previously in this section that these motivations are frequently misunderstood and are often not clear. Therefore, this study offers suggestive evidence that the utilisation of Established and Outsider relations would be a beneficial framework in which to understand cyberbullying as exclusion.

Using cyberbullying as a form of blame-gossip is one way the evidence is suggestive in understanding the relationship between girl groups, age groups, and those who engage in bias type exclusion. As the ways in which those who engaged in exclusion did so to maintain or elevate social status and therefore perceived power, in doing so, they have distanced themselves from the “outsiders.”

In utilising Established and Outsider relations, this would thereby allow for a shift in the understanding from motivations for engaging in the behaviours such as a breakup and more toward the social relationships that are present. As Elias developed his framework while studying the relationships that characterised the neighbourhoods that made up Winston-Parva, this could be applied to the school community and the peer groups that have been established by those in attendance. The results of the quantitative data suggests that this would be especially useful in determining the exclusion that occurs as young people transition from primary to secondary school (Pelligrini and Long, 2002) and how the established pupils utilise stigmatisation towards the new pupils, the outsiders.

### 8.8 Limitations of the study and future recommendations

While this study has provided empirical and theoretical evidence related to cyberbullying as exclusion and the utilisation of the usage of Established and Outsider relations as a framework in which to view it, there are limitations
which could be addressed in future research. This section explores both the methodological and theoretical considerations for future research endeavours.

8.8.1 Methodological limitations

First, had a pilot study been run for this portion of the research, some of the questions might have been amended, changed, or ultimately removed due to the way in which responses were answered (Bryman, 2012). This also would have allowed for the first question “How do you understand and recognise cyberbullying?” be changed to a question that asked for a more definitional response, which I was initially looking for.

Second, the initial scope of this research was to focus on prevalence of cyberbullying within Glasgow schools. As there was limited participation by the schools, the research scope was modified to incorporate teacher and educational professionals, their views of cyberbullying and how young people are experiencing it. The inclusion of these interviews thereby strengthened the quantitative data. However, the study sample size of thirteen educators could impact the ability of this research to be applied to other settings. In addition, the fact that only Catholic Schools were involved could also limit applicability as well as the type of teacher that was interviewed. It would be beneficial to explore this area with a variety of schools and teachers, rather than solely Catholic schools and Pastoral Care teachers, due to homogeneity of these schools based on catchment area.

Third, the ages of pupils were focused on those in secondary schools and therefore potentially not applicable to pupils in primary schools. Moreover, the majority of pupils that took part were in years S2 and S3, therefore the data may be biased towards those ages and not representative of all pupils in secondary school.

Fourth, there were concerns related to reliability and validity. One way to determine reliability of a survey or questionnaire would be to re-test the sample as a measure of stability. This was not done due to time constraints and the difficulty that occurred in obtaining the initial sample.
According to Joppe (p. 1, 2000), validity “determines whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are.” Given that there are two questions that pertain to the same issue in the survey, the validity of the results can be determined based on this indicator. The same responses were not given in each instance, which consequently reduced the validity of the survey, as what I intended to measure was not what the results showed. Moreover, while this sample was as random as possible, due to constraints, this did limit participant opportunity and may have affected the validity of the survey (Stanley and Campbell, 1963).

External validity is also a concern given the fact that respondents did have access to technology (Flatley, 2001) at Schools A and B, unlike School C, where a print copy was provided in order to increase the sample size. Due to the convenience factor (Dillman, Smyth and Christian, 2009) of the sample size and utilising the only schools that chose to respond, the results may not be applicable to the population at large – in other words, all secondary schools in Glasgow.

Fifth, as the scope of this research was limited to the three schools and the teachers and educational professionals who chose to be involved, there are some elements, which should have been provided for when outlining the parameters of the study. First, the study was unable to take into consideration the role of parents and guardians in addressing issues of cyberbullying. An attempt to rectify this deficiency was made in Phase 3 of the research project, which was established to obtain evidence from parents online through the use of digital narratives. Unfortunately, Phase 3 never occurred due to lack of interest.

There are often issues when recruiting parents for educational or sociological research. While this research was on a purely voluntary basis, it was found that one of the main reasons for not becoming involved in such projects is intrusion of privacy (Heinrichs et al., 2005). It may have been perceived to whoever read the request for information online, that this issue was far too personal to be shared with a researcher in such an informal manner. Thus, while using the Internet as a recruitment tool allows for flexibility and access to a wider range
of participants, often the response rate has been found to be low (Im and Chee, 2004).

