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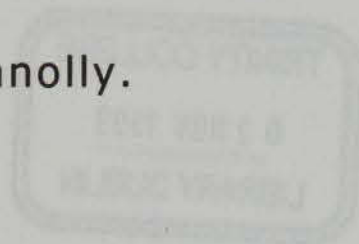
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Personality and Family Relations of Children Who Bully.

by Irene Connolly.



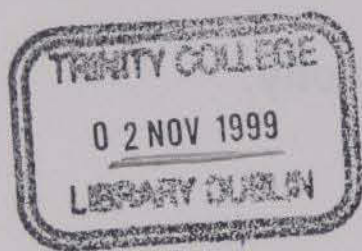
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Summary:

This study investigates the personality and family relationships of children who bully. A total of 228 students participated in this research, these participants were categorised into the following groups; the bullying group, the control group, the traveller group, the traveller control group, the bully - traveller (bullying and traveller groups combined) and the control - traveller control group (control and traveller control groups combined). The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior (1975) is a self-administered questionnaire that was designed to measure four personality variables in participants between the ages of 7 and 16 years. The four variables are Psychoticism (P), Extraversion (E), Neuroticism (N) and Lie (L). There are 81

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## Summary.

This study investigates the personality and family relationships of children who bully. A total of 228 students participated in this research, these participants were categorised into the following groups, the bullying group, the control group, the traveller group, the traveller control group, the bully – traveller (bullying and traveller groups combined) and the control – traveller control group (control and traveller control groups combined). The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior (1975) is a self – administered questionnaire that was designed to measure four personality variables in participants between the ages of 7 and 16 years. The four variables are Psychoticism (P), Extraversion (E), Neuroticism (N) and Lie (L). There are 81 items on this questionnaire, 18 items on the P scale, 24 items on the E scale, 20 items on the N scale, and 20 items on the L scale. The Family Relations Test (1957) is a test, which investigates the direction and intensity of the child's feelings towards individual family members and the child's estimate of their reciprocal emotions towards him. The test includes the active manipulation of objects in a play situation. The Family Relations Test consists of 21 faceless cardboard figures, attached to red boxes that have slits in

the top of them. Twenty of the figures represent people of varying age, gender and body size. The last figure is called the "nobody" figure, which is used when the statements do not apply to anyone in the child's family circle. There is an older version and a version for younger children.

negative response groups for the bullying group, which

In the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, when the bullying group was compared to the control group, the bullying group produced a higher score on the Psychoticism and the Neuroticism scales, but not on the Extraversion scale. A higher result was found in the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales, when comparing the traveller group to both the traveller control and bullying group. An investigation of lying found that the bullying group did not have higher levels of dissimulation than the other three groups. However, an analysis of variance demonstrated that the lie scores are affected by the age of the subjects. The bully - traveller group scored higher on the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales than the control - traveller control groups but not on the Lie scale which implied that the bully - traveller group did not dissimulate.

family relations in the creation of a bully. Therefore,

The Family Relations Test, with regards to the Nobody category found that the bullying group placed more cards in

the nobody box, than the other three subject groups. Results of the Self category indicated that significantly more negative statements were attributed to the Self than the other subject groups. In the Sibling category a Post Hoc Scheffe Test produced a significant difference across all negative response groups for the bullying group, which suggests evidence of sibling rivalry. The analysis of the Mother category produced evidence of an ambivalent relationship for the bullying group. Finally, the results of the Father category, demonstrated an ambivalent relationship for the bullying group but a warm positive relationship for the control and traveller control group. The bully – traveller group placed more cards in the Nobody box, which implied that they tend to inhibit their emotions. The bully - traveller group attributed more negative statements to themselves, and had ambivalent relationships with their siblings, mothers and fathers, unlike the control – traveller control group who displayed positive relationships with the members of their families.

This research demonstrates the role of personality and family relations in the creation of a bully. Therefore, professionals must address these facts when dealing with a

bullying child rather than using discipline in an effort to deter the problem.

I would like to thank all the schools and the students who participated in my research. I would like to thank both my parents and Tony for their tremendous support throughout the last two years. Finally, I would like to express my sincerest gratitude to Dr. Mons G. Moore for her guidance and encouragement.

Irene Connolly

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Irene Connolly.

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## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

In this study I attempted to examine the underlying reasons that cause a child to display bullying behaviour. Bullying may be defined as "the repeated attack, physical, psychological, social or verbal, by those in a position of power, which is formally or situationally defined on those who are powerless to resist, with the intention of causing distress for their own gain

# CHAPTER

# ONE



## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

In this study I attempted to examine the underlying reasons that cause a child to display bullying behaviour. Bullying may be defined as "the reflected attack, physical, psychological, social or verbal, by those in a position of power, which is formally or situationally defined on those who are powerless to resist, with the intention of causing distress for their own gain or gratification", (Besag, 1989, p.4). Bullying originally came to the attention of the professionals through the work of Heinemann, a Swedish doctor of medicine who in 1969, published his revolutionary article "Apartheid", which was followed by a book called "Bullying : Group - Violence Among Children and Adults", in 1973. This created a spark of interest and curiosity in the world of research regarding the topic of bullying. In the area of bullying, attention is often focused on the victim. In the United States, bullying is referred to as "victimization", which changes the focus of attention away from the bully, to the victim. However, in this research the focus is placed firmly on the bullying child. My interest was drawn to this area of bullying after reading two articles, the first was "Who is the Bully?" by Lowenstein (1978a), secondly,

Wright (1992) reported that that a boy aged 11, hanged himself on the eve of a school inquiry into his bullying of another child. Children who bully possess deep seated problems which tend to be ignored when schools are dealing with the problem of bullying. The areas focused on in this piece of research as the underlying causes of bullying are personality and family relationships. Research by Thomas and Chess (1977) has shown that temperament can have an influence on behaviour and furthermore, a personality basis of bullying was put forward by Olweus (1984). Personality is investigated in this study using a self – administered questionnaire, The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1975) which examines the personality variables of Extraversion, Neuroticism, Psychoticism and Lie or Social Desirability. Communication is an important factor in healthy family functioning (Duhl and Duhl, 1981). However, children who bully do not come from families that communicate or interact positively. Negative maternal (Olweus, 1988) negative paternal (Glueck and Glueck, 1950) and negative sibling relationships (Elliott, 1986) are underlying causes of bullying behaviour in a child. Familial relationships are investigated in this study using The Family Relations Test

(Bene and Anthony, 1957). This is a projective technique, which is essentially a play situation. It looks at the emotional attachments of the child with each member of the family and their reciprocal emotions towards the child. The problem of bullying does not dwindle away as the child begins to mature. In fact, unchecked bullying behaviour can spiral out of control as the child matures. The future prospects of children who bully are less than encouraging. Many grow up to have unsatisfactory relationships, become abusive parents and spouses (Brock, 1992). As parents, their behaviour is modeled by their children helping to create a new generation of bully, and perhaps an even more violent problem for a new generation of children to deal with. Others are convicted of violent crimes, their torment being spread throughout the whole of society (Randall, 1992).

There are three main types of bullies, the typical bully, the bully / victim and the anxious bully. Typical bullies are aggressive, have a positive attitude towards violence, and use violent means a great deal more than other pupils. There is a clear wish or desire, on the part of the bully, to inflict pain on a person whom they see as inferior to themselves. Bullying

gangs sometimes operate in a rather similar way to the Mafia and engage in extortion and protection rackets. The next group is the bully / victim group. This group demonstrates more disturbed behaviour than the typical bully (Olweus, 1989). The bully / victims are highly rejected by their peers and differ from other victims by being provocative and starting fights (Smith and Boulton, 1991). Bullies who had been victims possess more feelings of inadequacy than pure bullies. They are more troublesome, anxious and dissatisfied than typical bullies. It appears that victims may want to demonstrate their own superiority and do so by becoming a bully themselves. Finally, the anxious bully group have problems at home or educational failure, they are less confident and less popular than other bullies. They have few likeable qualities and poor school attainment, and are sometimes regarded as cowards. They share many characteristics of the victim, they are anxious and aggressive, possess low self - esteem have many insecurities and are friendless. They pick unsuitable victims, provoke attacks by other bullies, and appear extremely emotionally unstable.

In Ireland several studies have been carried out to determine the number of children involved in the aspect of bullying either as a bully or as a victim, each taking a portion of the school going population to estimate the size of the problem. Research carried out by Mitchell and O' Moore (1987) involving 720 students, found that 6% of the total students were described as bullies. This is supported by the results of urban secondary school boys, containing a total of 600 students where the incidence of bullying was found to be 5% of the total sample (Byrne 1987). The incidence of bullying in children between the ages of 7 - 13, found that a total of 10.5% reported that they were involved in serious bullying, either as a bully or a victim. A total of 55.8% acknowledged that they had bullied others, a further 43.3% reported that they were involved occasionally, whereas 2.5% reported that they had bullied others quite seriously once a week or more (Hillery and O' Moore, 1989). These figures give a clear indication of the enormity of this problem in Ireland. The volume of the incidence of bullying has acquired the attention of the Department of Education and several external agencies in an effort to stamp out the ever growing problem. In 1994, Dr. Brendan Byrne's "Coping with Bullying in Schools," was

launched by the Minister of Education. The I.S.P.C.C. worked in association with the British based Kidscape, the Department of Education and The National Parents Council, in the production of "Stop Bullying", a set of guidelines to prevent, identify and respond to the problem of bullying. Programmes currently being promoted in Irish schools include "The Stay Safe Programme," (1993), which contains sections on bullying to assist teachers and other staff in their fight against this problem. The "Anti - Bullying Center", located in Trinity College Dublin, is another service involved in the battle to prevent the spread of bullying in our schools. This research attempts to assist with this effort by providing the answer as to the reason a child begins to bully in the first place.

# CHAPTER

# TWO

## 2.1. INTRODUCTION.

In the area of bullying research a great deal of information has been gathered with reference to the victim of bullying and the consequences of being subjected to this childhood torment. While acknowledging this research, this researcher felt that it was time to examine the other end of the spectrum, the underlying reasons as to why children display bullying behaviour. When an incidence of bullying is reported, schools often deal harshly with the child displaying the bullying behaviour. It is seldom that the school authorities delve into the child's life in an attempt to discover a reason for this anti-social and aggressive behaviour, preferring instead to use some form of punishment in an effort to deter it. Once labeled a bully, the child's reputation is often irreparably tarnished both inside and outside of the school.



## 2.2. FAMILY.

The family unit plays an essential role in the development of every child. A child with loving and caring parents, who communicate openly and treat each child as an individual with rights, develops into a well – adjusted individual, who can contribute positively to the parent – child relationship, and in turn to the sibling – sibling relationship. However, children who bully do not come from this type of environment. Children involved in bullying are three times more likely to have problems in the home (Stephenson and Smith, 1982). Children, who bully, are aggressive often using their power and violence to communicate instead of words. The families of these children are dysfunctional, emotions are muted, and there is a lack of communication. The members of these families suffer in different ways, where one child may become introspective, another may turn his troubles out on the rest of the world. The parents of bullies often do not spend enough time with their child or may openly show a preference for one child over another. The mother of a bullying child may care for every physical need of the child while neglecting the child's emotional needs. A father who uses physical punishment as a

means of discipline, is teaching the child that it is appropriate to hit others in certain circumstances. In a dysfunctional family where there is little warmth and poor communication between family members, girls are more inclined to become either bullies or victims, the boys in such families tend to always become bullies. Poor family functioning has a particularly devastating effect on the self - esteem of girls (Noller and Callan, 1991). Family therapists have long regarded positive and effective communication in families as a crucial determining of healthy family functioning among adolescents (Duhl and Duhl, 1981). Family factors which are associated with childhood aggression are absence of a father, loss of a parent through divorce rather than death, a depressed mother, an irritable parent and marital discord (Wolff, 1985).

It appears in the case of children who bully a negative paternal and maternal relationship appears to play a part in the maladjustment of a child. A fundamentally negative rejecting attitude from the parent creates, strong aggressive tendencies and hostility in a child (Bandura and Walters, 1959). Parents of very aggressive boys and delinquents have been characterised by a combination of lax mothers and hostile fathers (Andry,

1960). Psychoanalysts have laid great emphasis upon the emotional attitudes of parents, especially mothers, in the formation of the characters of their children. A cold and rejecting attitude on the part of the mother referred to as "silent violence" is correlated with the bullying behaviour of the son (Olweus, 1980). Mothers of delinquents are more likely to be rated indifferent, hostile or rejecting in attitude and correspondingly less likely to be rated warm than mothers of non - delinquents. Aggressive teenage boys expressed more hostility against their father and weakly identified with them. It seems that cruel, passive or neglectful fathers are just as detrimental as cruel, passive or neglectful mothers (Glueck and Glueck, 1950). However, this contrasts with the findings of McCord et al, (1959) where bad fathers were not as destructive as bad mothers, but that the delinquents came from less cohesive homes, in which there was less warmth between the two parents and between each parent and child. Young children who harassed others in school tend to have over controlling and dominating home environments, indicating that this type of a dysfunctional family doesn't produce empathy in a child (Manning et al, 1978). Paternal absence seems to affect boys more than girls, making the boys less aggressive when young,

but more aggressive during adolescence (Zigler and Child, 1969). Delinquency rates are higher in boys if the father is absent from the home but in girls the rate is higher if the mother was missing (Gregory 1965). Pre – school children tend to prefer the parent of the same sex (Ammons and Ammons, 1949) whereas older children prefer the parent of the opposite sex (Newell, 1932). It may be that the importance of the same sexed parent is marked only at certain ages, perhaps in adolescence.

Adolescence is a time of great upheaval in each child's life, even children from positive and loving families can find this period of time confusing. Adolescents who experience low levels of emotional support and whose families are not sympathetic, are more likely to bully their peers (Rigby, 1994). However, it is not just a matter of parental attitude but the family situation in total. The skill of the whole family in sustaining positive and effective communication is seen as a vital component in the development of positive coping, social and personal skills. Adolescents who bully are more likely to come from families where such skills are lacking. Bullies perceive their family as lacking in cohesion, they see their

fathers as more powerful than mothers, and siblings as more powerful than themselves (Bowers, Smith and Binney, 1992).

Children model their parents' behaviour, and the methods of discipline used by parents will also be modelled by their children. Researchers such as Sears et al (1957), have distinguished two contrasting general methods of child rearing called "love oriented" and "object oriented". It is claimed that love oriented methods are favoured by middle class parents (Bronfenbrenner, 1958) and that these methods are more effective in producing well - socialized and less delinquent children (Trasler, 1962). Parents who use physical punishment often do not realize that they are conveying the message to their child that it is alright to use violence. Children tend to imitate the behaviour of someone acting aggressively (Bandura, 1973 ; Berkowitz, 1965). On the other hand, children need boundaries in order to feel their parents care about them. Certain family factors such as a negative emotional attitude from the primary caregiver, characterized by a lack of warmth, a lack of involvement, a tolerant or even permissive attention to aggression with no clear limits for aggressive behaviour and finally, a type of power assertive approach to child rearing,

where both physical punishment and violent emotional outbursts are the usual control methods, all contribute to the development of a child's bullying behaviour. Aggressive behaviour is learned, living with parents who abuse them, teaches children that aggression and violence are effective and acceptable means to dominate others and get your own way. A vast number of children who receive and witness violence at home, to an extent that they regard it as normal behaviour (Mitchell 1973). In a study carried out by Newson and Newson, (1970) 50% of parents smacked their children for disobedience, 8% of children were smacked daily and more boys than girls were punished in this way. Perhaps, this is why boys tend to use more physical violence in bullying than girls. This is an example of the mixed message parents can send children in the use of physical violence and acting as a model for violence. Parents of aggressive boys are particularly likely to disagree about aspects of the child rearing process (Bandura and Walters, 1959). Parents may apply power assertive strategies in an inconsistent manner. They may fiercely punish aggression within the home but actually encourage it within the peer group outside the home (Parke and Slaby, 1983). Parents may have aspirations for their child to dominate within the peer

group and will therefore reward such behaviour in school, even though they would suppress it in the home (Patterson, 1982). Olweus (1980) in a study of boy bullies found their home environments are often violent. The fathers often used violent means of punishing their child that may be related to the fact that the boy uses violence towards others. Parents who often use physical punishment and power assertive child rearing methods, frequently have aggressive sons. Behaviour towards peers is seen as resulting from a failure in bonding with a parent figure, giving rise to chronic insecurity and suspicions. This characteristic is commonly found among children who bully their peers. The influence that families have upon children has also been conceived more broadly as deriving from the social environment of the family as a total entity or interlocking system. It has been suggested that experience of living with families in which interactions are continually negative and communication inadequate may lead children to internalize a model of how relationships are conducted that is basically non - caring and hostile. This model may determine how such children behave in their relations with peers (Tory and Srouffe, 1978). This is the beginning of a

circle of failed or violent relationships they will experience as adults.

The birth order of children, has little effect on whether children bully. In today's society, families are getting smaller, yet the problem of bullying is increasing steadily. This is supported by West and Farrington (1973) who suggested that the relationship between birth order and delinquency was merely a secondary consequence of family size because middle born children tended to come from larger families with higher delinquency potential. Yet, further evidence indicates that the oldest and youngest children in families are less likely to become delinquents than those born into intermediate positions (Glueck and Glueck, 1950 ; Lees and Newson, 1954). Negative relationships with siblings can produce fights within the family, which can spill over into school. Anger and jealousy, felt towards a sibling may be misdirected onto other students in school. Research shows that bullying does in fact take place between siblings (Elliott, 1986). The bully may be a younger sibling, it has been shown that younger children are twice as likely to provoke quarrels as older children but the latter are twice as likely to be blamed if they retaliate (Koch, 1960).



Boys are twice as likely to fight outside the home, but girls fight equally as much at home with siblings (Newson and Newson, 1976). Poor sibling relationships between the ages of 3 and 4 years was found to be a sound predictor of disturbed behaviour, four years later. The general finding is that parents who are cold and rejecting towards their children, use physical punishment and whose discipline is inconsistent are more likely to have aggressive children than other parents (Conger, Conger, Elder, Lorenz, Simons and Whitbeck, 1992). This creates frustration among family members, likely to produce hostile and aggressive changes in parents and their children.

Bullying is not confined to one social class but takes places in all classes of society. However, much research favours one end of the spectrum or the other, seldom entertaining the fact that it is cross – sectional. A piece of research which identifies with this argument was an examination of delinquents carried out by Palmai et al, (1967) where a survey of a randomly selected sample of young people appearing before London juvenile court, found them to be derived fairly evenly from all social classes. It appears that there are sub-cultural differences among parents in the way behaviour is evaluated, referring to

findings of the National Child Development Study concerning children up to 7, Davie et al (1972) commented that perceptions of certain forms of behaviour in children such as overt aggression, temper tantrums, destructiveness of property are more acceptable to parents of one social group than another. Some research puts forward that groups in deprived areas are strongly influenced by bullying, and that frictions between neighbours are associated with early childhood aggression (Garafalo, Siegal and Lamb 1987 ; Van Reenan 1992). The fathers' age and education is related to boys' aggression, the younger and less educated the father, the higher the boys' aggression. For girls, the father's occupation is related to aggression, the lower the occupation according to census standards, the higher the aggression of girls (Eron, 1982). Boys from poor families, unsatisfactory housing, neglected accommodation and lowest social economic class were in each case, more prone to delinquency than those rated favourably (MacDonald, 1969). One exception to this was those whose mothers had a full time job, included a smaller percentage of delinquents (West and Farrington, 1973). The reason may be that they tended to produce a higher family income and lesser children. This finding is related directly to

the results of the National Child Development Study (Davie et al, 1972) which demonstrates that at the age of seven, the child of a full time working mother, showed no ill effects in terms of their attainment or adjustment in school. However, bullying in Dublin schools did not appear to be linked with disadvantaged children, bullying was found to be most widespread in the schools which had the second highest intake of children with the professional and managerial parents (Hillery and O' Moore, 1988). Further studies found there was no connection between the parents of lower social economic status and their children participating in bullying (Olweus, 1978 ; Mykletun, 1979). Children of parents with less than nine years or more than fourteen years schooling were bullied most and the children of fathers who had little formal education stood a greater chance of being bullies (Roland, 1980).

### 2.3. PERSONALITY.

The personality of an individual, plays a large part in bullying behaviour. Children who bully, display certain characteristics, which are absent or diminished in children who do not bully. These characteristics are aggression, lacking in empathy, extroverted, assertive, competitive, with a need to dominate and control others, seldom paying attention to the feelings of others and not thinking of the consequences their actions may bring. They tend to lack guilt and rationalize their bullying by putting forward the idea that the victim deserved it. A child's personality can be created as a result of their upbringing and experiences. Therefore, the experiences of children who come from less cohesive homes may be related to their personality type. This argument is supported by Olweus (1984) who on the basis of research of boys between the ages of 13 and 15 years favoured a personality explanation of bullying, while at the same time, acknowledging the role of early child rearing practices in bullying. The area of personality is a complicated one, and although personality is linked with delinquency and bullying, it may also be the reason the majority of young

people from lower social classes, broken homes and of low education do not display these types of negative behaviour.

