

Children's Perceptions of Teachers' Responses to Bullying:
Relational Schemas as Predictors of Seeking Teachers' Assistance

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the role teacher-relational bullying schemas may have in influencing the likelihood of youth seeking teachers' assistance. The first goal of the study was to assess whether supportive and helpful teacher-responses to bullying schemas (TRBS) were associated with greater likelihood of involving teachers, and unhelpful TRBSs was related to lower likelihood of teacher seeking coping. The second goal was to examine possible differences in TRBS and likelihood of seeking help based on sex, grade, personal behavioral blame, personal aggression, and victimization. Towards these aims, data were gathered from 320 fourth and sixth grade students (152 boys; 168 girls) in the fall and spring of the academic year. MANOVA analyses revealed sex and grade differences, such as sixth grade boys were least likely to tell their teacher and most likely to blame their own behavior for being bullied than any other group. Results from a series of regression analyses found personal behavior blame and peer-directed aggression was related with less likelihood of telling. In addition, the association between parents or principal TRBS and telling the teacher was moderated by personal behavioral blame. Moreover, punishment predicted lower probability of telling concurrently and longitudinally.

I dedicate my thesis to my husband, Qa'ed Mai, and parents, Guillermo and Sekar Cortes.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Bullying has been identified as a global problem with estimates showing that approximately 10% to 20% of school-aged children experience intentional and unprovoked peer aggression that persists over time (Boulton & Underwood, 1992; Smith & Brian, 2000). Bullying includes physical, verbal, relational and cyber bullying, and crosses gender (Kochenderfer-Ladd & Skinner, 2002), race (Graham, 2006), and socioeconomic status (Christie-Mizell, 2004) lines.

Researchers have largely dispelled the misconceptions that bullying is a normative experience of childhood with minimal long-term consequences. That is, victimized children have been consistently found to be at greater risk for adjustment problems across various social, psychological, and cognitive domains compared to their non-victimized peers. For example, they are at greater risk for loneliness (Ladd & Troop-Gordon, 2003), low self-esteem and poor social relationships (Ladd & Troop-Gordon, 2000), suicidal ideation and nonsuicidal self-injury (Bonanno & Hymel, 2010; Heilbron & Prinstein, 2010), and suicide (Klomek, Marrocco, Kleinman, Schonfeld, & Gould, 2007). Further, in the school domain, bullied children tend to exhibit avoidant behaviors, such as developing negative school attitudes (Kochenderfer & Ladd, 1996a, 1996b), absenteeism and dropping out of school (Otieno & Choongo, 2010), and underperforming academically (Juvonen, Wang & Espinoza, 2011). Moreover, the consequences of bullying have long-lasting effects for both chronic and transient victims. For instance, Kochenderfer-Ladd and Wardrop (2001) found that children who were victimized in the fall semester of their school year reported higher levels of loneliness and negative school

perceptions the following spring than non-involved classmates, whether or not they continued to be bullied.

In response to the empirical documentation of the harmful effects of victimization on children's adjustment, along with growing societal pressure for schools to take a more active stance against bullying, anti-bullying policies and programs have proliferated (O'Moore & Minton, 2005; see also Smith, Pepler, & Rigby, 2004). Consistent with evidence showing that most bullying (with the exception of cyber-bullying) takes place on school grounds with adults present and available (Hawkins, Pepler, & Craig, 2001), most programs are implemented in schools by school professionals (e.g., counselors, teachers, teacher aides). Teachers are typically selected as the primary implementers of such programs because they spend a larger proportion of their day with students compared to other adults; thus, they are most likely to witness acts of bullying. Furthermore, researchers have shown that teachers' involvement can prevent subsequent bullying (Nicolaidis, Toda, & Smith, 2002; Yoon & Kerber, 2003).

However, without significant awareness-raising efforts and specific training in identifying and intervening in bullying situations, most teachers are either unaware of the bullying that takes place (Crothers, Kolbert, & Barker, 2006; Novick & Isaacs, 2010) or they feel unprepared and ineffective; in either case, they are unlikely to intervene (Novick & Isaacs, 2010). This is especially problematic because when teachers do not recognize, acknowledge or intervene in bullying, the psychological effects on the victimized children may be especially harmful (Yoon & Kerber, 2003). For example, when teachers do nothing in response to bullying, students may believe that adults condone such behaviors or begin to develop relational schemas that represent adults, in general, as

uncaring and unsupportive. Thus, teachers' efforts in responding to bullying are not only important because they are likely nearby when bullying occurs (and can thus intervene quickly to stop it), but also because students' perceptions and psychological and physical well-being are heavily influenced by how their teachers respond.

Because teachers are not always cognizant of bullying, even when directly supervising children's activities (Crothers, Kolbert, & Barker, 2006), most anti-bullying programs encourage students to bring bullying to teachers' attention. Preliminary evidence supports this advice. Specifically, Novick and Isaacs (2010) found that teachers are more likely to intervene in bullying situations when students approach them directly. Unfortunately, children tend to be reluctant to inform teachers of bullying, and often refrain from telling adults about bullying incidents. For example, Smith and Shu (2000) found that 30% of victimized 10-to-14-year old youth did not inform anyone about being bullied. Moreover, Hazler and Hoover (1993) found that adolescents (ages 12 to 18) do not tell their teachers about bullying because they do not believe teachers are effective at stopping the harassment. Thus, a primary aim of this study is to examine factors that may predict children's decisions to involve, or not to involve, their teachers when bullying occurs.

To date, very little research has addressed the question of why children are hesitant to involve teachers in helping them deal with bullying peers. However, investigators have identified potential factors that increase the likelihood that students will feel comfortable approaching teachers and seeking their help when they are bullied. For example, Oliver and Candappa (2007) found that when students have close relationships with their teachers, they are more likely to seek their help. It seems

reasonable to conclude that participating in close relationships with teachers signifies the presence of a relational schema in which teachers are perceived to be caring and supportive. Additional support for this conclusion comes from a study conducted by Eliot, Cornell, Gregory, and Fan (2010) who specifically reported that students who perceived their teachers as caring and interested in them tended to be more comfortable telling their teachers about being bullied. In addition, Aceves and colleagues (Aceves, Hinshaw, Medonza-Denton, & Page-Gould, 2010) found that teachers' helpfulness in resolving past bullying episodes encourages victimized children to seek them out for help. Moreover, they found that positive perceptions of teachers not only increased the likelihood of a bullied student asking them for help, but such perceptions were also associated with decreased episodes of victim's reacting aggressively.

For this study, a relational schema framework was used to generate and test hypotheses. Specifically, the premise of this investigation was that, over the course of several academic years of interacting with teachers, students have developed relational schemas, or a set of expectations, for how teachers would respond if they were approached with a bullying situation. In turn, such schemas were expected to influence the likelihood of whether or not students would tell their teachers about bullying problems and seek their advice or assistance. In other words, based on past experiences reporting victimization to teachers, or observing classmates seeking teacher assistance, it is posited that youth develop schemas of their teachers as either caring, helpful and effective at handling such situations, or as uncaring and unhelpful (see Troop-Gordon & Quenette, 2010 for a similar argument). It was further hypothesized that if youth believe teachers will be helpful and sympathetic to their plight, they are more likely to involve

teachers than if they have relational schemas of teachers as being unsympathetic and uncaring.

To test these hypotheses, children's relational schemas of their teachers' responses to bullying were assessed by asking children what they believe their teachers would do if bullying occurred. Specifically, children's perceptions of how their teachers would respond to bullying (Teacher Responses to Bullying Schemas; TRBS) were assessed by having youth rate how likely it is that their teachers would respond to their requests for assistance by using various strategies, including ensuring the bully was kept away from them, punishing the bully, or telling them (the victims) to stand up for themselves. Then, it was hypothesized that victims would be more likely to involve teachers if their TRBSs reflect teachers as caring and helpful, such as expecting them to take their reports seriously and engage in direct actions to prevent it from happening in the future such as by keeping bullies away from them (i.e., separate victim and aggressor), or involving others (i.e., principals and parents) to stop the harassment. In contrast, relational schemas reflecting unsympathetic and unhelpful expectations of teachers' responses were expected to predict less likelihood of seeking teachers' assistance. For example, it was expected that teachers' strategies such as (a) encouraging victims to stand up for themselves, (b) advising them to ignore (stay away from) the bullies or (c) just telling them to take care of it on their own, would be viewed by youth as minimizing their predicament and to be unhelpful in dealing with a bullying peer. Thus, youth who hold such TRBSs were expected to be less likely to tell teachers.

The behavioral consequence of TRBS in which teachers are perceived as likely to punish the bully is less clear. On one hand, the students may perceive their teacher as

trying to be helpful and supportive and thus desire to seek out their help. On the other hand, they may still be reluctant to involve teachers out of fear of social repercussions for getting bullies in trouble and being labeled a tattletale. Thus, although no clear hypothesis was forwarded, it was of interest to explore the relation between TRBS of teachers as punishing and the extent to which students would report bullying.

In addition, gender and age are expected to influence the likelihood of seeking teachers' help, such that boys, and older children would be less willing to involve teachers. For example, because boys are socialized to handle social problems independently (e.g., receive messages that they are to be strong, assertive and aggressive), they may be more likely to hold relational schemas (TRBSs) that teachers will tell them to assert themselves or deal with bullies on their own; in turn, boys would be less likely to rely on teachers for help than girls. Similarly, older children may be receiving messages that they are to deal with social problems on their own, thus they were also expected to hold relational schemas that teachers will respond by telling them to assert, ignore, or otherwise handle the bully on their own. In turn, older youth are expected to be less likely to seek help from teachers than younger students.