8.8.2 Thematic and theoretical limitations

Teachers and educational professionals pointed out the need for parents to be involved in this aspect their children’s lives. There have been some studies that involve parents, such as Wong-Lo and Bullock (2011) and Compton, Campbell and Mergler (2014). However, how parents perceive the issues of cyberbullying remains an area requiring further research, where the focus could be on partnerships between pupils, schools, and parents in reducing exclusionary practices.

Second, another theme which did not receive enough attention was that of legal issues in relation to cyberbullying. As this study was focused on why young people cyberbully, understanding the role of the legal system was not fully approached. Future research could investigate the role of the police and legal issues as to how social media companies, such as Facebook, plan to keep young people safe while using their applications.

Third, gender differences in relation to cyberbullying would be an area for further inquiry, which could build on this study by assessing a wider range of schools. The research in this area is vastly mixed with many researchers finding girls to be more prone to engaging in cyberbullying compared to boys (Connell et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2013; Schenk and Fremouw, 2012) and many finding the opposite (Ackers, 2012; Anderson and Hunter, 2012; Aricak et al., 2008; Beran and Li, 2005; Hoff and Mitchell, 2009; Patchin and Hinduja, 2006; Slonje and Smith, 2008; Vandebosch and Van Cleemput, 2009). Future research into gender differences in cyberbullying should not only determine whether or not there is a difference in perpetration and victimisation, but also determine if age is an added factor within the confines of gender.

Fourth, while it was determined that race was not a factor within this study, extending this study to schools that have enrolled young people who have migrated from Syria and surrounding areas would be an additional area to investigate. Furthermore, this would also lead to practical applications of the
Established and Outsider theory. Determining whether or not newcomers to the school as the perceived outsiders are facing increased discrimination and victimisation from the established pupils would benefit from further inquiry.

Last, as a further extension and application of Established and Outsider theory, determining whether or not youth who identify as GLBTQ are experiencing greater exclusion and victimisation from those who identify as heterosexual (Rivers, 2001; Robinson, Espelage, and Rivers, 2013). This was an area of interest that arose from the survey questionnaire data, but no additional data was forthcoming from the interviews with teachers and educational professionals.

8.9 Conclusion

The findings of this study revealed that young people are strongly impacted by exclusion via cyberbullying. It also highlighted that cyberbullying is a significant issue in schools, despite, in most cases, taking place outside of school. Moreover, it was found that educators have a distinct lack of knowledge about cyberbullying and the media it takes place through.

This raises the question as to whether or not all teachers have a distinct lack of knowledge and understanding of cyberbullying. Outside educators were found to be more knowledgeable about cyberbullying as well as social media; therefore, it is entirely possible that the sample of teachers interviewed for this study happened to be the least knowledgeable. Further study in this area, as stated above, would be pivotal in determining if this is the case.

The findings further indicate that Established and Outsider relations is a suitable sociological framework to support the bases of exclusion via cyberbullying. However, it should also be stated that certain caveats need to be met for this to become a solid framework through which to understand cyberbullying as an exclusionary process. A complete and accurate picture of the gender, sexual, racial and, the social demographics of the groups to be studied need to be carried out first and foremost. Once this has occurred, similarly to Dunning’s (1999) investigations of issues of race, and Lake’s (2011) study of social
exclusion at a British tennis club, Established and Outsider relations can be used as a framework to understand marginalisation via cyberbullying in schools. Without this background, as was the case of this research overall, only speculation could occur, mostly with regard to female-female bullying as well as in regard to age and bullying behaviours related to gender and sexuality. Future research is therefore required to continue to explore the implications and recommendations illustrated in this study.
Appendices

Appendix 1: Ethical Approval from University of Glasgow for Phase 1 (quantitative survey data)

University of Glasgow | College of Social Sciences

Ethics Committee for Non Clinical Research Involving Human Subjects

Postgraduate Research: NOTIFICATION OF ETHICS APPLICATION OUTCOME

Application Details

Application Type: New Application Number: _____
(select from drop down as appropriate)

Applicant's Name: _____

Project Title:

Date Application Reviewed:

Application Outcome

☑ Fully Approved
(select from drop down as appropriate)