Eysenck's theory of criminality (1964) and theory of anti-social behaviour (Eysenck, 1977), suggests that such conduct would be found more frequently in people with high scores on extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism dimensions of personality. Extraverts are more prone to crime and anti-social behaviour, because they pursue rewards without fear of consequences, and are impatient and impulsive. Extraversion is not the only personality predictor of delinquency and anti-social behaviour. The relationship is usually stronger when high levels of neuroticism are also involved and a high psychoticism level is an even better predictor. The high neurotic scorer can be described as anxious, moody, often depressed and have strong emotional reaction. Neurotic tendencies intensify emotional reactions. High psychoticism scorers are typical of people who are solitary, lacking in feeling, cruel, hostile and enjoy upsetting others. They seldom feel guilty. Eysenck describes non-institutionalized, high psychoticism scorers as "tough-minded". These personality dimensions contain many characteristics of those found in children who bully.

The development of personality is a complicated one, siblings brought up in the same environment can vary significantly. Parents often see stark differences between siblings from a very early age. A child's personality will affect the quality of relationships throughout his lifetime. Research by Thomas and Chess (1977), have shown that a child's temperament may have an influence on behaviour. Children who are irregular in their eating and sleeping habits, intense in their emotional responses, aggressive, irritable, adapt slowly to new situations and show a great deal of negative mood are those most likely to develop behavioural problems. Children who demonstrated these characteristics from birth onwards were reported to push, hit and fight more in nursery school (Billman and McDevitt, 1980), and to have "Difficult Child Syndrome" (Graham et al, 1973). Further research found that parents of bullies reported that there was never a "goodness of fit", between them and their children. The parents indicated that days of peace and quiet, were interrupted by weeks of hostile bickering and misbehaving. By the time they were two, the children had firmly established sets of behaviour which produced periods of endless long screaming and crying, biting and over activity, which almost appears to verge on

hyperactivity. The response of these parents demonstrated the beginning of a circular tragedy, because the parents become more assertive in discipline and punishment, the child responds more aggressively which can play a part in the development of a bully (Randall, 1990 ; Srouffe 1988). A point that must be addressed here, is that parents of difficult children may treat them differently than other children. This may be where the labeling of a child as difficult, simply becomes a self – fulfilling prophecy. Furthermore, the development of severe behaviour problems may require a combination of variables such as difficult temperament in addition to adverse parental attitudes and practices (Besag, 1980 ; Bates, 1980 ; Rutter et al, 1963). An irritable child may influence the mother's behaviour, and even siblings may be caught up in a coercive situation (Bell and Harper, 1977). A hostile marital relationship reflects on the children, resulting in them possessing little empathy or warmth. This is strongly correlated with the bullying behaviour of boys (Roland, 1989). As role models, the type of relationship that parents have with each other can influence the way the child learns to interact with others. A child cannot learn to show empathy and consideration, if he does not experience it in the home.

The personality dimension of extraversion, includes the characteristics of aggression. Aggression plays a large part in bullying. However, when considering the role of aggression, it is important to remember that a significant number of aggressive children manage to gain some control over their anti - social behaviour and do so reasonably well. Significant numbers of children are likely to develop early problems of aggression, through environmental risk, others do so because of physical or neurological vulnerability and a handful are at risk from both sources. By the time their problems come to the attention of the professional, their original difficulties are often masked behind a self perpetuating cycle of aggressive behaviour followed by parental rejection, followed by more acting out of aggression. Aggressive children are reported to lack internal controls such as guilt and anxiety over aggressive behaviour and empathy, and that these are an important determinant of whether aggressive behaviour will occur or not (Megargee, 1971; Staub & Conn, 1973). Insufficient ego development may point towards the impulsivity, inability to delay gratification and poor behaviour control often observed in aggressive and anti - social individuals. Although similarities in behaviour and cognitive functioning of young aggressive and



older delinquent boys have been reported (West and Farrington, 1973) very little is known about whether or how cognitive and personality development in aggressive children deviates from that of normal children.

Aggression is a natural characteristic we possess. It is an innate trait, essential to our survival, yet influenced greatly by our environment. All animals display aggression and establish their dominance firmly over submissive species. This is done through play fights, ritual and display, disputes are settled quickly before serious injury occurs to either party and gratuitous violence rarely occurs. In almost any primary school playground, play fights are common between young boys as a means of informally establishing a hierarchy of dominance. Bullies appear to enjoy conflict and aggression, seeking out situations where their aggression can be witnessed by peers (Wachtel, 1973 ; Bowers, 1973). Most primate groups including young children do establish this hierarchy of dominance (Edelman and Omark, 1973), which occurs as a matter of course throughout casual interactions, a superior position in the group being allocated to those children who appear to be tough, smart, kind and popular. The sight of an aggressive

model easily conquering a weak opponent can arouse positive expectations in some observers. The bullying behaviour is not likely to incur negative consequences from either victim or adults (Olweus, 1978). There appears to be little evidence of intra - species aggression among other animals which does not serve a specific function (Lorenz, 1966).

Some people confuse assertiveness with aggression, it appears they find it difficult to understand that an individual can insist on their basic human rights and refuse to accept a restriction of them, without being outwardly aggressive. It may be this that causes some parents to appear to support their children as bullies (Hall, 1993). However, aggression is a means of trying to control, dominate and get the better of other people. It is a form of manipulation and a lack of respect for other people's rights. The aggressive behaviour a child displays often depends on the circumstances in which he finds himself at a particular time (Pollack et al, 1989). When boys contemplated a provocation by a peer as an accident they refrained from retaliatory aggression, whereas when they felt that the peer was acting in a hostile manner, they retaliated aggressively. Behavioural differences in retaliatory aggression between

aggressive and non - aggressive boys were completely accounted for by the differences in attributions between these groups (Dodge, 1980). Boys who fight in more than one setting are generally more maladjusted than boys aggressive in only one setting, 30.5% of children who were deviant in two settings by age 14, had been in contact with the police, compared to none of those who were deviant in only the home (Pollack et al, 1989 ; Loeber and Dishon, 1984 ; Kirkpatrick, 1978).

It is generally accepted that both learning and inborn temperamental tendencies are involved in development of aggression (Maccoby, 1980). The first displays of aggression occur between seven and twelve months in response to physically painful stimuli or discomfort, experiences of tension, or frustration and at times when the infant demands attention. In terms of intentional behaviour, it occurs as young as five months in association with the infant developing a sense of individuality as separate from the primary caregiver (Parens 1979). There appears to be a persistence of aggressiveness between 3 and 8 years of age, and a stability in these aggressive tendencies and styles throughout each child's two

years in nursery school. These tendencies were not learned in school even though nursery school formed their first prolonged contact with peers. This would suggest that their predisposition, as to when and how to be aggressive are already formed by this age. Presumably either as a result of inborn tendencies or as a result of experience at home (Manning et al, 1978 ; Randall, 1996). It appears that infant teachers are able to identify aggressive children easily, but do not know that such children may later develop into bullies (Chazan, 1989). Children demonstrate a great deal of aggression early in life. Perhaps, this is because they do not know how to control it. However, as the expression of aggression in childhood continues, a taste for it may develop. Positive things can happen for those who are aggressive, many examples of aggression have been observed in 3 and 4 year olds in nursery school, which lead to favourable consequences for the aggressive child (Patterson et al, 1967). In a study of 7 year olds in their home environment, some children were seen to derive pleasure from bullying and the cunning lengths that they went to so that it remains a secret were noted (Newson and Newson, 1978). However, enjoyment of aggression must not be allowed to continue as many young adults with criminal

records of violence had a history of aggression going back to the age of 8 (Chazan, 1989).

Television violence is a cause of aggressive behaviour, it is also probable that aggressive children would rather watch more violent television, than is suitable for their viewing age. The process is circular, aggressive children can be unpopular and as a result of unsatisfactory relations with their peers and a lack of friendships, it causes them to spend more time watching television than their popular peers. The violence they see on television may reassure them that their behaviour is acceptable, while teaching them new coercive techniques that they try to use in their interactions with others, which in turn makes them even more unpopular, and drives them back to the television. There is increasing evidence that watching aggressive acts has a more marked effect in children who already tend to react aggressively (Friedrich and Stein, 1973 ; Eron, 1982). There is evidence that some children are more vulnerable to the effects of television than others. The 1982, United States public health report on the effects of television, found heavy viewing and aggression were strongly linked in younger children and that bright children tend to fall behind in

their school work. Violence on television appears to have an effect on the development of aggression, especially in boys. The viewing of violence on television can lead to the practice of aggression against others (Eron et al, 1972 ; Lefkowitz et al, 1977) and that unregulated exposure to violence shown in an attractive light can play a part in the development of a bully.

#### 2.4. SCHOOLS.

Schools vary throughout society, yet despite the variations in school ethos and management, it appears that bullying is cross-sectional of society. Private schools are as vulnerable to the plight of bullying as are community schools. This researcher puts forward that the size of the school, the size of classes and the location of the school do not determine whether or not bullying will be present. The main factor in the preventing or reducing bullying, is the effort taken by the principal and teachers. Schools where an anti-bullying program is implemented by staff and accompanied by strict supervision of the classroom and school yard appear to be the ones successfully reducing the problem. The education of boys has direct implications for girls' education, as all schools preserve the values and beliefs of the dominant groups in society. Therefore, the values of schools reflect and reinforce masculine stereotypes as being, strong, competitive, and aggressive. These stereotypes and values are consistent with and underlie bullying and aggressive behaviour, and are more apparent in boys' schools but nevertheless exist in all institutions of education. Bullying is found to be present from

the very beginning of the academic career, in nursery school classes, right through to the workplace, (Tattum, 1993). In the absence of a parental supervisor, teachers assume responsibility for the children in their care, they are "in loco parentis", and therefore have an obligation to care for and protect each student from harm. The school must create an atmosphere in which the children feel safe and secure, otherwise, they are less likely to report bullying (Askew, 1988). There are teachers who believe that by interfering with the bullying being carried out, that they are creating an even worse situation for the victim. However, if the teacher does not intervene it gives the impression to both the bully and the victim that bullying is an acceptable behaviour within the confines of the school. Teachers who do not actively discourage bullying are not helping either themselves or other teachers as bullying is often passed on from class to class and year to year. Two thirds of teachers facing the problem of bullying inherited it from the previous year (Besag, 1989 ; Cole, 1977). Bullies who are aggressive toward peers are likely to direct that aggression towards teachers, other adults and property, they will often disrupt lessons and vandalize (Tattum et al, 1993). A vast number of teachers hold the attitude, that



bullying will result in the strengthening of those who are weak enough to fall prey to the bully. It was discovered in a school where teachers insisted there was no bullying whatsoever in their school environment, that over 50 % of the students in a particular year reported that they had being involved in bullying. This demonstrates the lack of knowledge some teachers possess regarding the bullying situation in their school (Stephenson and Smith, 1987). It also demonstrates a lax attitude on the part of these teachers.

Schools are a community within the larger community, where children learn socially as well as cognitively. The main reason children attend school is to be formally educated. Those who excel at it often reap great rewards and are trusted with important tasks. Those who do not do well academically, may feel singled out as they have to attend remedial or special needs classes. These students may find that bullying is the only way to deal with their frustration and to gain attention from their peers. A total of 16% of children in primary remedial groups bullied others, compared with 6% in non remedial groups (Mitchell and O' Moore, 1987), and in secondary schools 9% bullied in remedial classes compared with 5% in ordinary

classes (Byrne, 1987). Further research indicated that not only did children who bullied possess lower IQs, but were likely to be behind in their age in reading, hyperactive and disruptive in class (Lowenstein, 1978). Hargraves (1967), hypothesized from his study of social relations amongst 4<sup>th</sup> year pupils and teachers, that schools themselves actively helped to produce delinquency by systematically dividing pupils into sub-cultural groups. There were "A" streamers who identify themselves with the formal objectives of the school. They excelled academically and whose behaviour was reinforced by consistent staff approval and then there was the "D" streamers of low ability, who in the first two years showed little difference from "A" streamers in value orientation. However, by the fourth year showed intense feelings of rejection by the school. It was Hargraves contention that these deepening attitudes of hostility amongst "D" streamers were a function of the streaming system. A clear emphasis on learning and the inflexible attitudes among the teaching staff. Feelings of inadequacy could be a strong factor implying that the stereotypical bully as confident and tough might be a cover for feelings of inadequacy by making others feel helpless and isolated, he then enables himself appear to be powerful and in

control. On the other hand, schools which find a way to make these children feel valued and effective can counteract negative academic aspects (Elliott, 1991). It was pointed out in the National Children's Bureau how violent and disruptive behaviour has been linked with a curriculum that places too much emphasis on the individual, on academic achievement and especially on competition. In such schools, pupils may be unable to achieve academic distinction as a way of gaining attention and status (Roland and Munthe, 1977). A contradictory stance to this argument is provided by Olweus, (1984) who believed that aggressive behaviour cannot be explained as a result of failure at school.

In schools with a strong ethos, where teachers and parents work together and a positive leadership is demonstrated, are the schools where bullying prevention and reduction are successful. Teachers can be a great influence in a child's life, especially when there is an absence of a positive adult role model. Perhaps, to explore the roots of bullying, it is important to focus, not only on the behaviour itself, but on the organization and ethos of the school (Askew, 1988). The school itself may influence the development of aggressive

behaviour (Besag, 1989). Bullying and aggression occur more frequently in schools with problems such as low staff morale, high teacher turnover, unclear standards of behaviour, inconsistent methods of discipline, poor organization, inadequate supervision and lack of awareness of children as individuals. Some research has pointed to the conditions of the child's school as being the main, if not the sole cause of maladjustment, and that schools can have an influence on deviant behaviour, both inside and outside of the school (Burt and Howard, 1952). Teachers actions which seem to be of the most importance in influencing behaviour for the better are, arriving at lessons on time, a low rate of unofficial punishment and keeping pupils engaged in productive activities (Rutter et al, 1979). In a study Olweus (1987), found that bullies tended to have a greater negative attitude to school, work and teachers. According to their peer ratings, bullies protested more frequently when a teacher criticized them. It is suggested in a study where delinquents in 4<sup>th</sup> year felt undervalued by teachers and parents but not by friends, that for positive self-esteem in adolescents there is a great need for adult support and also emphasises the need for positive identification with an adult (Thompson, 1987). A child's self image is closely

related to the teachers perception of him and children who are unfavourably perceived by their teachers often have a difficult time in the classroom (Nash, 1973). In contrast to this argument Olweus (1978), found a high degree of stability in aggressive behaviour in spite of changes in teacher, school buildings, size of school and classmates, suggesting that individual teachers may not play a significant role in bullying and he also found it difficult to accept the behaviour of highly aggressive bullies as a consequence of their being exposed to unusual situations or conditions in the school setting (Olweus, 1974).

Pritchard and Taylor (1978), asked 97 teachers and 54 social workers to answer a questionnaire concerned with the causes and cures of violence in schools. The members of the two professions agreed on six causes : failure to assess the problem child in early years, impersonal school ethos, boredom, inconsistent parental punishment, violence in the family and poor relationships within the family. However, the teachers were more inclined to suggest that violence could be attributed to the increase in personal freedom of the young, their inability to accept authority, their sheer bloody

mindedness, weak parental control and society glamorizing violence. When referring to the cures the teachers were in favour of corporal punishment, severe fines for parents of violent children, courts taking a tougher line with the delinquents and disciplining students whose example was rough and disgusting. However, the school is the territory of the teachers, it is not realistic to think that the courts or parents will deal effectively with the problem. Teachers need to take an active role, perhaps in conjunction with the courts or parents, in stamping out school violence including that of bullying.

Some schools are much more effective than others in promoting good work and behaviour (Keise, 1992). Schools which have a low incidence of bullying occurs through a strong endeavour on the part of the whole school, to acknowledge the problem and to do something about it at the present time and to continue to do so in the future (O' Moore, 1989). Many adults believe bullying is a problem for children and young people only and largely blame the school for the problem, (Randall, 1996). The majority of bullying takes place in the school ground and not on the journey to and from school as was originally believed

(Olweus, 1989). The results from studies where 6000 primary school pupils were asked where they were bullied, indicated that 76% reported that it had occurred in the playground, 30% in the classroom and 13% in the corridors. In secondary school, 45% reported that they had been bullied in the playground (Sharp and Smith, 1991 ; Whitney and Smith, 1991). In recent times parents have begun to drive their children to and from school, this can be seen from the reduction of traffic on the roads during the school holidays. This may be the reason that bullying which once took place on the way to school, now takes place within the confines of the school.

This researcher feels that bullying is present in all schools regardless of social disadvantage, location or size. It is obvious from the following contradictory research that no conclusive evidence has been put forward to determine the exact type of school where bullying will be present or absent. Stephenson and Smith (1987, 1989) indicated that bullying tended to be more prevalent in larger schools and in schools with larger classes, though the differences were not statistically significant. Additional investigation of these

studies found two of the three schools which reported a complete absence of bullying were unusually small schools which employed cross age grouping of pupils. Though the majority of the low bullying schools were situated in less disadvantaged areas and tended to have smaller classes, there were still exceptions. However, Whitney and Smith (1991) found that bullying is not linked with school size, but that schools where bullying is high, depends largely on the year, gender, and school location and social disadvantage. Furthermore, the issue of social disadvantage is contradicted by Walford (1989), who in his study of boy's public boarding schools found that bullying was still present although it appeared more as verbal and light physical abuse rather than the heavy physical manipulation often previously seen in these public schools. It is obvious from this contradictory research that no conclusive evidence has been put forward to determine the exact type of school where bullying will be present.

Whatever goes on in schools is only the tip of the iceberg, hidden below the surface is the aggression of the community which enters the schools that serve it. Petty jealousies, rumours and neighbours disagreement pollute the daily



dealings of the community and contribute towards the violence which children perform within the confines of the school wall. The school may at times be a battlefield, reflecting the conflicts of society. It can be said that schools don't create bullies, they merely import them. However, competitiveness among students, peer and teacher attitudes may exacerbate the situation. There is a great deal of academic competition placed on students within the school system. The National Children's Bureau (1977) pointed out that violent and disruptive behaviour is linked with a curriculum that places too much emphasis on the individual, academic achievement and too much on competition. Hargraves (1967), hypothesized from his study of social relations that schools themselves actively helped to produce delinquency by systematically dividing pupils into sub - cultural groups. Further research indicates higher levels of bullying in the remedial classes of both primary and secondary schools (Mitchell and O' Moore, 1987 ; Byrne, 1987). These students may grow to dislike school as they are often regarded less favourably by teachers and are constantly forced to compete in a world where others receive all the glory. In such schools pupils unable to achieve academic distinction may feel inadequate and turn to bullying as a way of gaining

attention. Furthermore, the attitudes of the students' peers may intensify the bullying situation. A "code of silence" exists among children, this may not be the actual cause of bullying but creates a situation where bullying can take place (Titman, 1989). Living in a status conscious society many children consider it a matter of honour to be able to keep a secret even though there may be serious consequences as a result. Within the peer group there exists a silent majority. They do not take part in the bullying but do nothing to prevent it either. They may feel uneasy but the fear of the bully usually prevents them from taking action (Byrne, 1993). In our society telling tales is often regarded negatively. Secret societies have been written about in children's books for generations reinforcing the ideal that secrecy is a positive thing. This secrecy accentuates the problem of bullying allowing it to thrive within our society. However, programmes such as "Stay Safe" are attempting to break through, to encourage children to tell adults in order to put an end to this negative behaviour that impacts the lives of so many children. The management and ethos of a school is undoubtedly instrumental in the prevention of bullying however attitudes held by teachers may in actual fact contribute to the bullying situation. It is vital that schools create an atmosphere

in which students feel safe to report bullying. However, a number of teachers believe that bullying will strengthen those who fall prey to it. Others believe that by interfering with the bullying being carried out, that they are creating an even worse situation for the victim. Furthermore, it may be that teachers are so aware of bullying that they regard it as an inevitable part of school life (Tattum, 1993). However, if the teacher does not intervene it gives the impression that bullying is an acceptable behaviour. Teachers often underestimate the power they possess. An acquiescent attitude can allow bullying to thrive within the school whereas a positive and determined attitude in the fight against bullying can help to reduce or eliminate it. Bullying behaviour may arise outside of the school, however it must be pointed out that competition, peer and teacher attitudes can create optimum conditions within the school where bullying can flourish.

