

Bullying, Victimization and Bystander's Behavior in School Children: Role of Ecological Factors

By

Sanam Nawaz



NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES

ISLAMABAD

September 2025

**Bullying, Victimization and Bystander's Behavior in School Children: Role
of Ecological Factors**

By

Sanam Nawaz

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF**

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

In Psychology

To

**DEPARTMENT OF APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**



**NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES
ISLAMABAD**

© Sanam Nawaz, 2025



**NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**

THESIS AND DEFENSE APPROVAL FORM

The undersigned certify that they have read the following thesis, examined the defense, are satisfied with the overall exam performance, and recommend the thesis to the Faculty of Applied Psychology for acceptance.

Thesis Title: Bullying, Victimization and Bystander's Behavior in School Children: Role of Ecological Factors

Submitted by: Sanam Nawaz Registration #: 804- PhD/Psy/F18

Doctor of Philosophy
Degree name in full

Psychology
Name of Discipline

Asst Prof. Dr. Asia Mushtaq
Name of Research Supervisor

Signature of Research Supervisor

Prof. Dr. Muhammad Riaz Shad
Name of Dean (FSS)

Signature of Dean (FSS)

Maj Gen Shahid Mahmood Kayani, HI (M), Retd.
Name of Rector NUML

Signature of Rector

Date

FOREIGN EVALUATORS

Barbara J. Kaminski, Ph.D.

Professor of Psychology
George Mason University/Mary Baldwin
University, Virginia USA.

Lawrence H. Gerstein, Ph.D.

Professor of Psychology
Department of Counseling
Psychology, Social Psychology, and
Counseling
Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana USA

AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I, Sanam Nawaz

Daughter of Shahnawaz

Registration # 804- PhD/Psy/F18

Discipline Psychology

Candidate of **Doctor of Philosophy** in psychology at the National University of Modern Languages do hereby declare that the thesis **“Bullying, Victimization and Bystander’s Behavior in School Children: Role of Ecological Factors”** submitted by me in partial fulfillment of Doctorate degree, is my original work, and has not been submitted or published earlier. I also solemnly declare that it shall not, in future, be submitted by me for obtaining any other degree from this or any other university or institution.



Signature of Candidate

SANAM NAWAZ
Name of Candidate

17th November 2025.

Date

Dedicated to

The Prophet of Love, Peace and Mercy

Muhammad (Peace Be Upon Him), My Treasured Parents, My Husband

And

My Kids

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | Page No |
|--|---------|
| List of Tables | I |
| List of Figures | IV |
| List of Appendices | V |
| Acknowledgments | VI |
| Abstract | VIII |
| Chapter 1: Introduction | 1 |
| Role of School and Classroom Climate in Bullying | 9 |
| Factors of Bullying | 11 |
| Types of Bullying | 22 |
| Prevalence of Bullying | 27 |
| Victimization | 30 |
| Bystander's Behavior | 37 |
| Importance of Bystanders | 38 |
| Frequencies of Bullying, Victimization and Bystanders behavior in Genders | 45 |
| Theories Related to Bullying, Victimization and Bystander's Behavior | 55 |
| Defiance Theory | 56 |
| Integrated Cognitive Antisocial Potential (ICAP) | 57 |
| Dominance Theory | 58 |
| Attraction Theory | 59 |
| Social Cognitive Theory | 60 |
| Homophily Theory | 61 |
| Role of Ecological Factors in Bullying, Victimization and Bystander's Behavior | 64 |
| Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model | 66 |
| Literature from Pakistan | 72 |
| Proposed Model of the Study | 85 |
| Rationale of the Study | 86 |
| Chapter 2: Methodology | 91 |
| Phase I: Pilot Testing and Translation of measures | |
| Phase II: Main Study (Hypothesis Testing) | |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Sample | 95 |
| Measures | 101 |
| Procedure | 104 |
| Analysis Plan | 105 |
| Chapter 3: RESULTS | 107 |
| Phase I: Psychometric Analysis of Study Measures | |
| Reliability Analysis | |
| Confirmatory Factor Analysis of FBS in Pakistani Sample | |
| Phase II: Descriptive Analysis of Demographic and Study Variable | 137 |
| Structural Equation Modeling Frameworks | |
| Bullying Measurement Model | |
| Victimization Measurement Model | |
| Bystanders Measure Model of Moderation | |
| Chapter 4: DISCUSSION | 200 |
| Contribution of Ecological Factors in the Development of Bullying Behavior | 214 |
| Contribution of Ecological Factors in Experience of Victimization | 215 |
| Moderating Role of Bystander's Noticing Behavior | 221 |
| Limitations and Future Directions | 222 |
| Implications of Study | 224 |
| REFERENCES | 229 |

LIST OF TABLES

| | |
|--|-----|
| Table 1 Descriptive and Psychometric Properties of FBS | 108 |
| Table 2 Factor Loadings on Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N=500) | 110 |
| Table 3 Model Fit Indices for 2 Factors Model of FBS | 113 |
| Table 4 Inter Item Total Correlation of FBS and Bystander's Behavior Scales (N=500) | 114 |
| Table 5 Inter Item Total Correlation of SDQ and TOCA-R (N=500) | 117 |
| Table 6 Inter Item Total Correlation of School and Teacher Belongingness Scale (N=500) | 120 |
| Table 7 Inter Item Total Correlation of Alabama Parenting and Family Relations Scale (N=500) | 123 |
| Table 8 Inter Item Total Correlation Family Relation Scale (N=500) | 126 |
| Table 9 Inter Item Total Child Temperament Scale(N=500) | 131 |
| Table 10 Descriptives of the Study Participants (N=500) | 137 |
| Table 11 Psychometric Properties of the Study Variables (N=500) | 140 |
| Table 12 Correlations between Bullying, Victimization, And Bystander's Behavior with Child Temperament (N=500) | 143 |
| Table 13 Correlations between Bullying, Victimization, And Bystander's Behavior Parenting and Family Factors(N=500) | 144 |
| Table 14 Correlations between Bullying, Victimization, And Bystander's Behavior with Child Behavioral Problem (N=500) | 145 |
| Table 15 Correlation between Bullying, Victimization and Bystander's Behavior with Teacher Observation and School Belongingness (N=500). | 147 |
| Table 16 Multiple Regression Analysis between Bullying and Child Temperament (N=500) | 149 |
| Table 17 Multiple Regression Analysis between Victimization and Child Temperament (N=500) | 150 |
| Table 18 Multiple Regression Analysis between Bullying and Parenting Factors (N=500) | 153 |
| Table 19 Multiple Regression Analysis between Victimization and Parenting Factors | 154 |

| | | |
|----------|--|-----|
| | | III |
| Table 20 | Multiple Regression Analysis between Bullying and Family Related Factors | 155 |
| Table 21 | Multiple Regression Analysis between Victimization and Family Related Factors | 156 |
| Table 22 | Multiple Regression Analysis between Bullying and Teacher Observations and School belongingness (N=500) | 159 |
| Table 23 | Multiple Regression Analysis between Victimization and Teacher Observations and School belongingness (N=500) | 160 |
| Table 24 | Multiple Regression Analysis between Bullying, Victimization and Child Behavioral Problems | 163 |
| Table 25 | Mean Comparisons of Bullying and Victimization across Demographics Variables | 167 |
| Table 26 | Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Post Hoc Comparison of Age Groups in Relation to Bullying and Victimization (N=500) | 169 |
| Table 27 | Model Fit Indices for Structural Equation Modeling for Bullying | 173 |
| Table 28 | Path model of Bullying | 175 |
| Table 29 | Path model of Victimization | 181 |
| Table 30 | Model Fit Indices for Structural Equation Modeling for Victimization | 184 |
| Table 31 | Moderating Effect of Bystander Behavior in The Relationship of Bullying and Child Behavioral Problems | 187 |
| Table 32 | Moderating Effect of Bystander Behavior and Gender in The Relationship of Bullying and Child Behavioral Problems | 190 |
| Table 33 | Moderating Effect of Bystander Behavior and Age in The Relationship of Bullying and Child Behavioral Problems | 193 |
| Table 34 | Moderating Effect of Bystander Behavior and Age in The Relationship of Victimization and Child Behavioral Problems | 196 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| | |
|--|-----|
| Figure 1 Proposed Model of the Study | 85 |
| Figure 2 Factor structure of the Urdu version of Forms of Bullying Scale | 112 |
| Figure 3 Scree plot of three factor model of FBS | 113 |
| Figure 4 Bullying within the Structural Equation Modeling Framework | 171 |
| Figure 5 Bullying SEM Model | 172 |
| Figure 6 Victimization within the Structural Equation Modeling Framework | 179 |
| Figure 7 Victimization SEM Model | 180 |
| Figure 8 Measurement Model of Moderation of Bystander Between Victimization / Bullying and Child Behavioral Problems | 186 |
| Figure 9 Moderating Effect of Bystander Behavior in The Relationship of Bullying and Child Behavioral Problems | 188 |
| Figure 10 Moderating Effect of Bystander Behavior and Gender in The Relationship of Bullying and Child Behavioral Problems | 191 |
| Figure 11 Moderating Effect of Bystander Behavior and Age in The Relationship of Bullying and Child Behavioral Problems | 194 |
| Figure 12 Moderating Effect of Bystander Interpretation Behavior and Age in The Relationship of Victimization and Child Behavioral Problems | 198 |
| Figure 13 Moderating Effect of Bystander Decision Implementation Behavior and Age in The Relationship of Victimization and Child Behavioral Problems | 199 |
| Figure 14 Moderating Effect of Bystander Intervention Behavior and Age in The Relationship of Victimization and Child Behavioral Problems | 200 |