Start Date of Approval: 19 June 2012 End Date of Approval: 01 January 2015

If the applicant has been given approval subject to amendments this means they can proceed with their data collection with effect from the date of approval, however they should note the following applies to their application:

☑ Approved Subject to Amendments without the need to submit amendments to the Supervisor

☑ Approved Subject to Amendments made to the satisfaction of the applicant’s Supervisor

Some amendments only need to be submitted to an applicant’s supervisor. This will apply to essential items that an applicant must address prior to ethical approval being granted, however as the associated research ethics risks are considered to be low, consequently the applicant’s response need only be reviewed and cleared by the applicant’s supervisor before the research can properly begin. If any application is processed under this outcome the Supervisor will need to inform the College Ethics Secretary that the application has been re-submitted (and include the final outcome).

☑ Approved Subject to Amendments made to the satisfaction of the College Ethics & Research Committee

The College Research Ethics Committee expects the applicant to act responsibly in addressing the recommended amendments.

A covering note (letter or email) must be provided highlighting how the major and minor recommendations have been addressed.
Application is Not Approved at this Time
Please note the comments below and provide further information where requested. The full application should then be sent to the College Office via e-mail to Terri.Hume@glasgow.ac.uk. You must include a covering letter to explain the changes you have made to the application.

Select Option
(select from drop down as appropriate)
This section only applies to applicants whose original application was approved but required amendments.

Application Comments

Major Recommendations: (where applicable)
Not applicable.

Minor Recommendations: (where applicable)
Not applicable.

If amendments have been recommended, please ensure that copies of amended documents are provided to the College Office for completion of your ethics file.

Reviewer Comments (other than specific recommendations)
Not applicable.

Please retain this notification for future reference. If you have any queries please do not hesitate to contact Terri Hume, Ethics Secretary, in Room 104, Florentine House, 53 Hillhead Street, Glasgow G12 8QF.

End of notification.
Appendix 2 Letter to Glasgow City Council seeking approval for Phase 1 (quantitative data survey)

Wheatley House  
25 Cochrane Street  
Merchant City  
Glasgow, G1 1HL  

June 6, 2012  

To whom it may concern,

I am writing to introduce myself: my name is Cindy Corliss and I am a Research Post Graduate Student at The University of Glasgow. I have a B.A in Sociology, a Master of Education in Elementary Education, and a Master of Science in Educational Studies. I am currently pursuing my doctorate on the subject of cyber bullying in the early years of secondary school. I am, therefore, writing to obtain permission to survey students in years 2-4 at schools across the city that would be interested in participating via a brief questionnaire on their experiences with bullying and cyber bullying. The schools will be selected at random and will be contacted immediately to ensure participation in autumn.

I would like to undertake this at the beginning of the next school year (Autumn 2012), as to limit interference with lessons or activities. The survey would be optional and anonymous and would ask questions about bullying and cyber bullying experiences and how they are perceived by themselves, and how they think it is perceived in school. The questionnaire will be done via a survey on the internet, and the results will only be accessible by me. At no time will students be asked for any information that could be used to identify them in any way. The study will have gone through the University’s rigorous ethics committee before proceeding.

I would also be willing to present my findings to you and your administration/colleagues via presentation or written report once they have been analyzed at a time of your convenience.

I have enclosed the questionnaire questions as well as the plain language statement. A letter for parents will be made available once I have permission from the schools, as it will be catered to the specific school needs regarding parental consent.

Sincerely,

Cindy L. Corliss, M.Ed, M.Sc

School of Education  
11 Eldon Street, Room 573, Glasgow, G3 6NH  
C.corliss.1@research.gla.ac.uk

The University of Glasgow, charity number SC004401
Appendix 3: Letter of approval from Glasgow City Council for Phase 1 (quantitative survey data)

Cindy Corliss
School of Education
11 Eldon Street
Room 573
Glasgow

Dear Cindy Corliss

Proposed Research Project– Cyber bullying in Glasgow Schools among students in S2-S4

Thank you for your completed research application form in respect of the above.

I now write to advise you that this department has no objection to you seeking assistance with your project from schools in Glasgow City Council. I would confirm however that it is very much up to the Heads of Establishments to decide whether or not they participate and assist you in your research.

A copy of this letter should be sent to the Heads of Establishments when contacting the schools.

