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Teacher Bullies: a Factorial Analysis of Perceptions of Teachers' Bullying Behaviors

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TEACHER BULLIES: A FACTORIAL ANALYSIS OF PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS'

BULLYING BEHAVIORS

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ABSTRACT

Bullying in schools is a global phenomenon that can infringe upon the rights of students to learn and grow in a secure and fostering environment. Most of the past and current research on school bullying focuses on peer bullying, but there is a gap in the understanding of types and characteristics of bullying behaviors. This study centered on a type of abusive behavior that has received very limited attention: teachers bullying students. For the purpose of this study, the definition of teacher bullying behavior is *a repeated pattern of conduct used to punish, manipulate, or disparage a student, rooted in a power differential. Such behaviors may threaten, harm, humiliate, induce fear, or cause substantial emotional distress and go beyond a reasonable disciplinary procedure.* The goal of this research was to uncover categories of teacher bullying behaviors. A factor analysis was conducted on data gathered through a questionnaire created for this study. The questionnaire contains descriptions of teacher behaviors, which participants described as bullying or not bullying, as well as measures of the severity of the behavior. The sample included graduates of public or non-public high schools who are 18 years or older. Over half of the sample (64%, $N = 332$) reported that a teacher had bullied them at least once. The final factor analysis consisted of a two-factor solution. The two factors that emerged were based on severity of behaviors. The first factor represented particularly severe bullying behaviors, while the second factor signified behaviors considered to be mild to moderate bullying by teachers. Interestingly, bystanding behaviors by teachers loaded on the first factor, which indicate these types of behaviors were considered to be severe bullying.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"It is a fundamental democratic right for a child to feel safe in school and to be spared the oppression and repeated, intentional humiliation implied in bullying" (Olweus, 1999, p. 21).

Children face many obstacles that may hinder their academic achievement and school success. Whether it is a financial crisis, a family situation, a medical circumstance, or a combination of these things, many children come to school each day with more than just books in their backpacks. Most people think of school as a safe place where the troubles of the world can be set aside for a short time. In fact, for the vast majority of children, school is a safe haven where they can flourish and grow socially and intellectually. However, for some students, school is a place where there is intimidation, humiliation, and fear. These feelings may come from bullying by peers, but for some, the experiences come from bullying by teachers.

An unparalleled amount of funding and research has been utilized to determine everything from a more effective and efficient curriculum to the best colors and architecture for learning institutions. In order to continue to improve the learning environment, student relationships, including those between teacher and student, need to be evaluated through rigorous research. The relationship between teacher and student encompasses a moral and ethical circumstance seldom matched in society. It is a relationship in which an authoritarian figure, the teacher, must balance the roles of advocate, disciplinarian, diplomat, and often, subjective judge

(James et al., 2008). Within these associations, it is not uncommon to find a tense and often unpleasant dichotomy between the teacher and student that derives from a situation in which an educator has crossed a line of responsibility and descended into the role of bully (Arora, 1996).

While bullying has undoubtedly been around for ages, researchers have only recently begun to peel away the destructive layers of this phenomenon to attempt to draw parallels between cause, effect, personality types, and environment. Bullying seems to have no boundaries and crosses all demographic and geographic lines to affect people of all ages (Olweus, 1978). Even though bullying is prevalent in nearly every society (Olweus, 2001), there is no widely agreed-upon definition that works across various cultures (Vaillancourt et al., 2008). For example, bullying is often seen as acceptable depending upon the setting in which it occurs. In the instance of the teacher in the role of bully, students, parents, and other teachers can dismiss the behavior as merely an authoritative stance by an overbearing personality. In addition, the bullying teacher can create a hostile learning environment in which students feel they have no recourse and therefore fail to report the behavior (Whitted & Dupper, 2008).

Greater insight into ways of eliminating the role of the teacher-bully and the hostile atmosphere that such a person creates is vital to the development of a safe learning environment. Further research on this topic will clarify the nature of the teacher-bully and the methods he or she uses, be they indirect, verbal, or physical. A look into the patterns of behaviors created by bullying will help to create a better learning environment for all students.

Theoretical Framework

Bullying behaviors, especially by teachers, can be viewed through the theoretical lenses of moral disengagement and object relations. Through moral disengagement, bullies can validate their behaviors by blaming and dehumanizing the victim. From an object relations viewpoint,

physiological, emotional, and ideational complexes are internalized and molded for later adult responses (Twemlow, Sacco, & Williams, 1996). Twemlow (1995) described the concept of traumatic bonding and suggested that it insinuates an etiological model for the probable psychodynamic explanations for the victim-bully-bystander relationship.

Moral Disengagement

In this study, Bandura's theory of moral disengagement (Bandura, 1990) was utilized as the theoretical framework. Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, and Pastorelli (1996) hypothesized that persons develop culturally approved ideas about how they and others should act, and these beliefs usually direct behaviors. In some cases, individuals can separate from these beliefs through a multiplicity of cognitive processes known as *moral disengagement* (Bandura et al., 1996) or *cognitive dissonance* (Fiske, 2004). One such way of disengaging from beliefs entails dehumanizing or holding the victim responsible for the bully's actions. Individuals can justify their cruel behaviors because they view the victim as deserving or asking for the negative words or actions.

The bully's need to justify deviant behavior in terms of satisfying a higher societal need can be understood in the framework of social cognitive theory and the concept of moral disengagement. Social cognitive theory indicates that individuals who are engaged in deviant behavior rationalize their activities (Bandura, 1990; Bandura et al., 1996; Fiske, 2004). According to the theory, people tend to refrain from behaving in ways that violate their moral standards; moral reasoning is translated into actions via self-regulatory mechanisms through which moral agency is exercised (Bandura et al., 1996). In other words, people refrain from behaving in a manner that violates their moral standards because this behavior would bring self-censure. The phenomenon of teachers bullying students can also be explained through the theory

of moral disengagement. The vast majority of teachers do not go into their profession intending to harm students. They become teachers so that they can influence and make their students' lives better (Campbell, 2004), which is counterintuitive to bullying behaviors. Therefore, it is logical that teachers may justify their behaviors through moral disengagement. As indicated by Bandura et al. (1996):

> People do not usually engage in reprehensible conduct unless they have justified to themselves the rightness of their actions. The process of moral justification allows for the detrimental conduct to be made personally and socially acceptable by portraying it in the service of valued social or moral purposes. (p. 365)

Object Relations

Object relations theory is a contemporary acclimatization of psychoanalytic theory that places more importance on human relationships as the primary motivational force in life than the drives of sexuality and hostility (Kernberg, 2002). In contrast to Freud, object relations theorists believe that individuals are seeking relationships rather than pleasure (Curtis & Hirsch, 2003). As defined by Corsini and Wedding (2000), object relations theory is "the view that the basic human motive is the search for satisfying object (person) relationships" (p. 467). The importance of relationships in the theory can be translated to the relationship between the teacher and the student for purposes of this study.

Freud used the term "object" to indicate anything an infant uses to satisfy its needs (Kernberg, 2002). Since Freud, such theorists as Fairbairn, Winnicott, Klein, Jacobson, Kohut, and Kernberg have shifted toward a relational theoretical model in which an object is the center of relational needs in development (Parker, 2008). Early in life, the individual is thought to have little sense of self or identity, but through relationships with significant people the individual

takes parts of others (objects) in the process of creating a personality (Kernberg, 2002). In current object relations theory, objects can be people, such as a mother, father, teacher, or student, or transitional things to which individuals form attachments. For example, some people form powerful and even abusive relationships with people, alcohol, or food.

Twemlow (1995) described four traumatic object relations configurations seen within the bully-victim relationship: victim-victimizer, rescuer-victim, martyr-victimizer, and detached observer-victimizer. He explains that both the victim and the bully contribute to the negative behaviors, which he states is in order to focus on intervention rather than blame. According to Twemlow, all of these roles can be assumed by each individual involved in the victim-bully relationship over time, "in a chaotic, ever-changing kaleidoscope fueled by volleys of projective identification and counter-identification" (p. 564). In severe assaultive situations, identifying whose object relations are whose is difficult; which individual is more prevailing or subservient changes quickly and is perplexing as circumstances change and self-preservative reactions become more or less triumphant. Twemlow also asserted that past traumatic experiences and personality interplay to catalyze the bully or victim response.

Several object relations theorists view psychological dysfunction as an outward expression of being trapped in a developmental stage (Kernberg, 2002). From this viewpoint, symptomatic and dysfunctional behaviors are actually an attempt to resolve early childhood traumas. Since these attempts utilize immature manipulations to get to others, the efforts are often unsuccessful.

Goldberg and Goldberg (2000) indicated that systems and family therapists such as Framo and Schraff and Schraff best explain object relations theory. Working with the same definition as Corsini and Wedding (2000), Goldberg and Goldberg stated that people bring

memories of emptiness or loss from childhood into current relationships with others. As people seek satisfaction, they sometimes contaminate the family system in the process. In essence, family systems therapists argue that people involuntarily relate to one another in the present day based fundamentally on expectations created during childhood.

Background

Bullying research began during the early 1970s, when Olweus commenced the first-ever methodical bullying research (Olweus, 1978). The results of his research were published in 1973 in Sweden and in 1978 in the United States in a book entitled *Aggression in the Schools: Bullies and Whipping Boys*. Olweus (1978) maintained that school safety is an essential human right. In 1981, he proposed a law against bullying in schools so students would not have to endure the degradation caused by bullying (Olweus, 1993). By the mid-1990s, Norwegian and Swedish parliaments had enacted laws against bullying (Rayner & Hoel, 1997).

Olweus's research focused on the peer-to-peer victimization that most associate with bullying. Twemlow and colleagues (Twemlow, Fonagy, Sacco, & Brethour, 2006) also conducted research on bullying behaviors in the K-12 setting but looked at a different perpetrator: the teacher. They found that nearly half of teachers in their study self-reported bullying a student at least one time in their career. In a different study by Delfabbro et al. (2006), more than 40% of students reported being bullied by a teacher.

Adult bullying has recently been recognized as an important issue (Smith, Singer, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003). Much of the research on bullying by adults has been done in the workplace with studies relating to nurses (Quine, 2001), prison officers (Vartia & Hyyti, 2002), civil servants (Lee, 2002), and mental health workers (Stein, Hoosen, Brooks, Haigh, & Christie,

2002). There has been a dearth of research with teachers, even though it is logical to assume that in schools there would be not only workplace bullying among adults but also bullying of students by teachers.

Some researchers have found that schools can isolate students (Kagan, 1990; Thornton, 2002). Hyman and colleagues (Hyman, 1995; Hyman & Perone, 1998; Hyman, Zelikoff, & Clarke, 1988) investigated victimization of students by school personnel in the United States and found that the majority of students reported verbal maltreatment by teachers at some point in their school life. Furthermore, the students reported that maltreatment by teachers resulted in varying degrees of stress (Hyman & Snook, 2000). Half of bullied high school students surveyed identified bullying by a teacher as their worst school experience (Snook, 2001), and 51% of high school students with learning disabilities indicated that teachers caused their worst experience in school (Aldrete-Phan, 2002). The important finding in these studies is that any bullying or negative experience involving a teacher was perceived as much more damaging than bullying by a peer.

Both Twemlow et al. (2006) and Delfabbro et al. (2006) suggest that the prevalence of teachers bullying students needs to be addressed with rigorous study. This important research could lead to policies to assist teachers and students who find themselves in this common situation.

Purpose of the Study

The purposes of this study were to (a) identify categories of teacher bullying behaviors, (b) identify which groups of students are more likely to report having been bullied by a teacher, and (c) assess the prevalence of students' reports of past teacher bullying behaviors. Participants were asked to answer a survey regarding personal experience and witnessing of

teacher bullying behaviors in the kindergarten through 12th grade (K-12) setting. Results from this study have implications for school climate.

Research Questions

The primary goal undergirding the proposed work was to discover the categories of teacher bullying. The following question drove inquiry into this area of research:

1. What are the categories of teacher bullying?

The secondary purpose of this study was to gain an idea of what types of students are the most vulnerable to teacher bullying. The following research questions drove this portion of the inquiry:

2. Who is more likely to experience teacher bullying: men or women?

3. Are teachers more or less likely to bully non-heterosexual students?

4. Are students who receive special education services more or less likely to be the recipients of teacher bullying?

5. Are students who receive government assistance more or less likely to be bullied?

6. Are students who attend non-public schools more or less likely to be bullied by a teacher than those who attend public schools?

The third purpose of this study was to assess the prevalence of teacher bullying. The following research question drove this portion of the investigation:

7. What is the prevalence rate of past students' reports of being bullied by a teacher?

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, a *bullying teacher* uses a repeated pattern of conduct to punish, manipulate, or disparage a student; this behavior is rooted in a power differential. Such behaviors may threaten, harm, humiliate, induce fear, or cause substantial emotional

distress and are beyond a reasonable disciplinary procedure (McEvoy, 2005; Twemlow et al.,

2006).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Bullying behaviors can be found in every society and culture and even transcend species;

packs of wolves have been observed leaving out a single wolf and birds have a pecking order

(Esch, 2008). Anyone may be a victim of bullying behavior, regardless of socioeconomic status,

race, age, sexual orientation, or position. Furthermore, bullying occurs in the most successful

corporations, highest institutes of learning, and even in kindergarten classrooms and playgrounds

(Olweus, 1994a; Twemlow et al., 2006). Young children bully each other by leaving out one

youngster or calling him or her names. Bosses may bully subordinates or coworkers may bully

each other to make themselves feel significant (Rayner, 1997).

Research on bullying behaviors was initiated by Olweus in the 1970s, yet only recently

has this behavior been considered worthy of policy and intervention. The extensive research on

bullying and victimization in various relationships appears to be part of a heightened awareness

of individuals' rights, regardless of gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity, religious affiliation, or

ability (Smith & Brain, 2000).

Bullying Behavior Defined and the Importance of Consensus

Defining Bullying

The 1828 edition of *Webster's Dictionary* used precise language in describing a bully as a

"noisy, blustering overbearing fellow, more distinguished for insolence and empty menaces, than

for courage, and disposed to provoke quarrels." Although bullying among schoolchildren is unquestionably a historical occurrence, the topic only became a subject of methodological research in the early 1970s (Olweus, 1978). Olweus' early research centered on Scandinavian children, but by the 1980s, the study of bullying in the school setting had attracted a wider audience in the Netherlands, Canada, Australia, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States (Olweus, 2001). According to Olweus' (1996b) commonly cited definition,

> 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. It is a negative action when someone intentionally inflicts, or attempts to inflict, injury or discomfort upon another. (p. 10)

Olweus (2001) suggested that approximately 15% of students were either victims or bullies, and he gave examples of *negative actions* such as verbal abuse and inappropriate physical contact. Other common forms of bullying he described include leaving a peer out of a group or spreading rumors about a peer.

Other researchers have similar definitions of a bully. Trawick-Smith (2006) believed that bullying is "proactive aggression that has no clear goal and is often displaced and hostile in intent" (p. 313). From a child-centered perspective, bullying generally involves one or more older or larger children overpowering a vulnerable younger or smaller child who is unable to protect himself or herself. From a multicultural viewpoint, Warner and Sower (2005) indicated that bullies are reacting to bias when they torment others, perhaps driven by a different religious affiliation, sexual orientation, ethnic background, or even individual differences such as an uncommon name or having freckles.