## 2.5. GENDER.

The behaviour of boys and girls varies significantly, differences can even be seen in their play. Casual playground observations show that boys play team games more than girls and often command the largest play area for their game, pushing small groups of girls and the less robust boys to the periphery (Shapiro, 1967). There is more pressure on a boy to be tough than on a girl not to be a tomboy. Differences in the behaviour of mother's towards boys and girls from infancy to adolescence are well documented. Mothers verbalize more to girls (Moss, Robson and Pederson, 1969) expect them to be better behaved (Sears, Maccoby and Levin, 1957), allow girls to be more independent and give more physical affection (Droppleman and Schaefer, 1963). Boys are given more independence (Barry, Bacon and Child, 1957) and more punishment (Droppleman and Schaefer, 1963) and are encouraged more in intellectual curiosity. Fathers have been found to be more boisterous and robust in playing with their baby sons than with their daughters (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1980b). A combination of both inherited and learned influences may result in the differing behaviour of boys and girls. Gender differences lie partly at

the biological level in the prenatal influences of maternal and infant hormones and partly at the social level in the effects of cultural and socialization influences. However, biological influences appear to be outweighed by the socio - cultural structure (Hinde, 1988). In an attempt to discern how much of the behaviour of young children is socially induced, newborns were shown to observers from behind a screen. Those named as boys were immediately described by the observers as robust and strong, those named as girls were described as gentle and having fine features (Rubin et al, 1974). Parental beliefs in the way each gender should behave can effect the personality type of each child in the family. These beliefs may be the reason that siblings of different gender differ so much. Boys and girls seem to be stereotyped according to gender. Girls are often seen as more passive and gentle, whereas boys are seen to be rougher and more aggressive. The higher incidence of verbal and physical aggression in boys has been noted as early as the second year and is thought to be one of the most established gender differences and it is common to most cultures world-wide (Whiting and Whiting, 1975). Despite, the gentility associated with girls, the fact stands that girls do bully, although not to the extent of boys.

Both boys and girls display bullying behaviour, but in very different ways. Boys are thought to present more bullying behaviour than girls (Chazan and Jackson, 1971, 1974 ; Hughes et al, 1974). Results indicate that the ratio of boy bullies to that of girls is 3 : 1 (Roland, 1980, 1981, 1985). In Australia some 77% of boys and 67% of girls indicated that they sometimes wanted to hurt people (Rigby, 1996). However, it was reported that feeling this way corresponded to a small but significant degree as a predictor of a child's actual engagement in bullying behaviour, but many children who possess this feeling, very rarely, if ever bully others. Girls and boys bully in completely different ways. The behaviour of girls appears to be sneakier than that of boys, they behave in a more covert manner. Therefore it could be that the incidence among girls is higher at present than is generally presumed. It appears that bullying among girls, manifests itself in many various ways (Tattum, 1989) and often goes unrecognised as bullying because it apparently lacks the physical and aggressive elements associated with male bullying behaviour. Females are generally more empathic than males, acknowledging their own emotions and that of others (Hofferma, 1977). More females are found to be sympathetic

towards the victims of aggression (Frodi, MaCauley and Thore, 1977) and that this effect sharpens as age increases. Girls tend to report being bullied by a group, but boys point to individuals as the bully. Quite often the bully has a group of supporters who help sustain that behaviour (Rigby, 1996).

Girls have a stronger emphasis on the quality of the friendship. The relationships shared between young girls have been compared to that of young lovers, due to the intensity of the relationship. There is a need for frequent contact, long telephone calls, the exchange of notes and the physical contact such as holding hands (Lever, 1976). Rumour, malicious gossip and social ostracism are the preferred modes of bullying among girls which perhaps reflects the vulnerability of these close relationships. In a report on over 2000 calls to Childline, bullying resulting from friends falling out was especially common among girls (La Fontaine, 1991). In a study to explore girls' understanding of bullying and sexual harassment, 51 girls between the ages of 12 and 16 were questioned. It indicated that the calling of names which caused the most offence, were those relating to their reputations rather than sexuality (Drouet, 1993). Excluding a friend from a friendship group is

common and may not be recognised as bullying by either the teacher, the bully or the victims. The absence of friends makes a child more prone to becoming the victim of bullying. The bullying can be a punishment for a breach of loyalty, it may be used to show the person that she is isolated, and has no friends, while the bully can mobilise a group of supporters, to highlight the victims isolation and loneliness. Girls may complain to parents and teachers about being excluded from the group without actually realising that it is a form of bullying. The bully may be seeking an alliance with others by alienating the victim, to prove they are "in" the group and that the target girl is very much out (Roland, 1991). It is suggested that girls bully for reassurance whereas, boys bully to display their power (Wachtel, 1973). Affiliation and power are considered by Omark et al (1973) to be the basic factors which regulate our social behaviour. Girls need a feeling of belonging and a shared intimacy expressed in exchanging confidence and gossip. This need for intimacy is manifested in bullying, bullies either exclude the targeted girl from the intimate group or by use of malicious gossip they try to prove that whereas they are acceptable, the discredited victim is not (Besag, 1989). Roland (1991), suggests that girls mainly bully



other girls and find victims from their own classes whereas, boys bully both boys and girls and find victims from other classes. This would seem feasible since he found that the girls in his study were using alienation from the group as their bullying techniques and this would be more effective among girls in the same classes.

Verbal abuse is not the only type of bullying performed by girls. As they seek equality within society, they are demonstrating aggressive qualities which were attributed to boys only in the past. Being a tough girl can be as much about power and status as for the boys (Keise, 1992). Girls who have been excluded from school are just as aggressive as boys. Furthermore, the majority of them fall into the "anxious bully" category, adding to the evidence that this is a more disturbed. Girls are nasty toward one another but, it may not stop there. The range and level of physical violence can be as horrific and frightening as in boys' schools. It is reported that they behave in this manner to acquire respect, power and status in the eyes of their classmates, not realising that none of these are actually achieved through bullying. For some being a bully is synonymous with being tough. Aggressive bullying behaviour

can also serve, amongst such groups, as a direct challenge to and a way of resisting the accepted notions of femininity in society. The traditional notions of femininity are weak, needy and pathetic, definitely not a model to which most young women today would aspire. Perhaps it is time that young women had new role models. Society needs to re – write the definition of a young women in the '90s, to show that a woman can gain respect and power without using aggression and violence.

Bullying among boys is characterised by overt physical and verbal abuse (Roland, 1988). It is argued that toughness and aggression are approved of in boys, they are encouraged to be tough and stick up for themselves. Askew (1988) maintained that "bullying is a major way in which boys are able to demonstrate their manliness", (p.65) and observes that even though a boy might be physically weaker than another, "to be able to take it like a man, is usually considered to be a good second best masculine quality", (p.65). A survey in America in the 1970's listed the following as both masculine and desirable, being very dominant, always hiding emotions, very objective, independent, competitive, never crying, very ambitious and

very aggressive (Archer and Lloyd, 1982). It is sometimes argued that some characteristics such as aggression in males are "natural". Although, whether or not it is natural, many boys are actively encouraged by their parents to be proud of being aggressive (Dunning et al, 1988). Boys appear to form larger looser groups than girls, whether as an organised team or an informal gang (Omark et al, 1975). The activity rather than the relationship appears to be the main focus. Boys are recognised as being more hyperactive than girls, this increased activity is in turn linked to later development of aggression and anti - social behaviour (Richman et al, 1982). One aspect of bullying common to both girls and boys and reported to be the most distressing is name calling. The distress caused by abusive names can be greatly under estimated by adults yet children report them causing more distress than that of physical assaults. Name calling appears to be used in the initial stages of the bullying to test out the response of those suspected of being vulnerable. A total of 56% of the girls who bullied employed verbal methods compared to 17% of the boys (Stephenson and Smith, 1982). Some male teachers commented on the way in which they thought aggression among the boys reflected the authoritarian structures in the

school and referred to the contradictory situation of a teacher threatening a boy with physical punishment for bullying another boy (Askew, 1988). Competitiveness appeared to be another major element of the boys' school. Physical strength and power were also seen as a part of stereotypical male attributes and bullying is a major way in which boys are able to demonstrate their manliness. Bullying is often seen in boys' schools as "boys will be boys" and treated as part of growing up as a male in this society and virtually accepted. Interestingly, girls have been allowed to attend some institutions in order to have a civilising effect on the boys (Swann, 1985).

Boys often use physicality, not only as a means of intimidation but also as a way of social interaction. Askew (1988) found that the younger boys of the ages 11, 12 and 13, would punch one another as a general way of communication. Observation in a variety of schools showed that boys from a variety of social classes and ethnic groups were involved in bullying or aggressive behaviour. Apart from physical aggression, a great deal of verbal abuse was heard. This was so common as to become part of normal speech. Most of the verbal abuse was

homophobic, other abuse was related to physical stature or general appearance, including that of dress.

## 2.6. THE CONSEQUENCES OF BULLYING.

The prognosis for children who bully is not encouraging. When this childhood behaviour is not dealt with it appears to spiral out of control in adolescence and adulthood, affecting not only the person themselves, but all future relations with their family members and society at large. Violent criminals frequently have school records of physical aggression. It appears that bullying is the fore runner of adult violence and has its roots in unchecked infant behaviour (Randall, 1996). In a study carried out by Eysenck and Saklofske (1980) they found that the only significant difference between delinquency and badly - behaved schoolboys was in the degree of anti - social behaviour, suggesting that the latter may be potential delinquents. This is supported by research carried out regarding children placed residentially in schools for children with emotional and behavioural difficulties, which found that 65% of them had reported being involved in bullying prior to admission (West and Farrington, 1973). Further evidence of future demise can be found in a longitudinal study, where 409 subjects were traced to the age of 30, young bullies were found to have a 1 in 4 chance of having a criminal record by the age of 30, while

for control boys there was only a 1 in 20 chance (Eron et al, 1987). In this study "bullying" was not specifically named, but it did however, contain items such as saying mean things, pushing and taking things which belonged to others. This study began in the 1950's, when the word "bullying" was not used to describe peer - peer aggression yet would openly be recognised as bullying behaviour in research today. Further research supports this argument where Olweus (1989), found that approximately 60% of the boys who were characterised as bullies in grades 6 - 8, had at least one court conviction at 24 years of age. As much as 35 - 40% of former bullies had three or more court convictions at this age.

Children who bully, do not grow up to be well adjusted individuals contributing positively to society. Instead, they may become dangerous to both themselves and others. An effort to stamp out bullying in childhood can allow these individuals to lead normal well adjusted lives rather than the horrendous adult life that research indicates lies ahead of them. Children who bully are very likely to become aggressive, anti - social adults, with unsatisfactory marriages. They are more likely to use violence against their own children, spouses, aged parents

and relatives (Brock, 1992 ; Lewis, 1988 ; Eron et al, 1987). Some continue to use bullying tactics in adulthood, bullying others professionally, for their own advancement. Their personal relationships are poor, they have fewer friends and many become adults convicted of assault, grievous bodily harm, and other violent crimes (Lane, 1989). Aggressive behaviour problems in the early school years are highly related to later delinquency and / or psychopathology (Conger and Miller, 1966; Glick, 1972). These problems, especially in boys, account for the majority of referrals to mental health services in childhood and at older ages are commonly associated with serious learning problems (Miller, Hampe, Barrett and Noble, 1971).

To some people, the problem of bullying may appear to belong to childhood alone however, the link between childhood aggressive behaviour and adult violence is a reason that bullying should be taken seriously. There is growing evidence that bullying is an intergenerational problem, that adult males who were known as bullies produce a new generation of bully. The model "cycle of violence" (Tattum, Tattum and Herbert, 1993) illustrates the cyclic progression from pre - teen bullying



to juvenile delinquency and into violent adult criminality and family abuse. Several studies show the continuity between aggression in childhood and adolescence and later violent crime and supportive evidence of the final stage of the model, the intergenerational link is provided by Farrington (1993). It is presented in the new analysis of the Cambridge study in delinquent development which found that there was a significant tendency for study males who were bullies to have children who also became bullies, a total of 35% of the study males convicted of violent crimes had children who were bullies compared to the 7.9% of the remaining study. The continuity between the male's bullying and his child's bullying was statistically independent of any continuity between the male's general anti - social behaviour and his child's general problem behaviour. This evidence indicates an intergenerational transmission of bullying and that bullying by children in primary school and especially at the age of 14, significantly predicted their bullying behaviour at the ages of 18 and 32. When looking at intergenerational factors that contribute to the development of bullying, the area of genetics must be considered. A Swedish study examined deviant behaviour in adopted children in relation to characteristics of the child's

biological parents. Information was available on criminality and alcohol abuse in the biological fathers who had no contact with the children (Bohman, 1970). The results showed no association between these characteristics of the biological father and deviant behaviour in adopted children. The negative result stands in sharp contrast to the findings of many studies that, criminality and alcoholism are associated with deviant behaviour in children when the children are brought up by their criminal or alcoholic parents (Nylander, 1960; Robins, 1966; Jonsson, 1967). It is strongly suggested that the passing on of delinquent behaviour, from parent to child largely involves environmental rather than genetic influences. Twin studies suggest that genetic factors play a small part in the pathogenesis of delinquency, (Rosanoff et al, 1941; Shields, 1968). The concordance of monozygotic pairs with regard to anti - social disorders is only slightly greater than that of dizygotic pairs showing that genetic factors have only a minor influence. That concordance rates are high in both types of twins suggesting the importance of familial influences of an environmental type. The evidence shows that delinquent behaviour is not inherited as such and that personality disorders in the parents probably lead to anti - social

difficulties in the children through their association with family discord and disturbance than through any direct genetic influence. That is not to say that genetic factors play no part. They probably are of importance with respect to the environmental features that render children more susceptible to psychological stress.

## 2.7. SUMMARY.

The underlying causes of bullying have been put forward in the previous sections. Children who bully come from families where there is a lack of communication. This has been established as a necessary part of healthy family functioning (Duhl and Duhl, 1981). Family relationships are an important factor in determining whether or not a child will begin to bully. Negative maternal (Olweus, 1980) and negative paternal (Glueck and Glueck, 1950) are an underlying cause of bullying. Furthermore, in families where inter – sibling bullying occurs (Elliott, 1986) bullying can occur outside of the family also. Finally, inconsistent methods of parenting especially where physical discipline is used can produce a bullying child, as children imitate the behaviour of someone acting aggressively. A personality basis of bullying is put forward, which is supported by Olweus (1984). Furthermore, Thomas and Chess (1977) have also shown that a child's temperament may have an influence on behaviour. Children who bully are aggressive, extroverted, give little thought to the feelings of others, and are dominant. Eysenck's theory of anti – social behaviour (Eysenck, 1964) can be related to children who bully. Bullying

is found in schools regardless of size (Whitney and Smith, 1991) and social status. Placing too much emphasis on the academic curriculum can cause children who are less academically able to rebel, often through bullying. This is supported by the finding that 16% of children in primary remedial classes displayed bullying behaviour, compared to 6% in non remedial groups (Mitchell and O' Moore, 1987) and by Hargraves (1967) who found that schools which systematically streamed their students were helping to produce delinquents. Bullying occurs more frequently in schools with low staff morale, high teacher turnover, poor organization and unclear standards of behaviour. Teachers actions which seem most important in the prevention of bullying are arriving at class on time, a low rate of unofficial punishment and keeping pupils engaged in productive activities (Rutter et al, 1979). Both girls and boys bully, however boys participate more frequently than girls (Chazan and Jackson, 1971, 1974) and in completely different ways. Girls are more devious than boys are, they use verbal bullying, which usually occurs after a falling out with a close friend (Lever, 1976). Boys also use verbal abuse, but more frequently use physical abuse (Roland, 1988). The final section in the review of literature focuses on the long - term

consequences of bullying and demonstrates the importance of this research in an effort to end the problem of bullying. Bullying is the fore – runner of adult violence and begins in unchecked infant behaviour (Randall, 1996). Children who bully are likely to become aggressive, anti – social adults with unsatisfactory marriages. They are more likely to use violence against their own children and spouses (Brock, 1992). The model “cycle of violence” (Tattum, Tattum and Herbert, 1993) demonstrates the cyclic progression from pre – teen bullying to juvenile delinquency to violent adult criminality and family abuse.

## 2.8. RESEARCH QUESTIONS.

The following research questions are connected to Eysenck's theory of anti – social behaviour (Eysenck, 1977). This suggests that such conduct which refers to bullying in this study would be found more frequently in people with high scores on Extraversion, Neuroticism and Psychoticism dimensions of personality.

1. To investigate the relationship between that of personality and bullying.

A. An investigation of the Psychotic, Extraversion and Neurotic categories comparing the bullying and control group.

B. An investigation of the Psychotic, Extraversion and Neurotic categories comparing the traveller and traveller control group.

C. An investigation of the Psychotic, Extraversion and Neurotic categories comparing the traveller and bullying groups.

D. An investigation of lying on the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior comparing the bullying group to the other three groups.

E. An Investigation of The Psychoticism, Extraversion Neuroticism and Lie Scales Comparing the Bully – Traveller group (the Bullying and the Traveller group combined) and the Control – Traveller Control group (the Control group and the Traveller Control group combined).



The relationship between an emotionally disturbed child and each parent is expected to be ambivalent, negative or distant whereas for a normal child the relationship is expected to be positive and close (Bene and Anthony, 1957). Further research demonstrates that power struggles are common between bullies and their siblings (Bowers, Smith and Binney, 1992). The following research questions focus on ambivalence towards parents and sibling rivalry. It also includes other areas which focus on how free or inhibited the bullying child is at expressing emotions and his self – critical attitudes which demonstrate low levels of self – esteem.

2. An examination of the intensity of emotions experienced by the participant towards each individual member of their family and furthermore each member's reciprocal emotions towards the participant.

A. The hypothesis stated that the bullying group would place more cards in the nobody box compared to that of the control, traveller and traveller control groups.

- B. The hypothesis stated that the bullying group would attribute a greater number of negative responses about the self than would the control, traveller or traveller control groups.
- C. The hypothesis stated that a relatively negative or ambivalent relationship existed between the subjects of the bullying group and their respective siblings, in comparison to that of the control, the traveller and traveller control group.
- D. The hypothesis put forward indicated that the bullying group would have a more negative or ambivalent relationship with their mothers, in contrast with the control, traveller and traveller control groups.
- E. The hypothesis put forward indicated that the bullying group would have a more negative or ambivalent relationship with their fathers, in contrast with the control, traveller and traveller control groups.

F. An investigation of the Nobody, Self, Sibling, Mother and Father categories comparing the Bully – Traveller group (the Bullying and the Traveller group combined) and the Control – Traveller Control group (the Control group and the Traveller Control group combined).

# CHAPTER

# THREE

# CHAPTER

# THREE

### 3.1. METHOD.

A total of 228 students participated in this research, 107 females and 121 males all ranging between the ages of 6 and 16 years, from seven schools, four primary and three secondary. These participants were categorized into the following four groups, the bullying group, the control group, the traveller group and the traveller control group. The bullying group consisted of 70 students, 44 male and 26 female, the control group consisted of 67 students, 38 male and 29 female, the traveller group consisted of 45 students, 24 male and 21 female and the traveller control group consisted of 46 students, 15 male and 31 female (Table 1).

Table 1. The Number and Gender Distribution of each Group of Participants.

GENDER	BULLYING	CONTROL	TRAVELLER	TRAVCTRL
	N	N	N	N
MALE	44	38	24	15
FEMALE	26	29	21	31
TOTAL	70	67	45	46

Note. TRAVCTRL = Traveller Control Group.

### The Bullying and Control Groups.

These two groups consisted of a cross – section of society. In the bullying group, 60 of the participants came from families which were intact and 10 of the participants came from lone parent families (Table 2). In this group 25 of the participants were the eldest children in the family, 25 were middle children, 15 were the youngest and 5 were only children (Table 3). In the control group 61 of the participants came from families which were intact and 6 came from lone parents families (Table 2). In this group 16 of the participants were the eldest children in the family, 21 were middle children, 22 were the youngest and 8 were only children (Table 3).

These two groups were selected from five schools. There were two rural schools, St. Anne's primary school which had in the past been an all girls school until it's recent amalgamation with a Christian Brother's Primary School, increasing the school population to 671 students. The other was St. Bernadettes, which is a mixed convent secondary school with a student body of 490 students. The other three schools were Dublin schools. Firstly, a mixed primary school, St. Christopher's with a total

of 140 students, many originating from different ethnic backgrounds. Secondly, a boys secondary school, St. Diarmuids for boys which is run by monks, with 529 students and finally, a girls day and boarding school, St. Eithnes with 664 registered students. Each of the schools reported tremendous levels of bullying in their schools during the school year, and agreed to participate in the research in an effort to eliminate it.

Table 2. Family Type of each group of Participants.

FAMILY TYPE	BULLYING	CONTROL	TRAVELLER	TRAVCTRL
	N	N	N	N
INTACT	60	61	37	43
LONE PARENT	10	6	5	3
FOSTER FAMILY	(-)	(-)	3	(-)

Note. TRAVCTRL = Traveller Control Group.

Table 3. Participants Position within their Family.

POSITION	BULLYING	CONTROL	TRAVELLER	TRAVCTRL
	N	N	N	N
ELDEST	25	16	6	16
MIDDLE	25	21	35	15
YOUNGEST	15	22	4	14
ONLY CHILD	5	8	(-)	1

Note. TRAVCTRL = Traveller Control Group.

The Traveller Group.