This approval is also on the condition that as there are young people involved regarding this project, and they are less than 16 years of age, parental/carers consent must be requested, and given, before such involvement. All researchers must have recently approved Disclosure Scotland checks.

I hope that this is helpful and that you have success with your project.

Yours sincerely,

Michele McClung
Dr Michele McClung
Principal Officer
Planning, Performance and Research Unit
Appendix 4 Letter to Schools seeking access for Phase 1 (quantitative survey data)

June 6, 2012

To whom it may concern,

I am writing to introduce myself: my name is Cindy Corliss and I am a Research Post Graduate Student at The University of Glasgow. I have a B.A in Sociology, a Master of Education in Elementary Education, and a Master of Science in Educational Studies. I am currently pursuing my doctorate on the subject cyber bullying in the early years of secondary school (Years S2-S4). I am, therefore, writing to enquire whether your school might be interested in participating in a brief questionnaire on their experiences with bullying and cyber bullying. This research project has been approved by Glasgow City Council, and I have attached the approval form with this letter.

I would like to undertake this at your convenience as to limit interference with lessons or activities. The survey would be optional and anonymous and would ask questions about bullying and cyber bullying experiences and how they are perceived by themselves, and how they think it is perceived in school. The questionnaire will be done via a survey on the Internet, and the results will only be accessible by me. The study has gone through the University’s rigorous ethics committee and has been approved. I have attached a copy of the questionnaire for your perusal.

I understand that a parental consent letter would be needed before students participate in this survey. I can provide a basic consent letter, or use one that your school has already created for such purposes.

I am also willing to present my findings to you and your administration/colleagues via presentation or written report once they have been analysed at a time of your convenience.

Sincerely,

Cindy L. Corliss, M.Ed, M.Sc

School of Education
11 Eldon Street, Room 573, Glasgow, G3 6NH
C.corliss.1@research.gla.ac.uk

The University of Glasgow, charity number SC004401
Appendix 5: Plain Language Statement for pupils Phase 1 (quantitative survey data)

Plain Language Statement

1. Study title and Researcher Details
The title of the study is "Cyber bullying experiences among year S2-S4 students in Glasgow, UK"
The researcher for the study is Cindy L. Corliss, M.Ed, and M.Sc.

2. Invitation paragraph
Thank you for taking the time to read this. You are being asked to voluntarily participate in this questionnaire survey. This survey will ask you questions about your experiences with bullying and cyber bullying. If at any time you decide not to continue, let the administrator know, and your data will not be saved or used at any time.
Thank you for reading this.

3. What is the purpose of the study?
The purpose of this study is to investigate the phenomenon of cyber bullying and its prevalence in schools today.

4. Why have I been chosen?
You have been chosen, because you are within the age range and school year that the researcher is using to obtain data. You also attend one of the schools that has agreed to participate in the study.

5. Do I have to take part?
No, you are not obliged to take part. However, if you decide that you would like to participate, you can withdraw at any time and your data will not be included in the study.

6. What will happen to me if I take part?
If you take part, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire electronically. It should take no longer than 30 minutes to complete.

7. Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?
Yes, your data will be kept confidential. Only the researcher, Cindy Corliss will have access to your data.

8. What will happen to the results of the research study?
The results will comprise a part of the researcher’s dissertation for the PhD programme within the School of Education of the University of Glasgow. The results of this research study may be published as a journal article or used in conference papers.

9. Who has reviewed the study?
The present study has been reviewed by the School of Education’s Ethics Committee of the University of Glasgow.

10. Contact for Further Information
If you need any further information, you can contact the researcher through his e-mail address: c.corliss.1@research.gla.ac.uk
If you have any concerns regarding the conduct of the research project, you can contact the College of Social Sciences Ethics Officer by contacting Dr Valentina Bold at her e-mail address: valentina.bold@glasgow.ac.uk

Having read the plain language statement, having understood what is being asked of me and in the knowledge that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason, I understand that by completing the questionnaire I am signalling my agreement to participate.
Appendix 6: List of questions for Phase 1 (quantitative survey data)

Bullying/Cyber bullying Questionnaire

These questions have to do with bullying and cyber bullying. Bullying is a repeated aggressive intentional act or behaviour toward another individual that occurs over time. Cyber bullying is the same aggressive intentional act or behaviour toward another individual that occurs over time using electronic means such as text messages and the Internet including but not limited to Twitter, Facebook, and MySpace.