LIST OF APPENDICES

| | |
|------------|---------------------------|
| Annexure A | Informed Consent |
| Annexure B | Participant's particulars |
| Annexure C | Child Measures in Urdu |
| Annexure D | Parents Measures in Urdu |
| Annexure E | Teachers Measures in Urdu |
| Annexure F | Scales Permission |

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost, I owe a debt of gratitude to Allah Ta'ala, who provided me with the courage and strength I needed to effectively fulfill my vow.

Without the support of numerous people in my life, I could not have accomplished this goal.

This is my chance to express my gratitude for their assistance.

I want to express my gratitude to Dr. Asia Mushtaq, my wonderful supervisor, for all her help, guidance, and support throughout my PhD program. I really thank you for all the effort you took to assist me. I sincerely appreciate the course. Your talk was delightful, and I thoroughly appreciated your amazing sense of humor. I appreciate your constant support, direction, and faith in me. My life has been greatly impacted by you, and I will always be grateful. It is impossible for me to express how much your enthusiasm for teaching and commitment to my development have inspired me. I am grateful to you for using your expertise and concern to mold my future.

I would especially like to say thank you to the students who took part in our research, as well as the administrators, instructors, and parents who helped at the school. I like the cooperative attitude of the HOD, faculty, administrative personnel of Psychology department.

I would like to say special thanks to my classmate and friend Arooj Najmusaqib. Your support, kindness, and understanding mean the world to me, and I am so grateful to have you in my life. Thank you for always being there for me. I truly appreciate you and everything you do. Words are just words.

I want to thank Muhammad Nadeem Sohail, my husband , next. I dedicate this dissertation to

my spouse, who has been an inspiration, motivator, and source of strength for me over this entire process. Having you as my partner in this dance called life is a true blessing. Me and You, I adore you so much! Your encouragement lifted my spirits while I was feeling low. Without you, I could not have completed this.

I owe my parents a debt of gratitude for their unwavering prayers, love, and support. I'm grateful to you both for giving me the courage to pursue my aspirations and aim high. My sincere gratitude also goes out to my sisters and younger brother.

Last but not the least; I gratefully express my gratitude to my kids Muhammad Talha Sohail, Eshaal Sohail and my lil' angel Minaal Sohail. I could never have imagined becoming stronger, better, or more fulfilled than I am now because of you guys. To the moon and back, I adore you. I am appreciative of everyone who has supported me in my quest to realize my dream.

Sanam Nawaz

ABSTRACT

Bullying and victimization are observed during the preschool years and become increasingly common in elementary schools. In modern-day Pakistan, violence and hostility have emerged as some of the most significant and serious social issues. This study provides a comprehensive examination of the ecological factors that impact bullying, victimization, and bystander conduct in school-aged children. The research was conducted in two distinct phases. The first phase aimed to translate and validate the study instruments in Urdu. The second phase, which was the main study, focused on estimating the bullying and victimization behaviors and examining the interactive relationships between ecological factors (child, family, parenting and school), bullying, victimization, and the behaviors of bystanders. The main study was conducted on the school children ($N = 500$, 48.2% girls) enrolled in four public schools of Rawalpindi, Pakistan. The participants were in the fourth grade, and their ages range from 10 to 12 years ($M = 11.06$, $SD = 1.01$). An extensive range of assessments, such as the forms of bullying and victimization scale, Bystander intervention scale, Alabama Parenting Questionnaire, Family Relations Scale, Early Adolescence Temperament Questionnaire, Strength & Difficulty Questionnaire, Teacher Observation of Classroom Assessment and School Attitudes Scale, were applied. The analyses were carried out using SPSS 21, AMOS 21 and MACRO PROCESS. Our results demonstrated the significant association between bullying behavior and externalizing issues such as disruptive behavior, hyperactivity, and peer problems. Additionally, victimization is associated with internalizing problems like emotional challenges. The study emphasizes the preventive function of bystander involvement by demonstrating the adverse relationship between positive bystander behavior and both externalizing and internalizing disorders. There is a clear gender disparity, as males indicate greater participation in both bullying and being victimized. Regarding role of ecological factors, bullying behavior is inversely related to effortful control and attachment, but positively related to surgency and negative affect when considering child temperament. Parenting styles have a substantial impact on these behaviors. Positive parenting behaviors are associated with

a decrease in bullying, however Inconsistent Discipline is linked to an increase in bullying. In a similar vein, inadequate monitoring and supervision elevates victimization while positive involvement decreases it. The school environment, namely the sense of belongingness among students and teachers, significantly influences the occurrence of bullying and victimization behaviors. By employing Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), the complex ecological factors that contribute to bullying and victimization are highlighted. This encompasses the notable influence of conduct problems, which are affected by inconsistent disciplinary measures, as well as the predictive function of poor child temperament and physical punishment. Deviant views shared within a family are found to be indicators of different behavioral issues. The study's distinctive feature is its investigation of the moderating effects of bystander behavior. The findings suggest that the influence of bullying on child behavioral issues is contingent upon gender and is regulated by bystander's notice behavior. The interpretation of bystanders has a crucial role in predicting a reduction in child behavioral problems, highlighting the importance of bystanders' perspectives in occurrences of bullying. In conclusion, this study offers a thorough comprehension of how individual, familial, and school elements are intertwined and influence the dynamics of bullying and victimization. The study highlights the importance of comprehensive intervention strategies that address these multifaceted ecological factors, highlighting the critical roles of positive parenting, supportive school environments, and proactive bystander behavior in reducing bullying and promoting a safer educational environment for children.

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

Over the last two decades, bullying has garnered considerable attention among both researchers and practitioners. It is defined as an intentional and often repeated set of behaviors meant to demean, embarrass, cause physical harm to, and socially alienate the victim, and it is a specific form of repeated aggression that includes a power differential. It has a substantial impact on the lives of a considerable minority of children. Research shows that bullying is associated with externalizing problems, including poor social adjustment, higher likelihood for substance use, and other psychological problems in adulthood (Nansel et al., 2001), while victimization is associated with internalizing problems, including depression and anxiety (Bond et al., 2001), less self-esteem, and interpersonal problems (Jones & Smith, 1999).

Bullying represents a significant challenge in cultures that endorse individualism. Bacchini and his associates (1993) indicated that 40% of students had experienced bullying at least once during their schooling. Reviews of the prevalence of bullying behavior also vary by study (Modecki et al., 2014; Smith & Gross, 2006). Certainly, bullying is prevalent in elementary and middle school. At the same time, this developmental stage is significant for the development of identity and a positive self-concept. Bullying behavior has detrimental effects on both the victim and the perpetrator. It is expected that victims would have severe, immediate negative effects that will last for a long time. They frequently exhibit symptoms of hopelessness, anxiety, and other negative emotional consequences (Rigby, 2000). Furthermore, victims of bullying frequently experience a chronic lack of self-confidence (Ekman & Davidson, 1994).