A total of 60 children attended St. Francis School for travelling children, originating from thirteen families. These families are regarded as a sub - culture within the travelling community and are often exiled as a result of their choice of settled lifestyle. In this group, 37 participants came from families that were intact, 5 participants came from lone parent families and 3 were in residence with foster families as both parents were deceased (Table 2). In this group 6 of the participants were the eldest children in the family, 35 were middle children and 4 were the youngest (Table 3). The traveller group was



categorised as a separate group from the bullying group, not only because of the social class divide but also due to the high levels of emotion experienced by the travellers. A total of 17 children were in need of psychological assessment or were at the time of the research in the process of being assessed and 14 children were in need of counselling due to emotional difficulties. The emotionality experienced by these children caused them to be more violent in their day to day interactions both within the school and at home but they were only punished for this inappropriate behaviour in school. Horrific displays of bullying and violence in the schoolyard were accompanied by an over powering need for physical contact and reassurance from the adults in the school. They held teachers' hands and hugged their care workers.

They lived on permanent halting sites, in houses designated to settled travellers and council houses. Despite this settled lifestyle, conditions at home were squalid and primitive. All of the children had to be bathed weekly by the care workers in the school and their clothes washed. A variety of problems were evident in this school, 24 children were in need of remedial English teaching, 15 children were in need of Maths

remedial teaching, 17 children were in need of speech therapy, and 3 children had hearing impairments. The school consisted of 4 classes, plus a pre - school class, with a maximum of 12 students per class. On the basis of teacher observations the classes were categorised as classes 1 to 4. Middle and senior infants attended class 1. Class 2 consisted of 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> class students. Class 3 was 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> class, and the senior class, class 4 comprised of 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> class students. However, the maximum academic ability in senior class was only of a normal 4<sup>th</sup> class standard.

#### The Traveller Control Group.

St. Geraldines is located in a rural mountainous environment. The traveller control group was categorised as a separate group from the control group in order to make comparisons with the traveller group. These students mainly came from low - working class families where the main source of income was from small farms and the social welfare. A total of 43 of the participants came from families that were intact and 3 participants came from lone parent families (Table 2). In this group 16 of the participants were the eldest children in the

family, 15 were middle children, 14 were the youngest and there was 1 only child (Table 3). At the time of the research, it was a four-teacher school, with a special needs teacher and a remedial teacher both of who attended the school one-day per week, but in the meantime has been reduced to a three-teacher school as a result of dwindling numbers. Special features of participants in this group included a child with Spina Bifida, a facially disfigured child and a girl who had discovered her father's body after he had committed suicide. In wintertime, the teacher's reported difficulty for many of the children in reaching the school due to harsh conditions in the mountains. They also reported occasions where children were being kept home from school to work on the farms. This school used the "Stay Safe Programme", as a means of bullying prevention.

A method of random sampling was adopted as a letter of contact (Appendix B) was sent to principals of all Dublin and Wexford schools listed in the 1997, 01 (Dublin), and 05 (Wexford), Golden Pages telephone directory. A total of fifteen schools showed interest however, this was reduced to seven once they direction of the study was made clear. Before attending the schools, a letter (Appendix C) requesting permission from the students' parents allowing them to participate in the study was forwarded to the principal, who in turn distributed the letter to the students and collected the replies. Students without permission were immediately excluded from the study.

An initial Bullying questionnaire (Appendix A) was distributed to all students between the ages of 6 and 18 years. This questionnaire investigated the knowledge and occurrences of bullying within each individual school. It allowed participants to nominate themselves as displaying bullying behaviour and for others to nominate the students they saw displaying bullying behaviour. It also allowed students who had been the victims of bullying to point that out. All information was guaranteed to be completely confidential. To meet the

requirements of the bullying group, the subjects needed to nominate themselves as a bully and be nominated by at least two other students. The requirements of the control group was that they did not nominate themselves as a bully or victim and were not nominated by any students as a bully.

A list of participants meeting the requirements for both groups was drawn up and the principal or liaison teacher distributed a letter to the relevant students requiring further parental consent (Appendix D). The list containing the names of subjects picked to participate in the study was not separated into bullying and control categories for the schools, in an effort to protect all the students from repercussions in the future. At this point the two Dublin secondary schools decided to withdraw their third and sixth year students as exam time drew nearer. Less than fifty percent of the consent forms were returned with parental signatures of consent. Many of the older students in the secondary schools never returned them at all and those without signed letters of consent were eliminated immediately from the study.

Letters of consent were of little use with the traveller group as the majority of parents were unable to read. Therefore, the care workers who collected the children each day from their homes explained the research and verbal consent was given. These students were not given the initial Bullying questionnaire as their principal, teachers, and care workers nominated all students in classes 1 – 4 as bullies. Observations made by the researcher in the schoolyard produced numerous examples of horrendous bullying. Only three of the students in classes 1 – 4 did not participate in the research. One was hearing impaired and unable to communicate, the other two had temporarily moved to another part of the country.

The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior (1975) (Appendix E) is a self – administered questionnaire that was designed to measure four personality variables in participants between the ages of 7 and 16 years. The four variables are Psychoticism (P), Extraversion (E), Neuroticism (N) and Lie (L). There are 81 items on this questionnaire, 18 items on the P scale, 24 items on the E scale, 20 items on the N scale, and 20 items on the L scale. The authors recommend when using the test, to refer to

the variables in the following manner, P as tough-minded, E as Extraversion, N as Emotionality and L as Social Desirability.

The Family Relations Test (1957) is a test, which investigates the direction and intensity of the child's feelings towards individual family members and the child's estimate of their reciprocal emotions towards him. The test includes the active manipulation of objects in a play situation. The Family Relations Test consists of 21 faceless cardboard figures, attached to red boxes that have slits in the top of them (Appendix H). Twenty of the figures represent people of varying age, gender and body size. The last figure is called the "nobody" figure, which is used when the statements do not apply to anyone in the child's family circle. There is an older version (Appendix F) and a version for younger children (Appendix G).

The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior was distributed in group form to each of the schools with the exception of St. Francis' School for travelling children. The students in this school had a below average reading ability, a short attention span and boisterous behaviour, making it impossible for a lone

researcher to control them and distribute the questionnaire simultaneously. Therefore it was distributed in a one to one situation following the distribution of the Family Relations Test. The researcher was the only person present in the room apart from the students participating in the research. The students wrote their age and gender on the front page in the areas provided. They were given the choice of remaining anonymous or giving their names, if they wished to do so. In the primary schools the researcher read the questionnaire aloud, but the secondary school students opted to read it themselves. The students were instructed to circle the "yes" or the "no" following each question and to answer every single question whether or not it seemed relevant to them. The researcher informed the students that this was not a test, that there was no right or wrong answers, that the answers simply reflected the way they felt and that all information was completely confidential. Students were allowed to cover their questionnaires, or move to the floor to maintain privacy. On completion of the questionnaire each one was then checked and the student rectified any answers omitted on the spot. The questionnaire took an average of fifteen minutes to complete.



The Family Relations Test (1957) was administered by the researcher on a one to one basis with each participant of the study. The participants were asked to give information about their family, giving their names and ages and that of anyone else they wanted to include such as a grandparent or someone that may be living with them at the time of the research. It was explained that they had to pick a box to represent each member written on the scoring sheet, including one to represent themselves. Once the family figures were chosen, the family circle was placed on a table in front of the participants. The participant was then shown the cards, which contained statements. They were given the choice of reading the cards themselves or having the researcher read the cards to them. The majority of primary school students asked to have the cards read to them, all of the secondary school students opted to read the cards themselves. Once the card had been read they were instructed to post it into the box (or the person), to which they felt it applied. When they felt the card applied to themselves, to place it in the "self" box, when they felt that the card did not apply to anyone in their family circle, to place it in the "nobody" box, and finally, if the card applied to more than one person to give it to the researcher and to state to

whom the card applied. There were no time limits enforced for this test, the length of time taken to complete the test varied significantly between participants.

### 3.2. EVALUATION OF THE TESTS.

#### 1. Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

The Eysenck Personality Inventory Junior (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1964) is the predecessor of The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1975). This inventory was an improvement over previous versions due to the fact that it contained a Lie scale (L), to measure dissimulation and was also written in simplified English, so that less educated participants, could understand the meaning of the questions. This contrasts with other scales such as The Cattell I.P.A.T. (Porter and Cattell, 1960), and Junior M.P.I. (Furneau and Gibson, 1961), which were written in American wording. All of the dimensions of the Eysenck Personality Inventory Junior, just as with The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior, have shown to be valid, reliable and orthogonally measurable with adults and with children (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1969). Furthermore, the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire is an advancement in the area of personality research as it is possible to measure the new independent variable of Psychotics by means of this questionnaire both in adults and children. The

Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior is self – administered, which allows the participants to maintain a level of privacy. Using it in collaboration with the Family Relations Test proved successful, due to the contrast in distribution techniques. One of the most appealing aspects of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior, was the fact that it could be distributed in either group or individual form. This was a requirement needed in this study, as the less intellectually advanced children required individual attention, whereas the other students were surrounded by familiar faces which allowed them to feel part of a group rather than feeling isolated. This also permitted a period of adjustment where an air of trust could be established. The greatest factor of appeal with this test was its use in Eysenck's Theory of Criminality and Anti - Social Behaviour (Eysenck, 1964, 1977). This theory suggested that such conduct is found more frequently in people high on both the Extraversion and Neuroticism dimensions of personality and was later extended to include a positive relation to the Psychoticism personality dimension (Eysenck, 1970; Eysenck and Eysenck, 1970b). Several studies carried out on large criminal and control groups (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1970b, 1971a, 1971b, 1973b), found that criminals of both sexes have

elevated Psychoticism scores as compared with controls. Recent studies of anti - social behaviour and delinquent behaviour in children and adolescents have generally provided support for Eysenck's Theory (Allsopp and Feldman, 1974; Eysenck and Eysenck, 1977a) with some exceptions (Feldman, 1977; Eysenck, 1977).

The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior has been used widely in empirical studies with complete or partial populations similar to the population used in this study. these include the following pieces of research, Saklofske and Eysenck, (1980) who examined the relation between anti - social behaviour and personality in well behaved schoolboys, badly behaved schoolboys and delinquent boys between the ages of 13 and 15 years. A second study by Saklofske, McKerracher and Eysenck (1978) administered the Junior Eysenck Personality Questionnaire to a sample of delinquent adolescent boys in a detention centre and four groups of schoolboys, classified according to teacher's ratings of behaviour and a self - report questionnaire of Anti - Social Behaviour (A.S.B.) to examine Eysenck's Theory of Criminality as a measure of anti - social behaviour. A further two studies carried out by Allsopp and

Feldman, (1974) examined Extraversion, Neuroticism, Psychoticism and anti - social behaviour in four groups of schoolgirls, ranging from 11 and 12 to 14 and 15 years old, and then in 1976, they examined personality and anti - social behaviour in well behaved and badly behaved school boys. Finally, Saklofske (1977) who investigated personality and behaviour problems of well-behaved schoolboys and badly behaved schoolboys, aged 10 and 11 years demonstrates an example of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

## 2. The Family Relations Test.

The Family Relations Test is a semi – projective technique, essentially a play situation, which incorporates Piaget's point of the importance of object manipulation as an essential part in the child's concrete approach to the world. Paper and pen techniques give a school – like atmosphere to testing and it is known that data produced through methods such as indirect, projective or play techniques are of greater value. This test indicates objectively, reliably and rapidly the direction and intensity of the child's feeling towards various members of his family and their reciprocal regard for him. The rationale of the test accords with psychoanalytic theory, yet its use has not been confined to any particular school of thought. A number of studies have dealt with its reliability and validity (Frost, 1969 ; Kauffman 1971).

A reason for choosing this test is that it considers the relative psychological importance of the different members of the family. Bene and Anthony (1957) predict that the greatest level of the child's involvement is with the mother, followed by the father, then siblings, others in family and finally the self.

According to Bene and Anthony, the relationship between an emotionally disturbed child and the mother is expected to be ambivalent, negative or distant. Whereas, in the normal child, the relationship is expected to be positive and close. These types of relationships are reflected in the father - child relationships also. The test responses confront "two realities", in the child. The "actual" reality of emotions that family members have towards him and his "psychic" reality of emotions perceived as he wants them or needs them to be. As demonstrated by Bene and Anthony (1957), the feelings children have towards the family members are closely related to the feeling they believe the family member's have towards them, enabling us to learn a great deal about the child.

A particular feature of the test is the relative simplicity of the task. The test can appear like a game to the younger children, which can help to put them at ease. Older children often see it as quite childish and therefore are not intimidated by participating in the test. An appealing aspect of the test, unlike The Pickford Projective Pictures (Pickford, 1963), and The Family Relations Indicator (Howells And Lickorish, 1962), is that the child does not have to verbalise his emotions to the



researcher. Posting the statements into a closed box means that the child can be completely honest without feeling guilt or anxiety about the allocation of the individual statements, or be conscious of the cumulative distribution of his allocations. Also, the presence of a nobody box is an excellent idea. It does not force the child to confront deep seeded emotions or to allocate statements, if they do not feel that it is appropriate for anyone in the family. In a way it acts like a rubbish bin for emotions. The provision of two separate versions of the test was greatly needed in this study. A sample of participants varying in age can cause certain problems, however this test acknowledges that the child perceives a different family at different stages of development and appreciates his relationships differently.

The Family Relations Test has been used repeatedly in empirical studies with full or partial populations similar to the population of this research. Firstly, Kauffman (1971) investigated the Family Relations Test responses of normal school boys, school disordered boys and institutionalized emotionally disturbed boys. Another test carried out by Philip and Orr (1978) investigated the perception of feelings within

the family of 9 – 13 year old boys. The sample consisted of normal boys, in - patients and out - patients. The out - patient boys displayed behaviour similar to that of bullies including aggression, withdrawn and uncontrollable behaviour. Frost (1969), in a normative study of the Family Relations Test compared the boys results to results of a previous test by Frost and Frost (1964), of a deviant group of boys. A study carried out by Lockwood and Frost (1974), distributed The Family Relations Test to boys who were referred to Calgary School Board Psychologists between the ages of 7 and 12 years, and compared them to normal boys. The types of problem behaviour were disruptive behaviour, underachievement, withdrawn behaviour and anti - social behaviour. The test looked at most mentioned family members and inter - sibling involvement. Finally, an example of cross - cultural use of the test. This is demonstrated by Rich and Rothchild (1979), a study carried out in Israel, where chronically misbehaving adolescents (18 girls and 42 boys) were compared with their well behaved school mates (54 girls and 58 boys) on a series of cognitive, social and personality instruments.

### 3.3. RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY.

#### 1. Eysenck Personality Questionnaire.

##### Test – retest reliability.

Eysenck and Eysenck (1975) provide this for the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior. With a one-month interval between testing, the results for older children lie between .55 and .89. The reliability of Extraversion, Neuroticism and Lie are all within .70 to .90 range, those for Psychoticism are a little below .7 value. With a six month interval between testing, giving time for genuine changes in personality to take place, the reliabilities in younger children aged 7, 8 and 9 years were rather low between .34 and .74, indicating that the scales may not be used with advantage in children this young. From the age of 10 onwards, reliabilities are above .60 and frequently above .70. These values are not inferior to those available for other published scales.

### Consistency Reliabilities.

The results provided by Eysenck and Eysenck (1975) are high for both older and younger children. The reliability for Neuroticism and Lie varies between .73 and .89. The results for Psychoticism and Extraversion are lower between .43 and .80, but these are still acceptable.

The internal consistency for the present study was determined using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient :

$$\alpha = \frac{N}{N - 1} \frac{[ 1 - \sum V_i ]}{V_t}$$

Where: N = the number of items in the scale.

$V_i$  = the variance of each item.

$V_t$  = the variance of the total scores in the scale.

The results are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4. Internal Consistency Reliability.

AGE	n	PSYCHOTICISM	EXTRAVERSION	NEUROTICISM	LIE
6	9	0.92	0.82	0.88	0.92
7	4	0.89	0.89	0.94	0.95
8	11	0.93	0.89	0.86	0.96
9	36	0.9	0.86	0.95	0.96
10	30	0.75	0.92	0.96	0.94
11	42	0.79	0.93	0.97	0.95
12	37	0.88	0.9	0.92	0.92
13	37	0.86	0.87	0.94	0.92
14	16	0.91	0.8	0.96	0.91
15	3	0.5	0.76	0.97	0.76
16	3	0.14	(-)	0.78	0.78

High Alpha Coefficients are desirable. The results for the present study suggest that this instrument has a high level of internal consistency or reliability across all age groups, except for the age 16 group.

### Construct Validity (Intercorrelations).

Eysenck and Eysenck (1975) show that the patterns of the children's figures, closely follows that of the adults. However, the correlation between the LN scale (children = - 0.27 and adults = - 0.15) and the LP scale (children = - 0.39 and adults = - 0.19) are much higher, which may be due to the fact that the Lie scale scores for children especially young children are extremely high. It is not known whether this suggests that young children dissimulate more than older ones, or that they are more naïve and unable to introspect. The other results provided by the authors were as follows : PE = 0.61, PN = 0.20, EN = 0.16 and EL = 0.27.

The intercorrelations for the present study were calculated using the SPSS 6.1 statistical package. The results are illustrated in Table 5.

Table 5. Intercorrelations between Scales.

AGE	n	PE	PN	PL	EN	EL	NL
6	9	0.41	0.39	0.19	0.47	0.55	0.3
7	4	0.94	0.37	0.09	0.48	0.53	0.26
8	11	0.07	0.41	0.27	0.56	0.04	0.23
9	36	0.36	0.34	0.02	0.52	0.77	0.68
10	30	0.01	0.38	0.01	0.12	0.9	0.74
11	42	0.38	0.71	0.01	0.57	0.86	0.52
12	37	0.78	0.75	0.03	0.29	0.74	0.01
13	37	0.8	0.3	0.02	0.02	0.52	0.13
14	16	0.18	0.85	0.01	0.43	0.07	0.32
15	3	0.07	0.81	0.07	0.88	0.15	0.73
16	3	0.67	0.12	0.12	0.55	0.55	0

The results of the present study for each category is as follows : PE = 0.42, PN = 0.49, PL = 0.08, EN = 0.44, EL = 0.52, NL = 0.36. These results of the present study demonstrate validity in the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

## 2. The Family Relations Test.

### Split – half reliability.

A modified form of split – half method was used to prove reliability in the Family Relations Test. Separate reliability coefficients were obtained for positive feelings, to and from combined; negative feelings, to and from combined; overprotection and overindulgence combined for Father, Mother and First – Mentioned Sibling. Each score was regarded as if it were the separate result of a separate test. Within each score two sub – scores were computed for the odd and even numbered items respectively. This was done where the score reached or exceeded 6. The results for positive feelings for Father, Mother and First Mentioned Sibling ranges between .79 and .90. The results of negative feelings for Father, Mother and First Mentioned Sibling ranges between .68 and .83. Over – protection and over – indulgence for First Mentioned Sibling was .80. These results indicate that the Family Relations Test is reasonably reliable.



The reliability of the present study was calculated using the modified split – half method. To correct for halving the length of the test the Spearman – Brown prophecy was used:

$$r_{tt} = \frac{2r_{hh}}{1 + r_{hh}}$$

Where :  $r_{tt}$  = obtained coefficient.

$r_{hh}$  = correlation of the half tests.

The results of the present study are displayed in Table 6.

Table 6. Correlation between Odd and Even Numbered Items.

<u>Positive feelings to and from combined</u>	N	r	Corrected r
Father	17	0.59	0.74
Mother	61	0.68	0.81
First Mentioned Sibling	13	0.77	0.87
<u>Negative feelings to and from combined</u>	N	r	Corrected r
Father	7	0.82	0.90
Mother	4	0.29	0.45
First Mentioned Sibling	16	0.80	0.89
<u>Overprotection and overindulgence</u>		r	Corrected r
First Mentioned Sibling	6	0.93	0.96

The results of the present study indicate that the Family Relations Test shows good reliability.

### Construct validity.

The authors of the Family Relations Test rest the validity on the concept of construct validity. Two sets of subjects were used in the validation studies. The first set of subjects were used to compare various aspects of the test results with relevant psychiatric case – study material. The second set of subjects consisted of out - patient cases at a later time. The test results of these children were compared with questionnaire material obtained from their mother.

1. Comparisons between test results and case – history material.

- A. To see how the Family Relations Test reflects relatively well – documented parental attitudes. The test results of 10 children were examined whose fathers were hostile towards them. The results demonstrated that over 66% of the

subjects correctly identified their fathers' negative feelings towards them.

B. A psychiatric assessment based on case study material was made of 16 mothers who had expressed strong positive feelings towards their children. They were divided into Group A and Group B. Group A had normal acceptance of the child, Group B showed covert, over – compensating rejection of the child. In Group A, over 66% of the subjects correctly identified their mothers' positive feelings towards them and in Group B, over 66% correctly identified their mother's negative feelings towards them. The null hypothesis stating that the two samples could have been taken from the same population was rejected at the 5% level of confidence (corrected for small frequencies).

C. A total of 25 cases, who had older sisters and brothers were taken at random and an assessment was made of their outgoing feelings with respect to their immediate older sibling. The agreement between the reported feelings and the feelings expressed in the test is 64%, which is

significantly different from chance at the 5% level of confidence.