A final exploratory objective of this study involves examining whether the relationship between TRBS and telling the teacher is moderated by personal behavior blame, personal aggression (i.e. whether a child picks on others or not), and victimization. For example, it was expected that youth who take some blame for their harassment (i.e., personal behavior blame), or those who have a reputation or history of behaving aggressively, would be less likely to seek teachers assistance as they may feel culpable and equally deserving of punishment, or at the very least, not expect much

sympathy from adults. However, for victims who do not feel any blame or are nonaggressive, they may be especially willing to tell teachers if they believe the teachers will be helpful and intervene. In addition, youth who are highly victimized may not see any other course of action than to tell teachers; thus, they may be more inclined to involve teachers even if they don't hold TRBSs that teachers are going to be particularly helpful.

Most studies incorporating students' reports of reporting bullying incidences to their teacher have used samples consisting of adolescents (see Aceves et al., 2010; Novick & Issacs, 2010). This study aims to fill the gap in the literature and include preadolescent children. Moreover, because older children have more experience interacting with teachers and observing how teachers respond to bullying than younger ones, this study was conducted with students in the higher elementary grades (4th and 6th grade).

Although there does appear to be real risks associated with informing teachers (Oliver & Candappa, 2007), teachers remain the most promising avenue for intervening in bullying. Of particular importance is that they represent the adult in the classroom with the moral obligation to ensure the safety of their students as well as the authority to discipline bullies and socialize all their students in appropriate behavior. Moreover, the personal relationship they form with students offers a stable context for offering ongoing emotional and social support to the victims.

Summary

Despite anecdotal evidence, very little research has been conducted on why children are reluctant to involve teachers when bullying occurs. Such understanding is critical if interventions aimed at improving teachers' intervention strategies are to be effective. Moreover, if teachers are to help victimized children, they need to be aware of bullying problems--and the most obvious way to be made aware of such problems is if children tell them directly. Thus, this study investigated the role teacher-relational bullying schemas may have in influencing the likelihood of youth seeking teachers' assistance.

To achieve this aim, students' relational schemas of their teachers were assessed by gathering data on their teacher-responses to bullying schemas (TRBS), and then determining the extent to which these expectations correlate with the likelihood they will seek help from teachers. It was hypothesized that expectations that teachers will separate victims and bullies or involve parents and principals to resolve bullying problems reflect sympathetic and helpful relational schemas which would be, in turn, associated with greater likelihood of involving teachers. In contrast, expectations that teachers will not take action, such as encouraging the victim to assert him or herself, advocating the victim ignore the bully or deal with it on their own, were hypothesized to reflect unhelpful relational schemas associated with lower likelihood of teacher seeking coping. It was also of interest to investigate how believing teachers will punish the bully would influence whether or not children will tell them.

Additional exploratory objectives of this study were to examine possible differences in TRBS and likelihood of seeking help based on sex, grade, personal

behavioral blame, and the degree to which they are themselves involved as either bullies or victims. For example, it seemed reasonable to suspect that bullies, and children who feel themselves responsible, at least in part, for the harassment, would be less likely to report victimization than victims—regardless of what they believe teachers would do.

Chapter 2

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Parental consent forms, in both English and Spanish, were sent home with approximately 600 fourth and sixth grade children. Permission was obtained for 320 (72 fourth grade boys and 86 fourth grade girls; 80 sixth grade boys and 82 sixth grade girls) ethnically diverse children (44.4% Hispanic or Mexican American; 45.3% European American; 9.4% Black, Native American, Asian American, biracial and other races) who attended one of four schools in the Phoenix-Mesa area. The students' teachers ($N = 38$) also agreed to participate and complete questionnaires about themselves and their students. The socioeconomic status of participants was estimated to be low-to-middle income based on the percentage of students who were eligible for the reduced or free lunch program (i.e., 26%, 56%, 79% and 95% of students in such programs at the four schools).

Procedures

Data were gathered in Fall 2006 (T1) and Spring 2007 when children were in fourth and sixth grade. Nineteen children left participating schools at Time 2; thus, their data were not gathered. T-tests conducted to determine if those who left the study differed on any of the T1 study variables from those who remained showed there was no difference for likelihood of telling teacher, teacher-relational schemas, aggression and peer victimization. Missing T2 item-level missing data for these children and other missing data were imputed five times under the missing at random assumption (see below).

As there were a significant number of Spanish-speaking and bilingual students present in the sample, child questionnaires were written in both English and Spanish. During the group administrations of questionnaires, both English- and Spanish-speaking interviewers were available to answer questions as they arose, and to assist individuals who needed extra help completing the measures. Prior to group administration of the questionnaires, students were informed that their answers would be private and not shared with other students, parents, or school staff. Students were instructed not to talk to one another or share their answers with other students, in order to ensure that their answers remain private. A small school-related gift was given to students for participating in the project. Teachers were also asked to complete questionnaires; for their participation, teachers received a monetary payment based on the number of students participating in their class (\$5 per child).

Measures

Telling teachers. The degree to which children anticipate seeking help from teachers if bullying occurred was assessed using a subscale of Kochenderfer-Ladd and Pelletier's (2008) "What I would do" (WID) coping with bullying scale. Of the 27 coping items, three items specifically tap involving teachers: (a) tell the teacher what happened, (b) ask the teacher what to do, and (c) get help from a teacher. Children used a 4-point scale to rate how often they would get help from a teacher if they were bullied (1= never; 2 = sometimes; 3 = most of the time; 4 = every time). Items were averaged to create a single score; the scale showed adequate reliability at both time points ($\alpha = .82$ and $.87$ for T1 and T2 respectively; see Table 1 for means and standard deviations).

Child-perceived teacher responses to bullying schemas (TRBS). Children's perceptions of how their teachers would intervene in incidences of classroom bullying were assessed using the Perceived Teacher Response Scale (PTRS; Troop-Gordon & Quenette, 2010). This scale consists of 23 items that children rate on a 4-point scale indicating how often (1 = never; 2 = sometimes; 3 = most of the time; 4 = every time) their teacher responds in a specific manner "if their teacher caught someone picking on or being mean to another kid". This measure has five scales and items were averaged within each scale: (a) 3-item *punish the bully* (e.g., yell at the students who are picking on the kid; $\alpha = .50$); (b) *encourage victims to assert themselves* (7 items, e.g. tell the kid being picked on to fight back or stand up for themselves; $\alpha = .74$); (c) *separate students* (4 items, e.g. tell the kids to stay away from each other; $\alpha = .76$); (d) *involve parents or principal* (5 items, e.g. let the parents know that their kids were being mean; $\alpha = .80$); (e) *advocate ignoring* (4 items, e.g. tell the kid getting picked on to just ignore it; $\alpha = .72$). Means and standard deviations are reported in Table 1.

Personal behavior blame. To assess the degree to which children attribute peer victimization to their own behavior, students used a four-point scale (1 = never; 2 = sometimes; 3 = usually; and 4 = always) to indicate the reasons they believe they have been targeted for peer aggression (Visconti, Kochenderfer-Ladd, & Clifford, under review). Scores for personal behavior attributions were computed by averaging across the six relevant items (e.g. *I did something mean to them; I did something they didn't like; I did something wrong*) and showed adequate reliability ($\alpha = .77$; see Table 1 for means and standard deviations).

Aggression. Peer nominations of children's aggression were obtained to examine whether children's propensities toward aggression were associated with the degree to which they would report victimization to their teachers. Specifically, children were asked whether or not each participating classmate "picks on others." Aggression scores were computed by averaging peers' yes (scored 1) and no (scored 0) responses (range 0 to .90; SD = .19).

Peer victimization. The self-reported scale of the Multi-Source Peer Victimization Inventory (MSPVI; Ladd & Kochenderfer-Ladd, 2002) was used to assess peer victimization. Students used a four-point scale (1 = never; 2 = rarely; 3 = some of the time; and 4 = a lot of the time) to rate how often they experienced five forms of victimization: (a) general victimization (e.g., pick on you); (b) verbal (e.g., call you mean names or say hurtful things to you); (c) break or ruin your things; (d) physical (e.g., hit or push you); and (e) say mean things or lies about you to other kids. Victimization scores were computed by averaging the five self-report items ($\alpha = .84$; see Table 1 for means and standard deviations).

Chapter 4

RESULTS

Following multiple imputations to treat for missing data, two sets of data analyses were conducted. First, descriptive analyses were computed, and correlations were conducted to examine relations among study variables. Second, regression analyses were utilized to examine the extent to which children's perceived teacher responses to bully schemas (TRBS) in the fall of the school year predicted concurrent as well as changes (from fall to spring) in the likelihood they would tell their teacher about bullying. Potential moderators of these relations were explored as well.

Missing Data

Data missingness was examined at Time 1 and Time 2 using SPSS 20 Missing Value Analyses, and the average overall rate was < 10% (range across variables was from 0% to 15.60% [for teacher-student relationship] scores at T2). In addition, 19 children were missing all data at Time 2 due to leaving participating schools (< 6%). Thus, missing data were handled by imputing five data sets using SPSS version 20 Missing Values package, and predictive mean matching was used to keep imputed values within an appropriate range for the observed data. According to Rubin's (1987) guidelines, five imputed data sets will yield 98% efficiency for data sets with up to 10% missingness. Analyses were conducted for each data set and pooled across estimates. All subsequent analyses presented, including the creation of composite variables and interaction terms, were conducted before the multiple imputations were conducted.