Bullying involves acts of exclusion, violence, rumour spreading, and hurtful behaviours over time where the individual is unable to defend themselves.

Please answer these questions honestly. At any time you can decide to not continue. All of your responses will be kept confidential.

1. Are you
   male
   female

2. I am in year
   S2
   S3
   S4

3. Have you been bullied in school during the last 12 months?
   No
   Once or twice
   2-3 times per month
   once a week
   more than once a week

4. Have you been cyber bullied during the last 12 months?
   No
   Once or twice
   2-3 times per month
   once a week
   more than once a week

5. When did the bullying last happen?
   In the last week
   In the last month
   In the last term
   In the last 12 months
   N/A

6. What kind of bullying was it? (check all that are applicable)
   Physical (hitting, kicking, pushing)
   Verbal (calling names, making threats, teasing, sending threats by phone or over the internet)
   Indirect (spreading rumours, excluding you, writing graffiti, passing notes, posting information of you online)
   N/A

7. Would you describe the bullying that you have experienced as (select any of the following that apply)
   Cyber bullying (via the computer, internet, or text)
   Racist or related to your religion
   Homophobic (because you are gay, some one thinks you are gay, or someone calls you gay)
   Sexual (saying things about you in a sexual way that makes you uncomfortable)
   Sexist (someone bullying you because you are a boy or girl)
   None of the above
   N/A

8. Where does the bullying usually happen? Select all that apply.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9. How long has the bullying lasted?</td>
<td>1-2 weeks, a month, up to six months, a year, longer than a year, N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. How often have you been bullied via text messages?</td>
<td>Once or twice, 2-3 times per month, a few times a week, N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Have you bullied anyone via text message in the past 12 months?</td>
<td>Yes, No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. How often have you been bullied via email or online in the past 12 months?</td>
<td>Once or twice, 2-3 times per month, a few times a week, N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Have you bullied anyone via email or online in the past 12 months?</td>
<td>Yes, No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. What forms of online technology do you use? Select all that apply.</td>
<td>Text messaging, Facebook, Twitter, Instant Messaging, Blogging, Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Have you seen bullying in your school in the past 12 months?</td>
<td>Yes, a lot, Yes, a little, No, Prefer not to say</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. When did you last see bullying occur?</td>
<td>In the last week, In the last month, In the last term, In the last 12 months, N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. What kind of bullying was it?</td>
<td>Physical (example: punching, hitting, kicking), Verbal (example: teasing, taunting, ridiculing, name calling), Indirect (example: exclusion, rumour spreading)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Would you describe the bullying in any of the following ways? Select all that apply.</td>
<td>Cyber bullying (via the computer, internet, or text), Racist or related to your religion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Homophobic (because you are gay, some one thinks you are gay, or someone calls you gay)
Sexual (saying things about you in a sexual way that makes you uncomfortable)
Sexist (someone bullying you because you are a boy or girl)
None of the above
N/A

19. How well do you think your school deals with bullying?
   Very well
   Quite well
   Not very well
   Badly
   Bullying is not a problem in my school
   Do not know

20. Does your school care for pupils who are worried or sad about bullying?
   Yes, all the time
   Yes, some of the time
   No
   Not sure

21. Who would you tell if you were being bullied? Select all that apply.
   No one
   a teacher or member of staff at school
   a friend
   a parent or care giver
   another adult (police officer, youth worker, etc)
   brother or sister
   an online community

22. What would you do if you saw someone else being bullied? Select all that apply.
   Nothing
   Walk away
   Laugh
   join in
   Tell a teacher or another adult
   try to stop it
   comfort the person being bullied

23. What do you think will work best to stop bullying?
   An anti bullying policy that makes it clear what bullying is and how it will be stopped.
   Clear rules about bullying
   An adult you can talk to if you are worried
   A friend or peer you can talk to if you are worried
   Classroom lessons about bullying
   Assemblies about bullying
   Parents and carers who are involved
   Bullying is not a problem in my school

24. Do you have any additional comments to make regarding bullying or cyber bullying?

Thank you. You have completed questionnaire. As this is confidential, please keep your responses private.

If you have been the victim of bullying or cyber bullying I encourage you to talk to your teachers, parents, or care givers.

You can also ring Childline at 0800 1111 or visit their website at childline.co.uk.