Bullying

According to Olweus (2009), bullying has occasionally been described as persistent, hostile behavior that takes place within an attachment and is marked by unevenness in command or condition. Bullying can take many different forms, such as physical, social, or emotional, but it always entails an imbalance of power and a persistent, deliberate intent to cause harm in recognizable community contexts. When someone is susceptible to harmful behavior from one or more other individuals and finds it difficult to defend themselves, that person is being bullied. Some researchers support the idea that definitions of bullying are contextual, with how bullying is seen and explained heavily influenced by the vocabulary and civilizing tendencies prevalent in the environment in which people live (Espelage et al., 2015; Volk et al., 2014).

According to prevalent and widely used descriptions of bullying, it is “the deliberate and repeated ‘systematic’ exposure of an individual, or a group, to hostile behavior by a person or a group of a greater ‘power’ or strength’ than the victim (Olweus, 1993).’ Furthermore, the distinction of ‘power’ and ‘imbalance’ when describing acts of ‘bullying’ helps explain why fights or disputes between equals are not considered bullying (Olweus, 2009, 2010). Pervasive bullying, or psychological bullying, is described as an indirect and intentional pattern of harmful behavior perpetrated over time by one or more students against weaker victims (Studer & Mynatt, 2015; Walters, 2021; Wang et al., 2009).

Experiencing bullying in school raises the likelihood of developing mental health issues such as depression, anxiety, thoughts of suicide and self-harm, as well as physical symptoms and difficulties during childhood and adolescence (De Sousa et al., 2021; Hagquist et al., 2019; Källmén & Hallgren, 2021; Shahid et al., 2022). Adults who were victims of school bullying are

at a higher risk of developing mental and physical health problems. Moreover, in most cases of bullying, peers assume the role of bystanders (Jenkins & Nickerson, 2017; Saarento & Salmivalli, 2015; Troop-Gordon et al., 2019). As stated by the participant role model (Salmivalli, 2010), peers might assume various social roles in instances of bullying as a result of group dynamics, external expectations, and individual behavioral tendencies. There exist four potential bystander roles in addition to the roles of the bully and victim. Assistants are individuals that actively participate and support the main instigators of bullying (Bond et al., 2001; Copeland et al., 2013; Costello et al., 2003; Meltzer et al., 2003).

Reinforcers are individuals who endorse and hence sanction bullying by laughing or cheering. Outsiders are individuals who choose to remain silent and actively avoid engaging in conflicts. Defenders are individuals who provide aid and backing to the victim and may demonstrate disapproval towards the bullying or the bully, depending on whether their intervention is more overt (such as directly telling the bully to cease bullying) or covert (such as offering solace to the victim). The current study examined bystander actions in addition to bullying victimization because to evidence from many studies indicating that a higher number of students who support bullying and do not intervene to protect victims increases the likelihood of bullying persisting (Antti Kärnä et al., 2010; Salmivalli, 2010; Troop-Gordon et al., 2019).

School psychologists must understand the relationship between bullying and school contextual factors to develop prevention strategies. Understanding how such factors relate to various bystander behaviors in bullying is also important in bullying prevention because we need to increase defender behaviors and decrease reinforcement behaviors among students to reduce bullying victimization. Victimization and bystander responses in school bullying, according to

the social-ecological framework (Cicchetti et al., 2000; Espelage et al., 2015; Saarento & Salmivalli, 2015), are ecological phenomena in which contextual variables such as school climate and classroom climate play important roles (Hong & Espelage, 2012).

Bullying is a multidimensional social phenomenon in which individuals assume different roles (Jenkins & Nickerson, 2017; Pouwels et al., 2019). Salmivalli and colleagues examined six distinct participant roles (bullies, victims, bully-victims, bully reinforcers, bully aides, victim defenders, and outsiders) that children can play in the context of bullying (Salmivalli et al., 2010). In general, researchers categorize individuals involved in bullying into four groups: bullies (those who engage in bullying behavior), victims (those who are targeted by bullies), bully-victims (those who both bully others and are victimized themselves), and those who do not fall into any of these positions (not involved).

The prevalence of bullying among children and adolescents is a distinct societal issue that poses a threat to mental and general health and may result in severe psychological disorders. Lately, for the first time, studies have pointed to bullying as the leading factor in the damaging psychological disturbances that accompany and predominate among adolescents and children, impairing their physical, psychological, and social health. In one national survey in Brazil (Malta et al., 2022), 7.4% of adolescents reported being bullied during the school years, and boys reported being bullied to a greater extent than girls. The consequences included and were not limited to loneliness, sleep disorders, school absenteeism, and risky behaviors (e.g., smoking). Other studies confirm and extend the findings in Brazil, estimating that 10% to 35% of adolescents in the studied population were bullied (Hosozawa et al., 2021; Nansel et al., 2001). Specifically, studies reported

bullying among boys in the range of 2.4% - 31.9%, and among girls in the range of 1.5% - 34.4% (Hosozawa et al., 2021). Many countries in the Far East, particularly Korea and India.

As a result, the occurrence and the nature of bullying can both vary by age group and sex. A study conducted by Hosozawa et al. (2021) found that boys are comparatively more likely to bully than girls. In addition, several other researchers (Hymel & Swearer, 2015) discovered that the incidence of bullying is highest amongst senior high school students and junior high students. These results demonstrate that bullying behavior alters with the passage of time, a reflection of social maturity, peer influence, and the emotional regulation of growing children. Bullying behavior brings emotional disturbance to victims and exacts a heavy price in several different aspects of life, including physical, mental, and social well-being. Over time, the cumulative effect of such negative experiences may wear away at one's resilience and lead to constant emotional distress. Many individuals consequently wind up suffering from mental problems such as higher levels of anxiety, diminished self-esteem, relationship difficulties, and signs of depression (De Sousa et al., 2021; Pengpid & Peltzer, 2019).

In extreme cases, people may even resort to committing suicide (Holt et al., 2015). These findings show that bullying is not just a behavioral problem but a matter of serious mental health, crying out for timely intervention. This study examines bullying as a major public health issue and points out the shortcomings in the field of child and adolescent mental health in Pakistan. The report calls for bridging awareness with practical policy suggestions by stressing the importance of early identification and prevention measures. This study is extremely concerned with the psychological effects of bullying on mental health. In our culture, we tend to address directly observable behaviors such as violence against women or abandonment from a psychological standpoint. Consequently, when good cause turns

silken and people use vulgar language to abuse others, that kind of bad action is usually passed over as normal while its hurtful emotional and psychological effects are forgotten. Thus, this cultural norm for violence is a sure sign that change is most needed in accepting behavior between family members, as well as discipline among school children. The findings of this research have important implications for the development of mental health policy targeting young people in Pakistan. Such policies should be introduced into various educational institutions and absorbed by parents nationwide. To create and maintain such a suitable environment, people must thoroughly understand both what is necessary and how this can be done. The role and duty of society, in particular parents and educational institutions, are major in caring for children and youths (Meter & Bauman, 2018). Creating public awareness and fostering empathy-based education is very important for the prevention of bullying and the improvement of emotional wellness among young people.

Because they repeatedly and deliberately hurt others over time, bullies are often described as people who harbor a hostile disposition and possess strength. It's thought that these types of people are headstrong, inpatient, overbearing, insecure, and - by implication - uncompassionate as well (Olweus 2010). These behavioral tendencies often lead to profound emotional instability and an ongoing problem with anger. Furthermore, according to Olweus (1993), such individuals display reduced anxiety levels and greater security, while at the same time they appear to feature ordinary levels of self-esteem. This suggests some bullies may not necessarily be acting from a place of low self-worth but rather because they want to exercise more control over others and maintain superiority. Instead, (often linked to) children's bullying continues in several settings - at

home as much as in school (Lane 1989). This indicates that such behavioral patterns might arise out of more general processes of social learning or family dynamics.