There is strong agreement within the research literature regarding the three significant components included in definitions of bullying: intentionality, repetition, and power imbalance

(Vaillancourt et al., 2008). However, others have contended that single critical incidents should also be thought of as bullying because of the long-term effects the victim may experience (Arora, 1996; Olweus, 1994a). In the school setting, bullying is most often seen between peers, whereas in the workplace, supervisors bullying employees is reported more often than among coworkers (Olweus, 1999; Rayner, 1997).

Some researchers have described bullying in dyadic terms as between bully and victim, with the bully as a dominant figure and the victim as defenseless (Olweus, 1991; Smith & Ananiadou, 2003). Twemlow, Fonagy, and Sacco (2004) took a different approach and defined bullying from a triadic perspective which includes bully, victim, and bystander; "bystander" is defined as "an active role with a variety of manifestations, in which an individual or group indirectly and repeatedly participates in a victimization process as a member of the social system" (p. 217). They further described the bystander role as one that may either ameliorate or facilitate victimization. The bystander is forced into this role by his or her interaction with the bully and victim (Twemlow, et al., 1996). Most often the bystander is a friend or associate of the bully. Twemlow (2000) found that bullies often fantasize about the impact their actions have on the bystander, regardless of whether the bystanding audience is physically nearby, and their fantasies include prominent grandiose, voyeuristic, and sadomasochistic elements.

In a classroom setting, bullying behaviors can be used to enforce order, and some teachers may feel the need to use such behaviors to coerce students into following the rules. Twemlow et al. (2006) defined a bullying teacher as "a teacher who uses his/her power to punish, manipulate or disparage a student beyond what would be a reasonable disciplinary procedure" (p. 191). Likewise, McEvoy (2005) defined bullying by teachers as "a pattern of conduct, rooted in a power differential, that threatens, harms, humiliates, induces fear, or causes

students substantial emotional distress" (p. 1). A combination of both of these definitions was used for this study.

Consensus of Definition

Vaillancourt et al. (2008) investigated whether children's definitions of bullying were consistent with those identified in the research literature and examined the effect of giving a specific definition of bullying on prevalence rates of reported bullying and victimization. Results indicate that students' definitions of bullying seldom included the three well-known criteria of researchers' definitions. Less than 2% of the 8-year-old to18-year-old students in their study reported intentionality as a bullying characteristic. Only 6% reported repetition, and 26% reported power imbalance. Nearly all (96%) stressed negative behaviors in their definition. Elementary-aged children reported verbal and physical aggression and general harassing behaviors more often in their definitions, while relational aggression was predominant in the middle school years and reported more frequently by girls than boys. Students who were given a definition of bullying reported less victimization than students who were not provided with a definition; however, boys reported marginally higher levels of bullying when given a concrete definition.

Vaillancourt et al. (2008) raised significant questions regarding the measurement of bullying among school-aged children, stating, "a clear definition of the phenomenon under study is critical for establishing validity" (p. 494). According to them, researchers cannot assume that the students' definitions are similar to those of experts in this field of research. Vaillancourt and colleagues stated that the validity of self-, peer-, parent-, and teacher-reports should be considered when assessing bullying behaviors.

Smith, Cowie, Olafsson, and Liefooghe (2002) supported the notion that there are

substantial cultural differences with regard to the definition of bullying primarily because the term *bully* is not easily translated. For instance, there is no direct translation of the term in the French language. Vaillancourt et al. (2008) suggested that many factors, including age and culture, may influence the way a person perceives and reports bullying behavior and victimization.

In many settings, bully–victim and bully–victim–bystander relationships are considered normative; in other words, these behaviors are often expected to occur (Twemlow et al., 2004). However, normative does not mean tolerable. As there is no clear definition of bullying among researchers or the general public, there is no universal agreement on what bullying behaviors are acceptable. Some may say that bullying forms character and is a basic part of growing up. For example, Clive Soley, a Labour Party politician in the United Kingdom, stated that school bullying had not caused him any harm and that it was preparation for life (Smith & Brain, 2000). However, the mounting evidence of the harm done to victims and recognition of the fact that victims are usually incapable of effectively defending themselves indicate that most people understand bullying to be, at the least, a harmful behavior.

<p align="center">**Theories of Causes of Bullying Behavior**</p>

Biological Implications

Current conceptualizations of bullies and victims are based on psychological, sociological, and behavioral models. However, some researchers, such as Hazler, Carney, and Granger (2006), believe in a more holistic approach that includes information from biological processes that are known to influence and be influenced by these events. For example, the hormone testosterone has been associated with increased muscle mass and secondary sexual distinctiveness in men (Nelson, 2000). There is now growing consensus among researchers that

biology and social situations, such as bullying, interact to produce behavior (Hazler et al., 2006).

Reported findings indicate that boys who have both high testosterone levels and a poor parent-child relationship tend to engage in dangerous behaviors, whereas boys with low testosterone and a poor parent-child relationship tend to report symptoms of depression (Booth, Johnson, Granger, Crouter, & McHale, 2003). These results suggest that testosterone-related behaviors rather than testosterone level itself impact the quality of the parent-child relationship.

Ball et al. (2008) examined genetic and environmental influences on the social roles involved in bullying. They collected victimization and bullying reports from mothers and teachers of 1,116 families with 10-year-old twins. Statistical analysis was utilized to study the influence of environments and genetics on the likelihood of being a bully, a victim, or a bully–victim, which Ball et al. defined as an individual who is bullied and also bullies others. Results indicated that genetics account for 73% of the variation in victimization and 61% of the variation in bullying. The remainder is explained by environmental factors that were not shared between the twins. Ball et al. concluded that both genetic predispositions and environmental influences are responsible in determining which children become victims, bullies, and bully–victims.

In addition to possible biological components of tendencies to bully or be a victim of bullying, numerous forms of victimization can have intense biological effects on the mental and physical health of the targets. Depression and depressed disease resistance are just two difficulties linked to victimization (Smith & Brain, 2000).

Social Skills

In a special issue of the journal *Aggressive Behavior* devoted to bullying, Smith and Brain (2000) reported findings on the characteristics of children involved in bully-victim relationships across the world. Results of one study (Vermande, van den Oord, Goudena, &

Rispens, 2000) suggested that victims fear the control of others' actions and feel a lack of control. Bullies, on the other hand, consider themselves able to control others' actions and utilize mental states more often than their targets. The important aspect of this finding is that in some cases bullies have good theories of mind skills and elevated social intelligence, while those at risk for being victims may have an external locus of control and low self-esteem. This is in contrast to the perspective many hold that bullies lack social skills (Crick & Dodge, 1999). Smith and Brain also noted that aggressive victims, also reported as bully–victims, tend to have the most difficult family situations.

School and Family Factors

Olweus (1995, 1999) and Rigby (1996) have similar theories on the development of bullying behaviors in children. Both authors tend to attribute the emergence of aggressive behavior to school and family factors. Families that rely on parental power and strength to gain child compliance lack emotional support and have been found to support the development of bullying behaviors in their children. In the school setting, Olweus suggested that student bullies might lead by example and serve as role models to other potential bullies. Rigby suggested that authoritarian teachers could promote bullying behaviors by students in the same way that authoritarian parents do; because the teacher is typically seen as the classroom leader, "the potential bully will sometimes view the effective authoritarian teacher as a positive role model" (p. 83).

Children Who Bully and Their Victims

A recent report on school safety from the National Center for Education Statistics (Neiman, DeVoe, & Chandler, 2009) indicated that during the 2007-2008 school year, the frequency of violent episodes per 1,000 students was higher in middle schools (41 episodes) than

in primary schools (26 episodes) or high schools (22 episodes). Nearly half (48%) of schools reported at least one student threat of physical attack without a weapon, while 9% of schools reported a threat with a weapon. Approximately 13% of urban schools reported at least one gang crime, a higher percentage than was reported by suburban (5%), town (5%), or rural (3%) schools.

Characteristics of Child Bullies

Researchers have indicated that boys are more frequently involved in bullying behaviors than girls, both as bullies and victims (Olweus, 1994b; Smith, 2004). When bullying occurs, boys tend to engage in more physical aggression than girls; however, girls are more inclined to be involved in verbal bullying or indirect bullying by means of spreading rumors (Smith, 2004). Researchers who investigated bullying among 10-year-olds found that students are most commonly victimized due to a difference in appearance (Lunde, Frisén, & Hwang, 2004). Other researchers have found a similar pattern. When Boulton and Underwood (1992) asked 75 children about their perception of why other children get bullied, the most common response was that they were weak, small, and soft. Björkqvist, Ekman, and Lagerspetz (1982) found that both male and female victims thought of themselves as less attractive than their peers. Researchers in Finland found that teachers rated bullied children as having less physical strength and being overweight (Lagerspetz, Björkqvist, Berts, & King, 1982). According to Conoley (2008), bullies tend to pick their victims based on physical appearance, high grades, clothes, non-normative behavior or looks, and non-normative gender behaviors.

Bullies share many characteristics of typically aggressive children, including a short temperament and authoritarian parents (Olweus, 1999). Furthermore, bullies tend to perceive relationships that place importance on aggression as a way of gaining influence and power in a

harsh peer environment (Frisén, Jonsson, & Persson, 2007; Olweus, 1999). A great deal of

dispute has arisen over the question of whether or not bullies have low self-esteem. Olweus

(1996b) found that bullies do not have low self-esteem, yet O'Moore (2000) indicated that they

do. Still others believe there is no difference in perception of self-esteem between victims,

bullies, and those who are both victims and bullies (Seals & Young, 2003).

Cross-sectional research has indicated that families of bullies and victims function

differently from those of normative children (Rigby, 1994). Parents of bullies are less caring and

more controlling (Rigby, 2002). Longitudinal studies revealed that children who became bullies

had parents who provided less cognitive stimulation and emotional support and allowed more

TV viewing than other parents (Zimmerman, Glew, Christakis, & Katon, 2005). Schwartz,

Dodge, Pettit, and Bates (1997) found that boys who became bully–victims experienced harsh

home environments in their early years, witnessed and experienced aggression, and had hostile

mothers and limited discipline.

Groups of Students at a Higher Risk of Being Harassed

Children with disabilities. The topic of disability harassment in schools continues to be

"low on the radar screen for many official policy makers in education even though many

students with disabilities continue to experience the long-standing problem of harassment"

(Holzbauer, 2008, p. 162). Documented accounts of harassment, such as a 9-year-old girl from

Indiana who walked with a limp and had a speech impairment due to cerebral palsy wrote a letter

to Santa Claus which was featured on a local radio station. She wrote: "Kids laugh at me

because of the way I walk and run and talk. I just want one day where no one laughs at me or

makes fun of me" (Holzbauer, 2008, p. 162).

Holzbauer (2008) indicated that special education researchers have looked at a variety of

specific groups of students with disabilities who are at risk for bully-harassment in school. Individuals with visual impairment, speech impairment, cognitive disability, cerebral palsy, emotional disability, and learning disability are at the highest risk of being bullied. In reference to students with disabilities, Wright (1983) affirmed, "The power of ridicule to defeat the recipient is so great that even a single such attack in childhood can leave emotional scars" (p. 333).

To take a closer look into bullying of students with disabilities, Holzbauer (2008) had a sample of special education teachers respond to explicit types of harassment behaviors that they had witnessed first-hand. Nearly 90% of the respondents indicated that "slurs" were witnessed at least once during the past two years. The three highest-ranked types of harassment, after slurs, were epithets, mockery, and mimicking. Of the sample of special education teachers, 96.7% observed harassment of their students, indicating that disability harassment is "a very common occurrence . . . and should lead to important disability policy concerns and further research" (p. 168).

Gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgendered (GLBT) students. On February 12, 2008, at E. O. Green Junior High School in Oxnard, California, a 14-year-old classmate shot Lawrence King, a 15-year-old eighth grader, twice in his head (Saillant & Covarrubias, 2008). Classmates admitted that Lawrence, who was brought up in foster care, had been the victim of bullying because of his effeminate dress and hairstyle and other characteristics that were gender non-normative.

In a special issue of *School Psychology Review*, several of the lead authors (Espelage, Aragon, Birkett, & Koenig, 2008; Poteat, 2008; Rivers & Noret, 2008; Swearer, Turner, Givens, & Pollack, 2008) illustrated an unsettling depiction of the bullying that GLBT students face in

schools. Poteat (2008) and Swearer et al. (2008) agreed that adolescents who are GLBT, look like they may be GLBT, or may be questioning their sexual orientation are significantly at risk for bullying, threatening their academic, physical, and psychological well-being. Reports indicate that over 1.6 million public school students are bullied due to actual or perceived sexual orientation (Swearer et al., 2008).

These investigations into GLBT victims led Conoley (2008) to comment on the system-level responsibility of the school as well as teacher education university programs. Conoley pointed out that some educators might not know how to effectively intercede. Educators may also normalize physical bullying as boys being boys and relational bullying as girls being girls, and, thus, part of normal childhood development. Furthermore, adults may not intervene in bullying situations because they suppose that children learn to be strong and resilient by dealing with peer bullies. Of the most discerning, some adults may allow such bullying behaviors, mainly of children from particular minority groups, as a means to gratify their own aggressive inclinations toward those children or groups. Conoley went on to state that teacher educators, university faculty, and school leadership programs should take action in this area by arming educators with pertinent research findings and with a focus that values the needs of all children. Conoley stated that such action taken by a university could bring criticism and censure from many stakeholders, but "failure to specifically address school bullying and the disproportionate burden of violence borne by LGBT youth, however, is unacceptable" (p. 219).

Adults Who Bully

Workplace Bullying

Rayner and Hoel (1997) presented a concise overview of literature regarding bullying in the workplace, much of which builds on the foundation provided by studies of school bullying in

an examination of adult bullying. This extensive literature review uncovered two general

approaches to research on workplace bullying: investigating the process of bullying behaviors

and revealing the prevalence of this type of aggression. Rayner and Hoel noted that scholarly

research on adult bullying has corresponded to the strong community awareness of this behavior

as evidenced in the establishment of laws specifically against bullying created in Sweden in 1993

and in Norway in 1994.

In their literature review, Rayner and Hoel (1997) found that definitions of bullying,

conflict, violence, and harassment varied significantly among writers. Because of the lack of

clarity, the debate on workplace bullying will continue. The researchers suggested that the term

bullying should be abandoned and that investigation needs to be conducted based on a more

multifaceted classification. Rayner and Hoel also warned that the use of cross-cultural

comparisons should be evaluated with significant caution.

Despite all of the difficulties surrounding the research on workplace bullying, some

conclusions have been made that are consistent with findings on school bullying, such as that

indirect and verbal bullying occur more often than physical bullying (Einarssen, Raknes, &

Matthiesen, 1994). Rayner and Hoel (1997) grouped bullying behaviors into the following

types: destabilization (e.g., not receiving appropriate credit), overwork (e.g., unnecessary

pressures), physical or verbal isolation (e.g., withholding information), personal threat (e.g.,

insults), and threat to professional position (e.g., public professional degradation).