Descriptive Statistics and Normality

The means and standard deviations for all the study variables at both time points are presented in Table 1. All scores were within the expected range. The leverage and Cook's distance diagnostic test were conducted in SPSS to identify outliers. The regression command was used to compute the leverage and Cook's distance statistic as an additional option when conducting the regression analyses. The leverage and Cook's distance values are recommended to be less than $(2k + 2)/N$ and $4/N$ respectively, where k (where k is the number of predictors and N is the number of observations; Kleinbaum, Kupper, & Muller, 2007). The results from the leverage and Cook's distance test were .025 and .003 respectively. Thus, the data did not contain any outliers according to leverage and distance. Normality of the study variables was examined using descriptive statistics. The highest absolute value of skew and kurtosis was 1.35 and 2.19 respectively (see Table 1). The skew and kurtosis statistic were close to zero. Thus, no transformation procedures were warranted.

To examine if the children's responses exhibited dependency within a classroom or school, intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs) and design effects were computed. ICC values of .05, .10 and .15 are considered to be small, medium and large, respectively (Hox, 2002). ICCs indicated low to moderate dependency within classrooms (ranged from .0005 to .12) and schools (ranged from .001 to .04). The ICC values for the study variables suggested that the scores were expected to correlate between less than 1% and 12% based on children being in the same classroom. Similarly, ICC values suggested that children's responses would correlate between less than 1% and 4% based on children being in the same school. Design effect statistics that exceed a value of 2 suggests the

data is clustered and multilevel modeling may be warranted. Based on the design effect statistics, none of the study variables were largely clustered within classrooms; however, design effect results indicated some dependency within schools. Therefore, children's school membership was controlled for in subsequent regression analyses as a covariate. Multilevel modeling was determined not to be appropriate because there were only four participating schools and thirty-eight participating teachers, and because group-level variances and standard errors may be underestimated when the number of groups is small (Maas & Hox, 2005).

Correlations Among Study Variables

Distinctiveness of subscales. Low to moderate correlations (r s range from $-.03$ to $.54$) among teacher responses to bullying schemas suggests that the scales are tapping somewhat distinct views of how teachers would handle cases of bullying (see Table 2). In addition, the low correlations found among the potential moderator variables indicated they were tapping distinct constructs (see Table 3). Although personal behavior blame was significantly and positively related to picking on others, the low correlation ($r = .18$) may indicate that blaming one's behavior does not mean that one is also behaving aggressively; rather this construct refers to various other types of behaviors that peers may not like or they find funny (e.g., someone doing or saying something wrong) or irritating.

Correlates of *Telling the Teacher*. Low to moderate correlations were found between Time 1 TRBSs and the degree to which they would tell teachers if they were bullied (see Table 4). Specifically, for both T1 and T2 *Telling the Teacher*, positive correlations were found such that higher expectations for teachers separating students

were associated with greater likelihood of telling. Moreover, at T1, a positive correlation was found for schemas reflecting beliefs that teachers would involve parents and principals and telling. Furthermore, aggression scores and personal behavior blame were negatively correlated to T1 and T2 *Telling the Teacher*. Interestingly, the frequency of peer victimization was not associated with the likelihood of involving teachers.

MANOVA

To examine possible mean differences in all study variables at T1 by gender and age, 2 (grade) X 2 (sex) multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVAs) were conducted to test for the effects of grade and sex. In addition, two-way interactions were examined. All significant interactions were examined with Bonferroni post-hoc comparisons. Because pooled results for the MANOVA analyses are not generated by SPSS, to obtain the MANOVA pooled estimates, relevant output was exported into an Excel spreadsheet and the mean, standard error and *F*-test was averaged across the original and five imputed data sets (Rubin, 1987). The following equation was used to compute *p* values for the *F*-tests: " $= \text{FDIST}(W, X, Y)$ ", the numerator and denominator degrees of freedom as *X* and *Y*, and *W* refers to the observed *F* value. Results revealed significant main effects for sex (Wilks' Lambda $F(13, 304) = 3.65, p < .01$) and for grade (Wilks' Lambda $F(13, 304) = 5.75, p < .01$), as well as a significant sex by grade interaction (Wilks' Lambda $F(13, 304) = 2.11, p < .05$).

Although a main grade effect was found for T1 *Telling the Teacher* (see Table 5), an interaction with sex qualified this effect. Bonferroni post-hoc analyses conducted to breakdown the interaction revealed significant group differences such that sixth-grade boys were less likely to involve their teachers than all other children (see Table 6).

Similarly, while main effects were found for both sex and grade for the punish TRBS, Bonferroni post-hoc tests examining the sex by grade interaction revealed that fourth-grade girls held this belief to a lesser extent than all other children (see Table 6).

Additional main effects of either gender or grade were found for: (a) assertion TRBS (effect of grade, $F(1, 316) = 4.86, p < .05$), (b) involve parents/principals TRBS (main effect of sex: $F(1, 316) = 9.29, p < .01$, and grade: $F(1, 316) = 6.81, p < .01$), and (c) aggression (sex effect: $F(1, 316) = 19.29, p < .01$, and grade: $F(1, 316) = 29.63, p < .01$). Specifically, boys were more likely than girls to believe that teachers would involve parents or the principal, and they were also more likely to be nominated by their peers as picking on others (aggressive). Further, fourth graders were more likely than sixth graders to believe the teacher would tell them to assert themselves if they were bullied, and less likely to be nominated as aggressive.

Lastly, for personal behavior blame, although main effects of both gender, $F(1, 316) = 4.19, p < .05$, and grade, $F(1, 316) = 8.28, p < .01$, were found, these effects were qualified by a sex by grade interaction. Bonferroni post-hoc analyses showed that sixth grade boys were more likely to blame their own behavior for being bullied than any other group (see Table 6).

Multiple Regressions

To test the primary hypotheses that TRBS would predict the likelihood children would tell the teachers about bullying, six regression equations were computed (see Table 7 for summary of regression analyses conducted). Specifically, three of the analyses were conducted to determine whether TRBS accounted for unique variance in concurrent levels of telling the teacher as well as to test for possible moderation effects of personal

behavior blame, aggression, and victimization; each moderator was examined separately (thus, the three distinct equations). The next set of three regression equations examined the degree to which changes in telling the teacher could be predicted from TRBS as well as test for possible moderation effects. All continuous variables were mean-centered prior to creating interaction terms. Moreover, mean-centered variables were entered as appropriate into their respective equations.

Significant interactions were further analyzed using procedures described by Aiken and West (1991). Specifically, simple slopes were assessed using the mean-centered product term of TRBS variables and varying levels of the moderator variables (e.g., personal behavior blame, aggression, victimization). The mean and standard deviation of the moderator variable was used to estimate what is low, medium and high for the moderators. In other words, values of one standard deviation above the mean, the mean and one standard deviation below the mean for the moderating variable were used.

Regression analyses used to test a hypothesis with a power of .80, alpha of .05, medium effect size of R^2 (.13), and 16 predictors should have a sample size between 139 and 159 (Green, 1991). The sample size of this study is 320; thus, this study theoretically should have enough power to conduct the analyses. The last step of all six analyses was computed using the stepwise procedure. Although the stepwise procedure is considered to be empirically driven, it was preferred over simultaneous in order to limit the independent variables that were not contributing and reduce the size of the regression model.

Concurrent regressions. For each of the concurrent analyses predicting T1 *Telling Teacher* scores, categorical variables of sex ($1 = male$; $2 = female$) and school

were entered on the first step to control for their effects, followed by all TRBS entered simultaneously on the second step. Then, a different moderator was entered for each of the three regression equations (personal behavior blame, peer victimization and aggression) on Step 3. Then, on Step 4, a stepwise procedure was used to examine if the variable entered on Step 3 moderated any of the five different TRBS.

Although all three equations were significant on Step 3, only personal behavioral blame was found to moderate the effects of the TRBS (i.e., the belief that teachers would involve parents or principal; see Table 8) on Step 4. Specifically, in all equations, believing teachers would punish the aggressor was associated with lower likelihood of telling while whereas believing teachers would involve parents or principal predicted greater probability of telling (see Table 8). In addition, main effects were found for personal behavior blame ($\beta = -.38, t = -3.26, p < .01$; see Table 8) and peer-directed aggression ($\beta = -.69, t = -2.17, p < .05$; findings not tabled), such that blaming ones' own behavior for being victimized and being aggressive oneself were associated with less likelihood of involving teachers.

A breakdown of the interaction between involving parents or principal TRBS and personal behavior blame revealed that, although beliefs that teachers would involve other adults were associated with a greater likelihood of telling the teacher, this relationship was stronger among children with lower personal behavior blame compared to those in moderate or high self blame (see Figure 1). In other words, children were more likely to tell teachers whom they expected to involve parents and principals if they did not feel they were personally culpable or responsible for the victimization.

Predictive regressions. The procedure for the predictive regressions was similar to the concurrent. However, the dependent variable for predictive regressions was T2 *Telling Teacher*. Additionally, T1 Telling the teacher was entered on the first step along with school and sex. While all six regression equations were significant, only one significant main effect was found; in particular, belief that teachers would punish the bully predicted decreases in telling the teacher over time (see Table 9).