Bullies also tend to be more oppositional towards adults, and this behavior is characterized by defiance, defiance towards authority figures, and this opposition to authority can be seen as an extension of their need for dominance, which often shows itself in such forms as controlling others or intimidating them. According to Sullivan (Sullivan, 2010), students display bullying behavior mainly to attract attention from their peers and assert dominance within the social group. They have a liking for violent behavior, and their aggressive conduct, when unopposed or never reported, is reinforced. This lack of accountability can not only boost their strength, but it also makes aggression a part of everyday life in youth culture.

Bullies are usually not very popular individuals, but they may be respected by a certain group of children, rather than simply hated like their victims (Olweus 1997). This social approval can make their behavior more consistent and stable, providing them with a sense of belonging, as well as security. Instrumental bullies are more organized than other types of bullies and have higher intelligence, making it possible for them to keep up a good reputation among their peers. Such people are often shrewd in their behavior, using manipulation and social influence rather than open violence and confrontation to maintain dominance; thus, their actions are harder to detect or reverse. In addition, individuals are anticipated to excel academically and possess social competence and intelligence to exert influence over others in accordance with their own desires (Bowes et al., 2010; Smith, 2017; Treadway et al., 2013). Identifying them might be challenging because of their skillful manipulation, as they are equally favored by both teachers and students.

Typically, they exhibit a deficiency in empathy and are unable to perceive situations from another individual's perspective (Juvonen et al., 2000; Juvonen & Schacter, 2017).

There is an extensive amount of information on the detrimental impacts of bullying on the mental health and general wellbeing of bullied individuals. As previously stated, school-aged children and adolescents are disproportionately affected by bullying. Several investigations have also documented the presence of detrimental health and psychosocial issues linked to being a victim of bullying. In a study conducted by Santos and colleagues (Santos et al., 2015), the researchers had reported that victims-bullies during school contexts had feelings of fear, hopelessness, negative feelings, as well as frustration. The above feelings have the potential to increase their overall physical, psychological, as well as their social well-being. There is also past work that has been able to continually report common mental disorders among victims-bullies, including depressed behavior, tendencies to suicidal harm, suicidal behavior, as well as anxiety (De Sousa et al., 2021; Källmén & Hallgren, 2021; Shahid et al., 2022). There is also work that has been carried out (Källmén & Hallgren, 2021; Le et al., 2019) that indicates bullying during adolescence is connected with the development of depressive as well as anxiety disorders, alongside the likelihood of having suicidal feelings as well as suicidal behavior. Other works have been able to continually report that victim-bullies are depressed, anxious, alongside suicidal behavior. The above phenomena are capable of emerging even when bullying ends up disappearing altogether (Arseneault, 2017; Oliveira et al., 2015). PTSD symptoms were reported in certain instances (Shahid et al., 2022).

Role of School and Classroom Climate in Bullying

While there is no consensus on the precise definition and assessment of school climate, Bradshaw and colleagues (Bradshaw et al., 2014) provide a definition that encompasses the collective beliefs, values, and attitudes that influence the interactions between students, teachers, and administrators, and establish the boundaries for acceptable behaviors and norms within schools. School climate is a composite measure that encompasses the quality of relationships between teachers and students, the enforcement of rules and regulations, the level of safety within the school, and the sense of connectivity and belongingness among students (Eliot et al., 2010; González et al., 2023). The social-ecological framework underscores the significance of the school context, encompassing elements such as the school's climate, in shaping individual behaviors. Conversely, the risk and resilience perspective scrutinizes the risk factors that exist alongside protective elements within the school environment. It delves into how the overall quality of the school's climate can exert an influence on a student's probability of encountering favorable or unfavorable consequences (Wang et al., 2020; Wang & Degol, 2016).

For this reason, the affirmative school environment is assumed to be protective and associated with less aggressive behaviors and the victimization and perpetration of bullying (Thapa et al., 2013). This is supported by multiple studies (Fink et al., 2018; Hong and Espelage, 2012; Thornberg et al., 2018) as well. Zedan (2010) defined classroom climate as the dynamics of a social group as they play out in interactions between the teacher and pupils, and between pupils themselves. This includes the relationships between the members of the classroom as well as the degree of control the teacher exerts. While the broader school climate refers to the general environment of the school, and the climate of the classroom is a smaller, self-contained version,

to the climate of the school there is variation at the class and school level. The link between classroom climate and academic achievement has been researched (Reynolds et al., 2012). It is the relationship between the climate of the classroom and elements of bullying, victimization, and bystander behavior that lacks extensive exploration in literature. This is in part because of a lack of studies. For example, Stefanek and colleagues (Stefanek et al., 2011) showed that an adverse climate of the classroom, especially in terms of student relationships, was associated with elevated victimization.

Thornberg et al. (2018) acknowledge the importance of positive interactions in the class; they focus on how class ecosystems impact peer victimization. Other similar studies show that feeling warm, inviting, and positive support were triggers in the occurrence of defender responses during bullying. The importance of the classroom atmosphere is evident in the present study.

The present study aims to explore and clarify the importance of classroom interactions on peer victim behavior and bystander intervention in bullying. The impact of classroom ecology and atmosphere is starkly evident in the distinctions of bullying peer behavior prevalence, bystander intervention across various classroom environments, and is supported by several studies (Antti Kärnä et al., 2010; Bradshaw et al., 2014; Saarento & Salmivalli, 2015).

Authoritative School and Classroom Climate

The concept of an authoritarian school environment was introduced as a model to explain a conducive school atmosphere, drawing on Baumrind's classic research on authoritarian parenting, which demonstrated positive outcomes associated with this parenting style (Ashraf et al., 2019; Baumrind, 1989; Cornell et al., 2015; Eliot et al., 2010; Gregory et al., 2010;

Thornberg et al., 2018). The model defines the two key features of the school environment: support, namely, responsive, and structure, namely, demanding. In terms of substance, support is operational by degree, up to what degree the students can enjoy an environment of respect, warmth, concern, and open communication by their teachers. Structure involves systematic and objective implementation of school rules, high expectations for student performance, and rigorous academic demands. An authoritarian school environment is characterized by a significant level of support and structure. Recent studies suggest that a well-defined environment is linked to a reduction in bullying behavior and instances of school victimization (Cornell et al., 2015; Eliot et al., 2010; Gregory et al., 2010).

Age and Being Bullied

When looking at bullying on an individual-level, Age is an important risk and protective factor to consider. Studies indicate that bullying among students is less prevalent as they age (Jimerson et al., 2010; Scheithauer et al., 2006; Smith & Gross, 2006). This could be due to younger children having less developed social and assertiveness skills for coping with and countering bullying situations to stave off future occurrences (Smith et al., 1999). About the time of moving from elementary to middle or junior high school, students are more prone to this period of escalated bullying (Orpinas & Horne, 2006).

Factors of Bullying Behavior

Throughout adolescence, students spend more time among their peers and less time with their families. Because of the changes present in the adolescent stage, peer influences and increased dependence on technology serve to exacerbate bullying. Multiple studies have revealed

a positive association between bullying and adolescent mobile phone usage, which increases the risks of bullying or cyberbullying victimization for adolescents (Calpbinici & Tas Arslan, 2019; Méndez et al., 2020; Shin & Kim, 2023; Tsimtsiou et al., 2018). Slonje and Smith, (2008) state that cyberbullying poses more threat than regular bullying for three reasons: (1) it's not easy to escape; (2) it can reach a large number of viewers; and (3) it is often anonymous.

Individual factors. While twin studies provide scant evidence and have often sparked debate, there may still be genetic aspects underlying children's risk for victimization (Brendgen et al., 2011). It is believed that influences could occur through mechanisms related to temperament, cognitive and affective function, and social interaction patterns (Baldry & Farrington, 2005; Ball et al., 2008). On an individual level, physical and psychological disabilities or academic difficulties may be a significant reason to explain why children may experience more bullying victimization (Llewellyn, 2000). Other individual characteristics possible related risk factors are physical appearance, clothing style and color, temperament, and individual personality characteristics (Azeredo et al., 2015; Jimerson et al., 2010). A researcher noted an association between low self-esteem and the experience of being victimized, noting that the child has low self-esteem and competence that leave them feeling helpless in situations like being bullied (Tsaousis, 2016). It is important to note that individual factors do not exist in isolation but interface with more macro factors in the family, environment, and community, comprehensively in the bullying social-ecological framework.