Like Twemlow et al. (2006) in their study on teacher-bullies, Rayner and Hoel (1997)

found correlations between leadership style and high reported occurrences of bullying, work

control, and role conflict. Antecedents of bullying are thought to be high levels of role conflict

and inadequate work control. Perceived bullies may be those who are responsible for levels of

control and assigning roles. Gender differences in bullying in the workplace have inconsistent results. Women reported being bullied by men and women equally, yet men rarely reported being bullied by women. Age and job-type variables have been studied with inconclusive results (Rayner, 1997).

Teachers

Teacher bullying behaviors share some similarities with peer-to-peer bullying actions. Like peer-to-peer bullying, teacher bullying is abuse with a power imbalance that tends to be persistent and often takes place in public (Twemlow et al., 2006). This form of bullying is humiliating and draws attention while it demeans a student in front of peers. It is also intentional, is likely to cause suffering to the victim, and tends to be repeated. Likewise, the teacher bully usually does not receive punishment or other negative penalties (McEvoy, 2005). This type of abuse can lead to many negative outcomes for the victim, including decreased academic motivation (Rugutt & Chemosit, 2009).

Bullying among K-12 schoolteachers. Peer-to-peer and supervisor bullying in the workplace can be found among primary and secondary school teachers. In a study conducted in Turkey, Cemaloglu (2007) found that nearly 50% of the teachers reported that they had experienced bullying within the last six months. Elementary teachers were significantly more likely to report being bullied than secondary teachers. The most common form of bullying these teachers experienced daily was someone withholding essential information that affected the teachers' performance. Both female and male teachers were bullied, but male teachers were more likely to be exposed to bullying than female teachers.

Teachers bullying students. Teachers bullying students also occurs, but has been infrequently studied. Bullying research tends to focus on the peer-to-peer relationship in the K-

12 setting. However, bullying behavior can be found in every aspect of school life. A popular, iconic movie from 1985, *The Breakfast Club* (Friesen, Meyer, & Hughes)*,* depicted Mr. Vernon, the school administrator, as a bully who repeatedly called one particular student names and threatened physical violence. In this case, there was an obvious power imbalance between teacher and student because of the position of authority held by Mr. Vernon.

Delfabbro et al. (2006) investigated the prevalence and nature of victimization and bullying by students and teachers in 25 South Australian public and private schools. More than 1,200 current students completed a self-report survey that contained questions regarding teacher- and student-related bullying in addition to psychosocial adjustment and personality measures. The authors reported significant outcomes among the types of bullying students had experienced. Students who reported being bullied by a peer characteristically showed poorer self-image, self-esteem, and psychological functioning and higher levels of social isolation. Students who were victimized by teacher-bullies typically were more likely to rate themselves as having poor academic skills, had less intent to finish school, and were more likely to engage in risky behaviors such as under-age drinking, drug use, and gambling.

Boys were found to be significantly more likely to be verbally and physically bullied by both teachers and peers in the Delfabbro et al. (2006) study; more than 40% of the total sample reported having been victims of teacher bullying. Variables related to academic and social adjustment were the strongest predictors of which teachers will bully students. Students who were socially isolated and less academically successful were noticeably more likely to be bullied by teachers. Those students who did not anticipate finishing their education had lower life satisfaction ratings and fewer friends, disliked a larger number of peers, and were nearly five times more likely to perceive themselves as bullied by teachers. Contrary to the expectations of

the researchers, only a small overlap was reported between students who frequently reported being bullied by teachers as compared to being bullied by peers.

Delfabbro et al. (2006) found results in other areas of bullying behavior consistent with those in the literature. They found that bullying was more likely to occur at school than outside of school and that verbal aggression occurred more often than physical injury. Like Olweus (1993) and Rigby (2002), Delfabbro et al. found boys to be more likely to be bullied than girls. They also found the highest rates of bullying behavior by both peers and teachers among boys attending same-sex public schools, while girls were more likely to be victimized if they went to a coeducational private school.

Campbell (2004) explored school trauma in a comprehensive view of types of trauma students experience. A sample of 95 graduate-level students from an Australian university completed the Student Alienation and Trauma Scale, which was designed to enable students to report their worst school experiences. In written descriptions of their single most terrible school experiences, 29.5% recalled that a teacher had caused this situation, 64.2% recalled that a peer or peers had caused this situation, and 5.3% indicated that both peers and teachers were the cause of the worst experience. In this study, there were no significant sex differences in reporting that peers or teachers were responsible for their worst school experiences; however, men reported more negative physical experiences than women. Campbell also reported that the ten most common bad experiences resulted more frequently in negative social outcomes than physical outcomes.

James et al. (2008) examined bullying behaviors between Irish students and teachers in 2003 and then again in 2005. A sample of 2,300 students (mean age of 14 years) was surveyed in 2003. In the second study in 2005, a sample of 919 different students (mean age again of 14

years) was surveyed. In the first study, slightly over 30% of the students reported that they were bullied by a teacher, and there was no significant difference between boys' and girls' reports. The most frequently reported forms of bullying were being called names and being ignored. In the 2005 study, 30% of the students again reported that teachers had bulled them and cited the same most frequent forms of bullying. The authors concluded that there is a need to reduce students' misconceptions of teacher bullying behaviors and that bullying among all school members must be discussed openly in the school. James et al. indicated that some teachers who participated in both studies reported shouting at students and using sarcasm as necessary strategies for classroom management. However, James et al. emphasized that for discipline to be useful in the school, an agreed-upon consensus of appropriate behavior for both staff and students must be in place.

Teacher reports of teacher bullying behaviors. Mullet (2006) stated that many people could remember a circumstance when they regretted angry words and differentiated between this type of behavior and teacher bullying; bullying occurs "when a teacher feels less stressed or more satisfied when he or she hurts another person" (para. 10). In Mullet's study, 13 teachers who were enrolled in a graduate-level class on bullying reached consensus on the way they see bullying behaviors in teachers and formulated ideas about ways to tackle the problem. The respondents indicated that the type of teacher bullying that occurs in school tends to be mostly verbal harm, intimidation, and social alienation. They determined that teachers have three primary types of power over their students due to the nature of school structure: expert power (teachers have the knowledge that the student needs), formal power (teachers have the right to structure students' time and activities), and resource power (teachers can shape a student's behavior based on what is a reward or consequence for that particular child). Mullet noted that

although inequality might be inevitable in schools, it only provides the opportunity for abuse if a system allows it.

Mullet (2006) stated that awareness of this problem is the first step for change to occur and suggested that each school survey students and teachers to see if this problem exists. If it does, school officials and teachers should explore how it is manifested and supported in the school. Mullet recommended the development of caring communities in which all members work to prevent and change bullying actions, regardless of the perpetrator. Furthermore, educators must model the way they want students to behave.

In the classroom, teachers have an expected power in the student-teacher relationship (McEvoy, 2005); this circumstance does not always apply with peer bullying. With between-peer bullying, there is the possibility for the power to shift from one to the other (Olweus, 1995). On the other hand, teachers may claim that their behavior is justified as a means of discipline or because they were provoked by the victim (McEvoy, 2005), diverting the attention away from the objectionable behavior (James et al., 2008). Many times, there is an audience when the teacher bullies a student, which may make the situation more severe for the student for several reasons. This behavior most often entails public humiliation and sends a message to the victim's peers that this individual is undeserving of better treatment. As a result, students may view the victim as worthy of bullying and therefore bully the victim themselves (James et al., 2008). In other words, if the teacher does it, then it must be acceptable.

Twemlow and Fonagy (2005) have explored the prevalence and extent to which teachers bully students in the K-12 school setting in a number of studies. Twemlow et al. (2006) examined teachers' perceptions of fellow teachers who bully students, noting that the sparse literature that exists on teachers who bully students primarily comes from the students' points of

view and is likely to be biased. They also examined causes and characteristics of bullying

teachers as well as the prevalence of teachers being bullied by students. In Twemlow et al.'s

2006 study, 116 teachers from seven elementary schools filled out an anonymous survey about

their perceptions and feelings about their own experiences of bullying and how they viewed their

coworkers throughout their years of teaching. A bullying teacher was defined in the

questionnaire as "a teacher who uses his/her power to punish, manipulate or disparage a student

beyond what would be a reasonable disciplinary procedure," (Twemlow et al., 2006, p. 191) and

a bullying student was defined as "a student who tends to control the classroom with disruptive

behavior that implies contempt for the teacher and who uses coercive tactics to deskill the

teacher" (Twemlow et al., 2006, p. 191).

Notably, 45% of the sample of teachers admitted to bullying a student (Twemlow et al.,

2006). Teachers who reported a high number of times they had bullied a student also reported

being bullied at school when they were students. In addition, teachers who were bullied when

they were students were likely to be bullied by students in their career as well. Teachers who

reported that they experienced significant bullying by students in their classrooms also reported

being bullied when engaged in other duties. Unfortunately, there was not a statistically

significant indication that these teachers would utilize an intervention to help them handle

bullying students. Also, teachers who were victims of bullying as children may be more

sensitive to this topic and therefore more likely to recognize bullying behaviors in others.

Teachers who reported that they observed other teachers bullying students were more

likely to believe that bullying teachers were "burned out, untrained and envious of smart

students" (Twemlow et al., 2006, p. 193). These teachers also felt that bullying behaviors of

teachers resulted from a lack of support from the administration in addition to a multitude of

other causes such as a lack of training and classes that are too large. Teachers also said that bullying teachers characteristically lack structure and leadership ability. Of the 116 teachers who participated, 56 felt that teachers who bully should be fired.

Twemlow et al. (2006) stated that teachers' openness to observing and admitting bullying means that teachers and administrators need to be educated about recognizing and dealing with bullying behaviors within themselves, colleagues, and students. They noted that a teacher who is a bully has a negative effect on the school environment for both the student and fellow teachers. Children may suffer psychological problems such as depression and anxiety, which can impair learning, and non-bullying teachers are frequently placed in a fearful bystanding role. According to the researchers, both administrators and teachers need to work cooperatively to acknowledge this issue in a non-punitive way that provides teachers the assistance they need to stop bullying.

Twemlow and Fonagy (2005) investigated whether bullying attitudes of staff members in schools contributed to behavioral struggles in children. They were unable to prove their prediction that attitudes conducive to bullying among staff members would be more characteristic of schools with medium or high, rather than low, occurrences of suspensions. A significant difference was found between teachers from schools with medium and low occurrences of suspensions, yet teachers from schools with low and high occurrences of suspensions rated non-bullying and bullying teachers similarly.

However, Twemlow and Fonagy (2005) were able to confirm other hypotheses. Teachers who reported they had bullied students and teachers who reported being bullied themselves as students were more often employed in schools with high occurrences of suspensions. Teachers from schools with higher occurrences of suspensions also reported that they had seen other coworkers bully students more frequently over the past year to three years as compared to

teachers in the other schools. Factors such as percentages of students in special education, percentages of minority students, fewer years of teaching experience, and large class sizes were not found to significantly impact the results. Twemlow and Fonagy concluded that the higher occurrences of teachers bullying in schools with more behavior problems suggest either that teachers integrate into the culture of aggression that develops in these schools or that those with predispositions to bullying behavior are drawn to or are more likely to stay in such schools by choice or because of a lack of opportunity to transfer to a less dysfunctional school. As trans-generational abuse is often reported in the literature, the researchers note that it is not a surprise that teachers who were bullied as children grow up to be bullies and are more conscious of bullying teachers.

College and university professors. Colleges and universities are not exempt from the phenomenon of bullying. Although research in this setting is lacking, some findings are starting to become known. Chapell et al. (2004) interviewed students regarding bullying in the college setting in order to explore the occurrence of bullying by students and teachers as well as gender differences in bullying behaviors. They administered a questionnaire to more than 1,000 undergraduate students at a Northeastern public university. They adapted Olweus' definition to include the possibility of teacher bullies. More than 60% of the respondents reported observing student-to-student bullying, while over 44% had witnessed a teacher bullying a student in college. While more than 5% of students reported bullying other students very frequently or occasionally, more than 6% of students reported being bullied by a peer very frequently or occasionally. Nearly 5% of students reported being the target of a teacher-bully very frequently or occasionally.

The results of the Chappell et al. (2004) study are not consistent with the theory presented

in elementary and secondary school research literature that bullying behaviors decrease with age (Olweus, 1999). Instead, bullying is a behavior that is seen in colleges and among adults. This is consistent with research on workplace bullying, which will be further discussed below (Glendenning, 2001; Rayner, 1997).

In a later study, Chapell et al. (2006) investigated the continuity of being a victim, bully, or bully–victim from elementary school all the way through college. Nearly three-quarters (72%) of the self-reported college bullies reported that they were victims of bullies in elementary and high school. Over half (54%) of the self-reported bullies indicated that they were also bullies in elementary and high school. These results are consistent with those of a Finnish longitudinal study in which Sourander, Helstela, Helenius, and Piha (2000) found that bullying behaviors in 8-year-old children were linked to bullying at age 16; likewise, victimization in 8-year-old children is connected to being bullied at age 16. Furthermore, Chapell et al. found that nearly 20% of the students surveyed reported being bullied at least once by a college teacher physically, verbally, socially, or a combination of ways. The students reported that teachers and coaches used verbal means as the most common form of bullying. No student reported physical bullying by teachers, although two students indicated physical abuse by their coaches.

Bullying in college. MacDonald and Roberts-Pittman (2008) investigated whether gender and ethnic differences existed and also examined occurrences of bullying and cyberbullying in the college environment. They developed the Bullying in College questionnaire and administered it to undergraduate and graduate students. The definition of bullying given in this survey was the same as in Chapell et al. (2004). Of the sample, 22% of the respondents had experienced bullying by a peer, but only 16% admitted to bullying another student; 58% reported witnessing someone being bullied by a fellow student, more than 12% had seen a teacher bully a

student, and 5% reported being bullied by a teacher. Nearly 44% knew a victim of cyberbullying, almost 20% had experienced cyberbullying, and more than 12% admitted to cyberbullying. The non-White percentage of students in the sample was extremely small, but the majority of those students had been both a victim and a bully by electronic means. As a result, MacDonald and Roberts-Pittman suggested that ethnic minority students might be at risk for cyberbullying, which would indicate an area of need for intervention.

Bullying among college professors. Workplace bullying in the college setting is not often examined. Lewis (2004) conducted a qualitative study of 15 university and college teachers (13 women and 2 men) who reported being bullied at work by fellow faculty members. Lewis conducted unstructured interviews with the primarily female sample population to explore how professors perceive workplace bullying and its manifestation and impact in terms of attitudes and feelings of shame. In these interviews, Lewis found inferiority, powerlessness, humiliation, and withdrawal as themes among the participants. Some revealed an obvious sense of resigned compliance that emerged from feelings of pointlessness and hopelessness. The author noted that the most difficult part for the participants was to acknowledge that they had been victimized. Furthermore, they found comfort by confiding in colleagues instead of reporting the bully to authorities. Lewis pointed out that because faculty members seek support from colleagues, "there is a collective need to administer retributive justice that they are unlikely to find within the corridors of personnel or their trades union" (p. 295). According to Lewis, the victims feel shame about exposing themselves to authorities and failing to cope with the matter themselves. Regardless of the bully's position, many of the participants displayed a range of feelings such as exhaustion, anger, despair, and sadness. The prolonged exposure to these experiences may lead to a depressive state, which has also been correlated with feelings of shame

(Andrews, Qian, & Valentine, 2002; Ghatavi, Nicolson, MacDonald, Osher, & Levitt, 2002).