Chapter 6

DISCUSSION

In response to the emphasis intervention programs and adults place on advising victims to tell their teachers when they are bullied, the present study examined factors that influence the extent to which children will tell their teachers about being victimized. Specifically, this study examined four distinct relational schemas children may hold for how teachers would respond to bullying (TRBSs), and hypothesized that schemas representing teachers as helpful would predict greater likelihood of involving teachers whereas those indicating teachers as unhelpful or even making the situation worse, would predict less likelihood. Four primary findings emerged: (a) it was found that TRBSs could be reliably assessed and revealed useful predictive power; (b) TRBS of involving other adults appears to be viewed by youth as a helpful way teachers may respond; specifically, it was associated with greater likelihood of telling teachers; (c) TRBS of punishing appears to be viewed negatively (as unhelpful) based on its association with lower levels of telling the teacher concurrently and decreases in telling the teacher over time; and (d) children tend to be less likely to report bullying to their teachers if they are either aggressive themselves or in some other way blame themselves for the victimization. In addition, mean differences by sex and grade were also detected that were generally consistent with hypotheses. These mean differences will be discussed before turning the attention to the relations between TRBS and telling the teacher.

Mean Differences by Sex and Grade

As predicted, the results suggested that boys and older children were less likely to tell their teachers. Specifically, an interaction effect was found that showed sixth-grade

boys were less likely than fourth-grade boys and girls of either age to involve teachers. The results are consistent with the argument that it is more socially acceptable for girls to seek support for social problems whereas boys are expected to cope independently with bullying. Thus, boys and girls may use different coping mechanisms for bullying. For instance, Kochenderfer-Ladd and Skinner (2002) found that seeking social support was a protective factor for victimized girls, but victimized boys who sought social support were more likely to have lower peer preference. Previous research has also found that younger children are more willing to report asking adults for help than older children (Aceves et al., 2010; Kochenderfer-Ladd & Pelletier, 2008). In addition, older children, and especially boys, may receive the message that involving teachers is tantamount to tattling, and may be at greater risk for retaliatory abuse for involving adults into peer problems. Moreover, older children have more coping skills or resources than their younger peers; thus, they may not need to rely on teachers for assistance. Support for this speculation can be culled from Rock and Baird's (2012) finding that older children provide more solutions about responding to bullying episodes than their younger peers.

TRBSs mean differences. Although not expected, girls (especially younger ones), were least likely to believe their teacher would punish the bully. It is possible that the lack of perceived punishment may be due to the form (e.g., relational, exclusion versus physical) of bullying engaged in by girls; that is, relational victimization is not easily observed and teachers may be challenged to identify it as bullying even when they do witness it. For instance, researchers have found that teachers do not view relational aggression as serious as physical aggression, and are thus less likely to intervene (Craig et al., 2000; Yoon & Kerber, 2003). Moreover, Rock and Baird (2012) found that

physically aggressive situations were more likely to elicit children's report of involving a teacher than in episodes of relational aggression. Thus, it may not be merely that girls perceive teachers as less likely to punish bullies, but that their perceptions are based on experiences in which teachers minimize the harmfulness of the types of bullying most common among their peer group. Furthermore, punishment may not be the best strategy for dealing with relational or indirect forms of bullying. For example, Young, Boyle, and Nelson (2006) suggest intervention programs for relational aggression to focus on prosocial skills rather than reacting to inappropriate behavior.

Interestingly, boys and older children were more likely to believe that teachers would involve other adults, such as parents or the principal. As previously mentioned, boys are more likely to engage in physical aggression, and teachers tend to view physical victimization as more serious than indirect forms of aggression (Craig et al., 2000; Yoon & Kerber, 2003). Due to the perceived seriousness associated with physical victimization, teachers may feel required to involve additional adults. Furthermore, teachers report feeling underprepared for how to intervene effectively in bullying incidences (Novick & Issacs, 2010); teachers may feel even less prepared to handle physical altercations between students. In addition, while close student-teacher relationships decline over time, conflictual student-teacher relationships increase (Jerome, Hamre, & Pianta, 2009). The poorer quality of relationship may be a reason teachers are not comfortable with intervening alone in bullying among older children.

Study moderators. Consistent with findings indicating that sixth-grade boys were least likely to tell their teachers, sixth-grade boys were also the most likely to attribute bullying to something they may have done (i.e., personal behavior blame).

Peers also viewed boys and older youth as more aggressive than girls or younger students. Negative correlations between telling the teacher and personal behavior blame and aggression suggest that feeling partially culpable for one's victimization may prevent victims from seeking recourse. It may be that by blaming oneself—or by responding aggressively to bullying—the victim does not feel deserving of sympathy or help, or at least does not feel that any would be forthcoming. Alternatively, it may be that both aggressiveness and behavioral self-blame attributions for harassment are adaptive coping mechanisms. For example, Juvonen and Graham (1998) found behavioral self-blame was not linked as strongly to negative outcomes as characterological self-blame (i.e., attributions related to one's unchangeable characteristics) because victims believe that they can change the behavior that led to the victimization; thus, they may feel that they still have the power themselves to fight back and stop the bullying. In such situations, intervention programs that stress involving an adult may not be effective for older boys without additional intervention work to counteract some boys' tendency to either blame themselves or their desire to handle the bully on their own (i.e., aggressively).

Predictors of Reporting Bullying to Teachers

Evidence of supportive and helpful TRBSs. It was hypothesized that TRBSs that reflected teachers' as active and helpful would be related to greater likelihood of involving teachers. Based on significant and positive correlations, TRBSs that teachers would separate students and/or involve parents or principals could be construed as positive and helpful teacher responses. In other words, when youth believe that teachers would respond to their reports of bullying by actively intervening by either keeping the bully away from them or by involving other adults, they are likely viewing their teachers

as caring, helpful and responsive; thus, they are likely to tell teachers about such episodes. Moreover, expectations that teachers would involve parents or principals accounted for unique variance in concurrent predictions of telling the teacher above the contributions of all other TRBSs.

Interestingly, students were less enthused about telling teachers who would involve parents or principals if they felt they were somehow deserving or partially to blame for the bullying. That is, although findings showed the belief teachers would involve parents or principal predicted greater likelihood of telling the teacher, this relationship was even stronger among children with lower personal behavior blame compared to those moderate or high in self-blame. It is not surprising that children would not want their parents or other school administrators to learn about behaviors that they perceive as the cause of the victimization. On the other hand, perhaps victimized children with higher levels of self-blame feel that adults' responses will confirm their culpability and make them feel even more helpless and, thus, would not want to approach teachers who involve additional adults for help.

Despite these promising findings, longitudinal studies are still needed to determine if actually involving parents and principals is indeed a helpful strategy. It could be that if involving adults is not effective at reducing victimization, youth begin to see this as a less helpful strategy over time, and, thus, no longer tell teachers if they expect they will continue involving them. Alternatively, if it is an effective strategy, youth may no longer have any bullying to report to teachers. Similar studies are needed to determine the actual effectiveness of separating bullies and victims; although prior research

suggests that this may be an effective strategy for reducing victimization (Kochenderfer-Ladd & Pelletier, 2007)

Evidence of unhelpful TRBSs. In contrast to TRBSs of separating and involving parents and principals, believing the teacher would punish the victim appeared to be viewed by youth as unhelpful. Specifically, the belief that a teacher would punish the bully was a significant predictor of lowered likelihood of telling the teacher concurrently and decreases in telling over time. Previous researchers have found children avoid telling anyone about being victimized due to the fear of the social repercussion. For example, Oliver and Candappa (2007) found that children worry they would be ridiculed by their peers for reporting the bullying, and feared the bullying would worsen, especially if the bully were punished. It is not difficult to imagine victims' being reluctant to tell teachers who may not only be able to stop the victimization, but may, in fact, make it worse. Thus, recommendations for punishing bullies should be made with caution and with care to protect victims from repercussions. Unfortunately, empirical evidence suggests that teachers are less likely to intervene unless teachers are approached directly for help (Novick & Isaacs, 2010). Thus, it is critical that children seek assistance from their teacher. However, the current findings illustrate that believing the bully will be punished may actually deter some children from telling their teacher about victimization. Such findings have serious implications for prevention and intervention programs that require punishment or implement a "zero tolerance" policy suggesting such strategies may further harm, rather than protect, victims.

TRBS of advocate assertion and advise ignoring. The results of this study failed to support the hypothesis that TRBS of advocating assertion and advising ignoring

would be related to children's reluctance to tell their teachers. A potential explanation for the null findings is that the underlying processes may be different for boys and girls. For example, Troop-Gordon and Quenette (2010) found that lower levels of internalizing distress was related to expecting teachers to advocate assertion, avoidance and independent coping for boys. On the contrary, the perception that teachers would use these strategies did not have the same buffering effect for girls. Future studies may consider examining TRBS of advocating assertion and ignoring the bully separately by gender.

Personal blame and aggressive behavior as predictors of telling the teacher.

In addition to the interaction with TRBR of involving parents and principals, a main effect of personal behavior blame was found that showed a lower likelihood of telling the teacher. Similarly, picking on others (i.e., being aggressive oneself) also predicted lower likelihood of reporting victimization. This is not surprising considering aggressors of victimization would not want draw their teachers' attention to their bullying behaviors. Similarly, children may fear their teachers' response if they attribute a bullying incidence to something they did to deserve it. In other words, children may be afraid that they will be punished for the behavior that caused the bullying.