Various traits and tendencies have been linked to bullying perpetration, including callous-unemotional traits, psychopathic tendencies, a preference for masculinity, emotional and behavioral problems, low empathy, impulsive behaviors, narcissistic traits, and antisocial

personality features (Fanti & Kimonis, 2012; van Geel et al., 2017; Zych et al., 2019). Some students who engage in bullying have been found to hold high levels of social intelligence and to be regarded as socially superior within their peer group (Vaillancourt et al., 2003), leading to a distinction of types of bullies based on social integration or marginalization (Farmer et al., 2015; Rodkin et al., 2015).

Being bullied by peers has been linked to poor physical health and poor school adjustment, which includes being unhappy, feeling unsafe, being truant, performing poorly, and, in some cases, dropping out (Calpinici & Tas Arslan, 2019; De Sousa et al., 2021; Farmer et al., 2015; Jimerson et al., 2010; Källmén & Hallgren, 2021; Shahid et al., 2022). Victimization has also been linked to a variety of internalizing and externalizing problems, such as loneliness and withdrawal, anxiety and social avoidance, depression and suicidal ideation, hyperactivity, delinquency, and aggression (Camodeca & Goossens, 2005; Fanti & Kimonis, 2012; Holt et al., 2015; Hong & Espelage, 2012; Pengpid & Peltzer, 2019; Walters, 2021). Unfortunately, the causal nature of these relationships is unclear. The social-ecological model's multi-directionality, along with the principles of equifinality and multifocality (Cicchetti et al., 2000), suggests that context plays a significant role in determining how individual factors contribute to or result from bullying involvement. An adolescent displaying violent behavior and diagnosed with conduct disorder may engage in bullying because of a predisposing feature commonly linked to conduct disorder. In contrast, adolescents who receive positive reinforcement for engaging in bullying, such as gaining higher social status or popularity, or obtaining material possessions, are more likely to persist in their bullying behaviors, escalate their aggression, and finally fulfill the criteria for a diagnosis of conduct disorder. Shy adolescents may exhibit increased susceptibility,

rendering them more attractive to potential victimizers. Individuals who experience bullying may exhibit a reserved and introverted disposition, maybe accompanied by feelings of anxiety, because of such mistreatment (Hymel & Swearer, 2015; Le et al., 2019).

Family Factors. The involvement of family members in gangs, inadequate parental supervision, a negative family environment, parental conflict, domestic violence, limited parental communication, a lack of emotional support from parents, authoritarian parenting, inappropriate discipline, and parental abuse have all been associated with engaging in bullying behavior (Ashraf et al., 2019; Bowes et al., 2010; Espelage et al., 2015, 2015; Espelage & Swearer, 2023; Jimerson et al., 2010; Nocentini et al., 2019; Papanikolaou et al., 2011). The findings support the idea that aggressive modeling and inadequate parental supervision are factors in bullying. However, it is unclear which factor causes the other, and the influence of families on bullying behavior, after accounting for genetic factors, is still unknown. Genetic factors have been found to explain 61% of the variation in bullying behavior (Ball et al., 2008). Understanding the role of the family on victimization continues to be difficult. Part of the issue is families vary widely in their emotional environment, communication styles, and discipline strategies which can all differently shape the socialization of the child. That said, certain family dynamics, notably abusive, neglectful, and overly protective parenting, have been connected to victimization (Duncan, 1999). These dynamics can limit the development of autonomy and social competence, which can leave children more susceptible to social exclusion and targeting.

Patterns of socialization within the family have been shown to affect the incidence of bullying and victimization (Baldry & Farrington, 1998; Paterson et al., 2007). Families are the first and most important environments in a child's life to learn social cue interpretation, emotion regulation, and conflict resolution.

Overly protective and enmeshed family systems contribute to the development of feelings of insecurity, dependency, and low self-esteem, which are all risk factors for victimization. These children may have difficulty self-advocating and problem-solving in social situations, which makes them prime targets for bullies. On the other hand, children who perpetrate bullying may come from families that are cold and unloving, have poor and inconsistent control and discipline, and engage in aggressive and violent behaviors. These children may be imitating the aggressive behaviors they see at home by using coercive methods to control their peers as a way of having emotional relief. The bully-victim group may arise from a tumultuous or oppressive familial context (Cooper & Nickerson, 2013). Bullying is additionally linked to the child being subjected to excessive criticism, mistreatment, and a setting characterized by aggression (Holt et al., 2015). Flouri and Buchanan (2003) suggest that parents who are negligent, uninterested, and uninvolved in their children's actions are more likely to be involved in bullying as perpetrators. Furthermore, they found that schoolchildren in England from homes that were not intact reported experiencing greater instances of bullying. However, no association was found between economic level and bullying. Bullying is believed to correlate with bigger family sizes. The presence of inadequate adult supervision during childhood and adolescence can intensify bullying (Espelage & Swearer, 2023; Jimerson et al., 2010). According to Azeredo and colleagues (2015), a family's low socioeconomic position had a greater impact on the likelihood of engaging in bullying behavior than the school's location in impoverished neighborhoods.

Bullying among adolescents is influenced by negative family contexts (Orpinas & Horne, 2006). It has been found in various studies that insufficient positive parent-child relations and communication patterns were associated with increased victimization (Bibou-Nakou et al., 2013, 2013; Nocentini et al., 2019; Papanikolaou et al., 2011).

Some researchers sought to examine the relationship between parental involvement and adolescent bullying by studying the relationships between these two variables (Moon et al., 2016). One study examining the role of family variables on children coping with being bullied found that mother warmth, sibling warmth, and family environment decreased the likelihood of being bullied (Bowes et al., 2010). They also stated that strong and nurturing connections with family were protective against the adverse effects of being bullied.

Several studies have indicated a relationship between family dynamics and bullying behavior among youths. Bibou-Nakou and colleagues (Bibou-Nakou et al., 2013) found in their qualitative research involving 90 students across 14 focus groups that those with less supportive parental relationships tend to exhibit more bullying behaviors. This idea is supported in Kuppens and colleagues' meta-analytic review (Kuppens et al., 2013) which, although describing a modest correlation ($r = 0.17$), still associates parenting style with bullying behavior in a large sample of 8,985 children and adolescents. These findings indicate that limited variations in parental warmth, consistency, and control may meaningfully affect children's social behavior. Goswami (2012) also recognized the role of familial environment when describing the correlation (although slight) between family relations and bullying behavior ($r = -0.013$) in a sample of 4,673 secondary students. Although the correlation coefficients may be small, this still demonstrates that family relations exert a continuous, cumulative influence with respect to social integration and the control of problem behavior. The impact of family and peer-related stressors on children's mental health and well-being is well documented (Källmén & Hallgren, 2021; Shahid et al., 2022). Chronic exposure to such contexts might result in persistent stress, poor emotional regulation, and improper coping, which can manifest as aggression or withdrawal in social situations. Negative social interactions in the family environment can also predict multiple forms of aggression in a school setting (Low & Espelage, 2013).

Low and Espelage's research, which included 1,023 middle school students, uncovered a gendered dimension to aggression in which boys exhibited more verbal and relational aggression and cyberbullying was predominantly perpetrated by girls. Such findings suggest that the forms aggression and bullying take are impacted by the socialization, coping and emotional regulation strategies taught and reinforced in the family.

Peer Factors. Youth spend a significant portion of their day interacting with peers in schools, neighborhoods, communities, and via social media, and bullying behaviors almost always occur within the peer context (D. Pepler et al., 2010). Bullying and victimization are more likely in classrooms with peer norms that support bullying and high peer conflict (Pepler & Craig, 1998; Salmivalli & Voeten, 2004). Bullying perpetration is additionally connected to being part of social circles comprising aggressive peers, a pattern that mirrors peer victimization. Furthermore, it is associated with the presence of negative relationships with classmates (Cornell et al., 2015; Eliot et al., 2010; Espelage & Swearer, 2023; Farmer et al., 2015). Nevertheless, the correlational design of this research has challenges in establishing causality, and some of these connections may only indicate homophily, the inclination to form relationships with those who have similar interests. The impact of peers on behaviors being accepted or challenged is exploitative. The imbalance of aggressors, supporters, and defenders (dominantly peers) shows the social disorder surrounding the phenomenon of bullying. This is the primary focus of many anti-bullying campaigns and strategies, emphasizing the role of peers as active supporters of anti-bullying campaigning. Inadequate social support within the school environment, characterized by a limited number of dependable and strong friendships or associations with peers who are not themselves vulnerable, can greatly increase the likelihood of becoming a victim. Recent findings have revealed that social rejection and ostracism exert a substantial influence on peer bullying.