2. Correspondence between the test results of the children and questionnaire material obtained from their mothers.

The Family Relations Test was administered to unselected children who were out – patients at the hospital at a given time. At the same time the mothers of the children attending the hospital were asked to answer questionnaires concerning the children's feelings towards their fathers and siblings and the fathers' and siblings' feelings towards the children. The results found that there was poor agreement between 15%, partial or fair agreement between 38% and good agreement between 38%. This suggests that the test can give an estimate of children's family relationships which is roughly in agreement with accounts given by their mothers.

3. Are the test results influenced by the sex of the administrator of the test ?

An investigation of whether the sex of the person administering the test influences the feelings which children express towards their Mothers and Fathers, was examined using two groups of children. Half the group were tested by a male psychologist and the other half were tested by a female psychologist. The comparisons were restricted to boys only. The mean number of items used with regard to each parent when a male administered the test and when a female psychologist administered it were noted. Some examples of the results are as follows:

- A. Strong positive feelings from father to boy 0.72 (male) and 0.76 (female).
  
- B. Mild negative feelings from boy to mother 0.79 (male) and 0.76 (female).

As these examples demonstrate, none of the differences between means obtained by the male and female psychologists were found to be significant.

The authors state that "the feelings children have towards others are closely related to the feelings they believe others have towards them" (Bene and Anthony, 1957, p.14). They provide correlations between attitudes children expressed towards their parents, and attitudes they thought their parents had towards them. Correlations varied between 0.44 and 0.86 for boys and 0.67 and 0.78 for girls, in the positive and negative categories.

In the present study the construct validity was demonstrated by examining the correlation between attitudes children expressed towards both their parents and first mentioned sibling and the attitudes they thought their parents and first mentioned sibling had towards them. The results are displayed for the bullying groups in Table 7 and for the control groups in Table 8.

Table 7. Correlations between Male and Female Bullies, expressed towards their Parents, and attitudes they thought their Parents had towards them.

	MALE (N = 68)			FEMALE (N = 47)		
	FATHER	MOTHER	SIBLING	FATHER	MOTHER	SIBLING
POSITIVE	0.64	0.73	0.8	0.69	0.81	0.61
NEGATIVE	0.77	0.64	0.78	0.76	0.69	0.88

Table 8. Correlations between Male and Female Controls, expressed towards their Parents, and attitudes they thought their Parents had towards them.

	MALE (N = 52)			FEMALE (N = 61)		
	FATHER	MOTHER	SIBLING	FATHER	MOTHER	SIBLING
POSITIVE	0.82	0.82	0.65	0.7	0.8	0.54
NEGATIVE	0.37	0.59	0.55	0.3	0.33	0.61

The results of the present study indicate that the Family Relations Test demonstrates reasonable construct validity.

### 3.4. STRUCTURE.

#### 1. The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior (1975) is the fourth version of this test. It is preceded by the Maudsley Medical Questionnaire (1952) which was a 40 item measure of N (Neuroticism or Emotionality), The Maudsley Personality Inventory (1959) which measured N and E (Extraversion – Introversion) and The Eysenck Personality Inventory (1964). The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior Scale (Appendix E) is a self - administered questionnaire, which was designed to measure four personality variables in participants between the ages of 7 and 16 years. The four variables are Psychoticism (P), Extraversion (E), Neuroticism (N) And Lie (L). There are 81 items on this questionnaire, 18 items on the P scale, 24 items on the E scale, 20 items on the N scale, and 20 items on the L scale. The authors recommend when using the test, to refer to the variables in the following manner, P as tough-minded, E as Extraversion, N as Emotionality and L as Social Desirability. The test takes an average of 15 – 20 minutes to complete.



## P (Psychoticism or Tough - Minded).

This scale was referred to as "tough-minded" by Eysenck (1954) as a set of attitudes unrelated with the radicalism – conservatism axis and opposed to "tender – minded" attitudes. A high P score in children is characterised as troublesome, glacial and lacking in feeling for people and animals. Behaviour is bizarre, hostile and antisocial. Empathy, sensitivity and feelings of guilt are alien concepts to them. They may try to make up for this lack of feeling by participating in thrill seeking activities without giving a single thought to the consequences of their action. Psychoticism is also of particular interest in connection with antisocial and criminal behaviour. It is linked with crimes of violence and appears equally important at all stages of development from adolescence through adulthood (Eysenck, 1977).

The concept of Psychoticism as a dimension of personality is the newest measure and overlaps the psychiatric diagnostic terms of "schizoid", "psychopathic", and "behaviour disorders". It is argued that just as neurosis is a pathological exaggeration of high degrees of some underlying trait of Neuroticism so

psychosis is a pathological exaggeration of high degrees of some underlying trait of Psychoticism. However, the questionnaire deals with normal behaviour, and therefore as in the case of Neuroticism, the concern is with the personality variables underlying behaviour which become pathological only in extreme cases. It is therefore appropriate to use this scale with populations that are normal and non – pathological.

#### E (Extraversion – Introversion).

Extraversion is described as the turning out of the mind onto people and objects in the outside world. Eysenck's description of characteristic extraverts and introverts do not conform exactly to the traditional or Jungian definition. Differences may be that earlier descriptions were based on uncontrolled observation and intuitive theorising, whereas Eysenck's dimensions are established empirically by means of factor analysis. Howarth and Browne (1972) and Eysenck and Eysenck (1963) suggest that at least two factors emerge from the extraversion scale, the first emphasising sociability, and the second emphasising impulsivity and weak super – ego controls. Extraverted people tend to be sociable, who enjoy parties and

crave excitement. They have many friends as they don't enjoy solitary activities such as reading or studying. They are carefree, impulsive and easy going. They enjoy practical jokes, but lose their temper quickly and can be aggressive. They find it difficult to control their feelings and have a tendency to be unreliable. They are more suggestible than introverts, and are inclined to change their judgements under influence. They are gamblers and enjoy sexual and aggressive humour. They are also more prone to crime and anti-social behaviour because they pursue rewards without fear of consequences. Extraverted children tend to swear, fight and be disobedient. They are destructive and often play truant from school they steal and lie and they tend to be violent, rude and egocentric.

Introversion is an inner directness and a preference for abstract ideas rather than concrete objects. Introverts tend to be quiet, retiring and introspective. They enjoy spending time alone and are often reserved and distant with all but their closest friends. Introverts prefer cognitive styles of humour such as puns and incongruity jokes. They take life seriously, never acting impulsively, or craving excitement. They enjoy a well-ordered type of lifestyle, keeping feelings under control.

They are not aggressive and do not lose their temper easily. They are fairly pessimistic yet reliable and place great importance on ethical standards. Introverted children tend to be sensitive, absent – minded, depressed, and secluded. They are often inefficient, and possess inferiority feelings. They day dream and are nervous. These descriptions may sound like caricatures, because they seem to describe the perfect extravert and the perfect introvert. Few people resemble the exact extremes. Instead, they fall somewhere in the middle.

N (Neuroticism : Emotionality / Stability).

Neurotics have characteristics typical of the unstable or emotionality type and normal people of the stable type. A high N scorer may be characterised as an anxious, moody type of person and prone to depression. Sleep is usually insufficient and they may suffer from various psychosomatic disorders. They are incredibly emotional, over reacting to all situations and then having great difficulty returning to normal following an emotional outburst. This strong emotional state makes proper adjustment difficult causing them to react in a rigid and anxious manner. When combined with extraversion, an

individual tends to be touchy and restless, becoming excited and aggressive easily. A single word to describe them is as a "worrier". They possess an immense preoccupation with things that may go wrong and furthermore a tremendous emotional reaction to anything that does go wrong. On the other hand, the stable individual tends to respond less emotionally and can return to normal quickly. They are calm, even-tempered, controlled and unworried.

#### L (Lie scale).

This scale attempts to measure dissimulation, a tendency of the participant to fake answers. The tendency to "fake good" is increased when the questionnaire is administered under varying motivational conditions such as an interview. It also measures a stable personality factor, which may indicate a level of social naivete, often referred to as the Social Desirability Scale.

## 2. The Family Relations Test.

The Family Relations Test (1957) is a test, which investigates the direction and intensity of the child's feelings towards individual family members and the child's estimate of their reciprocal emotions towards him. The test includes the active manipulation of objects in a play situation. The Family Relations Test consists of 21 faceless cardboard figures, attached to red boxes that have slits in the top of them (Appendix H). Twenty of the figures represent people of varying age, gender and body size. They consist of four men, four women, five girls, five boys, one toddler and one baby. They are relatively indeterminate and allow the child to choose figures to represent the various members of his family, including a figure to represent the "Self". The last figure is that of a male, wearing a large hat, facing backwards. This is the "Nobody" box, which is used when the child feels that a statement does not apply to anyone in the family circle.

Strong feelings of love and hate and milder feelings of like, dislike and jealous reactions are the type of emotional attitudes that factor in the familial relationships of a child. The

feelings of older children differ markedly from those of younger children. With younger children the emotions of like and love can overflow into each other more easily than with older children. Therefore the test provides two versions, an older version and a younger one. The older children's version (Appendix F) is made up of 86 items, 68 of these refer to feelings that characterise the participants relationship with family members, the remaining 18 are connected specifically to the participants perception of his parents. It is designed to explore the following attitude areas:

1. Two kinds of positive attitude, ranging from mild to strong, the milder items are related to the feelings of friendly approval and stronger ones connected to more "sexualised" or "sensualised" feelings associated with close physical contact and manipulation e.g. "This person in the family likes to tickle me".
2. Two kinds of negative attitude also ranging from mild to strong, the milder items relating to unfriendliness and disapproval, and the stronger ones expressing hate and hostility, e.g. "This person in the family is mean to me".

3. Attitudes to do with parental over - indulgence, covered by items such as "This is the person that mother spoils too much".

4. Attitudes to do with parental over - protection, covered by items such as "Mother worries that this person might catch cold".

The form for the younger children (Appendix G) consists of 40 items, designed to explore the following attitude areas :

1. Positive feelings: both coming from the child and experienced by the child as coming from others, e.g. "You like to play with N... Who likes to play with N?".

2. Negative feelings: both coming from the child and experienced by the child as coming from others, e.g. "You get angry with N... Who gets angry with N...".

3. Feelings of dependency on others, e.g. "N...wants you to tuck him (her) into bed at night. Who should tuck N... in at night?".



There is no hard rule for the tests, the borderline is six to eight years of age but should be judged on the child's level of comprehension.

The questions are scored by using the appropriate scoring keys. There are four keys printed in green in the back of the test. There is a scoring sheet to measure each of the dimensions (A, B, C, D, and E). The sheet is placed over each of the three pages of the questionnaire. Once the key has been placed over the questions, the corners of the columns on the scoring keys, it is then a matter of counting how many answers are marked in the same direction as that given in the key. The total score is the sum of these points. These scores are numbered and the scores may be entered in order, A (Box 1), B (Box 2), C (Box 3), and D (Box 4).

### 3. The Family Relations Test.

Once all the cards have been distributed into the various numbers, the cards are taken out of the box and the number on each card and the person that it applies to, is recorded on

### 3.5. SCORING OF THE TESTS.

#### 1. The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

The questionnaires are scored by using the appropriate scoring sheet. There are four keys printed in green for the junior version of the test. There is a scoring sheet to measure each of the dimensions (i.e. P, E, N, and L). The sheet is placed over each of the three pages of the questionnaire. Once the key lines on the questionnaire are aligned with the corners of the columns on the scoring keys, it is then in a position to be scored. This is executed by counting one point for each answer that is endorsed in the same direction as that given in the key. The total score is the sum of these points. These boxes are numbered and the scores may be entered in order, P (Box 1), E (Box 2), N (Box 3), and L (Box 4).

#### 2. The Family Relations Test.

Once all the cards have been distributed into the various members, the cards are taken out of the box and the number on each card and the person that it applied to, is recorded on

the scoring sheet (Appendix I). The scoring sheet is arranged in rows and columns. The columns represent the following, nobody, self, father, mother, siblings and others in the family. The rows stand for the item numbers. The scoring consists of placing a check mark at the appropriate place on the sheet and then adding the number of items that went to each person within each specific area. This will indicate the magnitude of each of the feelings, the child has assigned to each member of the family. The next step is to summarise the quantitative data in the form of tables (Appendix J). Finally, the conclusions reached on the basis of both the quantitative and qualitative results are provided. The qualitative information refers to attitudes shown towards the test and the tester (Appendix K). The completed forms reveal the pattern of distribution in terms of both positive and negative feelings towards the individual family members, as well as an estimate of their positive and negative feelings towards him. The scoring of the Family Relations Test takes an average of 15 minutes.

### 3.6. PROCEDURE.

#### Administration of Tests.

##### 1. Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

The instructions for the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior were printed on the front page of the questionnaire (Appendix E). However, due to the fact that the manual instructed the researcher to refrain from altering, amplifying, changing or interpreting any word, the researcher felt it was necessary to read the instructions aloud, before the commencement of the questionnaire. The students wrote their age and gender on the front page in the areas provided. They were given the choice of remaining anonymous or giving their names, if they wished to do so. At the beginning of the research each student's name was called and they were then given a specific questionnaire. Unknown to the students the questionnaires were categorized into the bullying and the control groups. Participants of the bullying group received a questionnaire which had a small black triangle in the bottom left hand corner on the back page and participants of the

control group received one which had a small black square placed in the same location. This anonymity seemed to relax students and gave them the freedom to answer honestly. The students were instructed to circle the "yes" or the "no" following each question and to answer every single question whether or not it seemed relevant to them. The researcher informed the students that this was not a test, that there was no right or wrong answers, that the answers simply reflected the way they felt. At this stage an apology was made to the older participants for the immature language used. It was explained that it was necessary for the younger participants. They were finally instructed to work quickly, not to spend too much time on a single question and not to over analyse the questions. Students were allowed to cover their questionnaires, or move to the floor to maintain privacy. On completion of the questionnaire each one was then checked and any answers omitted were rectified on the spot by the student in question.

## 2. Family Relations Test.

The Family Relations Test was administered on a one to one basis. The rooms in which the test was carried out, varied from

school to school, but the basic lay out consisted of a table, two chairs one placed on either side of the table for the researcher and the participant. The twenty red boxes were placed in groups along either a shelf, a window sill or on another table. Secondary students were given a specific time to arrive for the test, the primary school students came to the room as the person in front of them on the list returned to class.

When the participant entered the room, they were invited to sit in the chair opposite the researcher. Several minutes were spent chatting about various topics in an effort to relax the participant. It was explained that all information given throughout the test was completely confidential and that nobody except the researcher would have access it. It was emphasized that this was not a test, simply a reflections of their feelings. Despite the fact that the participant supplied their name on entry to the room, they appeared reassured when informed their name would not be written on the scoring sheet. This seemed to relax the participants and allowed them a greater freedom of expression during the test. However, the relevant black triangle for the bullying group and the black square for the control group was applied to the scoring sheet

by the researcher once the participants left the room. The age and gender of the participant were also noted on the scoring sheet.

The test procedure was then explained to the participants. They were asked to give information about their family, giving their names and ages, and that of anyone else they wanted to include such as a grandparent or someone that may be living with them at the time of the research. When the siblings' ages were unknown they were asked about the birth order of the family to determine their placement within the family. Those with adult siblings were asked to note which siblings if any, still lived at home. Participants were not allowed to include make believe friends, toys, pets, or ghosts. They were asked whether or not they lived with both parents and in situations where they did not, the participants were asked about the circumstances. Stepfamilies were also included even if the participant did not live with them. All of this information was recorded on the scoring sheet.

The researcher and the participant moved to look at the boxes a little closer. It was explained that they had to pick a box to

represent each member written on the scoring sheet, including one to represent themselves. The primary school participants spent a great deal of time choosing each member. Many were distressed that the figures had no faces, that all of the fathers wore suits and that all of the mother and girl figures wore dresses and skirts. Once the family figures were chosen, the family circle was placed on a table in front of the participants. Larger families were placed in a long line so that the slots in the boxes could be easily reached. The nobody box was introduced by the researcher at this stage. When the number of family members was large, it became difficult for both the researcher and the participant to remember which box represented which member of the family. Therefore the names of each family member was written on a small piece of white paper by both the participant and the researcher, and placed on the table in front of the boxes.

The participant was then shown the cards, which contained statements. They were given the choice of reading the cards themselves or having the researcher read the cards to them. The majority of primary school students asked to have the cards read to them, all of the secondary school students opted



to read the cards themselves. The first two and the last two cards given to the participant belonged to the positive mild category, in order to ease the participant into the test and then to allow them to leave in a positive mood. The rest of the cards were shuffled repeatedly to produce a random distribution of the cards. It was easier to prevent several cards from the same category arising one immediately after the other when the researcher read the cards to the participant, as opposed to when the participants read them themselves. Once the card had been read they were instructed to post it into the box (or the person), to which they felt it applied. When they felt the card applied to themselves, to place it in the "self" box, when they felt that the card did not apply to anyone in their family circle, to place it in the "nobody" box, and finally, if the card applied to more than one person to give it to the researcher and state to whom the card applied.

The older version of The Family Relations Test was used with the bullying and control groups, but the younger version was distributed to the traveller and traveller control groups. The traveller group had a below average reading ability and an extremely short attention span, which made it impossible to

use the older version of the test and it therefore seemed logical to use this version with the traveller control group also. The students in the traveller group had to be collected from class by the researcher. By the time the research room was reached, a rapport had been established between the researcher and participant. The students from the youngest class were the first to participate in the research, the rapport established with the younger children seemed to reassure the older children and assisted in earning their trust. On entry to the research room, they went straight for the test boxes, picking them up, shaking them and asking if they were moneyboxes. Their pre-occupation with the boxes made it impossible to distribute the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior first, as had been the procedure with the other three groups. It was necessary to have the test boxes ready for immediate testing as any delay throughout the test resulted in the loss of the participant's attention. The personal details were gathered and the instructions administered in the same manner as with the other three groups. Once the family circle had been established, all of the remaining boxes had to be dismantled, and placed inside the test box, which was then placed underneath the researcher's chair, completely out of

sight. The reason for this was the participant's pre-occupation with the unused boxes. Some of the participants tried to place the cards into the unused box instead of their family circle.

Throughout the test, some participants left the room when they heard voices outside, moved to play with the jigsaws and colours in the room, which made it necessary to lock everything away, in order to inhibit their distraction. Several of the participants asked repeatedly to go back to class throughout the testing and others refused to leave the room to return to class, when the testing was completed. The participants sat on a swivel chair that seemed to assist in prolonging their attention and interest for the duration of the tests.

### Limitations of the Study.

1. A large number of schools in both the Dublin and Wexford areas were contacted to participate in this research, however only fifteen schools expressed interest which was later reduced to seven schools as the direction of the study became known. This resulted in a smaller sample size than originally anticipated.
2. The fact that the study took place in the school environment may have been a disadvantage. Despite repeated guarantees from the researcher that all information was confidential, there were students who expressed concern that information would be shared with the school. This may have resulted in answers designed to create a better impression of themselves.
3. There were complaints from secondary school students about questions which were irrelevant to their age group however the tests were designed for their age group.

4. In the secondary schools, over half of the consent forms were never returned. This may have enabled known bullies to eliminate themselves from the research.

# CHAPTER

# FOUR

# CHAPTER

# FOUR

#### 4.1. INTRODUCTION.

The results chapter contains detailed analysis of each individual area under investigation. The subject sample consisted of 228 students, 121 males and 107 females, between the ages of 6 and 16 years. The subject groups were the bullying group, the control group, the traveller group, the traveller control group, the bully – traveller group (the bullying and the traveller group combined) and the control – traveller control group (the control group and the traveller control group combined).

The first section of this chapter comprises of an investigation regarding the relationship between bullying behaviour and that of personality, using The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1975). An examination of the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales was carried out in relation to each subject group. This was followed by an examination of the lie scale, necessary to determine the truthfulness of each subject's response.

The second section of this chapter, consists of an examination of the intensity of emotions experienced by the subject towards each individual member of their family and furthermore each member's reciprocal emotions towards the subject, using The Family Relations Test (Bene and Anthony, 1957). Five separate categories were presented in the following order : Nobody, Self, Siblings, Mother and Father.



#### 4.2. THE EYSENCK PERSONALITY QUESTIONNAIRE JUNIOR.

1. An Investigation of the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales comparing the Bullying and Control Group.

The hypothesis stated that subjects of the bullying group would demonstrate higher levels than those in the control group with regards to the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales of The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

Analysis of the results using an independent t – test indicated a significant score across the Psychoticism and Neuroticism scales, but not across the Extraversion scale. This implies that the bullying group scored higher on the Psychoticism and Neuroticism scales than the control group, but did not score higher on the Extraversion scale than the control group. The results are presented in Table 1. An analysis of variance was carried out to examine the affect of gender across all groups and categories, found a significant result [ $F(3,227) = 4.389$   $p < .05$ ] with regards to Psychoticism. Furthermore, an analysis of variance to examine the affect of age across all groups and categories found non – significant results.