Limitations and Implications

Findings from this study may be confounded by shared method variance; that is, the same children reported on their experiences with victimization, perceptions of their teachers' responses to bullying and likelihood of telling the teacher. While it was acknowledged that it would be illuminating to have the perspectives of others, especially teachers, the theoretical rationale for this study is based on children's relational schemas.

Moreover, Baldwin (1997) has argued that relational schemas are most commonly and reliably assessed through self-reports.

A second potential limitation is that the data were gathered over a short time span of one year, and did not allow for examinations of causal priority. Future research using more time points over longer periods of time may offer additional insights into how children develop relational schemas of whether or not their teachers are helpful and caring.

Additionally, it could be argued that children's perceptions of how their teachers would respond are erroneous or are based on experiences with previous teachers and hence they may not really know what their current teacher would do. In other words, in the current study, children reported on their perceptions of what they think their teachers would do, not necessarily what they actually do. Thus, children's belief about what their teacher would do may not be an accurate depiction of their teachers' actual responses.

Finally, although the TRBS for involving parents or principal positively related to telling the teacher was interpreted as helpful strategies, the effectiveness of the strategies was not assessed. Longitudinal studies examining the changes in peer victimization should be examined in future investigations.

Despite these limitations, the current study addresses the very timely and pertinent question of what factors may influence whether or not children follow interveners' recommendations to tell their teachers about bullying. Consequently, results from this study have important implications for the policies and intervention strategies on peer victimization and bullying. For instance, significant grade and sex differences in teacher responses to bullying schemas imply effective intervention programs and strategies may

be different for children based on their age and sex. In addition, if interventions encourage victims to inform adults about their bullying experiences, then teachers should be aware that punishing the bully might reduce the likelihood of victims approaching their teachers. Furthermore, involving parents and principal may be helpful for children, unless they believe they are to blame. Teachers may want to reassure their students not to be afraid of repercussions from their own behaviors. Policy makers and interventionists should not only evaluate intervention programs by reductions in victimization, but also be wary of how recommended strategies affect victims' likelihood of seeing help.

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APPENDIX A
LITERATURE REVIEW

Relational Schemas

Social cognition is largely influenced by the concepts individuals have about themselves and others. For instance, Baldwin (1997) argued that individuals use “if-then” rules to draw conclusions about themselves, such as: “*if* I eat a lot of chocolate, *then* I must like it.” Thus, their self-schema involves being someone who likes chocolate. Similar “if-then” rules also guide how information about others is processed and are thus based on social interactions. For example, after noticing someone they just met smile, an individual may develop a schema of that person as friendly using the if-then process; “*if* a person smiles, *then* they are friendly”. In turn, Baldwin (1997) hypothesized that individuals’ social behaviors are largely based on if-then expectations that they developed on previous social interactions. Although it is difficult to empirically study the internal process of if-then schemas, studying such structures with relational schemas may help illuminate differences in victimized children’s openness to sharing bullying experiences with their teachers.

Relational schemes are defined as “cognitive structures representing regularities in patterns of interpersonal relatedness” (Baldwin, 1992). Relational schemas require self-schemas along with a schema based on interpersonal interactions. In other words, as a person spends more time with an individual, they become more accurate predictors of how that particular individual will react in various situations (Baldwin, 1997); such anticipated behaviors comprise one’s “scripts” for how interactions will transpire with specific people. For instance, utilizing a relational schemas theoretical framework, Troop-Gordon and Quenette (2010) studied whether teachers’ responses to victimization moderated the relationship between victimization and their students’ internalizing distress

and school avoidance. They postulated that children integrate their teachers' reactions to bullying into their relational schemas. Specifically, children's perceptions of how their teachers would respond were expected to moderate the relationship between victimization and internalizing distress and school avoidance. Consistent with their hypothesis, the investigators found evidence that relational schemas reflecting which intervention strategy children believed their teacher would use (for example *not* advocating avoidance, assertion or independent coping) can buffer victims against the negative consequences of bullying (e.g., emotional and academic maladjustment).

Other bullying and peer victimization researchers also utilize relational schemes in their studies. For example, Salmivalli, Ojanen, Haanpaa, and Peets (2005) used peer-relational schemas to guide their investigation of how social goals differed among individual children. Specifically, they proposed that peer-relational schemas represented children's self-schema within a social peer context and schemas developed based on the child's perception of their peers. The results suggested that using both the child's self and peer schema was found to be better predictors of social behavior. The utilization of relational schemas in this study indicates the importance of incorporating relational schemas to fully comprehend social behavior.

Building upon previous research, it is postulated that, based on previous experiences and interactions with their teachers, students develop schemas for how their teachers will react if they were approached for help with a bullying situation. Moreover, these TRBS are expected to differentially predict whether or not children seek teachers' assistance in such situations. To empirically examine children's relational schemas, children's perceptions of their teachers' responses will be obtained. Such self-reports

have been found to be a reliable method to understand the influence of a person's relational schema on their behavior (Baldwin, 1997).

Before describing specific hypotheses about the relations between youths' TRBS and seeking teacher coping, a consideration of the factors that influence whether or not teachers intervene in bullying situations on their own accord—that is, without being asked to intervene directly by students—is presented. This section is then followed by additional factors that may influence whether or not victimized children will confide in their teachers.

Factors that Influence Teachers' Intervention in Bullying

As society becomes more aware of the negative consequences of victimization, educators are being asked (or required in many states) to implement anti-bullying programs in their schools. The majority of such programs require teachers to employ a significant role. That is, teachers are often asked to be the first responders to bullying episodes because they: 1) have the most contact with youth in school, 2) are responsible for other forms of classroom management and discipline, and 3) are often the first to witness bullying. In this capacity, researchers (Craig, Henderson, & Murphy, 2000; Kochenderfer-Ladd & Pelletier, 2008; Nicolaidis, Toda, & Smith, 2002; Novick & Isaacs, 2010; Mishna, Scarcello, Pepler, & Wiener, 2005; Yoon, 2004; Yoon & Kerber, 2003) have documented that teachers primarily respond to bullying in one of six ways: 1) separate victims and bullies, 2) punish the bully, 3) involve other adults (such as parents and principals); 4) advise victims to assert themselves, 5) encourage victims to ignore or avoid the bullying peer, and 6) encourage independent coping (i.e., tell children to handle it on their own).

Which strategy or strategies teachers use, as well as if they intervene at all, varies greatly across teachers, and appears to depend on several factors. In particular, recent research suggests that teachers' responses (or nonresponse) to bullying depend upon: 1) their general beliefs and attitudes towards bullying (Kochenderfer-Ladd & Pelletier, 2008); 2) their empathy toward the victim (Mishna et al., 2005; Yoon, 2004; Yoon & Kerber, 2003); 3) their self-efficacy with handling bullying episodes (Nicolaidis, Toda, & Smith, 2002; Novick & Isaacs, 2010; Yoon, 2004); 5) if they believe the victim provoked the bullying (Mishna et al., 2005); and 6) whether they witness the bullying themselves or are told about it (Novick & Isaacs, 2010). The influences of each of these factors on teachers' responses to bullying are reviewed below.

Teachers' beliefs. Teachers' beliefs about bullying also influence whether or not they will intervene. For example, those who believe bullying is a normal part of childhood (i.e., normative beliefs) tend to be less likely to intervene than those who do not hold such views. Moreover, Kochenderfer-Ladd and Pelletier (2008) found that teachers' beliefs also predicted the types of intervention strategies they would employ. For example, if teachers believed that children would not be picked on if they stayed away from bullies (i.e., avoidant beliefs), they were more likely to tell victims to stay clear of bullies as well as take steps themselves to keep bullies and victims apart in the classroom, recess, cafeteria, and so forth. In addition, they found that because teachers perceived bullying as more normative for boys than girls, they were less likely to intervene with boys and more likely to tell them to deal with the bullying on their own. Similarly, Mishna and colleagues (2005) found that if teachers believed the victim

provoked the bully (i.e., believe that victims deserve mistreatment because of something they did), they were less likely to intervene.

A strong predictor of the likelihood that teachers will intervene in bullying is their perceived seriousness of the incident. In particular, several researchers (Mishna et al., 2005; Novick & Isaacs, 2010; Yoon, 2004) have found that teachers rate some forms of victimization as more serious or harmful to the victim than others, and, consequently, they are more likely to intervene when they deem the bullying as more serious. For example, teachers tend to perceive physical victimization as more serious than social exclusion or relational and verbal aggression (Craig et al., 2000; Yoon & Kerber, 2003); thus, teachers are much more likely to intervene quickly to stop bullying when it is physical in nature. In contrast, teachers are more likely to ignore non-physical forms of bullying, such as social exclusion or relational victimization. If they do intervene in these “less serious” forms of victimization, teachers are more likely to employ strategies that encourage the bully and victim to talk about the incident. Consequently, an important component of anti-bullying programs would be to raise teachers’ awareness of the seriousness of all forms of bullying—not just physical aggression.

Empathy toward victims. Researchers have also found that teachers’ empathy towards victims of peer aggression influences whether or not they will intervene in bullying. Not surprisingly, the more empathy teachers feel toward victims, the more likely they are to get involved to stop the harassment (Craig et al., 2000; Mishna et al., 2005; Yoon, 2004). Interestingly, similar to teachers’ views that relational victimization is a less serious form of bullying, they were also less likely to feel empathy toward victims of this form of aggression (Yoon & Kerber, 2003).