One of the most thoroughly studied peer factors on school bullying is the role of bystanders. Observational studies indicate that the vast majority (85% to 88%) of bullying occurrences include two to four peers, as reported by Pepler et al. (2010). In contrast, bystanders often react in manners that promote rather than deter bullying (Antti Kärnä et al., 2010; Jenkins & Nickerson, 2017; Saarento & Salmivalli, 2015). According to a study by Craig and Pepler (1999), peer bystanders engaged in bullying activities themselves 21% of the time, intervened on behalf of victims a mere 25% of the time, and primarily observed themselves in a passive observing role (54%). This behavior could potentially be construed as approval of bullying. Data on peer perceptions show that about 20% of students are seen as encouraging bullying, and the final 7% are believed to be participants or sympathizers with bullying. This indicates that an active role of a significant number of students passively or actively reinforces the bullying cycle. Only 17% of students, the majority being girls, are acknowledged by peers as defenders of the victims. The disparity of the bullying cry between aggressors and defenders from their social peers shows the social disorder of the bullying phenomenon. The impact of peers on behaviors being accepted or challenged is exploitative. The imbalance of aggressors, supporters, and defenders (dominantly peers) shows the social disorder surrounding the phenomenon of bullying. This is the primary focus of many anti-bullying campaigns and strategies, emphasizing the role of peers as active supporters of anti-bullying campaigning.

Over time, individuals may become more passive and less likely to defend victims (Cheon et al., 2023; Troop-Gordon et al, 2019). This type of developmental change may be due to greater social pressures to conform, a fear of peer exclusion, or a lessening sense of moral responsibility in adolescent peer groups. Victim defenders do possess greater empathy (especially boys), Dr

social self-efficacy, social status (are more popular and liked), and to a greater degree than the victims themselves, and even the general peer group (Huitsing & Monks, 2018; Pouwels et al., 2019). This sense of social status may lead to expectations and confidence in one's capacity to intervene, which likely alleviates fears of retaliation, explaining why defenders' actions are reinforced from social and moral channels. Defenders are more likely to defend victims when social anger is present (Hymel & Bonanno, 2014; Miller et al., 2019). This is the reverse of the more commonly recognized sympathetic anger in adults and is likely the reason why empathic anger transformed in the case of the bystander to moral outrage.

Inadequate social support within the school environment, characterized by a limited number of dependable and strong friendships or associations with peers who are not themselves vulnerable, can greatly increase the likelihood of becoming a victim. Recent findings have revealed that social rejection and ostracism exert a substantial influence on peer bullying. Salmivalli (2010) asserts that bullying is occasionally employed to enhance one's popularity and establish social dominance. Bystanders play a significant role in the process of bullying. Individuals who exhibit pro-social behaviors, such as empathy, and possess a positive social reputation, could effectively and actively protect victims (Jenkins & Nickerson, 2017; Menolascino & Jenkins, 2018).

School Factors. The issue of bullying has been mostly focused on inside the school environment, and the overall atmosphere of the school, whether positive or negative, affects how often bullying occurs and how many students become victims of it (Espelage & Swearer, 2023; Papanikolaou et al., 2011; Saarento & Salmivalli, 2015; Wang et al., 2020; Wang & Degol, 2016). Inappropriate teacher responses, poor teacher-student interactions, lack of teacher support, and lack of participation in school activities are all linked to bullying and victimization (Cornell et al.,

2015; Eliot et al., 2010; Hughes et al., 2014). Students are less inclined to report instances of bullying if they perceive a school environment that is unfavorable (Unnever & Cornell, 2004). Nevertheless, there exists a reciprocal relationship between school environment and bullying/victimization, where bullying has a negative impact on the school climate and vice versa. School variables encompass various elements such as school atmosphere, school regulations and policies, anti-bullying programs, and teacher-student connections (Troop-Gordon & Quenelle, 2010). These components exert a substantial impact on both the student and the learning environment. Benbenishty and Astor (2005) proposed a heuristic model that focuses on the wider context of school violence. They argue that school-related variables have a more significant role in contributing to school violence than individual characteristics. Unfair and inaccurate regulations, along with their incompatible and controversial enforcement, might potentially escalate violent conduct and misconduct. Moreover, inadequate handling of disciplinary issues, insufficient collaboration between teachers and school administration, and an inflexible demeanor among teachers all contribute to the occurrence of school violence. As stated by Gottfredson and colleagues (Gottfredson et al., 2005), school violence is related to school size, classroom facilities, teacher-pupil ratio, and neighborhood.

Community/Cultural Factors. Other broader societal contexts, such as communities and the larger society, will also play a significant role. Higher rates of bullying are related to an unsafe or poor neighborhood environment, association with gangs, and economic disadvantages, which speaks to those larger community or cultural contexts. (Bradshaw et al., 2013, 2014; Cuesta et al., 2021; Estrada Jr. et al., 2018; Jansen et al., 2012). Bullying perpetration is also associated with exposure to violent television and video games (Keikha et al., 2020; Sağkal et al., 2022). Bullying

and victimization are more frequently present in communities where there is a demonstration of violence and/or a societal acceptance of violence; however, causality is not as well understood. Therefore, neighborhood violence, economic conditions, rates of violence in society, media, and economic inequality can all greatly influence levels of aggressive behavior among school-age children. Community demographic variables have been linked to the prevalence of child maltreatment, delinquency, antagonism, and other externalizing behaviors in children and adolescents (Mason, 2012).

There is a scarcity of research that investigates the socioeconomic and community aspects related to school bullying (Jimerson et al., 2010; Tippett & Wolke, 2014). There is a correlation between being exposed to violence in the community and engaging in school bullying (Benbenishty & Astor, 2005; Salmivalli & Voeten, 2004). The correlation between socioeconomic position and bullying has shown inconclusive results. Whitney and Smith (1993) established a robust negative correlation between these variables; however, a longitudinal study (Sourander et al., 2000) did not discover a significant association between socioeconomic level and bullying. Recent meta-analyses (Tippett & Wolke, 2014) conducted in the United States indicate that adolescents belonging to lower socioeconomic backgrounds exhibit a higher vulnerability to experiencing severe types of bullying. After examining the elements that affect student participation in bullying, inequalities in psychosocial skills and unhealthy peer interactions should be studied further to gain a better knowledge of the nature of bullying and victimization. The likelihood of a child becoming a bully or a victim can be influenced by how a child differentiates among emotional competencies and social abilities. Due to the concerning association of bullying with social and psychological problems (Alikasifoglu et al., 2007), these

problems certainly deserve attention with an appropriate theoretical framework that can outline the psychosocial mechanisms and relational intricacies of bullying.

Types of Bullying

Bullying is classified into several types in the literature. Bullying includes teasing and name calling, as well as social exclusion and more physical behaviors such as pushing, kicking, or fighting. Bullying can be classified as verbal, physical, or relational (Wang et al., 2009).

Verbal Bullying. Verbal bullying is the act of committing negative actions against another person using language or speech (Olweus, 1993). Verbal bullying can manifest itself in a variety of ways. Verbal taunting, for example, is commonly interpreted as teasing another child. It may also be portrayed as endangering the victim's life (Eliot et al., 2010). Name calling is also included in this category. Verbal bullying can be very general, but it can also target a victim's specific appearance, such as weight or race (Griffiths, 2005; Spriggs et al., 2007). According to Olweus' definition of bullying, verbal bullying must occur repeatedly and over time. The occasional teasing on the playground would not be considered verbal bullying. It must be done with the explicit intention of tearing the individual down through repeated verbal attacks. Verbal bullying can be perpetrated by both groups and individuals (Salmivalli et al., 1996). Verbal bullies may also select more than one victim at a time, particularly if the bullies are in a group. According to Wang et al. (2009), verbal bullying occurs 37.4% of the time in bullying situations. Verbal bullying was found to be the most used form of perpetration for female bullies in the same study, accounting for 34.7% of all cases.