Table 1. Mean (S.D.) for Bullying and Control Groups on The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

<b>E. P. Q.</b>	<b>BULLYING</b>	<b>CONTROL</b>	<b>p</b>
	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	
<b>PSYCHOTICISM</b>	3.94 (2.60)	2.24 (2.19)	< .05
<b>EXTRAVERSION</b>	19.71 (3.03)	20.36 (2.40)	NS
<b>NEUROTICISM</b>	12.56 (4.66)	8.55 (4.22)	< .05

Note. E.P.Q. = Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

2. An Investigation of the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales comparing the Traveller and Traveller Control Group.

The hypothesis stated that subjects of the traveller group would demonstrate higher levels in the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior, than those in the traveller control group.

A significant t – score ( $p < .05$ ) was produced across the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales, which implies that the traveller group scored higher on the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales than the traveller control group. The results are presented in Table 2. An analysis of variance was carried out to examine the affect of gender across all groups and categories, found a significant result [ $F(3,227) = 10.017$   $p < .05$ ] with regards to Extraversion.

Table 2. Mean (S.D.) for Traveller and Traveller Control Groups on The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

E. P. Q.	TRAVELLER	TRAVCTRL	p
	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	
PSYCHOTICISM	6.23 (3.74)	2.02 (2.34)	< .05
EXTRAVERSION	17.13 (3.40)	21.24 (2.74)	< .05
NEUROTICISM	14.60 (4.14)	10.78 (5.76)	< .05

Note. TRAVCTRL = Traveller Control.  
 E.P.Q. = Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

### 3. An Investigation of the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales comparing the Traveller and Bullying Groups.

The hypothesis stated that subjects of the traveller group would demonstrate higher levels than those in the bullying group in the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales of The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

The results of this analysis, indicated that the t – score was found to be significant ( $p < .05$ ) across all scales. This implies that the traveller group scored higher on the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales than the bullying group. The results are displayed in Table 3. An analysis of variance was carried out to examine the affect of gender across all groups and categories, found a significant result [ $F(3,227) = 5.810$   $p < .05$ ] with regards to Extraversion. Furthermore, an analysis of variance to examine the affect of age across all groups and categories found non – significant results.

Table 3. Mean (S.D.) for The Traveller and Bullying Groups on The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

E. P. Q.	TRAVELLERS	BULLYING	p
	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	
PSYCHOTICISM	6.23 (3.74)	3.94 (2.60)	< .05
EXTRAVERSION	17.13 (3.40)	19.71 (3.03)	< .05
NEUROTICISM	14.60 (4.14)	12.56 (4.66)	< .05

Note. E.P.Q. = Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

#### 4. An Investigation of Lying on the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

The hypothesis stated that the bullying group would display higher levels of dissimulation across the lie scale than the other three groups.

There were high scores on the lie scale for all groups. An analysis of variance comparing all four groups produced a non-significant result indicating that the bullying group did not have higher levels of dissimulation. An analysis of variance revealed a significant result when examining the affect of age on the lie scale [ $F(3,227) = 15.39$   $p < .05$ ]. Furthermore, a significant  $t$  - score ( $p < .05$ ) was produced when comparing the scores of primary and secondary school children on their lie scores. This demonstrates that the primary aged children dissimulated more. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Mean and Standard Deviation for the Lie Scale of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire.

GROUP	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
BULLYING	7.31	4.42
CONTROL	8	3.94
TRAVELLER	11.67	4.3
TRAVELLER CONTROL	11.3	4.84



5. An Investigation of the Psychoticism, Extraversion, Neuroticism and Lie scales comparing the Bully – Traveller group (the Bullying and the Traveller group combined) and the Control – Traveller Control group (the Control group and the Traveller Control group combined).

The hypothesis stated that subjects of the bully – traveller group would demonstrate higher levels than those in the control – traveller control group in the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism and Lie scales of The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

The results of this analysis, indicated that the t – score was found to be significant ( $p < .05$ ) across the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales. This implies that the bully – traveller group scored higher on the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales than in the control – traveller control group. However, a non – significant result was found across the Lie scale, which demonstrates the bully – traveller group did not dissimulate more than the control – traveller control group. The results are presented in Table 5. An analysis of variance was carried out to examine the affect

of gender across all groups and categories, found a significant result with regards to Extraversion [ $F(3,227) = 9.60 \ p < .05$ ] and Neuroticism [ $F(3,227) = 17.423 \ p < .05$ ]. Furthermore, an analysis of variance to examine the affect of age across all groups and categories found a significant result with regards to Neuroticism [ $F(3,227) = 5.434 \ p < .05$ ].

Table 5. Mean (S.D.) for The Bully - Traveller and Control - Traveller Control Groups on the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

E. P. Q.	BULLY - TRAVELLER MEAN (SD)	CONTROL - TRAVCTRL MEAN (SD)	p
PSYCHOTICISM	4.83 (3.25)	2.13 (2.24)	< .05
EXTRAVERSION	18.70 (3.41)	20.69 (2.56)	< .05
NEUROTICISM	13.36 (4.56)	9.51 (5.00)	< .05
LIE	9.02 (4.85)	9.40 (4.59)	NS

Note. TRAVCTRL = Traveller Control.  
E.P.Q. = Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior.

### 4.3. FAMILY RELATIONS TEST.

#### 1. The Nobody Category.

The hypothesis stated that the bullying group would place more cards in the nobody box compared to that of the control, traveller and traveller control groups.

An analysis of variance was used to examine the results, a significant result was produced across each of the four response groups : Positive Outgoing [ $F(3,227) = 23.89$   $p < .05$ ], Negative Outgoing [ $F(3,227) = 49.08$   $p < .05$ ], Positive Incoming [ $F(3,227) = 42.72$   $p < .05$ ], and Negative Incoming [ $F(3,227) = 87.71$   $p < .05$ ], which implies that the bullying group did place more cards in the nobody box than any other group. In a process of combining all of the Negative Outgoing and Incoming statements and performing the same task for all of the positive statements, results indicated that the bullying group tend to inhibit greatly the expression of positive emotions focused towards family members or received from them. The results are displayed in Table 6. An analysis of

variance carried out to examine the affect of gender across all groups and categories, found non – significant results.

Table 6. Means (S.D.) Results for The Nobody Category on The Family Relations Test.

<b>F.R.T</b>	<b>BULLYING</b>	<b>CONTROL</b>	<b>TRAVELLER</b>	<b>TRAVCTRL</b>	<b>F</b>
	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	
<b>POS.OUT</b>	5.53 (3.51)	3.39 (2.92)	1.47 (1.63)	2.48 (1.50)	< .05
<b>NEG.OUT</b>	4.96 (4.28)	11.54 (4.97)	3.44 (2.88)	5.61 (2.42)	< .05
<b>POS.IN</b>	5.73 (3.26)	3.07 (3.29)	1.11 (1.72)	0.65 (1.16)	< .05
<b>NEG.IN</b>	5.87 (3.69)	11.75 (3.30)	3.13 (2.82)	4.07 (2.32)	< .05

Note. F.R.T. = Family Relations Test.

TRAVCTRL = Traveller Control.

## 2. The Self Category.

It was proposed that the bullying group would attribute a greater number of negative responses to the self than the control, traveller or traveller control groups.

The results were analysed using an analysis of variance. A significant score was obtained across both of the negative category response groups, Negative Outgoing [ $F(3,227) = 10.62$   $p < .05$ ], and Negative Incoming [ $F(3,227) = 4.00$   $p < .05$ ]. Furthermore, by combining all of the positive outgoing and incoming statements as before, it can be seen that the bullying group attributed significantly more negative statement to the self than the other three groups. These results indicated a high degree of positive emotions coming from and towards the self for the traveller group. The results are displayed in Table 7. An analysis of variance was carried out to examine the affect of gender across all groups and categories, found a significant result [ $F(3,227) = 2.673$   $p < .05$ ] with regards to Negative Incoming.

Table 7. Means (S.D.) Results for The Self Category on The Family Relations Test.

F.R.T	BULLYING	CONTROL	TRAVELLER	TRAVCTRL	F
	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	
POS.OUT	0.70 (1.48)	0.48 (0.94)	1.00 (0.85)	0.17 (0.38)	< .05
NEG.OUT	1.09 (1.51)	0.39 (0.80)	0.31 (0.70)	0.13 (0.40)	< .05
POS.IN	0.46 (1.86)	0.75 (1.04)	0.33 (0.67)	0.04 (0.21)	< .05
NEG.IN	0.20 (0.58)	0.06 (0.34)	0.33 (0.83)	0.00 (0.00)	< .05

Note. F.R.T. = Family Relations Test.

TRAVCTRL = Traveller Control.

### 3. The Siblings Category.

The hypothesis stated that a relatively negative or ambivalent relationship existed between the subjects of the bullying group and their respective siblings, in comparison to that of the control, the traveller and traveller control group. Bene and Anthony (1957) suggest that a predominantly negative relationship occurs when over two – thirds of the items are negative, that it is ambivalent when neither the positive or negative items exceed two thirds their combined number and predominantly positive when over two thirds of the items are positive.

The bullying, control and traveller control groups contained an average of two siblings whereas the traveller group contained an average of six siblings per family. Using an analysis of variance a significant result was found across the Negative Outgoing response [ $F(3,227) = 20.73 \ p < .05$ ], the Negative Incoming [ $F(3,227) = 28.64 \ p < .05$ ], the Positive Outgoing response [ $F(3,227) = 10.55 \ p < .05$ ] and the Positive Incoming [ $F(3,227) = 9.61 \ p < .05$ ]. The bullying group demonstrated an ambivalent relationship with their siblings as neither the

positive or negative items exceeded two thirds their combined number. Furthermore, a Scheffe test produced a significant difference across the Negative Outgoing and Negative Incoming response groups for the bullying group, which may be an indication of some sibling rivalry. The results are displayed in Table 8. An analysis of variance carried out to examine the affect of gender across all groups and categories, found a significant result [ $F(3,227) = 4.50 \quad p < .05$ ] with regards to Negative Outgoing.

Table 8. Means (S.D.) Results for The Sibling Category on The Family Relations Test.

F.R.T	BULLYING	CONTROL	TRAVELLER	TRAVCTRL	F
	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	
POS.OUT	2.68 (2.84)	2.36 (1.81)	0.70 (0.51)	1.87 (1.19)	< .05
NEG.OUT	3.73 (3.17)	1.98 (2.29)	0.68 (0.64)	1.21 (1.36)	< .05
POS.IN	2.02 (2.16)	2.12 (2.19)	0.78 (0.60)	2.94 (2.10)	< .05
NEG.IN	2.72 (2.30)	1.13 (1.27)	0.40 (0.50)	0.62 (0.92)	< .05

Note. F.R.T. = Family Relations Test.

TRAVCTRL = Traveller Control.



#### 4. The Mother Category.

The hypothesis put forward indicated that the bullying group would have a more negative or ambivalent relationship with their mothers, in contrast with the control, traveller and traveller control groups.

An analysis of variance produced a significant result across each of the following categories, Positive Incoming [ $F(3, 227) = 37.89$   $p < .05$  ], Negative Outgoing [ $F(3, 227) = 15.64$   $p < .05$ ], Positive Outgoing [ $F(3, 227) = 67.12$   $p < .05$ ]. A non-significant result was produced across the Negative Incoming response group. The bullying group demonstrated an ambivalent relationship with their mothers as neither the positive or negative items exceeded two thirds their combined number. Furthermore, evidence indicated an ambivalent result for the travellers group who attributed the least number of positive statements to their mothers and also the least number of negative statements. The results are displayed in Table 9. An analysis of variance was carried out to examine the affect of gender across all groups and categories, found a significant result [ $F(3, 227) = 3.387$   $p < .05$ ] with regards to Positive Incoming.

Table 9. Means (S.D.) Results for The Mother Category on The Family Relations Test.

F.R.T	BULLYING	CONTROL	TRAVELLER	TRAVCTRL	F
	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	
<b>POS.OUT</b>	4.86 (3.11)	9.01 (4.34)	1.16 (1.33)	3.00 (1.77)	< .05
<b>NEG.OUT</b>	2.03 (2.27)	1.22 (1.94)	0.36 (1.07)	0.44 (0.21)	< .05
<b>POS.IN</b>	4.80 (3.16)	7.73 (3.68)	1.82 (1.72)	4.87 (1.97)	< .05
<b>NEG.IN</b>	1.91 (1.85)	1.36 (2.17)	1.09 (1.78)	1.85 (1.75)	NS

Note. F.R.T. = Family Relations Test.

TRAVCTRL = Traveller Control Group.

## 5. The Father Category.

The hypothesis put forward indicated that the bullying group would have a more negative or ambivalent relationship with their fathers, in contrast with the control, traveller and traveller control groups.

Each of the four analyses of variance produced a significant result across Positive Incoming [ $F(3, 227) = 19.88$   $p < .05$ ], Negative Outgoing [ $F(3, 227) = 13.11$   $p < .05$ ], Positive Outgoing [ $F(3, 227) = 28.18$   $p < .05$ ], Negative Incoming [ $F(3, 227) = 9.77$   $p < .05$ ] in relation to the father. The bullying group demonstrated an ambivalent relationship with their fathers as neither the positive or negative items exceeded two thirds their combined number. The traveller group gave the least number of positive statements and the second highest number of negative statements to their fathers whereas, the control group presented an image of a warm, positive paternal relationship. The results are displayed in Table 10. An analysis of variance, which was carried out to examine the affect of gender across all groups and categories, found non-significant results.

Table 10. Means (S.D.) Results for The Father Category on The Family Relations Test.

F.R.T	BULLYING	CONTROL	TRAVELLER	TRAVCTRL	F
	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	MEAN (SD)	
POS.OUT	3.14 (2.84)	5.85 (4.18)	0.89 (1.17)	2.72 (1.60)	< .05
NEG.OUT	2.00 (2.64)	0.93 (1.82)	2.89 (0.70)	0.13 (0.40)	< .05
POS.IN	2.76 (2.75)	5.00 (3.47)	1.02 (1.53)	3.22 (2.36)	< .05
NEG.IN	2.44 (2.69)	0.78 (1.10)	1.11 (1.53)	1.83 (1.81)	< .05

Note. F.R.T. = Family Relations Test.

TRAVCTRL = Traveller Control Group.

6. An investigation of the Nobody, Self, Sibling, Mother and Father categories comparing the Bully – Traveller group (the Bullying and the Traveller group combined) and the Control – Traveller Control group (the Control group and the Traveller Control group combined).

A. The hypothesis stated that the bully – traveller group would place more cards in the nobody box compared to the control – traveller control group.

An independent t – test was used to examine the results, a significant result was produced across each of the four response groups which indicated that the bully – traveller group tend to inhibit greatly the expression of emotions focused towards family members or received from them. The results are displayed in Table 11. An analysis of variance carried out to examine the affect of gender across all groups and categories, found a significant result [ $F(3,227) = 6.162$   $p < .05$ ], with regards to Negative Incoming.

B. It was proposed that the bully – traveller group would attribute a greater number of negative responses to the self than the control – traveller control group.

The results were analysed using an independent t – test. A significant score ( $p < .05$ ) was obtained across the Negative Outgoing, Negative Incoming and Positive Outgoing response groups, but a non – significant result across the Positive Incoming. The bully – traveller group attributed significantly more negative statements to the self than the control – traveller control group. The results are displayed in Table 11. An analysis of variance was carried out to examine the affect of gender across all groups and categories, found a significant result [ $F(3,227) = 4.475$   $p < .05$ ] with regards to Positive Incoming.

C. The hypothesis stated that a relatively negative or ambivalent relationship existed between the subjects of the bully – traveller group and their respective siblings, in comparison to that of the control - traveller control group.

Using an independent t – test, a significant result ( $p < .05$ ) was found across the Negative Outgoing, the Negative Incoming and the Positive Incoming response groups and a non – significant result across the Positive Outgoing. The bully – traveller group demonstrated an ambivalent relationship with their siblings as neither the positive or negative items exceeded two thirds their combined number. The results are displayed in Table 11. An analysis of variance was carried out to examine the affect of gender across all groups and categories, found a significant result [ $F(3,227) = 6.178$   $p < .05$ ] with regards to Positive Outgoing.

D. The hypothesis put forward indicated that the bully – traveller group would have a more negative or ambivalent relationship with their mothers, in comparison to that of the control – traveller control group.

An independent t – test produced a significant result ( $p < .05$ ) across each of the following categories : Positive Incoming, Negative Outgoing and Positive Outgoing. A non - significant result was produced across the Negative Incoming response group. The bully – traveller group demonstrated an ambivalent

relationship with their mothers as neither the positive or negative items exceeded two thirds their combined number. The results are displayed in Table 11. An analysis of variance carried out to examine the affect of gender across all groups and categories, found non - significant results.

E. The hypothesis stated that the bully – traveller group would have a more negative or ambivalent relationship with their fathers, in comparison with the control – traveller control group.

An independent t – tests produced a significant result across the Positive Incoming, Negative Outgoing, Positive Outgoing Negative Incoming response groups. The bully – traveller group demonstrated an ambivalent relationship with their fathers as neither the positive or negative items exceeded two thirds their combined number. The control - traveller control group presented a predominantly positive relationship with their fathers. The results are displayed in Table 11. An analysis of variance, which was carried out to examine the affect of gender across all groups and categories, found non - significant results.



Table 11. Means (S.D.) Results of the Bully – Traveller group (the Bullying and the Traveller group combined) and the Control – Traveller Control group (the Control group and the Traveller Control group combined) for each category on The Family Relations Test.

	NEGATIVE INCOMING		NEGATIVE OUTGOING		POSITIVE INCOMING		POSITIVE OUTGOING	
	MEAN	SD.	MEAN	SD.	MEAN	SD.	MEAN	SD.
<b>NOBODY</b>								
BULLY - TRAVELLER	4.8	3.62	4.37	3.85	3.92	3.56	3.94	3.53
CONTROL - TRAVCTRL	8.62	4.79	9.12	6.04	2.09	2.89	3.02	2.48
<b>SELF</b>								
BULLY - TRAVELLER	0.24	0.67	.79	1.32	0.41	1.52	0.81	1.26
CONTROL - TRAVCTRL	0.04	0.27	0.29	0.67	0.46	0.88	0.35	0.78
<b>SIBLINGS</b>								
BULLY - TRAVELLER	1.82	2.14	2.54	2.91	1.53	1.83	1.89	2.44
CONTROL - TRAVCTRL	0.92	1.17	1.66	1.99	2.44	2.18	2.16	1.60
<b>MOTHER</b>								
BULLY - TRAVELLER	1.59	1.86	1.37	2.06	3.63	3.50	3.41	3.13
CONTROL - TRAVCTRL	1.56	2.01	0.74	1.60	6.57	3.39	6.61	4.56
<b>FATHER</b>								
BULLY - TRAVELLER	1.92	2.39	1.33	2.26	2.08	2.49	2.26	2.58
CONTROL - TRAVCTRL	1.20	1.51	0.60	1.47	4.27	3.18	4.58	3.71

Note. TRAVCTRL = Traveller Control.

#### 4.4. SUMMARY.

In the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, when the bullying group was compared to the control group, the bullying group produced a higher score on the Psychoticism and the Neuroticism scales, but not on the Extraversion scale. A higher result was found in the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales, when comparing the traveller group to both the traveller control and bullying group. An investigation of lying found that the bullying group did not have higher levels of dissimulation than the other three groups. However, an analysis of variance demonstrated that the lie scores are affected by the age of the subjects. The bully - traveller group scored higher on the Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism scales than the control - traveller control groups but not on the Lie scale which implied that the bully - traveller group did not dissimulate.

The Family Relations Test, with regards to the Nobody category found that the bullying group placed more cards in the nobody box, than the other three subject groups. Results of the Self category indicated that significantly more negative statements

were attributed to the Self than the other subject groups. In the Sibling category a Post Hoc Scheffe Test produced a significant difference across all negative response groups for the bullying group, which suggests evidence of sibling rivalry. The analysis of the Mother category produced evidence of an ambivalent relationship for the bullying group. Finally, the results of the Father category, demonstrated an ambivalent relationship for the bullying group but a warm positive relationship for the control and traveller control group. The bully – traveller group placed more cards in the Nobody box, which implied that they tend to inhibit their emotions. The bully - traveller group attributed more negative statements to themselves, and had ambivalent relationships with their siblings, mothers and fathers, unlike the control – traveller control group who displayed positive relationships with the members of their families.

# CHAPTER

# FIVE

## 5.1. INTRODUCTION.

The aim of this research was to examine the personality and family relations of children who bully. The results from the previous chapter will be discussed in greater detail in the present chapter. In the first section there will be an overview of the significant findings, a consideration of these findings with respect to existing research and the implications of the study for present theory and professional practice. In the next section there will be an examination of findings that failed to support the hypothesis, followed by the limitations of the study which may have affected the validity and generality of the results. The final section will consist of recommendations for further research in this area of study.