There are other resources out there regarding bullying that can be accessed by a simple Google search.

Remember you are not alone. Bullying happens to lots of people and you are not the only one this has happened to. There are people out there who care about you and wish to help.
Appendix 7: Ethical Approval for Interviews for Phase 2 (qualitative data)

**Application Details**

Application Number: 
Applicant’s Name 
Project Title 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Application Status</th>
<th>Approved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Start Date of Approval: _ (d.m.yr) 
(blank if Changes Required/Rejected) 
End Date of Approval of Research Project: _ (d.m.yr) 

Only if the applicant has been given **approval** can they proceed with their data collection with effect from the date of approval.

**Recommendations** (where Changes are Required)

- **Where changes are required all applicants must respond** in the relevant boxes to the recommendations of the Committee and upload this as the **Resubmission Document** online to explain the changes you have made to the application. All resubmitted application documents should then be uploaded.

- **(If application is Rejected)** a full new application must be submitted via the online system. Where recommendations are provided, they should be responded to and this document uploaded as part of the new application. A new reference number will be generated.

(Shaded areas will expand as text is added)

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<tr>
<th>MAJOR RECOMMENDATION OF THE COMMITTEE RECOMMENDATIONS</th>
<th>APPLICANT RESPONSE TO MAJOR</th>
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<th>APPLICANT RESPONSE TO MINOR</th>
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<th>REVIEWER COMMENTS COMMENTS (OTHER THAN SPECIFIC RECOMMENDATIONS)</th>
<th>APPLICANT RESPONSE TO REVIEWER</th>
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Please retain this notification for future reference. If you have any queries please do not hesitate to contact Terri Hume, Ethics Administrator.
Appendix 8: Letter to schools for interviews for Phase 2 (qualitative data)

Cindy L. Corliss
Room 573
School of Education
St Andrews Building
11 Eldon Street
Glasgow, G3 6NH

30 September 2014

To whom it may concern:

Dear _______________,

In 2012 you allowed me to undertake a questionnaire study with pupils in your school on cyberbullying. The results were very helpful in better understanding this phenomenon from the pupil perspective. I am writing to ask if it would be possible to interview a few members of staff, including yourself, and any pastoral care teachers.

The interviews would last no longer than 45 minutes and can be arranged at the convenience of your staff. If interviews are not feasible at this time, a questionnaire can be arranged.

As you know, cyberbullying is of growing concern across the world. It is my hope and intention that this study on how it is affecting young people in Glasgow will add to collective efforts in learning about how to deal with its effects and impede its spread.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely,

Cindy L. Corliss M.Ed, MSc.

Email: c.corliss.1@research.gla.ac.uk
Appendix 9: Interview guide for Phase 2 (qualitative data)

According to Willard, cyberbullying is comprised of threatening messages to an individual, sharing sensitive information about another person, and exclusion of others (2005). It is easily thought of as bullying via electronic means, using phone calls, emails, texts, video, IM chatroom conversations, and websites and mobile phone applications including Ask.FM, Bebo, Facebook, Twitter, and Snapchat, among countless others.

Keeping in mind this definition, please answer the following questions. If they are not applicable to your role, please leave the question blank.

1. What is your own understanding of cyber bullying?

2. How common do you believe cyber bullying is? For example, do you think it is more common or prevalent than traditional bullying in schools currently? Please can you explain your answer.

3. How common is cyber bullying in your school or organisation? How many reports of cyber bullying do you receive per week?

4. How was the bullying policy created for your school?

5. How were you informed of the policy?

6. How does the policy respond to the issue of cyber bullying?

7. Have you ever had any professional development training on cyber bullying?

8. Have you been involved with a cyber bullying incident with a student or young person?

9. How did the incident occur?

10. How long did it take for the school or organisation to become involved?

11. How was the incident managed?

12. What was your understanding of the impact on the victim? The perpetrator? The school/organisation? The family?

13. Coincidentally, the schools that agreed to take part in this study are all Catholic schools. In your view, how does being a Catholic school affect a) the school’s approach to bullying in general and b) the school’s approach to cyber bullying in particular? c) For illustration, examples from your experience at the school would be helpful.
14. For how many years have you been teaching? 1-5; 6-10; 10-15? More than 15?