Physical Bullying. Physical bullying is a common manifestation of aggressive conduct, characterized by recurrent adverse actions directed at physically harming an individual or a group, as delineated by Olweus (1993). This type of bullying is an interaction involving physical engagement with the person being bullied and includes actions such as pushing, kicking, hitting, biting, pinching, and taking and throwing away the victim's things (Arhuis-Inca et al., 2021; Scheithauer et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2009). Most of this behavior is overt (openly seen) and obvious (easy to see) with clear evidence of damage, distress, or injury. Because no hidden damage is possible with verbal teasing or bullying, cases of physical bullying are more likely to attract the attention of adult authority figures in settings such as schools (Knoff, 2007). However, similar to other forms of bullying, cases of physical bullying can go unreported because the victim fears retaliation or mistrusts the adult authority.

A key feature of physical bullying is the clear power imbalance that establishes the bully as superior to the victim. Usually, the bully has some physical advantage over the victim due to size, strength, or both, which allows their ability to create a fear response physically. This power differential helps to create a feeling of helplessness in the victim that continues the cycle of submission and fear. Physical aggressors might also act spontaneously, surprising the victim physically, such as suddenly pushing the victim or pulling the victim's possessions away from them (Jimerson et al., 2010; Kennedy, 2020). These uncontrollable physical demonstrations not only reinforce physical control over the victim but also demonstrate physical control to peers to show control and dominance, humiliating the victim and discouraging peer intervention.

It is important to recognize that engaging in physical violence against more vulnerable individuals can often be learned behavior, often the result of having experienced abuse in the

bully's home (Papanikolaou et al., 2011). Experiencing violence in the home can often normalize violent behavior as an acceptable means of addressing conflict, even helping to blur moral boundaries about what is acceptable conduct versus harmful conduct. Gender differences in physical bullying exist, whereby boys are three to four times more likely to act as bullying to girls. This outward difference may be due to processes of socialization that connect masculinity with dominance and being physically violent. Studies conducted within schools showed that approximately 46% of boys and 26% of girls stated that they had a physical fight (Hosozawa et al., 2021; Smith & Gross, 2006; Smith, 1994). With that said, physical bullying is more prominent among boys, but it should still be a concern for all children and therefore should provide direction for effective prevention planning across schools.

Relational bullying. Engagement in the strategic manipulation of social relationships to inflict emotional distress on an individual in the absence of verbal or physical abuse constitutes relational bullying. In contrast to overt aggression, relational bullying lacks obvious, detectable signs. It involves the social manipulation of an individual to cause emotional distress, which is what makes it difficult to identify. It is characterized by ignoring or excluding a student from a social interaction or activity and spreading rumors about him or her (Olweus, 1996). Because of the emotional and social facets, it may occur in or outside social circles and may inflict even greater distress. In friendships, it encompasses the deliberate exclusion of a victim, refusing to yield to a person in need of passage, or the use of grotesque or obscene gestures or expressions (Olweus, 1993).

Inappropriate facial or hand movements can be seen as showing disrespect to someone, especially when they are peculiar to someone. Such movements can serve to dismiss and embarrass

someone, without aggression. A group of children bullying an overweight child, for example, might imitate the child's weight by morphing their facial expressions and movements. Such bullying is often the work of groups or is led by a main bully with an accomplice, as noted by Camodeca and Goossens (2005). This type of behavior supports group conformity, also leading to the social exclusion of the individual being targeted.

Research around relational bullying also highlights contradictions. While some authors argue that males primarily partake in pure relational bullying (Kennedy, 2020; Scheithauer et al., 2006), other scholars claim that females predominantly commit relational bullying (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Such contradictions may come from cultural and contextual variations regarding the expression and acknowledgment of relational aggression across different societies and genders. Relational bullying, primarily social bullying, includes acts of aggression through which the victim's social standing and acceptance are targeted, including the dissemination of hateful gossip, mocking, the composition of taunting songs, and friendly exclusion (Law et al., 2012). Including relational and verbal bullying in the broader social bullying framework creates definitional ambiguities in social bullying research. This is primarily because relational and verbal bullying tend to overlap considerably, which makes separation of the two difficult. Psychologically, relational bullying is one of the most harmful forms of bullying, along with social aggression, because it exploits the unmet need for social acceptance and friendship, which is universal and painful (Wang et al., 2009).

Cyberbullying. The phenomenon of cyberbullying has only recently gained recognition as an area of scholarly inquiry, simmering as an intricate form of hostility within the expansive dimensions of the internet. The bullying occurs through the perpetrator utilizes overt and covert

means to inflict harm on the target (Kiriakidis & Kavoura, 2010). And unlike other traditional forms of bullying, the cyber variety removes the limitation of physical presence of the victim, enabling unending, incessant, and anonymous harassment, which may significantly intensify the psychological consequences. Adolescents' abuse of mobile technologies has brought ease and convenience to the orchestration of aggression in its physical, verbal, and relational forms that are present in various interfaces (Slonje & Smith, 2008). The provocative positioning and the immediacy of mobile technologies directly increase the ease of harmful interactions and the difficulty of escaping them.

Cyberbullying can happen anytime and anywhere, crossing the boundaries of the victim's personal and public space. It involves the circulation of malicious texts, photos, or videos. It also involves the acts of online exclusion, rumor spreading, and photo manipulation, whether directly or by stealing an identity (Shin & Kim, 2023; Tsimtsiou et al., 2018). Such acts can be covered by the pretense of fun and entertainment, hiding the true psychological consequences that can be devastating. The psychological effects of digital harassment, such as anxiety, withdrawal, and low self-esteem, can be profound and long-lasting.

The recognition of bullying is essential across all age groups as it occurs through childhood and even in adulthood. This demonstrates that online bullying is certainly not confined to the younger age groups. As such, children, young people, teachers, school staff, parents, and all other members of the community are expected to understand and classify the phenomena as a significant concern. In addition to the obvious aggressive behaviors, people must also develop an understanding and awareness of the more subtle aggressive behaviors that may be clinically labeled as bullying, and of course, the more visible physical bullying (Modecki et al., 2014; Pepler

et al., 2010). The development of digital empathy and the advocacy of reasonable online behavior to children and young people are the most important ways of curbing the normalization and allowance of cyberbullying behavior.

Prevalence of Bullying

Considering the negative consequences of bullying, it is important to understand the rates of bullying and victimization in countries across the globe. Based on data from Nansel et al. (Nansel et al., 2001), 29.9% of school children in the United States participated in bullying behavior, with 13% witnessing and 10.6% experiencing bullying. Another study suggests that victimization occurs more often among elementary students and declines among secondary students (Pellegrini & Long, 2002). Rates of bullying among students are common in various countries around the world, ranging from 4.1% in Finland (Olafsen & Viemerö, 2000) to 49.7% in Ireland (Kumpulainen et al., 1999). Another study found that bullying increases during the middle school years as youth continue transitions into adolescence (Baldry & Farrington, 2005; Unnever & Cornell, 2004). This trend is widespread across cultures (Carney & Merrell, 2001; Cook et al., 2010; Sourander et al., 2000). Based on another study conducted by Wilson and colleagues (Wilson et al., 2013), Egypt had the greatest percentage of bullying at 34.2%, while Macedonia had the lowest rate at 3.4%.

Gender difference in Bullying Behavior

Gender disparities are also seen in the occurrence of bullying and victimization. On the one hand, some researchers discovered that the rates of aggressive and bullying behavior in boys are much higher than in girls. Other researchers, on the other hand, argue that there is no gender

difference between boys and girls, but that the form of aggression they use differs. Furthermore, some researchers believe that there is a gender difference in help-seeking behavior.