## 5.2. DISCUSSION OF SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS.

In this section there will be an overview of significant findings and a consideration of these findings in light of existing research. In the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior it was found that the bullying group scored higher on the psychoticism and neuroticism scales than did the control group. The traveller group scored higher on the psychoticism, extraversion and neuroticism scales than the traveller control group and the bullying group. Furthermore, the bully - traveller group scored higher on all three scales than the control - traveller control group. Eysenck (1964, 1977) proposed the theory of criminality and anti - social behaviour, which hypothesizes that both juvenile delinquents and adult offenders are characterized by higher levels on psychoticism, extraversion, and neuroticism than normal groups. There are studies of anti - social and delinquent behaviour in children and adolescents, which have provided support for Eysenck's hypothesis (Saklofske, McKerracher and Eysenck, 1978; Allsopp and Feldman, 1976). Studies relating delinquency to extraversion among schoolboys have consistently shown strong results in the predicted direction (Gibson, 1967b; Saxby, Norris

and Feldman, 1970). However, there are studies that do not support Eysenck's hypothesis. Well behaved boys differed from the badly behaved and delinquent boys on the extraversion and psychoticism scales but there was no significant difference on the neuroticism scales (Saklofske and Eysenck, 1980) and badly behaved boys scored higher on psychoticism than well – behaved boys, but lower on the extraversion (Saklofske, 1977). Furthermore, studies have failed to confirm Eysenck's prediction with respect to extraversion (Field, 1959). This may be due to the effect of institutionalization on responses to extraversion items especially those concerning sociability. It was found that criminals scored higher on psychoticism and neuroticism but not on extraversion when compared to a normal group (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1971). They proposed that this may be due to the absence of items relating to impulsiveness on the extraversion scale and the presence of numerous items relating to sociability. The reason that the traveller group displayed higher levels on all three scales when compared to the bullying group and the control group may be due to the fact that they possess other emotional problems that cause them to misbehave in ways other than bullying.

The aim of this part of the study was to use the Family Relations Test to examine the familial relationships of children who bully. The bullying group placed more positive and negative cards in the nobody box than any other group, which indicates an inability to express their emotions freely towards the various members of their family. Similar results were found when the bully - traveller group were compared to the control group - traveller control group. Frost (1969) found that delinquents attributed more negative items to the nobody box than any other group though the differences are only significant in the outgoing category. The bullying group also attributed more negative statements towards themselves than the other three groups, which may demonstrate problems of low self - esteem. In a study of in - patients, out - patients and normal groups, the in - patient group expressed more self-flattery and self-criticism than the other groups (Philipp and Orr, 1978).

The bullying group and bully - traveller group both demonstrated an ambivalent relationship with their siblings, which indicates some sibling rivalry. Clinical experience with the Family Relations Test suggests that boys referred for



school problems are more often involved with one or more of their siblings than with each parent. This observation suggests that these boys are exhibiting a different pattern of family involvement than that shown by other research using the Family Relations Test or from what would be expected by Bene and Anthony's (1957) hypothetical model of involvement. The traveller group contained an average of six siblings whereas the other three groups comprised of an average of two siblings. An ambivalent relationship was demonstrated between the traveller group and their siblings however, only a very small number of statements were attributed to their siblings over all. Research with adults found that subjects from large families consisting of two or more siblings were less involved with parents than were subjects who were only children or had only one sibling (Bene, 1965). In such large families an older brother or sister may be forced to take on the role of a parent and therefore the ambivalent feelings usually aimed at a parent may be focused on a sibling instead. Relationships which children describe as positive are with younger or infant brothers and sisters, there is a strong need for physical contact and affection whereas hostile or negative emotions are almost non – existent. Girls have a relationship with younger

sisters in which love is important, however it is not as important as with infant siblings (Simpson, 1935). The victim of sibling bullying may take the bullying into the outside world to experience some feelings of power. The bully may be a younger sibling as it has been shown that younger children are twice as likely to provoke quarrels as older children but the latter are twice as likely to be blamed if they retaliate (Koch, 1960).

The bullying group and bully – traveller group both demonstrated an ambivalent relationship with their mothers. A positive, well adjusted relationship was demonstrated between the mothers of the control and traveller control groups. With regards to the father category, the bullying group and the bully – traveller group also demonstrated an ambivalent relationship. The control group was the only group to display a positive relationship with their father, the traveller and traveller control group both demonstrated ambivalent relationships but to a lesser extent than the bullying group. A consideration here is that the participants of these two groups were of primary school aged. Pre – school children tend to prefer the parent of the same sex (Ammons and Ammons, 1949) whereas, older

children prefer the parent of the opposite sex (Newell, 1932). It may be that the importance of the same - sexed parent is marked only at certain ages, perhaps in adolescence. Children feel closer to their mothers or tend to rate their relationships with their mothers in a more favourable manner than similar relationships with their fathers (Duvall, 1937 and Gardner, 1947). In a study of psychologically disturbed children both boys and girls tend to love their mother the most, they have great affection for their father but also possess a great deal of negative feeling towards him (Simpson, 1935). Delinquents demonstrated less positive emotions with reference to their father, and the least number of negative statements were given to their mother (Frost, 1969). The perception of feelings within the family of in - patients, out - patients and normal groups were examined. Both patient groups more frequently identified all family members as sources of negative feelings than normal controls (Philipp and Orr, 1978). The results of the mother and father category indicate clearly the lack of a positive relationship between bullying children and their parents. This may play a huge factor in the problems of the bullying child. This is supported by Olweus (1978) who found that a mothers negativism, characterised by a lack of warmth and involvement,

permissiveness of aggression and parent's power assertive child rearing methods were connected to a child displaying bullying behaviour. Further research by Roland (1987) found that negativism on the part of the mother and father and negativism between the parents also contributed to bullying in a child.

### 5.3. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY.

Children who bully experience ambivalent parental and sibling relationships that may in turn produce negative self – perceptions and the inability to openly express emotions. The family situation plays a large role in whether or not a child will begin to bully. Many professionals are unaware of the deep – seeded problems that children who bully may be suppressing. This research demonstrates that bullying is not simply the result of a vindictive child but that many other factors enter the equation. When schools deal with episodes of bullying, the normal practice is to discipline the bullying child without any understanding of the child’s motivation behind the behaviour. However, disciplining the child will only stop the bullying temporarily, and may even make the bullying child’s actions more violent towards the victims. These children need to talk to someone who is willing to listen, professionals need to redefine the methods of dealing with bullying children. Counselling sessions for the child and parental involvement may uncover the child’s problem and lead to a more cohesive family unit where the problem of bullying may no longer be a factor.

Research has varied in support of Eysenck's theory of anti – social behaviour with regard to extraversion. Allsopp and Feldman (1974) suggested that extraversion is related more to general types of misbehaviour whereas neuroticism and psychoticism relates to more specific types of misbehaviour. The bullying children in this research did not score higher than controls on the extraversion scales, whereas the traveller group scored higher on this scale than the controls and the bullying group. Travellers display bullying behaviour but they also demonstrate intense emotional reactions, in every day life. The Family Relations Test showed that the bullying group was unable to express their emotions freely, whereas the traveller group rarely holds their emotions back. Perhaps, a consideration of the lower levels on the extraversion scale may be connected to the participant's inability to express emotions.

#### 5.4. DISCUSSION OF NON – SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS.

The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior, found that the bullying group did not display higher levels of extraversion than the control group. Similar results were found by Lowenstein (1978) who also found high levels on the extraversion scale for non - bullying children. However, it must be remembered that extraversion is not the only personality predictor of delinquency and anti – social behaviour. The relationship is usually stronger when high levels of neuroticism are also involved and a high psychoticism level is an even better predictor, both of which are present in high levels in the bullying group. Eysenck's theory of criminality (1964) and the theory of anti – social behaviour (Eysenck, 1977), suggests that such conduct would be found more frequently in people with high scores on extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism dimensions of personality. Studies comparing the personality scores of juvenile offenders or adult institutionalized offenders with control groups have yielded mostly positive results (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1970b). Further studies, relating delinquency to extraversion among schoolboys, have consistently shown strong results in the predicted direction

(Allsopp, 1972 ; Allsopp and Feldman, 1974 ; Saklofske and Eysenck, 1980). However, it has become apparent that Eysenck's prediction relating to extraversion was correct only in part. Eysenck and Eysenck (1971) have shown that items measuring the sociability component of extraversion were not positively related to criminality while items measuring impulsiveness were positively correlated with criminality. In their study the prisoners scored significantly higher on psychoticism and neuroticism but lower on extraversion than controls as with the bullying group in the present study. This may be due to impulsiveness items in the extraversion scale used and the presence of numerous sociability items. Several reasons may be suggested for the lack of agreement in research findings. These include the effect of institutionalization on responses to items, the type of criminal or anti - social behaviour studied, the frequency of criminal activity and the possibility that some personality items and scales may be more or less diagnostic or predictive of anti - social behaviour. Several studies have failed to confirm Eysenck's prediction with respect to extraversion (Bartholomew, 1959 ; Fitch, 1962 ; Saklofske, 1977). West and Farrington (1973) in discussing the Cambridge Study of



Delinquent Development also reported that they were not able to confirm Eysenck's theory that neurotic extraversion is related to delinquency. Psychoticism and neuroticism predict specific type of misbehaviour whereas extraversion predicts general misbehaviour (Allsopp and Feldman, 1976). Considering the fact that bullying is a specific type of misbehaviour the personality of bullying children may perhaps be characterized more efficiently as possessing only higher levels of neuroticism and psychoticism than controls.

The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior found no differences in dissimulation across the groups which demonstrates that the bullying group did not have higher levels of dissimulation than the other groups. Furthermore, analysis of the bully - traveller group and the control - traveller control found the former group did not have higher levels of dissimulation than the latter group. Results found by Saklofske (1977) were similar as badly behaved boys scored lower on the lie scale than well - behaved boys. Furthermore, in a study of trainee rail men and criminals there was no difference on the lie scale, which suggests that the prisoners did not attempt to fake scores (Eysenck and Eysenck 1971). Dicken (1959) has

suggested three reasons for high scoring on the lie scale. Firstly, deliberate "faking" response. Scores on a variety of personality inventories can be increased or decreased depending on whether subjects are instructed to "fake good" or "fake bad" (Dicken, 1959). Lie scale scores are increased when the test is taken under "fake good" instructions (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1966). Life situation motivation to present oneself more positively, as in the employment section test, increased lie scores (Michaelis and Eysenck, 1971). Secondly, in terms of an ideal self – concept rather than a candid self – appraisal and finally, response in terms of an "honest" but un insightful and inaccurate self - assessment. Another possibility, suggests that a genuine conformity to social rules may result in raised lie scores. It was found that girls have a higher lie score than boys do, which suggests that girls can truthfully claim a more complete observance of conventional requirements than boys. Therefore, if this is the reason, then the difference between boys and girls could be accounted for, not by deceptiveness but by variations in conventionality (Eysenck, 1965 ; Hartshorne and May, 1928). Furthermore, in a study Eysenck and Eysenck (1969) found that introverts too have higher lie scores. This may be due to the fact that introverts tend to

have a more active "conscience" and are more conventional and conservative in ethical matters. Another factor in high lie scores is the subjects defensiveness (Dicken, 1959). People can vary substantially in respect of this variable, and the degree of lie scale depends partly on the stable individual personality structure, and partly on external motivational conditions. The control groups were very nervous throughout the tests, and were especially nervous when removed from class. The participants were not divided into bullying and control groups to protect the bullying children's identification however, this may have adversely affected the control groups. When this was mentioned to a principal, he said that the control group were probably not used to being removed from class and were frightened by it. They may have lied on the questionnaire to show how well behaved they really were. The traveller group had the highest levels of lying than any other group. However, the principal of the traveller's school informed me that lying was a severe problem among the students and that they had to be encouraged to be truthful. It appears that their tendency to lie may have over flown into the test situation.

### 5.5. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY.

The reliability of the Family Relations Test in the present study and those provided by Bene and Anthony (1957) and Kauffman (1968) are all encouraging. Questions arise in connection to the validity of the test, as the validity provided by Bene and Anthony (1957) relates only to the version for older children. This validity must be examined carefully as the statistical procedures and calculations provided in the manual appear to be incorrect or inappropriate. It was indicated that the agreement between test results and reports from case histories in relation to sibling conflict was provided at 64 percent and that the agreement was significant at the 0.05 level, yet when the statistical procedure, the chi - square was computed, the results demonstrated a probability of 0.98. Furthermore, the data presented in the manual was representative of small samples (Buros, 1959). Rabkin (1963) indicated that the assertion of a child's perception of family relations as the primary importance, is inconsistent with the method of validating the test results against independent, objective behavioural parameters or reports of individuals other than the child. Therefore, it appears that the construct validation

provided by Bene and Anthony (1957) is largely a controversial technique. However, other researchers have attempted to provide predictive validity for the Family Relations Test. These studies provide evidence that the Family Relations Test is useful in depicting conditions of intra - family dynamics among various clinical groups (Frankel, 1964 ; Kauffman, 1968) and deducing significant differences in the perceptions of disturbed and normal children (Kauffman, 1969). Furthermore, the ability of the test to distinguish differences among delinquent, clinic, non - reading, and normal groups was provided by Frost (1969) and results between well - adjusted and poorly adjusted school children have found consistent but non significant differences between the test answers (Van Slyke and Leton, 1965).

Further limitations of the test arise as Bene and Anthony (1957) provide limited reasoning for selection and grouping of specific test items. Analysis of the results of the test depends on the premise that the response items accurately represent the emotions of the participant and that each item has been compiled appropriately according to the types of emotion they imply. Although the majority of the items seem to represent the emotions that may be presumed to occur between members

of the family, there remains the possibility that the phraseology and linguistic style of some items could be misunderstood by children. It has been reported that the nomination of a certain response to a certain family member results in a relationship which may be difficult for an 8 or 10 year old to conceptualize or understand (Kauffman, 1968). By the age of 8, it is assumed that the child has an understanding of family relationships and role continuity in the family. However, the younger version of the test is recommended for children aged 6 to 8 years. It therefore raises the question of the extent to which the children falling into this age range comprehend the task at hand and therefore the extent to which this affects the results.

Limitations of the research arise in relation to the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior also. The intercorrelations of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior between the lie scale and the neuroticism and psychoticism scales were much higher than for the adults. Eysenck and Eysenck (1975) indicated that this may be as a result of the high lie scale scores for children, in particular the younger children. It is not known whether this implies that young children dissimulate

more than older ones or that they are more naïve and less able to introspect. Furthermore, limitations may arise in connection with the older students in their completion of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior. Eysenck and Eysenck (1975) suggest a verbal apology for 14 to 16 year olds with respect to the childish aspects of certain items and to explain that the questionnaire caters for a widespread age range. It may be a little naïve on the authors' part to presume that the students will bear with this and complete the questionnaire sensibly and this may therefore affect the results.

## 5.6. FURTHER RESEARCH.

1. Bullying in children is closely related to the type of relationship they have with their parents and the type of discipline methods used by the parents (Roland, 1987). An area of further research would be to examine the relationships that parents of bullying children have with their children and an examination of the child rearing methods used by these parents.
2. The present study found that an ambivalent relationship exists between the children who bully and their siblings. An area of further research would be to distribute the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Junior and the Family Relations Test to the siblings of bullies in order to compare to the two sets of results and to determine whether or not bullying runs in families.
3. Finally, an area of further research would be to compare the levels and type of bullying in children in urban and



rural areas, and to determine whether their personality and family relations varied in these different communities.

## 5.7. CONCLUSIONS.

The aim of this research was to determine the underlying reasons that children bully, in an attempt to help professionals to gain a deeper understanding of them. Several observations were made by the researcher during this study. These included immense loneliness and unhappiness among many of the children who bullied. Children referred to parents who worked away from home, who worked such long hours that they never had time to spend with them, parents who were separated but each persistently complained to the child about the other parent. One student who was a boarder said that she had no real home as her parents were split up and travelled with their respective partners during the school holidays, another child divulged a family secret that her parents refused to discuss, and many children referred to new born sibling with adoration, saying that they loved them more than anyone else. These images of troubled children are rarely associated with the image of a bully. A negative self – perception, the inability to express emotions and ambivalent familial relationships factor greatly in the life of a bully. Professionals must address these facts when dealing with a bullying child through rehabilitation

programmes such as counselling sessions for the child on his own and with his parents. The majority of research emphasizes the plight of the victim, and schools view the problem of bullying from this point of view. Schools implement programmes that encourage children to tell an adult when they fall victim to bullying, yet these attempts to reduce or eradicate bullying doesn't deal with heart of the problem, the bully himself. This research emphasises that the place to start, is with the bullying child. There are reasons that children bully, it may be viewed as a cry for help which many professionals miss. When the problem of bullying is approached from this point of view by all professionals, perhaps painful childhood memories of bullying can be eliminated, both for the victim and the bully.



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## CHILDREN'S QUESTIONNAIRE

All answers given are completely confidential, to be used for research purposes only.

Please circle the appropriate answer.

Full name:

Class / Year:

# APPENDIX A

1. If yes, how often?

once a week,

everyday,

most days.

If no, leave blank.

2. What happened?

3. If you were bullied, who did you tell?

Teacher, Parents, Friends, Nobody.

## BULLYING QUESTIONNAIRE.

All answers given are completely confidential, to be used for research purposes alone.

Please circle the appropriate answer.

Full name :

Class / Year:

1. Have you ever been bullied ?

YES      NO

2. If yes, how often :

once a week,

everyday,

most days.

If no, leave blank.

3. What happened?

4. If you were bullied, who did you tell?

Teacher, Parent, Friend, Nobody.

5. Do you think your school should try to stop bullying?

YES NO

6. Have you ever been bullied outside of school?

YES NO

7. Have you ever bullied anyone?

YES NO

8. If yes, did you do it because :

You were angry with the person,

It was fun,

It made you popular,

Gained you respect,

Other reasons.

If no, leave blank.

9. Do you know anyone in the school who bullies others?

Please give their full name and class.

**NB: Remember all information is completely confidential.**

December 1987

Dear Mr. Keenan,

I am a postgraduate student, with the Department of Education, at Trinity College Dublin. My supervisor is Dr. A.M. O'Keefe of the Arts - Learning Centre at Trinity. I am carrying out research investigating the causes of bullying and am inviting you and your school to participate in

# APPENDIX B

Yours Sincerely  
Irene Connolly



December 1997.

Dear Sir or Madam:

I am a postgraduate student, with the Department of Education, in Trinity College Dublin. My supervisor is Dr. A.M. O' Moore of the Anti - Bullying Centre in Trinity. I am carrying out research investigating the causes of bullying and am inviting you and your school to participate in this important research. I look forward to hearing from you, in the near future.

Yours Sincerely

Irene Connolly.

January 1990

Dear Parents,

I am a post-graduate student with the Department of Education at Trinity College Dublin. My supervisor is Dr. Paul O'Shea of the Age - Dementia Centre in Dublin. I am carrying out research investigating the causes of memory loss and require your permission to allow your child to participate in this important research. All information is completely confidential.

# APPENDIX C

Please return this form within five school days.

Name:

I give my permission to allow my child to participate in the above research.

Parent / Guardian's signature:

January 1998.

Dear Parents,

I am a post graduate student with the Department of Education, in Trinity College Dublin. My supervisor is Dr. A.M. O' Moore of the Anti - Bullying Centre in Trinity. I am carrying out research investigating the causes of bullying and require your permission to allow your child to participate in this important research. All information is completely confidential.

Yours Sincerely.

Irene Connolly.

-----  
----  
Please return this form within five school days.

Name:

I give my permission to allow my child to participate in the above research.

Parent / Guardian 's signature:

---

March 1998

Dear Parent,

I would like to thank you for your child's participation in the first round of the bullying research and would like to request your permission for participation in the next level. All information is completely confidential.

# APPENDIX D

Please return this form within five school days.

Student's Name: \_\_\_\_\_

I give my permission to allow my child to participate in the above research.

Parent / Guardian's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

March 1998.

Dear Parent,

I would like to thank you for your child's participation in the first round of the bullying research and would like to request your permission for participation in the next level. All information is completely confidential.

Yours Sincerely,

Irene Connolly.

-----  
Please return this form within five school days.

Student's Name: \_\_\_\_\_

I give my permission to allow my child to participate in the above research.

Parent / Guardian 's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_



## E.P.Q. (Junior)

Age.....Sex.....

**INSTRUCTIONS :** Please answer each question by putting a circle around the "YES" or the "NO" following the question. There are no right or wrong answers, and no trick questions. Work quickly and do not think too long about the exact meanings of the questions.