In another study on bullying in higher education, Fogg (2008) described the "academic bully" (p. B10) as one who uses subtle aggressive tactics such as interrupting, rolling eyes, and spreading rumors to undercut a colleague's credibility. Fogg noted that workplace bullying in colleges and universities is nothing new, although the how, when, and frequency of discussion of it is new due to technology. Blogs on the Internet are new channels for fighting workplace aggression, including those in academia. Fogg stated that the utilization of adjunct professors, who frequently lack authority and the protection of tenure, might actually support academic bullying. He quoted Twale, author of a book on academic bullying, who stated that often there is a component of denial when being bullied: "We're all Ph.D.'s – we think we're above petty behavior. But we're not" (Fogg, 2008, p. B1).

A Comparison of School and Workplace Bullying

Smith (1997) compared studies of school bullying and workplace bullying and described how researchers in both areas could benefit from each other. Smith noted a report on school bullying dating back over 100 years, whereas workplace bullying has only come to light more recently. Regardless of some differences, Smith found definite similarities and continuities in both areas. For example, Olweus (1993) has stated that school bullies are likely to continue the behavior in adulthood, and Farrington (1993) believes that intergenerational continuities can be found in bullying behaviors.

Smith (1997) stated that research on both school and workplace bullying has been primarily descriptive, which has proven to policy-makers that it is a real and frequent phenomenon. Researchers have explored frequency and types of such behaviors, age and gender differences, characteristics of bullies and victims, and resulting actions. Smith indicated that

whether in the workplace or school, "bullying is worryingly frequent" (pp: 250-251). The main

types of bullying (verbal, indirect, and physical) are experienced in both places, yet the

workplace is known to have more subtle forms of bullying (Björkqvist, Osterman, & Lagerspetz,

1994). The bully in the workplace is often in a management position (Rayner, 1997), whereas in

the schools, the bully is frequently from the victim's peer group (Whitney & Smith, 1993).

School bullying research tends to have an individualistic perspective, while research on

workplace behaviors focuses on organizational climate and structure (Crawford, 1997; Garrett,

1997).

Smith (1997) suggested that research on school bullying could use more qualitative

methods and case study research, such as can be found in studies of workplace bullying, in order

to understand the dynamics of bullying relationships and how these behaviors evolve over time.

Furthermore, researchers in adult bullying should look at attitudes of bystanders, a topic more

typically found in studies of school bullying. Smith also suggested that studies of adult bullying

should contain evaluations of the effects of bullying in the workplace. School bullying studies

have specified effects on physical health (Williams, Chambers, Logan, & Robinson, 1996), self-

esteem (Boulton & Smith, 1994), and concentration and attendance (Sharp, 1995). Further study

on these effects in the workplace is recommended (Smith, 1997).

Efficacy of Interventions and Best Practices to Decrease Bullying

School-based interventions in England and Norway have leaned toward a multi-faceted

approach (Smith, 1997). The core of the intervention has commonly been a code or policy in the

classroom (Olweus, 1993) or school-wide (Smith & Sharp, 1994). Other interventions have

integrated raising awareness about the problem, educating victims on ways to confront a bully,

training teachers and playground supervisors, and physical changes to the environment such as

classroom or playground adjustments (Smith, 1997).

Olweus (1991, 1995) described and evaluated the effects of the intervention that he developed to combat bullying in Norwegian schools. He found that his intervention reduced bully–victim problems by more than 50% for boys and girls at all grade levels studied. Other benefits of the intervention included improved order and discipline and more positive attitudes toward school, social relationships, and schoolwork. Antisocial behaviors such as fighting, truancy, and vandalism were reduced. Olweus (1996a, 1996b) stated that the probable reasons for the effectiveness of this program include changes that result in fewer rewards and opportunities for bullying behavior. The key to his intervention program is to have an environment at school, and ideally at home, that radiates positive interest, warmth, and adult involvement, yet also has firm limits to intolerable behaviors. Olweus (1991, 1995) recommended that nonaggressive, nonphysical actions be consistently applied when violations occur. This requires observation and monitoring of students' activities in and out of school.

Salmivalli, Kaukiainen, and Voeten (2005) evaluated the effects of an anti-bullying school intervention program that targeted bullies, victims, and bystanders. Finnish teachers in grades 4, 5, and 6 who had attended a year-long training program implemented the intervention. Results indicated a positive impact on several outcome variables, including efficacy, attitude, and beliefs of bullying behaviors. Also, results indicated a decrease in reported and observed bullying among the school-age children.

Butler and Platt (2008) acknowledged that although most bullying intervention programs are school-based, the family must be included if the problem is to completely stop. The authors reviewed the belief of family systems theorists that families are innately good and have the capability to generate and maintain change (Minuchin, 1974). The particular model posed by

Butler and Platt involves the collaboration of the teacher and school counselor in the practice of family therapy and is composed of three stages: structuring change, changing the story, and solidifying change. The model includes reviewing family boundaries, narrative therapy, and focusing on the future. The authors also discussed the implementation of a birth certificate to symbolize new identity formation and a death certificate for the end of bullying behaviors.

Merrell, Gueldner, Ross, and Isava (2008) conducted a meta-analysis on the efficacy of school bullying intervention programs that spanned a 25-year period. Approximately one-third of the variables in the intervention studies were found to produce clinical and meaningfully positive effects. The authors concluded that bullying interventions are more likely to impact awareness, self-perceptions, and attitudes rather than the bullying behaviors: "The majority of outcomes evidenced no meaningful change, positive or negative" (p. 26). Similarly, in another analysis of bullying interventions in schools, Smith, Schneider, Smith, and Ananiadou (2004) concluded that most of the interventions evaluated did not yield significant outcomes on self-reported measures of victimization and bullying.

Hughes (2001) provided concrete examples of effective practices when dealing with bullying behaviors in higher education in a qualitative study focused on the strategies utilized by teachers and support staff in dealing with such behaviors at the collegiate level. Hughes's investigation led to the following models of good practice: instant action, respectful and open communication, informal dialogue, teacher education, mediation, not using nicknames, choosing work groups or rearranging work groups when conflict arises, assuring inclusion of all students with particular attention to those left out, subtle reminders of appropriate behaviors, documenting all complaints, confronting students about their behaviors, and establishing and maintaining boundaries and acceptable behavior.

Likewise, Whitted and Dupper (2005) provided strategies for dealing with bullying behaviors at the individual, classroom, and school levels. Educators take a problem-solving approach to this behavior by first conducting a needs assessment to raise staff awareness about the prevalence, nature, and consequences of bullying (Rigby, 1995). The needs assessment will draw on both strengths and weaknesses of the school climate. Second, educators should develop and plan the implementation of the intervention selected. Third, they need to implement the plan and monitor the progress by using data that are valid indicators of bullying behaviors. Fourth, trained staff members need to evaluate the efficacy of the intervention and adjust where applicable (Whitted & Dupper, 2005). Whitted and Dupper stressed that ensuring the success of any bullying intervention depends on the selection of strategies and programs that match the needs of the individual school and suggested using empirically-based programs that are developmentally appropriate and enjoyable for the children. Administrators must also ensure that the selected program is cost-efficient, provides training, and is culturally sensitive.

<div style="text-align:center">Studying Retrospective Reports of Bullying</div>

It has been proposed that autobiographical memories of maltreatment or suffering in childhood are not consistent across time, and in the case of adults who experienced childhood trauma and suffer from enduring depression, "the validity of retrospective data from depressed patients and their families is questionable at best" (Burbach & Borduin, 1986, p. 146). By contrast, in a meta-analytical reconsideration of research via retrospective data collection techniques, Brewin, Andrews, and Gotlib (1993) weighed the confirmation for and against the authenticity of retrospective reports in applied research. They contended that there is inadequate proof that autobiographical recollections of past events are subject to contamination or modification that affect accuracy. There is also little support for the idea that psychopathology

or emotionality would negatively change early memories (Burbach & Borduin, 1986; Eysenck, Macleod, & Mathews, 1987).

Neisser (1982) pointed out that autobiographical memories are not merely replications of past experiences. Instead, memories are reformations that are the foundation of the individual's perception of the information he or she has saved in the form of schemas. Instead of remembering an episode or event as it exactly occurred, individuals may modify and even recreate their personal account based upon their present understanding of needs and the considerations of the behavior or phenomenon under examination (Greenwald, 1980).

While it is clearly suggested that autobiographical memories of childhood are, on the whole, subject to some form of contamination across the life-span, Ross and Conway (1986), although skeptical about the efficacy of retrospective studies, conceded that most people's recall of past events remains relatively accurate across time. However, to offset concerns about the quality of retrospective reports, Brewin et al. (1993) suggested that the use of structured questionnaires rather than informal interviews may actually facilitate recollection of past events, especially if the instrument is devised in such a way as to provide some order to participants' reconstruction of those events or assist them in recalling detail by providing a series of links or associations.

Rivers (2001) assessed the stability of victims' recollections of bullying. A sample of 60 lesbian women, gay men, and bisexual men who had all been bullied at school for five or more years completed a self-report questionnaire and repeated it 12 to 14 months later in order to evaluate the stability of their memories of being bullied. Rivers revealed that participants were exceptionally good at remembering where they said bullying had occurred, which led the researcher to hypothesize that memories for location may be rooted in recollections of such

events. Rivers also went on to suggest that retrospective accounts of childhood events that personally impacted the person are not as likely to be contaminated across time as those events in which the person is a witness.

In other retrospective studies, Zelikoff and Hyman (1987) found that 60% to 86% of adults reported having had a traumatic school encounter involving teachers. Halkias et al. (2003) utilized the "My Worst School Experience Scale" with Greek university students and found that nearly half (49%) of the subjects reported that a teacher caused their worst school experience, whereas peers caused 30% of their most traumatic school incidents.

Conclusions

Individuals who are bullied are less well adjusted in a variety of areas that contribute to health and psychological well-being. As a result, victims of bullies may have serious long-term effects on their success and happiness. Children are more likely to be bullied by peers, yet bullying by teachers is a phenomenon that also needs attention. Much like a boss, a teacher possesses power over students, which sets up a possible bullying paradigm. Research has revealed that students rarely report being bullied by a teacher, yet teachers report this occurrence often.

Research on school bullying has influenced inquiry into workplace bullying and led to the implementation of policies much like school interventions. Both areas contribute to the increased knowledge and awareness of bullying behaviors and consequences for victims. The vast majority of teachers are caring, sensitive, and upright in their actions toward students, but students and parents may perceive some teachers as bullies. Certainly, in many circumstances a teacher or administrator is ethically and legally obligated and justified to impose his or her authority in the classroom or school. However, teachers are the adults in the student-teacher

relationship and are acting *in loco parentis*; therefore, they have a direct role in the development

of young people (Hart, 1987). Nevertheless, the existence of poor relationships between teachers

and their students suggests the need for further evaluation of this occurrence. Because the

majority of bullying research centers on peer-to-peer bullying in the K-12 school setting,

research on the phenomenon of teachers bullying students greatly contributes to the field.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Sample Population

Graduates of public or non-public high schools who were 18 years of age or older and currently enrolled at a mid-sized public university in the Midwest were recruited for this study. Specifically, professors from these institutions were contacted via e-mail, phone calls, and face-to-face contact and asked whether the lead researcher could survey the students in their class(es). Snowball sampling was utilized to obtain a large sample population.

The participants were given a questionnaire about the prevalence and characteristics of teacher bullying behaviors. Participants were asked to recall their kindergarten through twelfth grade experiences with such teacher behaviors as they answered the survey questions.

Questionnaire

Item construction for this questionnaire was conducted via a content analysis of the existing literature on teacher bullying behaviors, as well as a modification of Twemlow et al.'s (2006) questionnaire entitled, "A Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying." Twemlow and colleagues designed a questionnaire for teachers to rate their own bullying behaviors, other teachers' bullying behaviors, and to rate the severity of such behaviors. Like Twemlow et al.'s questionnaire, each item for the questionnaire used for the present study followed the lead-in phrase: "A teacher <u>singles out a particular student</u> and . . ." For example, James et al. (2008)

indicated that students reported being called "stupid," which resulted in the construction of item 17, "calls the student stupid." Whitted and Dupper (2008) found that some students encountered differing treatment from teachers toward ethnic minority and majority students. This account resulted in the addition of item 42: "punishes ethnic minority students more often than ethnic majority students." Additional items on the questionnaire also came from Whitted and Dupper, who indicated that participants reported being hit by an adult (item 34: "hits or slaps the student") or pushed by an adult (item 26: "pushes or throws the student up against a wall"); one participant reported "being inappropriately touched by an adult in the school" (Whitted & Dupper, 2008, p. 337), which led to the construction of item 24: "inappropriately touches the student." The complete questionnaire can be found in Appendix A.

Research questions two through six involved the following demographic variables: sex, sexual orientation, special education services, socioeconomic status, and type of school. The question "How many times do you feel a teacher(s) bullied you?" (#9) had five levels of continuous Likert-type anchors (*Never* to *Almost all of the time*). Answers to this question (#9) were used as the outcome in a multiple regression and included the appropriate demographic variables as the predictors.

Participants rated the severity of teacher bullying behaviors using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from *Not Bullying* to *Extreme Bullying*. Participants filled in their answers on a provided Scan-Tron sheet. This questionnaire clearly stated the purpose of the study: *The purpose of this research is to uncover categories of teacher bullying behaviors in the Kindergarten through 12th grade setting*. The questionnaire also gave a specific definition of a teacher bully: *one who uses a repeated pattern of conduct to punish, manipulate, or disparage a student and is rooted in a power differential. Such behaviors may threaten, harm, humiliate,*

induce fear, or cause substantial emotional distress and are beyond reasonable disciplinary procedures. This definition is based on the findings of McEvoy (2005) and Twemlow et al. (2006).

The participants were asked for such demographic information as age, sex, marital status, sexual orientation, and years since high school graduation (see Appendix A). Participants were also asked if they attended public, non-public, or a combination of schools as well as approximate number of students in their graduating class. Participants were asked about background information during their school years. Socioeconomic status was determined based on whether the participant received government assistance (i.e., free and reduced lunch and/or textbook fees) and those who did not. Participants were also asked if they received any special education services during their K-12 schooling.

The data from the "Teacher Bullying Behaviors" section was used to address the primary research question: What are the categories of teacher bullying behaviors as perceived by students? Responses were based on the following Likert-type anchors: *Not Bullying*, *Mild Bullying*, *Moderate Bullying*, *Severe Bullying*, and *Extreme Bullying*. Participants were presented with bullying behaviors such as *ignoring a student who asks for help* or *tying a student to a desk for fidgeting* and asked to rate the behaviors on a severity scale. Respondents determined if the behavior was bullying, and if so, the severity of said behavior.