Teachers' self-efficacy at handling bullying. Although teachers tend to agree that they should intervene to stop bullying behavior among their students, in general, they report that they do not feel well prepared for this responsibility (Nicolaidis, Toda, & Smith, 2002). In other words, teachers' confidence and self-efficacy in handling bullying problems is a significant factor in whether or not they will intervene as well as how they will intervene (Novick & Isaacs, 2010). Clearly, the more efficacious they feel, the more likely they are to intervene (Yoon, 2004). Moreover, there is some evidence to suggest that teachers feel more capable of dealing with victims and involving their parents than in handling bullies and their parents (Yoon, 2004).

Direct requests for intervention. Interestingly, Novic and Isaacs (2010) discovered that teachers are *less* likely to intervene when they are personal witnesses to the bullying than when they are approached directly for assistance. It may be that teachers trust their students' reports more than their own perceptions of the situation—or they may believe that if they are not asked for help then the victims must be okay or feel capable of handling it on their own. Alternatively, as the investigators suggest, it may be more difficult for teachers to overlook or ignore incidents of victimization when students approach them directly. In either event, in light of findings that teachers are more likely to intervene when approached directly, it becomes imperative to understand what factors lead children to involve teachers. In other words, if teachers are more likely to intervene when told about cases of bullying, why do children not feel more comfortable telling teachers?

Factors that Influence Children's Seeking Help from Teachers in Bullying

Incidences

Although there are many ways children can respond to bullying, such as retaliating, acting nonchalant (ignoring; walking away), telling a friend or parent, and so forth, interventionists tend to recommend that victims seek help from their teachers because teachers tend to be the most supportive and effective in handling bullying situations (Oliver & Candappa, 2007). For example, Crothers, Kolbert, and Barker (2006) found that middle school students report that seeking help from teachers is the most efficient way to respond to incidences of victimization, and that their teachers are more helpful than other non-teacher adults. Moreover, teachers are viewed as being more proficient and skilled at handling bullying problems than peer mediators (Crothers et al., 2006). As an additional benefit, children report that once they informed their teachers about bullying, teachers became increasingly observant of the situation and looked out for the victims (Oliver & Candappa, 2007).

However, despite recommendations to tell teachers when bullying occurs, victims are often hesitant to do so. For example, in their study, Oliver and Candappa (2007) found that only a third of twelve-year-old students and half of nine-year-old students reported they would tell their teacher when victimized. In general, it appears that children perceive that the risk of telling teachers outweigh the potential benefits. Specifically, children reported reluctance to involve their teachers because they (1) fear teachers would not believe them, (2) doubt teachers would take the situation seriously, (3) believe administrators and teachers were ineffective in their intervention efforts, and (4) were concerned about social repercussions associated with telling adults. Thus, rather than

seeking teachers' help and having to convince them of their innocence in the bullying episode, youth would prefer to seek help from friends who are viewed as more likely to believe them and offer validation and support (Oliver & Candappa, 2007).

Moreover, there appears to be some truth to youths' concerns that teachers do not view bullying as seriously as they should--and definitely not as seriously as victims do (Hoover, Oliver, & Hazler, 1992). Thus, it is not surprising that victims are more likely to report they would prefer to confide in friends and parents who, compared to teachers, are less likely to downplay the seriousness of their experiences (Oliver & Candappa, 2007).

In addition, although some studies show that teachers are effective at handling bullying (Menesini et al., 1997; Oliver & Candappa, 2007), not all children believe their teachers are adept at intervening in bullying situations. For example, Hoover, Oliver, and Hazler (1992) interviewed 207 middle and high school students and found that 66% of victimized youth reported that school administrators and teachers were ineffective at handling bullying episodes. In the documentary, *Bully* (Hirsch & Lowen, 2012), victimized students stated the reason they did not approach school administrators for help was because their strategies were not effective. For instance, when a bullying situation was brought to the attention of one of the school administrators, the response was to blame the victim for provoking it.

In a follow-up study, Hazler and Hoover (1993) further reported that students felt that teachers were often unaware of bullying. Moreover, students indicated that, even when they were made aware of bullying, school administrators and teachers either did not intervene at all, or if they did, they did not offer appropriate help to the victim. For example, one student stated that the administrator's intervention strategy was

inappropriate because instead of questioning the bully, the victim was asked to consider why he was being bullied. Thus, even when teachers are aware of bullying, students may not seek, or want, their assistance as some teachers are perceived to be ineffective, unhelpful, and even disparaging, in their intervention techniques.

It is important to note that even when teachers are viewed as supportive and helpful students may still be hesitant to involve them because of potential social repercussions. For example, Oliver and Candappa (2007) found that children worry they would be ridiculed by their peers for reporting the bullying, and feared the bullying would worsen, especially if the bully were punished. Moreover, although being teased for “tattling” is experienced by both genders, reporting bullying to adults appears to be especially problematic for boys. For example, Kochenderfer-Ladd and Skinner (2002) found that victimized boys who sought teachers’ help reported stronger feelings of loneliness than their counterparts who did not involve teachers.

APPENDIX B

WHAT I WOULD DO (KOCHENDERFER-LADD & PELLETIER, 2008)

What I Would DO
Lo que yo HARÍA

Please mark the box that shows how often you would do these things.

Por favor marca el cuadro que muestra que tan frecuentemente harías estas cosas.

When kids are being mean to me... <i>Cuando los niños son malos conmigo, yo</i>	Never <i>Nunca</i>	Sometimes <i>A veces</i>	Most of the time <i>La Mayoría del Tiempo</i>	Every time <i>Todo el tiempo</i>
1. I act like nothing happened. <i>Actúo como si nada pasó.</i>				
2. I try to think of ways to stop it. <i>Trato de pensar en formas de pararlo</i>				
3. I tell a friend what happened. <i>Le digo a un amigo lo que pasó.</i>				
4. I do something mean right back to them. <i>Le hago algo malo de vuelta a ellos.</i>				
5. I get help from a teacher. <i>Consigo ayuda de un maestro.</i>				
6. I forget the whole thing. <i>Me olvido de todo.</i>				
7. I ask a friend what I should do. <i>Pregunto a un amigo lo que debo hacer</i>				
8. I tell my mom or dad (or another adult at home) what happened. <i>Le digo a mi mamá o papá lo (u otro adulto en tu casa) lo qué pasó.</i>				
9. I hurt the kid who was mean to me. <i>Lastimo al niño que fue malo conmigo.</i>				
10. I become so upset I can't talk to anyone. <i>Me disgusto tanto que no puedo hablar con nadie.</i>				
11. I tell myself it doesn't matter. <i>Me digo a mí mismo que no importa.</i>				
12. I would think about what I would do the next time. <i>Pienso lo que haría la próxima vez.</i>				
13. I would work it out on my own. <i>Trataría de encontrar solito (a) (sin la ayuda de nadie) qué hacer.</i>				
14. I would get mad and throw or hit something <i>Me enojaría y tiraría o golpearía algo.</i>				

When kids are being mean to me.... <i>Cuando los niños son malos conmigo, yo</i>	Never <i>Nunca</i>	Sometimes <i>A veces</i>	Most of the time <i>La Mayoría del Tiempo</i>	Every time <i>Todo el tiempo</i>
15. I feel like crying. <i>Siento ganas de llorar.</i>				
16. I get help from a friend. <i>Consigo ayuda de un amigo.</i>				
17. I try to find out why it happened, so it won't happen again. <i>Trato de saber por qué pasó, para que no vuelva a suceder otra vez.</i>				
18. I tell the teacher what happened. <i>Le cuento al maestro (a) lo que pasó</i>				
19. I yell at the kid who is being mean. <i>Le grito al niño(a) que es malo conmigo.</i>				
20. I don't know what to do. <i>No sé qué hacer.</i>				
21. I tell the mean kids I don't care. <i>Lo digo a los niños malos que no me importa.</i>				
22. I change things to keep it from happening again. <i>Cambio las cosas para que no vuelva a suceder otra vez.</i>				
23. I ask my mom or dad (or another adult at home) what to do. <i>Pregunto a mi mamá o papá (u otro adulto en la casa) sobre lo que debo hacer.</i>				
24. I hurt the kid back. <i>Hago daño al niño(a) que me molestó.</i>				
25. I get help from my mom or dad <i>Consigo ayuda de mi mamá o papá (u otro adulto en la casa).</i>				
26. I ask the teacher what I should do. <i>Pregunto a la maestra lo que debería hacer.</i>				
27. I talk to a friend about it. <i>Hablo con un amigo sobre eso.</i>				

APPENDIX C

PERCEIVED TEACHER RESPONSE SCALE
(TROOP-GORDON & QUENETTE, 2010)

What My Teacher is Like *Cómo Es Mi Maestro(a)*

Think about what would happen if your teacher saw students picking on another kid. What do you think your teacher would do?

Piensa en las veces en que tu maestro(a) ha visto a estudiantes metiéndose con otro niño.