### REMEMBER TO ANSWER EACH QUESTION.

- |  |        |
|--|--------|
| 1. Do you like plenty of excitement going on around you?                             | YES NO |
| 2. Are you moody?  | YES NO |
| 3. Do you enjoy hurting people you like?   | YES NO |
| 4. Were you ever greedy by helping yourself to more than your share of anything?     | YES NO |
| 5. Do you nearly always have a quick answer when people talk to you?                 | YES NO |
| 6. Do you easily feel bored?   | YES NO |
| 7. Would you enjoy practical jokes that could sometimes really hurt people?          | YES NO |
| 8. Do you always do as you are told at once?   | YES NO |
| 9. Would you rather be alone instead of meeting other children?                      | YES NO |
| 10. Do ideas run through your head so that you cannot sleep?                         | YES NO |
| 11. Have you ever broken any rules at school?  | YES NO |
| 12. Would you like other children to be afraid of you?                               | YES NO |
| 13. Are you rather lively?   | YES NO |
| 14. Do lots of things annoy you?   | YES NO |
| 15. Would you enjoy cutting up animals in science class?                             | YES NO |
| 16. Did you ever take anything (even a pin or button) that belonged to someone else? | YES NO |
| 17. Have you lots of friends?  | YES NO |
| 18. Do you ever feel "just miserable" for no good reason?                            | YES NO |

- |   |        |
|---|--------|
| 19. Do you sometimes like teasing animals?  | YES NO |
| 20. Did you ever pretend you did not hear when someone was calling you?                       | YES NO |
| 21. Would you like to explore an old haunted castle?  | YES NO |
| 22. Do you often feel that life is very dull?   | YES NO |
| 23. Do you seem to get into more quarrels and scraps than most children?                      | YES NO |
| 24. Do you always finish your homework before you play?                                       | YES NO |
| 25. Do you like doing things where you have to act quickly?                                   | YES NO |
| 26. Do you worry about awful things that might happen?  | YES NO |
| 27. When you hear children using bad language do you try to stop them?                        | YES NO |
| 28. Can you get a party going?  | YES NO |
| 29. Are you easily hurt when people find things wrong with you or the work you do?            | YES NO |
| 30. Would it upset you a lot to see a dog that has just been run over?                        | YES NO |
| 31. Do you always say you are sorry when you have been rude?                                  | YES NO |
| 32. Is there someone who is trying to get their own back for what they think you did to them? | YES NO |
| 33. Do you think that water ski-ing would be fun?   | YES NO |
| 34. Do you often feel tired for no reason?  | YES NO |
| 35. Do you rather enjoy teasing other children?   | YES NO |
| 36. Are you always quiet when older people are talking?                                       | YES NO |
| 37. When you make new friends do you usually make the first move?                             | YES NO |
| 38. Are you touchy about some things?   | YES NO |
| 39. Do you seem to get into a lot of fights?  | YES NO |
| 40. Have you ever said anything bad or nasty about anyone?                                    | YES NO |
| 41. Do you like telling jokes or funny stories to your friends?                               | YES NO |
| 42. Are you in more trouble at school than most children?                                     | YES NO |
| 43. Do you generally pick up papers and rubbish others throw on the classroom floor?          | YES NO |
| 44. Have you many different hobbies and interests?  | YES NO |



- |   |        |
|---|--------|
| 45. Are your feelings rather easily hurt?   | YES NO |
| 46. Do you like playing pranks on others?   | YES NO |
| 47. Do you always wash before a meal?   | YES NO |
| 48. Would you rather sit and watch than play at parties?                            | YES NO |
| 49. Do you often feel "fed-up"?   | YES NO |
| 50. Is it sometimes rather fun to watch a gang tease or bully a small child?        | YES NO |
| 51. Are you always quiet in class, even when the teacher is out of the room?        | YES NO |
| 52. Do you like doing things that are a bit frightening?                            | YES NO |
| 53. Do you sometimes get so restless that you cannot sit still in a chair for long? | YES NO |
| 54. Would you like to go to the moon on your own?                                   | YES NO |
| 55. At prayers or assembly, do you always sing when the other are singing?          | YES NO |
| 56. Do you like mixing with other children?   | YES NO |
| 57. Are your parents far too strict with you?                                       | YES NO |
| 58. Would you like parachute jumping?   | YES NO |
| 59. Do you worry for a long while if you feel you have made a fool of yourself?     | YES NO |
| 60. Do you sometimes feel life is just not worth living?                            | YES NO |
| 61. Can you let yourself go and enjoy yourself a lot at a lively party?             | YES NO |
| 62. Do you sometimes feel that life is just not worth living?                       | YES NO |
| 63. Would you feel very sorry for an animal caught in a trap?                       | YES NO |
| 64. Have you ever been cheeky to your parents?                                      | YES NO |
| 65. Do you often make up your mind to do things suddenly?                           | YES NO |
| 66. Does your mind often wander off when you are doing some work?                   | YES NO |
| 67. Do you enjoy diving or jumping into the sea or a pool?                          | YES NO |

68. Do you find it hard to get to sleep at night because you are worrying about things? YES NO
69. Did you ever write or scribble in a school or library book? YES NO
70. Do other people think of you as been very lively? YES NO
71. Do you often feel lonely? YES NO
72. Are you always specially careful with other people's things? YES NO
73. Do you always share all the sweets you have? YES NO
74. Do you like going out a lot? YES NO
75. Have you ever cheated at a game? YES NO
76. Do you find it hard to really enjoy yourself at a lively party? YES NO
77. Do you sometimes feel specially cheerful and at other times sad without any good reason? YES NO
78. Do you throw waste paper on the floor when there is no waste paper basket handy? YES NO
79. Would you call yourself happy-go-lucky? YES NO
80. Do you often need kind friends to cheer you up? YES NO
81. Would you like to drive or ride on a fast motor bike? YES NO

## THE TEST ITEMS

### And Positive (affection) Feelings coming from Grand

10. This person in the family is really nice.
11. This person in the family is very kind.
12. This person in the family always looks after the others.
13. This person in the family has very good ideas.
14. This person in the family gives the best advice.
15. This person in the family is just what I need.
16. This person in the family always is very pleasant.
17. This person in the family is a great asset.

# APPENDIX F

### And Positive (affection) Feelings coming from Grand

18. I like to cuddle this person in the family.
19. I like to be kissed by this person in the family.
20. I sometimes wish I could stay in the same bed with this person in the family.
21. I wish I could keep this person here all the time.
22. I wish this person in the family would stay for me more than for anybody else.
23. When I get married I want to marry somebody who is just like this person in the family.
24. I like this person in the family to hug me.
25. I like to hug this person in the family.

### And Negative Feelings coming from the Grand

26. This person in the family is sometimes a bit too busy.
27. This person in the family says sometimes.
28. This person in the family sometimes gets other people's fun.

## THE TEST ITEMS

### Mild Positive (affectionate) Feelings coming from Child.

- 00 This person in the family is very nice.
- 01 This person in the family is very jolly.
- 02 This person in the family always helps the others.
- 03 This person in the family has the nicest ways.
- 04 This person in the family never lets you down.
- 05 This person in the family is lots of fun.
- 06 This person in the family deserves a nice present.
- 07 This person in the family is a good sport.
- 08 This person in the family is very nice to play with.
- 09 This person in the family is very kind hearted.

### Strong Positive (sexualised) Feelings coming from Child.

- 10 I like to cuddle this person in the family.
- 11 I like to be kissed by this person in the family.
- 12 I sometimes wish I could sleep in the same bed with this person in the family.
- 13 I wish I could keep this person near me always.
- 14 I wish this person in the family would care for me more than for anybody else.
- 15 When I get married I want to marry somebody who is just like this person in the family.
- 16 I like this person in the family to tickle me.
- 17 I like to hug this person in the family.

### Mild Negative Feelings coming from the Child.

- 20 This person in the family is sometimes a bit too fussy.
- 21 This person in the family nags sometimes.
- 22 This person in the family sometimes spoils other people's fun.

- 23 This person in the family is sometimes quick – tempered.
- 24 This person in the family is sometimes bad- tempered.
- 25 This person in the family is sometimes complains too much.
- 26 This person in the family is sometimes annoyed without good reason.
- 27 This person in the family is never satisfied.
- 28 This person in the family is sometimes not very patient.
- 29 This person in the family is sometimes gets too angry.

Strong Negative (hostile) Feelings coming from the Child.

- 30 Sometimes I would like to kill this person in the family.
- 31 Sometimes I wish this person in the family would go away.
- 32 Sometimes I hate this person in the family.
- 33 Sometimes I feel like hitting this person in the family.
- 34 Sometimes I think I would be happier if this person was not in our family.
- 35 Sometimes I am fed up with this person in the family.
- 36 Sometimes I want to do things just to annoy this person in the family.
- 37 This person in the family can make me feel very angry.

Mild Positive (affectionate) Feelings going towards Child.

- 40 This person in the family is kind to me.
- 41 This person in the family is very nice to me
- 42 This person in the family likes me very much.
- 43 This person in the family pays attention to me.
- 44 This person in the family likes to help me.
- 45 This person in the family likes to play with me.
- 46 This person in the family really understands me
- 47 This person in the family listens to what I have to say.

**Strong Positive (sexualised) Feelings goes towards the Child.**

- 50 This person in the family likes to kiss me.
- 51 This person in the family likes to hug me.
- 52 This person in the family likes to cuddle me.
- 53 This person in the family likes to help me with my bath.
- 54 This person in the family likes to tickle me.
- 55 This person in the family likes to be in bed with me.
- 56 This person in the family always wants to be with me.
- 57 This person in the family cares more for me than for anybody else.

**Mild Negative Feelings going towards the Child.**

- 60 This person in the family sometimes frowns at me.
- 61 This person in the family likes to tease me.
- 62 This person in the family sometimes tells me off.
- 63 This person in the family won't play with me when I would like it.
- 64 This person in the family won't always help me when I am in trouble.
- 65 This person in the family sometimes nags at me.
- 66 This person in the family sometimes gets angry with me.
- 67 This person in the family is too busy to have time for me.

**Strong Negative (hostile) Feelings going towards the Child.**

- 70 This person in the family hits me a lot.
- 71 This person in the family punishes me too often.
- 72 This person in the family makes me feel silly.
- 73 This person in the family makes me feel afraid.
- 74 This person in the family is mean to me.
- 75 This person in the family makes me feel unhappy.
- 76 This person in the family is always complaining about me.
- 77 This person in the family does not love me enough.

### Maternal Over - Protection.

- 80 Mother worries that this person in the family might catch cold.
- 81 Mother worries that this person in the family might get ill.
- 82 Mother worries that this person in the family might get run over.
- 83 Mother worries that this person in the family might get hurt.
- 84 Mother worries that something might happen to this person in the family.
- 85 Mother is afraid to let this person in the family run about too much.
- 86 Mother is afraid to let this person in the family play with rough children.
- 87 Mother worries that this person in the family doesn't eat enough.

### Paternal Over – Indulgence.

- 90 This is the person in the family father makes too big a fuss about.
- 91 This is the person in the family father pays too much attention to.
- 92 This is the person in the family father spoils too much.
- 93 This is the person in the family father spends too much time with.
- 94 This is the person in the family father likes best.

### Maternal Over – Indulgence.

- 95 This is the person in the family mother makes too much fuss about.
- 96 This is the person in the family mother pays too much attention to.
- 97 This is the person in the family mother spoils too much.
- 98 This is the person in the family mother spends too much time with.

99 This is the person in the family mother likes best.

# APPENDIX G



# APPENDIX G

## THE TEST ITEMS

### Form for Young Children

(...stands for the name by which the child is usually called.

#### Positive Feelings Coming from Child.

- 00 N...thinks you are nice. Who is nice?
- 01 N...loves you. Whom does N...love?
- 02 N...likes to play in your bed. In whose bed does N...like to play?
- 03 N...likes to give you a kiss. Whom does N...like to kiss?
- 04 N...likes to sit on your lap. On whose lap does N...like to sit?
- 05 N...likes to be your little boy (girl). Whose little boy (girl) is N...?
- 06 N...likes to play with you. Whom does N...like to play with?
- 07 N...likes to go for walks with you. Who should take N...for walks?

#### Negative Feelings Coming from Child.

- 10 N...thinks you are naughty. Who is naughty?
- 11 N...doesn't like you. Who is it that N...doesn't like?
- 12 N...thinks you are bad. Who is bad?
- 13 N...would like to spank you. Whom would N...like to spank?
- 14 N...wants you to go away. Whom would N...send away?
- 15 N...hates you. Who is it that N... hates?
- 16 N...thinks you are nasty. Who is nasty?
- 17 You make N...angry. Who makes N...angry?

#### Positive Feelings Going Towards Child.

- 20 You like to play with N... Who likes to play with N...?
- 21 You like to kiss N... Who likes to kiss N...?
- 22 You smile at N... Who smiles at N...?

- 23 You make N...feel happy. Who makes N...feel happy?
- 24 You like to hug N...Who loves N... ?
- 25 You love N...Who loves N... ?
- 26 You are nice to N...Who is nice to N... ?
- 27 You think N...is a nice little boy (girl). Who thinks that N... is a nice little boy (girl)?

#### Negative Feelings Going Towards the Child.

- 30 You smack N...Who smacks N... ?
- 31 You make N...sad. Who makes N...sad?
- 32 You scold N...Who scolds N... ?
- 33 You make N... cry. Who makes N...cry?
- 34 You get angry with N...Who gets angry with N... ?
- 35 You say N...is naughty. Who says N... is naughty?
- 36 You say N...is a bad boy (girl). Who says N...is a bad boy (girl)?
- 37 You don't like N...Who doesn't like N... ?

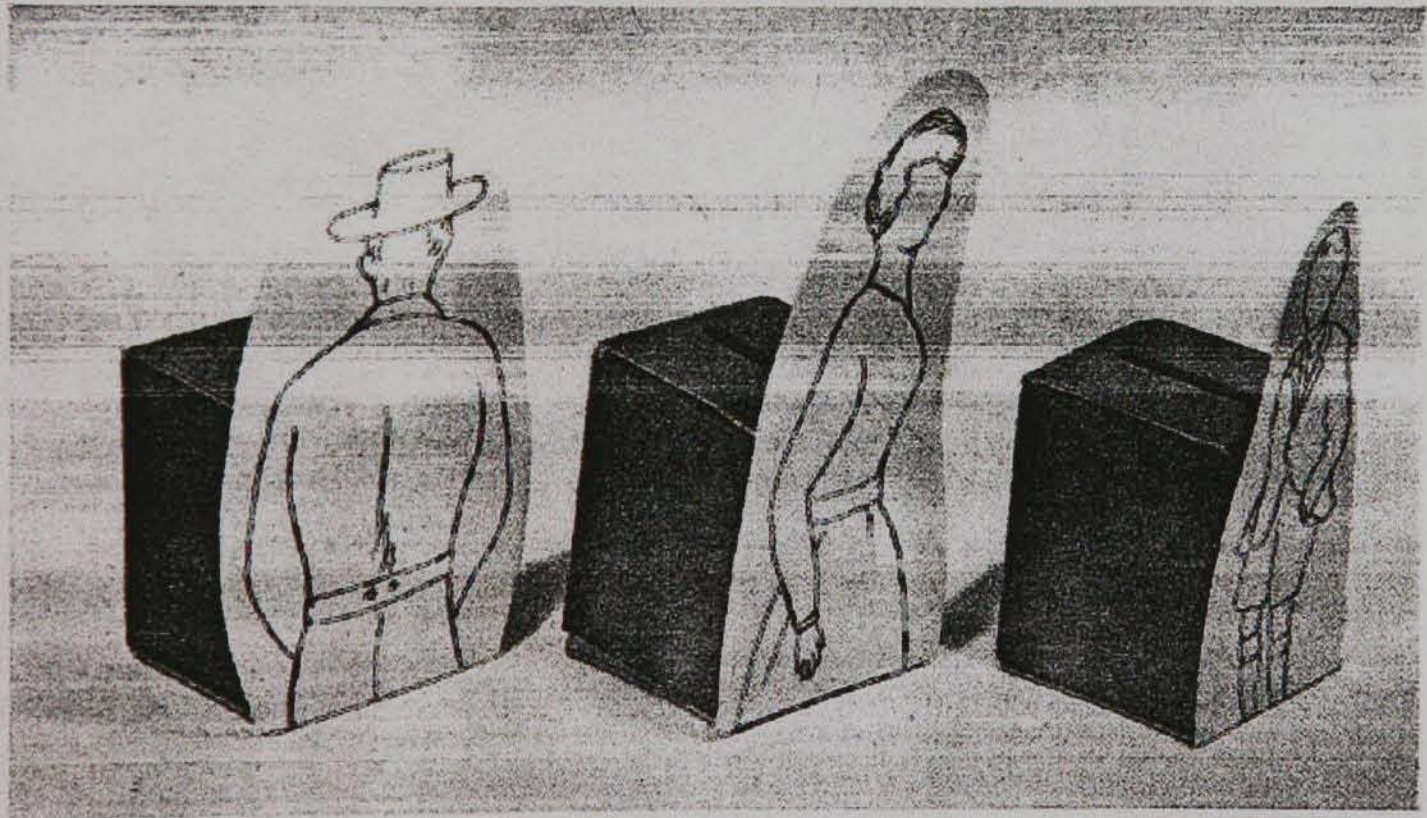
#### Dependence.

- 40 N...wants you to tuck him (her) into bed at night. Who should tuck N...in at night?
- 41 N...wants you to give him (her) his (her) dinner. Who should give N... his (her) dinner?
- 42 N... wants you to help him (her) with his (her) bath. Who should N... help with his (her) bath?
- 43 N...likes to come to you when he (she) has hurt himself (herself). Who is it N... wants when he (she) has hurt himself (herself)?
- 44 N...wants you to mend his (her) toys when they are broken. Who should mend N... 's toys when they are broken?
- 45 N...wants you to help him (her) get dressed in the morning. Who should help N...get dressed in the morning?
- 46 N...likes you to be with him (her) when he (she) is not feeling well. Who is it N...wants when he (she) is not well?

47 N...wants you to come when he (she) is frightened. Who is it N...wants to come when he (she) is frightened?

## APPENDIX H

# APPENDIX H



# APPENDIX I

**FAMILY RELATIONS TEST**  
**SCORING SHEET FOR OLDER CHILDREN**

Name: ..... Age: ..... Sex: .....

Name, age, sex of siblings: 1. .... 2. ....

3. .... 4. .... 5. .... 6. ....

Others in family: 1. .... 2. .... 3. ....

OUTGOING FEELINGS		N	S	F	M	SIBLINGS						OTHERS					
						1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3			
	00																00
	01																01
	02																02
	03																03
	04																04
	05																05
	06																06
	07																07
	08																08
	09																09
POSITIVE MILD TOTAL																	
	10																10
	11																11
	12																12
	13																13
	14																14
	15																15
	16																16
	17																17
POSITIVE STRONG TOTAL																	
	20																20
	21																21
	22																22
	23																23
	24																24
	25																25
	26																26
	27																27
	28																28
	29																29
NEGATIVE MILD TOTAL																	
	30																30
	31																31
	32																32
	33																33
	34																34
	35																35
	36																36
	37																37
NEGATIVE STRONG TOTAL																	

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INCOMING FEELINGS		N	S	P	H	SIBLINGS						OTHERS				
						1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3		
POSITIVE MILD TOTAL	40															40
	41															41
	42															42
	43															43
	44															44
	45															45
	46															46
	47															47
POSITIVE STRONG TOTAL	50															50
	51															51
	52															52
	53															53
	54															54
	55															55
	56															56
	57															57
NEGATIVE MILD TOTAL	60															60
	61															61
	62															62
	63															63
	64															64
	65															65
	66															66
	67															67
NEGATIVE STRONG TOTAL	70															70
	71															71
	72															72
	73															73
	74															74
	75															75
	76															76
	77															77
OVERPROTECTION OVERINDULGENCE	80															80
	81															81
	82															82
	83															83
	84															84
	85															85
	86															86
	87															87
Maternal Overprotection TOTAL	90															90
	91															91
	92															92
	93															93
	94															94
Paternal Overindulgence TOTAL	95															95
	96															96
	97															97
	98															98
	99															99
Maternal Overindulgence TOTAL																

# APPENDIX J

### QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

	N	S	F	M	SIBLINGS						OTHERS			
					1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	
Outgoing positive mild														
Outgoing positive strong														
SUM OF OUTGOING POSITIVE														
Outgoing negative mild														
Outgoing negative strong														
SUM OF OUTGOING NEGATIVE														
Incoming positive mild														
Incoming positive strong														
SUM OF INCOMING POSITIVE														
Incoming negative mild														
Incoming negative strong														
SUM OF INCOMING NEGATIVE														
<b>TOTAL INVOLVEMENT</b>														
Outgoing positive mild														
Incoming positive mild														
SUM OF POSITIVE MILD														
Outgoing positive strong														
Incoming positive strong														
SUM OF POSITIVE STRONG														
Outgoing negative mild														
Incoming negative mild														
SUM OF NEGATIVE MILD														
Outgoing negative strong														
Incoming negative strong														
SUM OF NEGATIVE STRONG														

# APPENDIX K



## SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Discrepancies between child's family circle and sociological family:

---

Content of items which expressed feelings of particular significance in relation to various members of the family:

---

Members of the family in order of total involvement:

---

Egocentric responses:

---

Members receiving

Mainly positive feelings:

Ambivalent feelings:

Mainly negative feelings:

---

Members from whom the child receives

Mainly positive feelings:

Ambivalent feelings:

Mainly negative feelings:

---

Discrepancy between outgoing and incoming positive and negative feelings:

---

Defence mechanisms indicated by test:

---

Degree of inhibition or dysinhibition of positive feelings:

---

Degree of inhibition or dysinhibition of negative feelings:

---

Recipients of dependency feelings:

---

Person who is

Main object of love:

Main source of love:

Main object of hostility:

Main source of hostility:

---

OTHER REMARKS