Data Gathering Procedures

Data gathering procedures entailed soliciting college professors for permission to distribute the questionnaire to students who volunteered to participate in the study (see Appendix B). A script was read at the beginning of each class in which the purpose of the study was stated and the participants were informed that participation was on a volunteer basis and that answers

would be compiled with a larger sample and would be anonymous (see Appendix C). A letter of informed consent was given to all participants (see Appendix D), as well as a referral list of local counseling agencies (see Appendix E).

Data Analysis

Kieffer (1998) stated "The utilization of factor analytic techniques in the social sciences has been integral to the development of theories and the evaluation of the construct validity of scores" (p. 4). Therefore, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the items in Section B (Teacher Bullying Behaviors) to see if dimensions of teacher bullying behavior emerged from the data. Within factor analysis, there are two methods of extraction: factor analysis (FA) and principal component analysis (PCA). PCA analyzes total variance, including unique, shared, and error variance, whereas FA only analyzes the shared, or common, variance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In other words, PCA analyzes variance, while FA analyzes covariance. In this study, it is logical that the items would have common variability due to the nature of the topic.

Because the primary objective of this study was to identify the latent dimensions represented in the original variables, principal axis factoring was used as the method of extraction (Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987) to analyze covariance of the observed variables. That is, only the variance that each observed variable shared with other observed variables was analyzed (Field, 2009).

Following extraction, an oblique rotation of the component solution was conducted to assist in interpretation. By rotating the factor solution, the common variance across the factors was redistributed in order to attain a more parsimonious and meaningful solution (Kieffer, 1998; Rennie, 1997). There are two types of rotations: oblique and orthogonal. In orthogonal

rotation, the factors remain uncorrelated from each other and are thus intrinsically easier to

infer. However, orthogonal rotations have the potential to oversimplify the relationships

between the variables, which may lead to an inaccurate representation of these relationships

(Kieffer, 1998). Oblique rotation provides for correlations among the latent factors. In

oblique rotation, a pattern matrix and a structure matrix are obtained. The structure matrix is

merely the factor-loading matrix, as in orthogonal rotation, corresponding to the variance in a

measured variable explained by a factor on both a unique and common contributions analysis.

In contrast, the pattern matrix includes coefficients, which only correspond to unique

contributions. Logically, more factors will result in lower pattern coefficients because there

will be more common contributions to the explained variance. For oblique rotation, both the

structure and pattern coefficients are analyzed when attributing a label to a factor. In social

science research, oblique rotation is often favored over orthogonal rotation procedures (e.g.,

Conway, 2003; Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999; Preacher & MacCallum,

2003). An advantage of utilizing an oblique rotation strategy is that the solution more closely

honors the researcher's observation of reality (Kieffer, 1998; Rennie, 1997) by allowing the

factors to correlate with one another. In many cases of social science research, underlying

dimensions will likely be related, making oblique rotation the most valid option (Field, 2009;

Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987). It is reasonable to assume that the resulting factors from these data

would be correlated because they are all types of teacher bullying behaviors.

Additional statistical analyses utilized a two-tiered approach: a series of Chi-square

analyses followed by a regression analysis. In the first tier, a sequence of bivariate Chi-square

analyses were performed to obtain a general idea of the situation and aid in describing the sample

in terms of who was being bullied. The second tier included a logistic regression analysis with

the demographic variables (sex, sexual orientation, special education, social-economic status, and type of school) in order to predict the frequency of bullying among these groups. This was utilized in order to ascertain the multivariate relationship of the predictors to the outcome.

Because Chi-square analysis tends to be extremely powerful in large samples, only pairwise differences with standardized residuals of 1.96 or greater were treated as being statistically significant, which served to control for Type 1 errors (Field, 2009). Effect sizes were provided via odds ratios. The bivariate Chi-square analyses addressed the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference between the way men and women report being bullied by a teacher? (2 x 5 Chi-square on the question #1 "What is your sex?" and #9 "How many times do you feel a teacher(s) bullied you?")

2. Is there a difference relative to sexual orientation and report of being bullied by a teacher? (5 x 5 Chi-square on questions #3 and #9.)

3. Is there a difference among individuals who received special education services and those who did not and report of being bullied by a teacher? (2 x 5 Chi-square on questions #7 and #9.)

4. Is there a difference among individuals who received government assistance and those who did not and report of being bullied by a teacher? (2 x 5 Chi-square on questions #8 and #9.)

5. Is there a difference among individuals who attended all or mostly non-public schools and those who attended all or mostly public school and report of being bullied by a teacher? (2 x 5 Chi-square on questions #5 and #9).

The logistic regression analysis used Question #9 ("How often were you bullied by a

teacher?") as the outcome variable and the demographic variables as predictors. This addressed

the prevalence of bullying and who had been bullied as well as the multivariate relationship

between the predictors and the outcome variable.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This section details the results of the statistical analyses. All analyses were performed

using SPSS version 16.0 for Macintosh with a listwise deletion of missing data.

Purpose

This ultimate purpose of this study was to discover the categories of teacher bullying

behaviors. A secondary goal of this study was to gain an understanding of what types of students

are most susceptible to teacher bullying.

Respondents

Participants were solicited from a midsize public university in the Midwest. A total of

508 people were surveyed, including 324 (64%) women and 184 (36%) men. Ages ranged from

18 to over 35. Nearly half of the sample was between the ages of 18 and 19 ($n = 230$, 45%), and

29% ($n = 152$) were between the ages of 20 and 21. Consequently, this sample was a relatively

younger group of participants with 94% ($n = 489$) being 18 – 35 years old; only 6% ($n = 31$)

were over 35 years old. Over half of the sample had graduated from high school within the last

two years ($n = 292$, 58%) and 85% ($n = 430$) had graduated within the last five years. A vast

majority of the respondents ($n = 465$, 92%) attended all or mostly all public schools, while only

8% ($n = 43$) attended all or mostly all non-public schools. Over half of the sample ($n = 282$,

56%) had between 101 and 500 students in their graduating class. One person did not report his

or her graduating class size. A total of 10% ($n = 53$) reported having had special education services and 34% ($n = 171$) reported having had government assistance with free and reduced-cost lunch, textbook fees, or both during their school experience. There were 93% ($n = 473$) self-identified heterosexuals, 3% ($n = 16$) homosexuals, and 3% ($n = 17$) bisexual, asexual, or other respondents.

Data Analysis

The following research questions were addressed:

1. What are the categories of teacher bullying?

2. Who is more likely to experience teacher bullying: men or women?

3. Are teachers more or less likely to bully non-heterosexual students?

4. Are students who receive special education services more or less likely to be the recipients of teacher bullying?

5. Are students who receive government assistance more or less likely to be bullied?

6. Are students who attend non-public schools more or less likely to be bullied by a teacher than those who attend public schools?

7. Does the combination of sex, sexual orientation, social economic status (free or reduced-cost lunch/textbooks), type of education (special education or general education), and type of institution (public or non-public) work together to predict the prevalence of teacher bullying?

The instrument used was a modified version of Twemlow et al.'s (2006) "A Survey on Teacher Bullying and Bullying Teachers." Modifications to the original instrument were made with permission from Dr. Stuart Twemlow. The questionnaire used in this study contained two parts. The first section consisted of demographic variables, K-12 educational experience, and

personal experience of being bullied by a teacher(s). The second section listed several brief descriptions of teacher behaviors. Participants rated these behaviors on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Not at all bullying*) to 5 (*Extreme bullying*). See Appendix A for the complete questionnaire.

Research question 1 was addressed via a factor analysis. Following this analysis, research questions 2 through 6 were addressed via a series of Chi-square analyses. Finally, research question 7 was addressed via a logistic regression analysis.

Factorial Analysis

A factor analysis was conducted on the 34 items of the questionnaire (see Appendix A). Principal axis factoring (PAF) was chosen as the method of extraction. PAF is typically used to analyze groups of correlated variables that are believed to represent one or more common domains. This approach has been found to be particularly useful when the dimensionality of data and its structural composition are not well known (Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987), as is the case in this study. An oblique rotation followed to aid in interpretation of the resulting factor structure. Oblique rotation was chosen over orthogonal rotation in order to allow the factors to correlate with one another. Tinsley and Tinsley (1987) stated that underlying dimensions would likely be related in social science research; therefore, oblique rotation is the most applicable option. Furthermore, it makes conceptual sense that dimensions of teacher bullying would be related, which justifies the use of oblique rotation in this study.

Field (2009) suggested that the reliability of factor analysis is dependent on sample size and concluded that generally 300 or more cases are adequate. The sample size for this research far exceeds these guidelines. Arrindell and van der Ende (1985) conducted a systematic analysis to establish rules for determining sufficient sample size for factorial analyses and found that

neither the specific minimum number of observations nor the ratio of observations had any control on factor stability. Rather, sample size was found to be related to the number of factors drawn; specifically, stable factor solutions are obtained when sample size is approximately 20 times the number of factors. As such, the sample of 492 participants is more than sufficient for this study.

An initial analysis was run in order to determine the number of factors to be retained for the final solution. This decision was based on both the eigenvalues for each factor and the scree plot. Eigenvalues indicate the variances of the factors. Each variable has a variance of one, and the total variance is equal to the number of variables used in the analysis (Field, 2009). Kaiser's criterion holds that factors with eigenvalues greater than one should be retained for the final solution. The rationale for this criterion is that no factor should be retained that explains less variance than one variable. In these data, four factors had eigenvalues greater than one and explained a total of 71% of the variance. However, the scree plot for these data suggested a different solution. The scree plot graphs the eigenvalue against the factor number. In doing so, the relative importance in each factor becomes apparent. Cattell (1966) suggested that the cutoff point for selecting factors would fall at the point of inflection of this curve. The point of inflection is located where the slope of the line dramatically changes (Field, 2009). For these data, the plot showed inflections that would justify retaining both two and three factors (Figure 1). As a result, both the two- and three-factor solutions were retained for further analysis.

Two-factor solution. Table 1 shows the factor loadings following rotation, final communalities, and item means. The items that loaded on the first factor had the highest item means, indicating these behaviors were viewed as severe to extreme bullying (e.g., *pushes or throws the student up against a wall, calls the student "stupid,"* and *makes fun of the student*
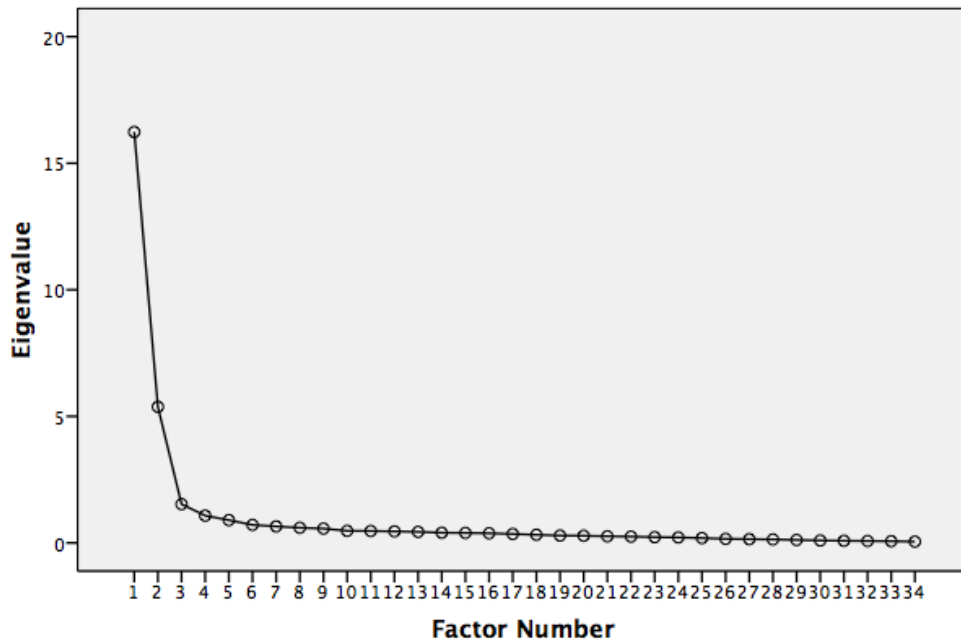
Figure 1. Scree plot of the measure of teacher bullying.

because of mental or physical disabilities). Therefore, the first factor can be described as representing particularly harsh bullying behaviors. Interestingly, bystanding behaviors loaded on the first factor, indicating that these types of behaviors were considered to be extreme bullying.

Conversely, the items loading on the second factor had lower means, indicating the second factor represented behaviors considered to be mild to moderate bullying. For example, *yells during class, takes away recess for student's misbehavior,* and *punishes all students in the class even though not all students misbehaved* loaded on the second factor.

Two items cross-loaded on both factors: *draws attention to the student for not doing well on a test,* and *punishes the student with additional homework.* This indicates a lack of consensus on whether these items were moderate or severe bullying.

Communalities are provided in Table 1. A communality represents the percentage of

variance in a variable explained by the factor structure. For example, 89% of the variance in

pulls or cuts the student's hair was explained by the two-factor solution. The lowest

communalities are associated with the following items: *gives the student a detention for petty*

infractions (h^2 = .13), *punishes the student with additional homework* (h^2 = .17), and *does not*

answer the student's question (h^2 = .18). These relatively low communalities indicated that these

items were not well represented by the two-factor structure.

Three-factor solution. Within the three-factor solution, Factor 1 was identical to Factor

1 in the two-factor solution. Factor 2 from the two-factor solution split into Factor 2 and Factor

3 for the three-factor solution. One item did not load on any of the factors: *draws attention to the*

student for not doing well on a test. Factor 3 consisted of only three items, which is indicative of

over-factoring (Field, 2009). Therefore, the two-factor solution was retained in the final

analysis. It also made the most conceptual and empirical sense.