If my teacher caught someone picking on or being mean to another kid, she or he would...	Never <i>Nunca</i>	Some times <i>A veces</i>	Most of the time <i>La</i> Mayoría del Tiempo	Every time <i>Todo el</i> tiempo
1. punish the students who are picking on the kid. <i>castiga a los estudiantes.</i>				
2. tell the kids getting picked on to stand up for themselves. <i>le dice al niño que se defienda.</i>				
3. make the student being mean stay away from the kid. <i>manda a los estudiantes a que no se acerquen al niño.</i>				
4. tell the kids being picked on to take care of it on their own. <i>le dice al niño que se las arregle él solo .</i>				
5. call the parents of the kids who are being mean. <i>telefono a los padres de los matones.</i>				
6. tell the kid getting picked on to just ignore them. <i>le dice al niño que no haga caso de los otros niños .</i>				
7. stay out of it. <i>dice que él/ella no va a meterse en lo que pasa.</i>				
8. send the kids to the principal's office. <i>disciplina a los estudiantes que se portan mal.</i>				
9. tell the kids getting picked on to act like they don't care. <i>le dice al niño que pretenda que no le importa lo que ellos hacen</i>				
10. get the parents involved. <i>involuca a los padres.</i>				
11. tell the kid being picked on to fight back. <i>le dice al niño que se defienda.</i>				
12. tell the kids not to let others push them around. <i>le dice al niño que no permita que le maltraten .</i>				
13. tell the kid being picked on to just walk away. <i>le dice al niño que se aleje .</i>				
14. yell at the students who are picking on the kid. <i>le grita a los estudiantes que se meten con el niño.</i>				

If my teacher caught someone picking on or being mean to another kid, she or he would...	Never Nunca	Some Algunas A veces	Most of the time <i>La Mayoría del Tiempo</i>	Every time <i>Todo el tiempo</i>
15. <u>tell</u> the students and the kid they were picking on that they cannot play together. <i>le dice a los estudiantes y al niño que estaban molestando que no pueden jugar juntos</i>				
16. <u>tell</u> the kid being picked on to work it out alone. <i>le dice a los estudiantes y al niño que lo resuelvan entre ellos.</i>				
17. <u>let</u> the parents know that their kids were being mean. <i>le informa a los padres que sus hijos estaban de matones.</i>				
18. <u>separate</u> the kids. <i>separa a los estudiantes del niño de quien se están burlando</i>				
19. <u>tell</u> the kid to avoid the mean students. <i>le dice al niño que simplemente evite a los otros estudiantes.</i>				
20. <u>tell</u> the kid to stand up for him or herself. <i>le dice al niño que le haga frente a los otros niños.</i>				
21. <u>tell</u> the children to stay away from each other. <i>le dice a los niños que no se junten.</i>				
22. <u>get</u> mad at the children doing the teasing. <i>regaña a los estudiantes que se burlan</i>				
23. <u>ask</u> the kids' parents to do something. <i>pide a los padres del niño que hagan algo.</i>				
24. <u>tell</u> the kids getting picked on to deal with it on their own. <i>le dice el profesor al niño que se enfrente con ellos solo(a) por si mismo.</i>				

APPENDIX D

WHY KIDS PICK ON ME
(VISCONTI, KOCHENDERFER-LADD, & CLIFFORD, UNDER REVIEW)

When Bad Things Happen at School
Cuando Cosas Malas Ocurren en la Escuela

Here are some of the reasons why kids might be mean to each other or pick on each other. Put a mark in the box that shows how often you think each one is a reason for why someone picked on YOU.

Aquí están algunas de las razones por las que los niños pudieran ser malos el uno con el otro o que molestaran a otro. Pon una marca en el cuadro que muestre qué tan menudo piensas que cada una es una razón por la que alguien te molestaría a TÍ.

When someone picks on me, it is because... <i>Cuando alguien me molesta, es porque...</i>	Never <i>Nunca</i>	Sometimes <i>A veces</i>	Usually <i>A menudo</i>	Always <i>Siempre</i>
1. they are jealous of the things I have. <i>ellos están celosos de las cosas que tengo .</i>				
2. we don't get along. <i>no, nos llevamos bien.</i>				
3. I don't look as cool as them. <i>no me mira tan cool (bien, padre) como ellos.</i>				
4. I did something mean to them. <i>les hice algo malo a ellos.</i>				
5. we don't like each other. <i>no nos caemos bien.</i>				
6. of the color of my skin? <i>¿el color de mi piel?</i>				
7. they are jealous of me. <i>están celosos de mí.</i>				
8. I am different from them. <i>soy diferente a ellos.</i>				
9. I am smaller or bigger than most kids my age. <i>Soy más pequeño (a) o más grande que los otros niños de mi edad.</i>				
10. I did something bad or wrong. <i>Hice algo malo o incorrecto.</i>				
11. we argue with each other. <i>discutimos entre nosotros.</i>				
12. they want to be like me. <i>quieren ser como yo</i>				
13. I was bugging or annoying them. <i>Los estaba fastidiando o molestando.</i>				
14. I look different from others. <i>me veo diferente a otros.</i>				
15. I don't wear cool clothes. <i>no uso ropa cool (a la moda)</i>				
16. I don't speak English well <i>no habla bien inglés?</i>				

When someone picks on me, it is because... <i>Cuando alguien me molesta, es porque...</i>	Never <i>Nunca</i>	Sometimes <i>A veces</i>	Usually <i>A menudo</i>	Always <i>Siempre</i>
17. we have different friends. <i>tenemos amigos diferentes.</i>				
18. They are not as popular as me. <i>El/Ella no es tan popular como yo.</i>				
19. I am not as cool as them. <i>no soy tan cool como ellos.</i>				
20. I am not as good looking as other kids. <i>no soy tan guapa/bonita como otros niños (as)</i>				
21. I did something they didn't like. <i>hice algo que no les gustó.</i>				
22. we like different kinds of people. <i>nos cae bien gente distinta</i>				
23. we can't stand to be around each other. <i>No soportamos estar cerca uno del otro</i>				
24. I made them mad. <i>Lo/a hice enojarse.</i>				
25. they don't think I'm cool. <i>Piensan que no soy buena onda</i>				
26. we bug or annoy each other. <i>Nos molestamos uno al otro</i>				
27. of my race? <i>mi raza?</i>				
28. I would not leave them alone. <i>No lo/a dejaba estar solo/a</i>				

APPENDIX E
PICKS ON OTHERS

Things that Other Kids Do

Cosas que otros niños hacen

Instructions: Find your name and put a line through it. Then, think about each kid listed below and indicate if she or he does each of the three things described.

Instrucciones: Encuentra tu nombre y táchalo. Después, piensa en cada niño de la lista de abajo e indica si él or ella hace cada una de las tres cosas descritas.

Student's Name	Does _____ pick on others?	Does _____ help kids who are getting picked on?	Does _____ join in when someone is getting picked on?
	¿ _____ molesta a otros niños?	¿ _____ ayuda a otros niños cuando están siendo molestados?	¿ _____ se une cuando alguien está molestando?
	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No
	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No
	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No
	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No
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	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No

APPENDIX F

MULTI-SOURCE PEER VICTIMIZATION INVENTORY
(LADD & KOCHENDERFER-LADD, 2002)

The Way Kids Are
La Forma En Que Los Niños Se Comportan

These questions are about what kids in your class are like. How often do kids do these things?
Estas preguntas son sobre la forma en que los niños se comportan en clase. ¿Qué tan a menudo crees tú que los niños hacen las siguientes cosas?

HOW MUCH DO THE KIDS IN YOUR CLASS... <i>¿QUÉ TAN A MENUDO LOS NIÑOS EN TU CLASE...</i>	Never <i>Nunca</i>	A little <i>Un poco</i>	Sometimes <i>A veces</i>	A lot <i>Muchas veces</i>
1. pick on you, or tease you? <i>se meten contigo o te molestan?</i>				
2. share things with you? <i>comparten cosas contigo?</i>				
3. choose you for a partner to play with? <i>te escogen como compañero(a) de juego?</i>				
4. tell you that you are good at doing things? <i>te dicen que eres bueno(a) haciendo cosas?</i>				
5. call you names or say other hurtful things to you? <i>te ponen apodos o te dicen cosas feas?</i>				
6. let you play with them? <i>te dejan jugar con ellos?</i>				
7. act friendly to you? <i>son amistosos (amables) contigo?</i>				
8. help you if you are being picked on by other kids? <i>te ayudan si otros niños te molestan?</i>				
9. hit or push you? <i>te pegan o empujan?</i>				
10. break or ruin your things? <i>rompen o arruinan tus cosas?</i>				
11. help you when you ask? <i>te ayudan cuando lo pides?</i>				
12. say mean things, or lies, about you to other kids? <i>dicen cosas feas o mentiras, sobre tí a otros niños?</i>				
13. cheer you up if you feel sad? <i>te animan (te echan porras) si estás triste?</i>				

Table 1

Means (Standard Deviations), Skewness, Kurtosis and Interclass Correlation Statistics for all Study Variables

Study Variable	Mean (SD)	Skewness (SE)	Kurtosis (SE)	ICCs
T1 Tell Teacher	2.25 (.88)	.32 (.14)	-.73 (.27)	.001
T2 Tell Teacher	2.18 (.87)	.48 (.14)	-.55 (.27)	.002
Study-Perceived TRBS				
Would punish bully	2.16 (.71)	.29 (.14)	-.46 (.27)	.017
Would advocate assertion	1.57 (.54)	1.35 (.14)	2.19 (.27)	.000
Would separate students	2.50 (.77)	.06 (.14)	-.58 (.27)	.042
Involve parents/ principal	2.45 (.72)	.20 (.14)	-.57 (.27)	.030
Would advise ignoring	2.16 (.73)	.55 (.14)	-.30 (.27)	.010
Moderators				
Personal behavior blame	1.45 (.47)	1.01 (.14)	.37 (.27)	.000
Aggression (picks on others)	.19 (.82)	1.25 (.14)	1.06 (.27)	.003
Peer victimization	1.65 (.70)	.97 (.14)	.69 (.27)	.013

Note. TRBS = Teacher Responses to Bullying Schemas.