15. What is your role?

16. For how many years have you been working in your current role? 1-5; 6-10; 10-15? More than 15?

17. How old are you? 20-30; 30-40; 40-50; 50-60; 60-70?

18. What is your gender?
Appendix 10: Plain Language Statement for Interviews for Phase 2
(qualitative data)

Research Study: Cyber bullying experiences among S2-S4 pupils in Glasgow

Plain Language Statement

Researcher Details
The researcher for the study is Cindy L. Corliss, MEd, MSc, a PhD student at the University of Glasgow c.corliss.1@research.gla.ac.uk

Prof Andy Furlong and Dr. Lesley Doyle are her supervisors (email: Lesley.doyle@glasgow.ac.uk Tel 0141 330 1805)

Invitation to participate in the study
Before you decide whether you will take part in this research study it is important for you to understand why it is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask me if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

Thank you for reading this.

The purpose of the research
The purpose of this study is to understand better the phenomenon of cyber bullying\(^8\) and its impact on young people.

Participation in the research will assist the researcher in gaining information, views and insights into how young people and the teachers and professionals who work with them deal with their cyber bullying experiences. Coincidentally, the schools that agreed to take part in this study are all Catholic schools so you will also be asked questions relevant to the pastoral care in your school.

Why you have been chosen
You have been chosen to take part either because you have primarily pastoral or academic responsibility for children in secondary school, or are a member of a related professional association or because you work with young people in another professional capacity.

\(^8\) Cyber bullying has been described by a leading researcher in the field (Willard, 2005) as comprised of threatening messages to an individual, sharing sensitive information about another person, and exclusion of others. It is most easily thought of as bullying via electronic means, using phone calls, emails, texts, video, IM chatroom conversations, and websites and mobile phone applications including Ask.FM, Bebo, Facebook, Twitter, and Snapchat, among countless others.
There is no obligation to take part in this research study and if you decide later that you wish to withdraw, you can do so without giving a reason

What participation in the project will entail
You will be interviewed in your professional capacity for your perspectives on, and experiences of, young people and cyber bullying. This will take no longer than 45 minutes. If it is not possible to arrange an interview time, you will be asked instead to complete a questionnaire. This should take no longer than 30 minutes.

Confidentiality
You will be given a pseudonym for the research study so that in the researcher’s thesis, any publications or reports your participation will be confidential and anonymous

The results of the research study
The results will comprise a part of the researcher’s thesis for a PhD within the School of Education of the University of Glasgow. The results of this research study may be published as a journal article or used in conference papers.

Review of the study
The research plan has been reviewed by the University of Glasgow College of Social Sciences Ethics Committee

Contact for Further Information
Please contact Cindy Corliss (c.corliss.1@research.gla.ac.uk) if you have any queries about the study.
If you have any further concerns regarding the conduct of the study you can contact the College of Social Sciences Ethics Officer Dr Muir Houston
muir.houston@glasgow.ac.uk

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Cindy L. Corliss, M.Ed, M.Sc
Appendix 11: Interview Consent Form for Phase 2 (qualitative data)

Title of Project: Cyber bullying experiences among S2-S4 pupils in Glasgow

Name of Researcher: Cindy Corliss

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the Plain Language Statement for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

3. I consent to interviews being audio-taped

4. It has been explained to me that I will be referred to by pseudonym in any publications arising from the research

5. I agree / do not agree (delete as applicable) to take part in the above study.

_________________________________________   __________________________
Name of Participant   Organisation

_________________________________________   __________
Role   Date   Signature

_________________________________________   __________
Researcher   Date   Signature
References


Education. 16(2), 27-31.


Merrill, R., and Hanson, C. (2016). Risk and protective factors associated with being bullied on school property compared with cyberbullied. BMC Public Health. 16(145), 2-10.


Renold, E. (2006). ‘They won’t let us play... Unless you’re going out with one of them’: Girls, boys and butler’s ‘heterosexual matrix’ in the primary years. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*. 27(4), 489-509.


Rigby, K., and Barnes, A. (2002). To tell or not to tell: the victimised student’s dilemma. *[Bullying.]. Youth Studies Australia*. 21(3), 33.


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⁶ School name replaced for anonymity.

⁹ School name replaced for anonymity


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11 School name replaced for anonymity


Welker, H. S. (2010). *Principal Perspectives on Social Networking and the Disruptive Effects of Cyberbullying*. Ann Arbor: ProQuest LLC.