Table 1

Summary of Items and Factor Loadings Comparing the Promax Oblique Two- and Three-Factor

Solutions for the Teacher Bullying Behaviors Section of Questionnaire

	Two-Factor Solution			Three-Factor Solution				
	Factor			Factor				
Item	1	2	$^+h^2$	1	2	3	$^+h^2$	Item Mean
Pulls or cuts the student's hair	**.93**	.15	.89	**.93**	.14	.18	.89	4.26
Sets up another student to bully the student	**.92**	.22	.85	**.92**	.21	.20	.86	4.18
Ties the student to a seat because of fidgeting	**.92**	.08	.88	**.92**	.07	.20	.88	4.27
Pushes or throws the student up against a wall	**.92**	.16	.85	**.92**	.15	.19	.85	4.30
Hits or slaps the student	**.92**	.14	.85	**.92**	.13	.20	.85	4.30

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Summary of Items and Factor Loadings Comparing the Promax Oblique Two- and Three-Factor

Solutions for the Teacher Bullying Behaviors Section of Questionnaire

Item	Two-Factor Solution			Three-Factor Solution				
	Factor		$^+h^2$	Factor			$^+h^2$	Item Mean
	1	2		1	2	3		
Tapes the student's mouth shut because of talking	**.90**	.10	.85	**.90**	.08	.20	.85	4.25
Makes inappropriate comments about the student's ethnicity	**.90**	.13	.83	**.90**	.11	.25	.84	4.20
Inappropriately touches the student	**.90**	.13	.84	**.90**	.12	.16	.84	4.38
Makes sexually suggestive comments to the student	**.90**	.15	.82	**.90**	.14	.19	.82	4.29
Watches as another teacher bullies the student	**.84**	.36	.72	**.84**	.36	.23	.73	3.96
Calls the student "stupid"	**.82**	.25	.67	**.82**	.21	.42	.71	4.02
Talks about the student's poor grades with other students	**.81**	.43	.70	**.81**	.42	.34	.70	3.91
Consistently criticizes the student's hairstyle or clothes	**.80**	.27	.64	**.79**	.25	.38	.65	3.83
Stands by as other students bully the student	**.79**	.41	.67	**.80**	.41	.28	.67	3.99
Allows other students to call the student derogatory names	**.78**	.48	.69	**.79**	.48	.32	.69	4.02
Talks about the student's discipline record in front of other students	**.76**	.49	.65	**.76**	.48	.32	.66	3.79
Punishes ethnic minority students more often than ethnic majority students	**.74**	.43	.60	**.74**	.42	.31	.60	3.86
Has the student do physical work to earn a grade (e.g., wash classroom windows, take out trash)	**.74**	.36	.57	**.74**	.34	.31	.57	3.56
Firmly grabs the student's arm in order to redirect the student	**.63**	.38	.44	**.63**	.37	.26	.44	3.74
Draws attention to the student for not doing well on a test	***.60***	***.59***	.54	***.60***	***.58***	.38	.54	3.53

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Summary of Items and Factor Loadings Comparing the Promax Oblique Two- and Three-Factor

Solutions for the Teacher Bullying Behaviors Section of Questionnaire

Item	Two-Factor Solution Factor		$^+h^2$	Three-Factor Solution Factor			$^+h^2$	Item Mean
	1	2		1	2	3		
Often yells during class	.23	**.75**	.56	.23	**.76**	.31	.57	2.88
Punishes the student with additional homework	***.35***	***.30***	.17	.35	.26	**.57**	.36	2.76
Rarely gives the student compliments	.09	**.72**	.53	.10	**.73**	.27	.54	2.42
Threatens the student as behavior management (e.g., "If you don't be quiet, I'm going to take away all of your free time.")	.22	**.72**	.51	.22	**.72**	.29	.52	2.73
Isolates the student from the rest of the class	.41	**.70**	.53	.41	**.70**	.31	.55	3.27
Punishes all students in the class even though not all students misbehaved	-.01	**.68**	.51	.01	**.68**	.30	.50	2.53
Takes away recess for student's misbehavior	-.14	**.67**	.57	-.14	**.68**	.22	.58	2.16
Gives extremely difficult homework	.15	**.66**	.44	.15	**.66**	.33	.44	2.47
Rolls his/her eyes at the student	.19	**.66**	.43	.19	**.65**	.32	.43	2.97
Punishes the student for a minor misbehavior by providing a reward (e.g., candy) to everyone else but that student	.58	**.64**	.58	.58	**.64**	.36	.58	3.33
Does not allow the student to go to the bathroom	.41	**.54**	.36	.42	**.53**	.31	.36	3.65
Does not answer the student's question	.23	**.41**	.18	.22	.36	**.66**	.45	2.43
Gives the student a detention for petty infractions	.13	**.36**	.13	.12	.31	**.76**	.40	2.72

Note. **Boldface** indicates highest factors loading. *Italics* indicate items with cross-loadings. $^+h^2$ = final communality. *N* = 492.

Correlation of factors. In the final solution, Factor 1 was positively correlated with

Factor 2 ($r = .29$), indicating that slightly over 8% of the variance in Factor 1 was shared with

Factor 2. Correlations among the factors for both the two- and three-factor solutions can be

found in Table 2.

Table 2

Intercorrelations Among the Factors for the Two- and Three-Factor Solutions

	Two-Factor Solution		Three-Factor Solution		
	1	2	1	2	3
Factor 1	--				
Factor 2	.29	--			
Factor 1			--		
Factor 2			.28	--	
Factor 3			.30	.44	--

Identification of Types of Students Bullied by Teachers

A two-tiered approach was utilized in an effort to identify the types of students most

likely to have been bullied: a series of Chi-square analyses followed by a regression analysis. In

the first tier, a sequence of bivariate Chi-square analyses was performed to obtain a general idea

of the situation and to aid in describing the sample in terms of students most likely to be bullied.

The second tier consisted of a logistic regression analysis with the demographic variables

of sex, sexual orientation, special education, socioeconomic status, and type of school predicting

frequency of bullying. This was done to ascertain the multivariate relationship of the predictors

to the outcome.

Bivariate analyses. To gain an overall idea of what types of students were most likely to

report having been bullied by a teacher, a series of bivariate Chi-square analyses were conducted.

The scores from the variables used in the Chi-square analyses are detailed in Table 3. Because

Chi-square tends to be extremely powerful in large samples, only differences with standardized

residuals of 1.96 or greater were determined to be significant (Field, 2009).

Table 3

Distribution of Responses Across the Categories of the Demographic Variables

Frequency of Being Bullied	Never Bullied n (%)	Rarely Bullied n (%)	Sometimes Bullied n (%)	Very Frequently Bullied n (%)	Almost All of the Time n (%)
Sex					
Males	66 (12.7%)	81 (15.6%)	31 (6%)	5 (1%)	5 (1%)
Females	121 (23.3%)	138 (26.6%)	68 (13.1%)	4 (.8%)	0 (0%)
Sexual Orientation					
Heterosexual	180 (34.7%)	205 (39.6%)	85 (16.4%)	9 (1.7%)	5 (1%)
Homosexual	3 (.6%)	9 (1.7%)	5 (1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Bisexual	2 (.4%)	3 (.6%)	7 (1.4%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Asexual	1 (.2%)	1 (.2%)	1 (.2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Other	0 (0%)	1 (.2%)	1 (.2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Type of School Attended					
All Public	161 (31%)	174 (33.5%)	78 (15%)	6 (1.2%)	4 (.8%)
All Non-Public	7 (1.3%)	8 (1.5%)	4 (.8%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Mostly public/some non-public	13 (2.5%)	24 (4.6%)	10 (1.9%)	2 (.4%)	1 (.2%)
Mostly non-public/some public	6 (1.2%)	13 (2.5%)	7 (1.3%)	1 (.2%)	0 (0%)

(continued)

Table 3 (continued)

Distribution of Responses Across the Categories of the Demographic Variables

Frequency of Being Bullied	Never Bullied *n* (%)	Rarely Bullied *n* (%)	Sometimes Bullied *n* (%)	Very Frequently Bullied *n* (%)	Almost All of the Time *n* (%)
Socio-economic Status					
Free Reduced Lunch Assistance	62 (11.9%)	69 (13.3%)	34 (6.6%)	4 (.8%)	1 (.2%)
No Assistance	121(23.3%)	146 (28.1%)	62 (11.9%)	4 (.8%)	4 (.8%)
Do Not Remember	4 (.8%)	4 (.8%)	3 (.6%)	1 (.2%)	0 (0%)
Special Education					
Received Services	19 (3.7%)	25 (4.8%)	13 (2.5%)	1 (.2%)	0 (0%)
Did Not Receive Services	165 (31.8%)	190 (36.6%)	86 (16.6%)	7 (1.3%)	5 (1%)
Do Not Remember	3 (.6%)	4 (.8%)	0 (0%)	1 (.2%)	0 (0%)

Calculation of the odds and odds ratio served to better illustrate the findings. Odds are the number of one outcome divided by the number of the other outcome. As an example, when considering the prevalence of teacher bullying, it was found that 328 students (64%) reported being bullied at least once, while 184 (36%) had not. In this instance, the odds of being bullied were calculated as follows: 328 (bullied) / 184 (not bullied) = 1.78. In other words, overall, students were 1.78 times more likely to be bullied by a teacher than not. Odds ratio served as the indicator of effect size.

A Chi-square analysis was conducted to address research question 2, which compared the bullying experiences of male and female students. Due to a limited number of responses, the answers *very frequently* and *almost all the time* were collapsed into one category,

frequently/often, resulting in a 2 (sex) X 4 (*never, rarely, sometimes,* and *frequently/often*) Chi-square. The analysis indicated that the prevalence of reported teacher bullying differed across the sexes, χ^2 (3, $N = 519$) = 8.67, p = .034 (all tests of significance were two-tailed).

Odds ratio was then calculated as an effect size. Odds ratio is simply a ratio of odds. In these data the odds of a male student of being bullied were 122 (bullied) / 66 (never bullied) = 1.85, indicating a male student was 1.85 more times likely to be bullied than not. The odds of a female student being bullied were 210 (bullied) / 121 (never bullied) = 1.73, indicating a female student was 1.73 times more likely to be bullied than not. Overall, the odds of a male student being bullied were greater than the odds of a female student being bullied: 1.85 versus 1.73, respectively. Odds ratio was calculated as the odds of a male student being bullied (1.85) / the odds of a female student being bullied (1.73) = 1.07. This means that, overall, male students were 1.07 times more likely to have been bullied than female students. However, the only standardized residual in this analysis greater than 1.96 was in the category of male students that reported being bullied *frequently/often*, meaning that male students were more likely than female students to report having been bullied *frequently/often*. Specifically, only 10 male students reported being bullied *frequently/often*, while 178 reported something else. Therefore, the odds of a male student being bullied *frequently/often* were 10 / 178 = .0561. Conversely, the odds of a female student being bullied *frequently/often* were considerably less. Specifically, 4 (*frequently/often*) / 327 (*something else*) = .0122. Odds ratio equaled .0561 (odds of male students reporting *frequently/often*) divided by .0122 (odds of female students reporting *frequently/often*) = 4.59, indicating male students were almost 4.60 times more likely to report having been bullied *frequently/often* than female students. Frequencies and odds ratio of being bullied by teachers according to sex are detailed in Table 4.

Table 4

Frequencies and Odds Ratio of Being Bullied by Teachers According to Sex

Group (*n*)	Never Bullied	Rarely Bullied	Sometimes Bullied	Frequently/ Often Bullied	Odds of Being Frequently/ Often Bullied	Odds Ratio Frequently /Often Bullied	χ^2 (Odds Ratio)
Sex							8.67* (1.07)
Male (188)	66	81	31	10^+	.0561	4.59	
Female (331)	121	138	68	4	.0122		

Note. $^+$Standardized residual (observed – expected count) ≥ 1.96; *$p < .05$, two-tailed.

A Chi-square analysis was conducted to address the research question: Are teachers more or less likely to bully non-heterosexual students? Due to the limited number of participants who reported being homosexual, bisexual, asexual, or other, the aforementioned populations were combined into one category: *non-heterosexual*. Furthermore, due to the limited number of responses of *frequently bullied* and *often bullied*, these two categories were collapsed into one: *frequently/often bullied*. Likewise, the categories of *never bullied* and *rarely bullied* had a very limited number; thus, these categories were combined into one: *never/rarely bullied*. Therefore, the resulting Chi-square analysis for this research question consisted of a 2 (heterosexual/non-heterosexual) x 3 (never/ rarely, sometimes, often/frequently) Chi-square analysis.

Overall, non-heterosexual students' experience with being bullied by a teacher differed from that of their heterosexual counterparts, $\chi^2(2, N = 513) = 8.56$, $p = .014$, odds ratio = 2.84, indicating that non-heterosexuals were nearly three times more likely to be bullied than heterosexuals. Odds ratio was calculated as follows: odds of a non-heterosexual being bullied were 24 (bullied) / 5 (never/rarely bullied) = 4.80, indicating that non-heterosexuals were almost

five times more likely to be sometimes or frequently/often bullied than never/rarely bullied.

Odds of a heterosexual being bullied equaled 304 (bullied) / 180 (never/rarely bullied) = 1.69,

indicating that heterosexuals were over 1 1/2 times more likely to be bullied than never/rarely

bullied. The odds ratio was 4.80 / 1.69 = 2.84. This means that non-heterosexuals were 2.84

times more likely to report being bullied by a teacher than heterosexuals. It can be seen in Table

5 that the only standardized residual greater than 1.96 concerned non-heterosexuals who reported

being bullied *often/frequently*. The odds for both groups of being bullied frequently/often are

provided in Table 4.5. Odds ratio indicates that non-heterosexuals were nearly 2 3/4 times more

likely to report being bullied frequently/often than heterosexuals.

Additional analysis revealed that special education students were no more or less likely to

be bullied than non-special education students, $\chi^2 1, N = 512) = .29, p = .59$. Due to the limited

number of responses, a 2 x 2 Chi-square analysis was conducted using data from students who

received special education services, those who received general education services, and their

report of being bullied (never and at least once or more).

Table 5

Frequencies and Odds Ratio of Being Bullied by Teachers According to Sexual Orientation

Group (n)	Never/ Rarely Bullied	Sometimes Bullied	Frequently/ Often Bullied	Odds of Being Frequently/ Often Bullied	Odds Ratio Frequently/ Often Bullied	χ^2 (Odds Ratio)
Sexual Orientation						8.56* (2.84)
Non-heterosexual (29)	5	12	12[+]	.71	2.73	
Heterosexual (484)	180	205	99	.26		

Note. [+]Standardized residual (observed – expected count) ≥ 1.96; *$p < .05$, two-tailed.

Those who responded *do not remember* if they had special education or not were eliminated from this analysis. Furthermore, no significant difference was found among individuals who received government assistance and those who did not, $\chi^2(1, N = 508) = .01$, $p = .94$, and there was no difference in reported prevalence of teacher bullying between public and non-public school students, $\chi^2(1, N = 520) = 1.30$, $p = .25$. These results are shown in Table 6.

Logistic Regression Analysis

The purpose of this analysis was to address the multivariate relationship of the predictors to prevalence of being bullied. Logistic regression analysis was used to determine if sex, sexual orientation, government assistance, type of school, and special education services significantly predicted participants' report of being bullied by a teacher (never bullied or bullied one or more times). The model predicting report of being bullied was not significant, $\chi^2(5, N = 522) = 5.97$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .02$. Results are summarized in Table 7.

Table 6

Chi-Square Analyses of Special Education Services, Type of School, and Government Assistance

Group (*n*)	Not Bullied	Bullied	Odds of Being Bullied	Odds Ratio	χ^2
Special Education				1.17	.59
Received services (58)	19	39	2.05		
No services (454)	165	289	1.75		
Type of School				1.48	.25
Non-Public School (46)	13	33	2.54		
Public School (474)	174	300	1.72		
Free/Reduced Lunch				1.02	.01
No (337)	121	216	1.79		
Yes (171)	62	109	1.76		

Table 7

Coefficients for the Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Teacher Bullying

Name	B (Std. Error)	Wald	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
Sex[a]	-.051(.196)	.068	.950	.647	1.396
Special Education[b]	-.213(.320)	.444	.808	.431	1.513
Free/Reduced Lunch/Textbooks[c]	.069(.200)	.118	1.071	.724	1.586
Sexual Orientation[d]	.481(.263)	3.339	1.618	.966	2.713
Type of Institution[e]	.262(.360)	.527	1.299	.641	2.633

Note. $N = 100$. *B* is the unstandardized coefficient; Exp(*B*) is the factor change in odds for a unit increase in the IV; [a]Male = 0, Female = 1; [b]No services = 0, Received services = 1; [c]No assistance = 0, Received assistance = 1; [d]Heterosexual = 0, Non-heterosexual = 1; [e]Public school = 0, Non-public school = 1; *$p < .05$, (two-tailed).