Table 2

Correlations among Student-perceived Teacher Responses to Bullying Schemas (TRBS)

TRBS	1	2	3	4
1. Would punish bully				
2. Would advocate assertion	-.03			
3. Would separate students	.35***	.12		
4. Involve parents/principal	.42***	.20	.54***	
5. Would advise ignoring	.08***	.47**	.42***	.36***

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 3

Correlations among Personal Behavior Blame, Aggression and Victimization

Study Variable	4	5
4. Personal behavior blame		
5. Aggression (picks on others)	.18**	
6. Victimization	.23**	.09

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 4

Correlations with “Tell Teacher” Concurrently and Predictively

Study Variable	T1 Tell Teacher	T2 Tell Teacher
T1 Tell Teacher		.52 ^{***}
T2 Tell Teacher	.52 ^{***}	
T1 Teacher Responses to Bullying Schemas		
Would punish bully	-.11	-.12
Would advocate assertion	.12	.10
Would separate students	.13 [*]	.15 [*]
Would involve parents or principal	.16 [*]	.11
Would advise ignoring	.11	.09
T1 Potential Moderating Variables		
Personal behavior blame	-.14 [*]	-.14 [*]
Aggression (picks on others)	-.17 ^{**}	-.18 ^{**}
Peer victimization	.02	.00

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 5

MANOVA Results: Means (Standard Errors) for Main Effects of Gender and Grade

T1 Study Variable	Gender		Grade	
	Boy <i>N</i> = 152	Girl <i>N</i> = 168	4 th Grade <i>N</i> = 158	6 th Grade <i>N</i> = 162
Tell Teacher	2.17 (.07)	2.35 (.07)	2.43 (.07) ^a	2.09 (.07) ^b
TRBS: Punish bully	2.27 (.06) ^a	2.08 (.06) ^b	2.03 (.06) ^a	2.32 (.06) ^b
TRBS: Advocate assertion	1.60 (.05)	1.55 (.04)	1.64 (.05) ^a	1.51(.05) ^b
TRBS: Separate students	2.53 (.07)	2.49 (.06)	2.45 (.06)	2.57 (.06)
TRBS: Involve parents	2.59 (.06) ^a	2.33 (.06) ^b	2.35 (.06) ^a	2.57(.06) ^b
TRBS: Advise ignoring	2.19 (.06)	2.13 (.06)	2.18 (.06)	2.15 (.06)
Personal behavior blame	1.50 (.04) ^a	1.39 (.04) ^b	1.37 (.04) ^a	1.52 (.04) ^b
Aggression (picks on others)	.27 (.02) ^a	.19 (.01) ^b	.18 (.01) ^a	.29 (.01) ^b
Peer victimization	1.57 (.06)	1.71 (.06)	1.66 (.06)	1.63 (.06)

Note. Different letters denote significant gender differences. TRBS = Teacher Responses to Bullying Schemas.

Table 6

MANOVA Results: Means (Standard Srrors) and F-test Results for Sex by Grade Effects

T1 Variable	Gender		<i>F</i> (3, 316)
	Boy <i>N</i> = 152	Girl <i>N</i> = 168	
Tell Teacher			6.93***
4 th grade	2.41 (.10) ^b	2.37 (.09) ^b	
6 th grade	2.00 (.10) ^a	2.26 (.09) ^b	
Would punish bully			8.82***
4 th grade	2.46 (.08) ^b	1.74 (.08) ^a	
6 th grade	2.49 (.08) ^b	2.15 (.08) ^b	
Personal behavior blame			6.49***
4 th grade	1.56 (.06) ^b	1.60 (.06) ^b	
6 th grade	1.84 (.06) ^a	1.66 (.06) ^b	

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Means denoted by different letters are statistically significant at $p < .05$.

Table 7

Summary of Regression Analyses Conducted

Step	Concurrent Regression			Predictive Regression		
	Equation 1	Equation 2	Equation 3	Equation 4	Equation 5	Equation 6
Step 1 (Simultaneous)	School Sex	School Sex	School Sex	T1 Tell Teacher School Sex	T1 Tell Teacher School Sex	T1 Tell Teacher School Sex
Step 2 (Simultaneous)	Punish Assert Separate Involve parents Ignore	Punish Assert Separate Involve parents Ignore Punish	Punish Assert Separate Involve parents Ignore	Punish Assert Separate Involve parents Ignore	Punish Assert Separate Involve parents Ignore	Punish Assert Separate Involve parents Ignore
Step 3 (Single moderator variable)	Personal behavior blame (PBB)	Aggression (picks on others; AGG)	Peer victimization (VIC)	Personal behavior blame (PBB)	Aggression (picks on others; AGG)	Peer victimization (VIC)
Step 4 (Stepwise)	Punish X PBB Assert X PBB Separate X PBB Involve parents X PBB Ignore X PBB	Punish X AGG Assert X AGG Separate X AGG Involve parents X AGG Ignore Punish X AGG	Punish X VIC Assert X VIC Separate X VIC Involve parents X VIC Ignore Punish X VIC	Punish X PBB Assert X PBB Separate X PBB Involve parents X PBB Ignore X PBB	Punish X AGG Assert X AGG Separate X AGG Involve parents X AGG Ignore Punish X AGG	Punish X VIC Assert X VIC Separate X VIC Involve parents X VIC Ignore Punish X VIC

Table 8

Regression Results for Predicting “Telling Teacher” and Personal Behavior Blame with Unstandardized Beta Weights and Change in R^2

Predictor	T1 Tell Teacher			
	R^2	β	ΔR^2	t -statistic
Step 1	.02		.02	
School		.07		1.48
Sex		.21		1.91
Step 2: TRBS	.10		.08	
Punish		-.29		-3.37**
Assert		.13		1.12
Separate		.11		1.25
Involve parents or principal		.31		3.25**
Ignore		-.04		-.43
Step 3: Moderator	.13		.03	
Personal behavior blame		-.38		-3.26**
Step 4: Significant interactions	.14		.02	
Involve parents or principal X PBB		-.35		-2.38*

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. TRBS = Teacher Responses to Bullying Schemas. PBB = Personal Behavior Blame.

Table 9

Regression Results for Changes in “Telling Teacher” with Unstandardized Beta Weights and Change in R^2

Predictor	T2 Tell Teacher			
	R^2	β	ΔR^2	t -statistic
Step 1	.24		.24	
T1 Tell Teacher		.51		9.60***
School		-.01		-.24
Sex		.13		1.25
Step 2: TRBS	.25		.02	
Punish		-.15		-1.96*
Assert		.13		1.24
Separate		.15		1.78
Involve parents or principal		.01		.13
Ignore		-.10		-1.16

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. TRBS = Teacher Response to Bullying Schemas.

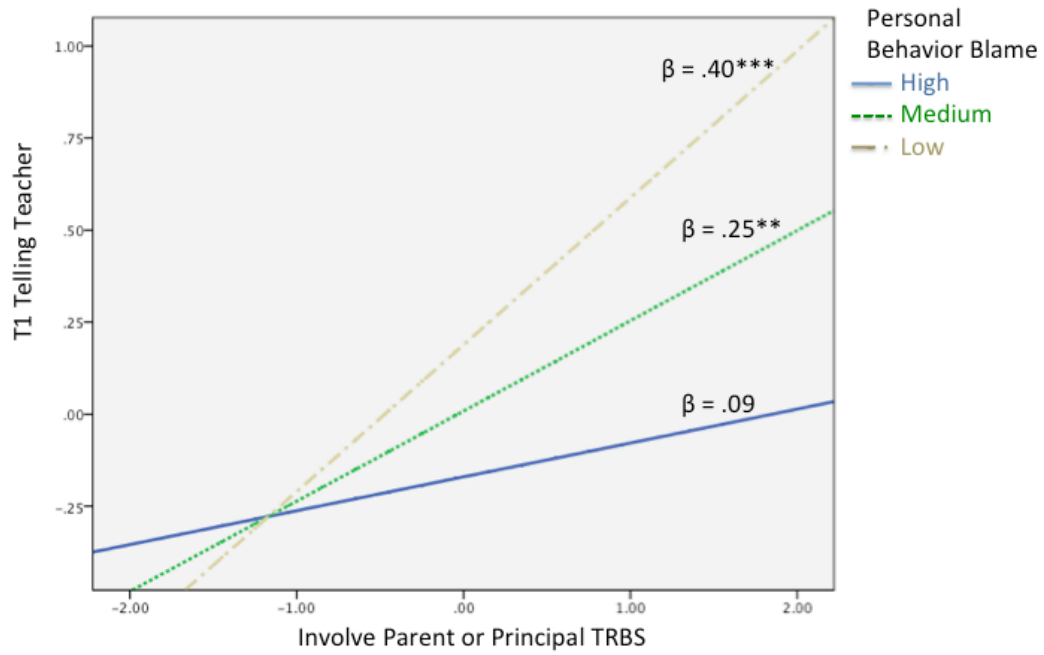


Figure 1. Involve parent or principal TRBS and telling teacher moderated by level of personal behavior blame.