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Findings

Students are undoubtedly feeling as though teachers bully them, at least sometimes. A total of 64% ($N = 332$) of respondents reported that a teacher had bullied them at least once. In other words, over half of the sample recalled at least one time when a teacher used a pattern of conduct to punish, manipulate, or disparage them. Students may have felt threatened, harmed, or humiliated.

A total of 508 people were surveyed for this study, with over half of the participants being female ($n = 324$, 64%). Additionally, this sample was a rather young group of participants with 94% ($n = 489$) being between 18 and 35 years old and only 6% ($n = 31$) over 35 years old. Likewise, 85% ($n = 430$) of the participants had graduated from high school within the last five years. The majority of the respondents ($n = 465$, 92%) attended all or mostly all public schools, while only 8% ($n = 43$) attended all or mostly all non-public schools. Only 10% ($n = 53$) reported having had special education services, while 34% ($n = 171$) reported having had government assistance with free and reduced-cost lunch, textbook fees, or both during their school experience. A total of 93% ($n = 473$) were self-identified heterosexuals, 3% ($n = 16$) homosexuals, and 3% ($n = 17$) bisexual, asexual, or other respondents.

The questionnaire used in this study contained two parts: demographic variables and

descriptions of teacher behaviors. Participants rated these teacher behaviors on a Likert-type

scale ranging from 1 (*Not at all bullying*) to 5 (*Extreme bullying*). A factor analysis with a

principal axis factoring (PAF) method of extraction was conducted on the descriptions of teacher

behaviors. An oblique rotation followed to assist in understanding the resulting factor structure.

An initial analysis was run in order to establish the number of factors to be maintained for

the final solution. This decision was based on both the eigenvalues for each factor and the scree

plot. In these data, four factors had eigenvalues greater than one and explained a total of 71% of

the variance; however, the scree plot showed variations that would substantiate retaining both

two and three factors. Therefore, both the two- and three-factor solutions were retained for

additional analysis. The final analysis consisted of the two-factor solution, as the three-factor

solution had only three items for the third factor, which is characteristic of over-factoring (Field,

2009). The two-factor solution made the most conceptual and empirical sense.

Within the two-factor solution, the items that loaded on the first factor had the highest

item means, indicating these behaviors were perceived as severe to extreme bullying (e.g.,

pushes or throws the student up against a wall, calls the student "stupid," and *makes fun of the*

student because of mental or physical disabilities). As a result, the first factor can be described

as representing predominantly harsh bullying behaviors, which also included bystanding

behaviors. On the contrary, the items loading on the second factor had lower means, indicating

the second factor represented behaviors considered to be mild to moderate bullying (e.g., *yells*

during class, takes away recess for student's misbehavior, and *punishes all students in the class*

even though not all students misbehaved).

Factor 1 was positively correlated with Factor 2; however, only slightly over 8% of the

variance in Factor 1 was shared with Factor 2. This coefficient of determination is the ratio of

the explained variation to the total variation and represents the percentage of the data that is the closest to the line of best fit. In other words, nearly 92% of the variance among the factors is independent of each other.

To obtain a general idea of what types of students were most likely to report having been bullied by a teacher, a sequence of bivariate Chi-square analyses were performed. One such Chi-square analysis indicated that the prevalence of reported teacher bullying differed across the sexes. Male students were more likely than female students to report having been bullied *frequently/often*. In general, the odds of a male student being bullied were greater (1.85) than the odds of a female student being bullied (1.73).

Another Chi-square analysis indicated that non-heterosexual students' experience with being bullied by a teacher differed from that of heterosexuals. In fact, the odds ratio indicated that non-heterosexuals were nearly three times more likely to be bullied than heterosexuals.

In contrast to the literature, the findings of this study revealed that special education students were no more or less likely to be bullied than non-special education students. Likewise, no significant difference was found among individuals who received government assistance and those who did not, and there was no difference in reported prevalence of teacher bullying between public and non-public school students.

A logistic regression analysis was used to determine if sex, sexual orientation, government assistance, type of school, and special education services significantly predicted participants' report of ever being bullied by a teacher. The findings indicated that the model predicting report of being bullied was not significant.

The factor analysis conducted on teacher bullying behaviors in this study revealed two factors that were correlated with severity. The first factor consisted of severe to extreme

bullying, which included harsh physical and verbal abuse, as well as bystanding. The second factor represented mild to moderate bullying and included class-wide discipline approaches. Twemlow et al. (2006) also found two factors within their factor analysis of types of teacher bullying. They reported both sadistic bullying and bully-victim bullying. Some characteristics of a sadistic teacher bully include the following: *repeatedly punishes the same child, sets up students to be bullied, humiliates the student,* and *makes fun of special education students*. The items in this factor are similar or identical to some of the items of Factor 1 found in this study, such as *sets up another student to be bullied, makes fun of the student's hairstyle,* and *makes fun of special education students*.

Twemlow et al.'s (2006) second factor, bully-victim bullying, included such items as *doesn't like minorities, watches as students bully each other,* and *uses needless physical force*. By contrast, the similar items from this study (*punishes ethnic minorities more often than ethnic majority students, stands by as other students bully the student,* and *hits or slaps the student*) loaded on Factor 1. There could be numerous reasons for why these items loaded differently, but the most obvious assumption may lie in the differences between the samples of participants. Twemlow et al. used current elementary school teachers, while I interviewed former students. In addition, Twemlow et al. asked teachers to rate themselves and other teachers on these behaviors, but I asked former students about their experience of being bullied by teachers.

In contrast to the Twemlow et al. (2006) study, in the current study the item *sets up students to be bullied* loaded on Factor 1 (sadistic bullying), yet the item *watches as students bully each other* loaded on Factor 2 (bully-victim bullying). This indicates that teachers from the Twemlow et al. study rate setting up someone to be bullied differently than standing by as a student is bullied. In the current study, the items *sets up a student to be bullied* and *stands by as*

other students bully the student loaded on the same factor, indicating correlation between the two behaviors which are rated as severe to extreme bullying. The differences between the two studies may be due to the difference in the sample population in this case as well. It could be deduced that students view bystanding as a more severe form of bullying than teachers do.

This highlights a notable dimension of the overall topic of bullying, which is standing by as others bully a student. The vast majority of respondents in this study (95%, $N = 487$) indicated that a teacher is a bully when he or she stands by as other students bully the target student. Likewise, 91% ($N = 466$) stated that a teacher is a bully when he or she stands by as another teacher bullies the target student. Therefore, it can be deduced from this study that the respondents feel that teachers are bullies when they take no action to stop bullying behaviors by other students or teachers. Twemlow et al. (2004) stated that bystanders often have the most power to end a bullying incident. In fact, when someone intervenes on behalf of the victim, more than half the time the bullying stops in less than 10 seconds (Smith & Brain, 2000).

Results of a Chi-square analysis indicated that prevalence of reported teacher bullying differed across the sexes. Even though the literature suggests that boys are more likely to be bullied than girls (Olweus, 1999), that research is on peer-to-peer bullying rather than teacher bullying. In addition, non-heterosexual students' experience with being bullied by a teacher differed from that of their heterosexual counterparts in that non-heterosexuals were nearly three times more likely to be bullied than heterosexuals. This is consistent with the literature on the bullying that GLBT students encounter (Espelage et al., 2008; Poteat, 2008; Rivers & Noret, 2008; Swearer et al. 2008).

No significant difference was found between special education students and non-special education students in their report of being bullied by a teacher. This is in contrast to the research

of Holzbauer (2008), who indicated that nearly 97% of special education teachers witnessed

harassment of their students. Likewise, students who received government assistance were not

significantly more or less likely to be bullied by teachers than those who did not receive

assistance. Furthermore, there was no significant difference in reported prevalence of teacher

bullying between public and non-public school students. However, all of these results may differ

with a more diverse population.

The logistic regression analysis revealed that sex, sexual orientation, government

assistance, type of school, and special education services were not significant predictors of being

bullied by a teacher, but these predictors may be significant among a more diverse population.

Theoretical Application

As outlined in the social cognitive theory of moral agency, Bandura (1990; Bandura, et

al., 1996) described moral disengagement as the socio-cognitive processes through which the

ordinary person is able to commit hideous acts against others. Bandura (1990) described four

categories of psychological methods that enable good people to do bad things: *cognitive

restructuring, minimizing one's agentive role, disregarding/distorting the negative impact of

harmful behavior,* and *dehumanizing the victim. Cognitive restructuring* refers to thoughts and

arguments that serve to frame harmful acts in a positive light. For example, the item from this

study *has the student do physical work to earn a grade* may be justified from a bullying teacher's

viewpoint in that the student is allowed to do physical exercise to prevent failing a class.

Minimizing one's agentive role refers to cognitive strategies that transfer or disperse

responsibility for harmful acts by minimizing or obscuring the responsibility of the perpetrator.

Bystanding acts are explained by this strategy. A teacher who does not intervene when another

teacher bullies a student may justify this behavior by minimizing his or her power and

responsibility to the victim. *Disregarding/distorting the negative impact of harmful behavior* could be related to the item *rolls his/her eyes at the student*. The teacher who disregards this behavior is not aware, either intentionally or unintentionally, of the impact of such acts. Ultimately, a person can ease the moral impact of damaging behaviors through *blaming and dehumanizing the victim*. For example, if a teacher *makes fun of a student because of mental or physical disabilities*, the teacher is not seeing the student with special needs as a person, but rather a lesser being not worthy of respect. The purpose of moral disengagement is to inhibit the perpetrator's beliefs and to free the individual from self-censure and possible guilt (Bandura, 1990). This theory clearly supports how teachers are able to bully children.

Object relations theory is based on the premise that a child's self-image and the perceptions of the ideal self are formed in the context of relationships with the primary caregiver (Kernberg, 2002). Object-relations theorists would argue that negative object relationships in childhood are internalized and become part of the child's self-image. Moreover, negative experiences set a pattern for future relationships. Because schooling is one of life's earliest institutional involvements outside the family, an individual's experience of school plays a crucial role in the shaping of self. Consequently, there is an essential need for positive relationships between teachers and students in school. Such items reflecting object relations theory used in the questionnaire for this research include: *calls the student "stupid," makes inappropriate comments about the student's ethnicity*, and *hits or slaps the student*.

The process of developing self-image and ideal self begins in the family and continues as the child attends school and partakes in other communities outside of the home. Community membership requires that an individual have a range of dispositions or mindsets, which in turn contributes to an individual's self-image. It brings a certain kind of self-confidence and

competence, as well as feelings of privilege and empowerment (Parker, 2008). However, the transition from home to school can require children to exist within and move between contrasting cultures, each of which requires different dispositions and mindsets (Twemlow et al., 2004). Where these differences are particularly critical, the daily transition between the cultures of home and school can become extremely difficult or unrealistic. Likewise, feeling excluded from a community can diminish an individual's self-image.

Implications

Recognition of teacher bullying as a problem is noticeably absent from current school policies. Likewise, there is rarely any official procedure to remedy student grievances against alleged abusive teachers, so teachers who bully students are allowed to continue due to lack of policies and action. As a result, the school system unintentionally colludes with bullies by giving students and colleagues who have legitimate complaints about bullying few, if any, paths of redress. With a lack of formal policies and procedures, targets and bystanders find little support if they should confront the bully.

The long-term problems associated with psychological abuse during childhood include delays in cognitive and emotional development, social, emotional, behavioral, and academic problems, and suicidal ideation and attempt (Hyman, 1995; Hyman, et al., 1988; Zelikoff & Hyman, 1987). Whitted and Dupper (2005) also stated that there is significant evidence that adult-to-student abuse may result in the student's developing symptoms of posttraumatic stress disorder.

Whitted and Dupper (2008) argued that a student is victimized twice when a teacher bullies the student. They explained that when an adult in school mistreats a student, the student is involved in a power imbalance that in turn makes him or her particularly susceptible to

ongoing harassment and mistreatment. Being physically or verbally abused by an adult is mortifying enough, but being unable to protect himself or herself against such abuse further victimizes the student. In addition, when a student tries to defend himself or herself in response to a demeaning comment from a teacher or other adult, the student is often punished for being disrespectful. While teachers and other adults have every right and duty to preserve order in schools, they do not have the right to exploit their significant control and power in the name of maintaining order.

First, all schools should have a clear statement in their policies and codes of professional ethics that stipulates bullying behaviors as unacceptable, unprofessional, and worthy of penalty. Such a statement could correspond to the school's sexual harassment policy, with comparable arbitration and due process procedures. All schools should also develop guidelines for tracking complaints against teachers who are alleged to bully students. Reports of formal grievances and other letters of complaint should be regularly reviewed. This may also include informal complaints recorded by other teachers, administrators, or district officials. Evidence of teacher bullying should include student evaluations of teachers, particularly where patterns of alleged conduct are identified over time. Course or grade-level evaluation forms should allow students, parents, or both the opportunity to identify teacher-bullying behaviors. Documented bullying should be part of retention and promotion processes for all staff members. Periodic peer review of teaching practices should be done for all faculty members, regardless of tenure.

In creating guidelines to combat the bullying of students, bystanders who are not the victims, including other teachers and students, should be allowed to file a grievance. Because victims are often reluctant to take action, witnesses should be held responsible to identify such behaviors. As in racist or sexual harassment incidents, the school has an obligation to act even if

the victim is hesitant to become involved in a grievance process. In addition, consequences for bullying should include but not be limited to counseling. A full array of penalties should be available, including termination.

A mentorship program should be put into place for new teachers to connect with reputable, seasoned teachers. Dialogue between the teachers should include teacher-bullying behaviors. Also, new teacher orientation should cover the guidelines and policy of teacher bullying. In addition, a team of teachers should be formed to address the situation when a teacher is accused of bullying a student.

Future Research

The purpose of this research was to uncover categories of teacher bullying behaviors. However, the factors that emerged were based on severities: severe to extreme and mild to moderate. A second order factor analysis could be performed on these data, which could uncover categories of behaviors within severe to extreme bullying and mild to moderate bullying.

Utilizing a more diverse population may yield different results. The results of this research can only be applied to the population used. A different sample, with more participants in particular subgroups (i.e., non-heterosexual, non-public school students, and those who received government assistance or special education services), could result in different conclusions.

Future research into the area of teacher bullying could involve a comparison of teachers' self-reports of bullying students, teachers' reports of other teachers bullying students, and students' reports of being bullied by teachers. Ideally, the sample would come from the same school(s) so that conclusions could be made on reports of teacher bullying by the same teachers

and students. Likewise, it may be helpful to gain an understanding of administrators' views of teacher bullying behaviors.

Conducting research on teacher bullying is difficult because of the sensitivity of this topic. Teachers are already under many pressures with budget cuts, larger class sizes, and high-stakes testing. Twemlow et al. (2004) pointed out that school officials seldom grant permission to researchers who are interested in this form of bullying because they do not want to irritate teachers' unions. Even if permission is given, researchers cannot merely observe this occurrence, as educators are likely to alter their behavior in the company of observers (Hyman & Perone, 1998). Furthermore, educators may be unwilling to talk about this problem candidly out of apprehension of being spurned by their colleagues (Twemlow et al., 2004).

Limitations

The following are considered limitations of this study:

1. The sample was not diverse.

2. The psychometric properties of the instrument have not been fully established.

3. In studies relying on self-report, there is a chance that individuals may respond in a way that provides a conceivable justification or rationalization for negative experiences.

Sample

The sample used in this study consisted of a young, mostly heterosexual, largely female population. In order to gain a better understanding of how particular subgroups report bullying, a more diverse population is needed. For example, a larger number of non-heterosexual respondents could result in a significant Chi-square analysis, which would indicate a significant difference in teacher bullying among this subgroup.

Furthermore, with a more diverse population, the factors may load differently because

certain subgroups may interpret teacher bullying in different ways (i.e., severity). For example, students who attend non-public schools may rate *gives additional homework* differently than public school students. Much would depend on the culture and climate of the institution and what has been and is accepted as discipline.

In addition, this sample was of all college students who most likely were successful in their K-12 education. Students who did not graduate from high school or did not attend college may have a different perspective on teacher bullying. Inquiry in other nations may also provide interesting correlations and contradictions from this sample.

Instrument

The questionnaire used in this study was developed from a content analysis of the existing literature on teacher bullying behaviors. Also, a modification of Twemlow et al.'s (2006) "A Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying" was utilized for some of the teacher bullying behaviors. Although Twemlow et al.'s survey lacked thorough psychometric testing, it was utilized in a study specifically designed to address teachers who bully students, even though not all forms of teacher bullying were addressed. Twemlow et al.'s findings represent an early contribution in a very complicated area and suggested the need for replication to see if relationships are consistent.

Reliability can be defined as "the extent to which the same measurements of individuals obtained under different circumstances yield similar results" (Everitt, 1998, p. 283), and validity can be defined as "the extent to which a measuring instrument is measuring what was intended" (Everitt, 1998, p. 343). Internal consistency, most often measured by Cronbach's alpha, is the extent to which the items on an instrument relate to each other (Bland & Altman, 1997). In terms of reliability, Twemlow et al. (2006) reported "surprisingly high" test-retest reliability, and

Cronbach's alpha in the present study was .96; alphas over .90 are generally regarded as excellent (Bland & Altman, 1997), indicating high internal consistency. Validity is always harder to test, but Twemlow et al. reported at least reasonable correlations between the scores on this instrument and constructs that ought to correlate with it. In addition, the factor structure of the instrument was quite good, with relatively few items correlating highly with both factors (three items loaded above .40 on both) or neither factor (two items were below .40 on both).

Nevertheless, this is not a formal assessment of psychometric properties. If the measure is invalid, then conclusions drawn from it may also be invalid. If an instrument is unreliable, then it will be more difficult to get statistically significant results because the error term will be higher. However, validity and reliability are not dichotomies, but continua. Although it cannot be concluded exactly how reliable and valid this instrument is in a general population, there is at least encouraging evidence that it is reasonably valid and reliable in the population that was studied here.

Self-Report

Students who performed poorly in school may have a propensity to blame teachers as the source of their cynicism, when in fact the causes might be more complex. For example, a student who does not succeed academically due to various factors may blame teachers for his or her weakness. Cognitive dissonance may also play a role in what some students may believe was teacher bullying. For many, it is much easier to blame a teacher than take responsibility for their inadequacies.

Even though some researchers (Brewin et al., 1993; Ross & Conway, 1986) indicated that most individuals' recollection of past events remains reasonably accurate across time, others (Byrne, Hyman, & Scott, 2001) doubt the reliability of memories from traumatic events. In fact,

Byrne et al. stated that traumatic and negative experiences were not as well recalled as positive experiences. Therefore, the participants' recollections of being bullied by a teacher may or may not be completely reliable.

Conclusion

The vast majority of professional educators are ethical in their conduct. Many spend countless hours outside of the school day and academic year preparing and learning new teaching methods and techniques. Teachers frequently spend their own money on classroom supplies for their students. For most, a teacher's work is never done. However, bullying of students by teachers needs to be recognized as a problem. Even if only a few teachers are guilty of this behavior within a school, the consequences for school climate and fulfilling students' academic, social, and emotional needs are great. This distinctively devastating phenomenon was effectively described by McEvoy (2005):

Like stalking victims, students who are the targets of teachers who bully feel trapped in a situation where the abuser is all-powerful. Sometimes they may be literally trapped in an environment (e.g., classroom or office) where offensive conduct is imposed upon them and there is no escape. More often, they feel situationally trapped and bereft of a way to mitigate this harmful situation. Any complaint about the abusive behavior places the student at risk of retaliation by the teacher, including the use of grades as a sanction. Equally important, it is the student not the teacher who suffers deprivations if he or she misses class, withdraws from a course, or has to avoid certain classes because the teacher is a bully. (p. 3)

Although the problem of peer bullying in the schools has received the bulk of attention and empirical study during the past two decades in the United States, the findings of this study

suggest that researchers must begin to direct focus on teachers and other adults who misuse their substantial power to emotionally and physically abuse students. There is a scarcity of empirical literature in this area and a vast need to heighten our awareness and understanding of this menace in schools and the degree to which it contributes to a multitude of other problems, including drug use, drop-out rates, truancy, discipline problems, and so forth.

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APPENDIX A: TEACHER BULLYING BEHAVIORS QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this research is to uncover categories of teacher bullying behaviors in the Kindergarten through 12th grade setting. Please answer the following questions according to your (K-12) school experience ONLY.

For purposes of this study, the definition of a **teacher-bully** is *one who uses a repeated pattern of conduct to punish, manipulate, or disparage a student and is rooted in a power differential. Such behaviors may threaten, harm, humiliate, induce fear, or cause substantial emotional distress and are beyond reasonable disciplinary procedures.*

Section A. Background Information

1. What is your sex?
   a. Male
   b. Female

2. What is your age?
   a. 18-19 years
   b. 20-21 years
   c. 22-25 years
   d. 26-35
   e. over 35

3. Which of the following best describes you?
   a. Exclusively/primarily heterosexual
   b. Exclusively/primarily homosexual
   c. Bisexual
   d. Asexual
   e. Other

4. How many years ago did you graduate from high school?
    a. 0-2
    b. 3-5
    c. 6-10
    d. 11 or more

5. Choose the option that best describes your K-12 education.
    a. attended all public schools
    b. attended all non-public schools
    c. attended mostly non-public schools and some public schools
    d. attended mostly public schools and some non-public schools

6. Approximately how many students were in your graduating class?
    a. 100 or less
    b. 101-500
    c. 501-999
    d. 1000+

7. Did you receive any special education services at any time during your K-12 experience?
    a. Yes
    b. No
    c. Do not remember

8. Did you receive free/reduced lunch and/or textbooks during any of your time in K-12?
    a. Yes
    b. No
    c. Do not remember

9. How many times do you feel a teacher(s) bullied you?
    a. Never
    b. Rarely
    c. Sometimes
    d. Very frequently
    e. Almost all of the time

10. How many teachers bullied you?
    a. None
    b. One
    c. 2-3
    d. 4-5
    e. 6 or more

11. How often do you think a teacher bullies students?
    a. Never
    b. Only rarely on extreme occasions
    c. Occasionally
    d. Often

12. In your opinion, how much of a problem is teacher bullying?
    a. Not much of a problem
    b. Somewhat of a problem
    c. A definite problem
    d. A severe problem

13. In your opinion, who bullies students more?
    a. Teachers do not bully
    b. Men teachers
    c. Women teachers
    d. Both men and women teachers equally bully students

Please rate the severity of each of the following examples: **Not** (behavior is not bullying); **Mild** (could be considered bullying, but only mild); **Moderate** (definitely bullying, but does not cause significant damage); **Severe** (significant bullying behaviors that cause distress); **Extreme** (significant bullying behaviors that may cause long-term psychological implications).

Section B. Teacher Bullying Behaviors

A teacher <u>singles out a particular student</u> and…

	Not	Mild	Moderate	Severe	Extreme
14. does not answer the student's question	a.	b.	c.	d.	e.
15. gives the student a detention for petty infractions	a.	b.	c.	d.	e.
16. punishes the student with additional homework	a.	b.	c.	d.	e.
17. calls the student "stupid"	a.	b.	c.	d.	e.
18. consistently criticizes the student's hairstyle or clothes	a.	b.	c.	d.	e.
19. makes inappropriate comments about the student's ethnicity	a.	b.	c.	d.	e.
20. makes fun of the student because of mental or physical disabilities	a.	b.	c.	d.	e.
21. tapes the student's mouth shut because of talking	a.	b.	c.	d.	e.
22. ties the student to a seat because of fidgeting	a.	b.	c.	d.	e.
23. makes sexually suggestive comments to the student	a.	b.	c.	d.	e.
24. inappropriately touches the student	a.	b.	c.	d.	e.
25. firmly grabs the student's arm in order to redirect the student	a.	b.	c.	d.	e.
26. pushes or throws the student up against a wall	a.	b.	c.	d.	e.

27. has the student do physical work to earn a grade
(e.g., wash classroom windows, take out trash)   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

28. talks about the student's poor grades with other
students   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

29. stands by as other students bully the student   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

30. sets up another student to bully the student   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

31. watches as another teacher bullies the student   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

32. pulls or cuts the student's hair   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

33. talks about the student's discipline record in front
of other students   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

34. hits or slaps the student   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

35. rolls his/her eyes at the student   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

36. draws attention to the student for not doing well on
a test   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

37. allows other students to call the student
derogatory names   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

38. punishes the student for a minor misbehavior by
providing a reward (e.g., candy) to everyone else
but that student   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

39. isolates the student from the rest of the class   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

40. threatens the student as behavior management
(e.g., "If you don't be quiet, I'm going to
take away all of your free-time.")   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

41. rarely gives the student compliments   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

42. punishes ethnic minority students more often than
ethnic majority students   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

43. often yells during class   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

44. takes away recess for a student's misbehavior   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

45. punishes all students in the class even though not all
students misbehaved. (i.e., the entire class has recess
taken away when only a few misbehaved.)   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

46. gives extremely difficult homework   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

47. does not allow the student to go to the bathroom   a.   b.   c.   d.   e.

Thank you for your time and effort. Hopefully your contribution will assist in

understanding the phenomenon of teacher bullying behaviors.

APPENDIX B: SOLICITATION LETTER TO PROFESSORS

The following letter was sent to Indiana State University faculty members:

You are being invited to have your students participate in a research study about perceptions of teacher bullying behaviors in the K-12 setting. This study is being conducted by Sally Davies, M.Ed., and Bridget Roberts-Pittman, Ph.D., from the Department of Communication Disorders and Counseling, School, and Educational Psychology at Indiana State University. This study is being conducted as part of a dissertation project.

Although all studies have some risk involved, the estimates of foreseeable risks or discomfort of this study are no more than everyday activity. Any resulting risk is minimal. There are no costs to your students for participating in the study. The information your students provide will contribute to the field of research on teacher bullying behaviors. The questionnaire will take about 10-15 minutes to complete. The information collected may not benefit you or your students directly, but the information learned in this study should provide more general benefits.

This survey is anonymous, and students will be asked to not write their name on the survey. No one will be able to identify your students' answers, and no one will know whether or not your students participated in the study. Individuals from the Institutional Review Board may inspect these records. Should the data be published, no individual information will be disclosed.

Your students' participation in this study is voluntary. By signing and returning this letter in the pre-addressed envelope, you are voluntarily agreeing to allow Sally Davies to come to your class at your designated time to distribute the questionnaire. You may also email your

consent to sdavies@indstate.edu. Your students are free to decline to answer any particular question they do not wish to answer for any reason.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact Sally Davies at the above email address or Bridget Roberts-Pittman (bridget.roberts-pittman@indstate.edu) at (812) 237-4593. If your students have any questions about their rights as a research subject or if they feel they've been placed at risk, they may contact the Indiana State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) by mail at Indiana State University, Office of Sponsored Programs, Terre Haute, IN, 47809, by phone at (812) 237-8217, or by e-mail at irb@indstate.edu.

Sincerely,

Sally Davies, M.Ed.

Doctoral Candidate

Department of Communication Disorders and Counseling, School, and Educational Psychology

Indiana State University

(812) 237-2880

I agree to allow Sally Davies to distribute the Teacher Bullying Behaviors Questionnaire to _____, on _____, at _____.

    (class)   (date)   (time)

_____

    (Signature)   (email or phone number)

APPENDIX C: SCRIPT

The following script was read to all possible participants:

If you are a graduate of a public or non-public high school, you are being asked to participate in a study that will reveal perceptions of teacher bullying behaviors in the kindergarten through 12th grade level. Your participation is completely voluntary, and your identity will remain anonymous. If you decide to participate, you will fill out a questionnaire. Should you decide to participate, you will be contributing to the knowledge base on this topic. This questionnaire is expected to take 10-15 minutes. Although the estimates of foreseeable risks or discomfort are no more than everyday activity, you will be given a referral list of contacts should you experience any distress as a result of this research.

APPENDIX D: PARTICIPANT LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT

The following letter was given to all participants:

You are being invited to participate in a research study about perceptions of teacher bullying behaviors in the K-12 setting. This study is being conducted by Sally Davies, M.Ed., and Bridget Roberts-Pittman, Ph.D., from the Department of Communication Disorders and Counseling, School, and Educational Psychology at Indiana State University. This study is being conducted as part of a dissertation project.

Although all studies have some risk involved, the estimates of foreseeable risks or discomfort of this study are no more than everyday activity. Any resulting risk is minimal. The information you provide will contribute to the field of research on teacher bullying behaviors. The questionnaire will take about 10-15 minutes to complete. The questionnaire will take about 10-15 minutes to complete. The information collected may not benefit you directly, but the information learned in this study should provide more general benefits.

This survey is anonymous. Do not write your name on the survey. No one will be able to identify you or your answers, and no one will know whether or not you participated in the study. Individuals from the Institutional Review Board may inspect these records. Should the data be published, no individual information will be disclosed.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. By completing and turning in the survey in the designated box in the classroom, you are voluntarily agreeing to participate. You are free to decline to answer any particular question you do not wish to answer for any reason.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact Sally Davies by mail at Room 226 Bayh College of Education, Indiana State University, Terre Haute, IN 47809, by phone at (812) 237-2880, or by email at sdavies@indstate.edu. You may also contact Dr. Roberts-Pittman by mail at UH 310D Bayh College of Education, Indiana State University, Terre Haute, IN 47809, by phone at (812) 237-4593, or by email at bridget.roberts-pittman@indstate.edu.

If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject or if you feel you've been placed at risk, you may contact the Indiana State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) by mail at Indiana State University, Office of Sponsored Programs, Terre Haute, IN, 47809, by phone at (812) 237-8217, or by e-mail at irb@indstate.edu.

APPENDIX E: REFERRAL LIST

The following referral list was given to all participants:

If you experience any distress as a result of this research, please contact either of the

following:

Indiana State University Student Counseling Center

3rd Floor, Student Services Building

567 North 5th Street

Terre Haute, IN 47809

Phone: (812) 237-3939

Hamilton Center, Inc.

620 8th Avenue

Terre Haute, IN 47804

Phone: (812) 231-8323