Research suggests that bullying is more prevalent among males than females (Hosozawa et al., 2021; Smith & Gross, 2006). However, some researchers contend that when different forms of bullying are considered, the likelihood of boys and girls participating in such activities is similar. Girls may exhibit a greater propensity to disseminate rumors (Ahmad & Smith, 2022). Nevertheless, Smith & Gross, (2006) discovered that there were no noteworthy gender disparities in the manifestation of bullying behaviors. Boys are more inclined to participate in physical and overt types of bullying, whereas girls frequently engage in indirect and relational bullying (Crick & Bigbee, 1998). While boys are more likely to engage in physical altercations and bullying, both genders are equally vulnerable to being victimized (Ahmad & Smith, 2022; Hosozawa et al., 2021; Olweus, 2010; Salmivalli, 2010; Scheithauer et al., 2006).

Craig et al. (2000) found that boys reported being victimized more often than girls during the initial phases of their classroom observations. This finding has been verified in several other studies. Early bullying research also tended not to consider the social and cultural contexts that shape and influence the integration of these social and cultural dimensions. Particularly, social dimensions and cultural constructs related to the masculine norm, the feminine norm, and the conformity of traditional gender expectations. Similarly, the absence of constructs such as heteronormativity, cisnormativity, homophobia, and transphobia has contributed to gaps in understanding the social dimensions framing bullying both as perpetration and victimization.

During the late 2000s, profound changes began to appreciate the role of gender in the bullying discourse. As a result, studies began adopting a more intersectional approach to the

matrices of power, identity, and inequality in bullying. Recent studies have also examined the experiences of LGBTQ youth and the intersection of disability, race, culture, and digital technologies on online forms of aggression and exclusion (Ahmad & Smith, 2022; Slonje & Smith, 2008). In addition to the conventional forms of bullying, the analysis of violence against persons of a particular gender also requires the consideration of sexual harassment, courtship and dating violence, and extreme forms of violence, including transphobic violence, murder, and other severe forms of aggression.

However, it should be noted that Meyer (Meyer, 2020) offered a counter viewpoint, asserting that girls endure the same high degrees of victimization that boys do, thus countering the narrative of victimization disparity. Nonetheless, the results of numerous research works continue to support the position that boys exhibit a greater tendency to perpetrate acts of violence, while girls are more likely to be the victims of bullying in a relational manner (Smith & Peter, 1994).

The current body of research demonstrates the context-dependence of the relations among bullying, victimization, and social variables such as class inequality and gender. Furthermore, the relations among such social variables and bullying have not been adequately addressed in the context of the indigenous Pakistani population, where unique cultural and social norms, social hierarchies, as well as family structures could shape bullying patterns. In countries with high levels of economic inequality, such as Pakistan, the prevalence of bullying is more significant, as suggested by research (e.g., Stefanek et al., 2011; Tippett & Wolke, 2014). Offensive and aggressive peer behavior in economically unequal societies points to the need for research that captures locally bullying behavior. Such research could incorporate social class and cultural context to adequately document the patterns of bullying and the social conditions that reinforce it.

Victimization

Victims can be classified as individuals who undergo sustained bullying harassment that occurs on a bi-monthly or greater regularity. Such individuals are observed to display amplifications in levels of anxiety, social withdrawal, and feelings of depression, timidity, and fear as well as adverse physical conditions when compared to the individuals partaking in bullying harassment. Such individuals manifest a negative assertive attitude, a diminished self-concept, and feelings of insecurity. These attributes result in interpersonal disability and an inability to respond protectively and defensively (Olweus, 1995; 1997). As a student who is a victim of bullying, they have negative attitudes and beliefs about themselves and others. They also have low social competence, weak social problem-solving abilities, and poor academic accomplishment. Additionally, they experience rejection and isolation from their peers and are negatively influenced by the peers they engage with. According to Reijntjes and colleagues (Reijntjes et al., 2010), they often display a higher prevalence of internalizing difficulties compared to pupils in other bullying roles. Victimization is closely correlated with those who have a low socioeconomic position, belong to a specific ethnic group, have physical disabilities, experience academic difficulties, and frequently change schools (Espelage, 2002). Individuals categorized as passive or pure victims do not initiate acts of bullying and are incapable of retaliating. Conversely, there exists another category known as provocative victims, who are labeled as such due to their response to instances of bullying (Camodeca et al., 2002).

Factors Associated with Victimization

Research has identified a range of factors associated with bullying and victimization across different levels - school, classroom, family, and individual. More recent systematic reviews

(Nocentini et al., 2019; Shahid et al., 2022; Zych et al., 2019) extend the scope of previous research, establishing bullying behavior as a predictor of school environments that are negative and hostile, self- and other-directed negative thoughts, attitudes, conflict resolution challenges, lack of empathy, and aggressive externalizing behaviors. At the family level, risk factors include problematic parenting and abuse/neglect, as well as extension of mental illness and violence within the family (Armitage, 2021; Farrington, 1995). Victimization, conversely, is linked to an unfavorable school atmosphere, diminished social standing and assistance from peers, as well as reduced personal abilities in areas such as self-esteem, self-concept, prosocial behavior, and social competence. Family risk factors for victimization encompass various elements such as abuse/neglect, parental mental health issues, domestic violence, insufficient parental support, and a negative family environment (Nocentini et al., 2019; Papanikolaou et al., 2011).

Both bullying and victimization are associated with individual and family risk factors, but the underlying developmental processes behind these connections remain poorly understood. For example, familial risk factors often complicate the distinction between environmental and genetic influences (i.e. in addition to affecting the home environment, parents also pass on some of their genetic traits to their children), which means that the connections between risk factors and bullying or victimization may be influenced by genetic or environmental factors. Twin studies are useful for elucidating these inquiries since they allow for the differentiation of genetic and environmental factors that contribute to the variation of a specific feature (Salmivalli, 2015).

Environmental Factors. Victimization is typically seen because of external environmental circumstances rather than actions initiated by the child, as it is something that is done to the child.

Nevertheless, it is worth noting that characteristics that are commonly attributed to environmental influence may also be influenced by genetic factors (Ball et al., 2008).

Genetic Factors. Genetic factors affecting the degree of an individual's environmental exposure are termed gene-environment correlation. This may be the case when an individual's genetic predisposition toward a particular trait or behavior (e.g., bullying) partially determines the environmental reaction they evoke. The examination of the heredity of peer victimization across contexts has produced a range of results. The heritability estimates range from 0% to 77% (Brendgen et al. 2011). Differences in bullying studies could be attributable to disparities in development, tied to the evolving dynamics of peer relationships and evaluations of reputations. Research discussed the significant effects of genetic factors on both short-term and long-term difficulties in peer interactions. Genes appeared to matter more over time, when factors related to a common understanding for observers increased about students having difficulty in peer relationships (Boivin et al., 2013). In addition, heritability estimates might vary by the type of victimization. Ball et al. (2008) conducted a study and estimated that 61% of bullying perpetration was influenced by genetic factors. In another study, Veldkamp and colleagues (Veldkamp et al., 2019) estimated the heritability of bullying perpetration at roughly 70%, regardless of the specific form of bullying. Other twin studies examining violent and anti-social behaviors, including bullying as a behavior type, have also consistently found heritability estimates of 40% to 80% (Griffin & Gross, 2004). A recent investigation by Schoeler et al. (2019) provides evidence of genetic risk factors for victimization using a multi-polygenic score approach. The study found a relationship between victimization and genetic liability to mental illness, ADHD, risk-taking, and lower intelligence levels.

Gender. While both boys and girls are involved in bullying perpetration and victimization, boys engage in bullying behaviors more often (Cook et al., 2010). There is also an association between bullying and suicidal ideation and suicide attempts. Studies conducted in Europe, Asia, and the US indicate that victims of bullying and those who bully others have a greater risk of suicidal ideation. The more involved one is in bullying, the greater the risk is, and the risk is greater for girls than for boys. For example, boys who are bullied are 2.5 times more likely than boys not bullied to have suicidal thoughts, and in girls who are bullied, this is over four times more likely than in girls not bullied. Boys who bullied others experience a higher risk for suicidal ideation than boys who did not engage in bullying behaviors, and the same is true for girls, keeping in mind that girls are generally at a higher risk (Patchin & Hinduja, 2010).

One study, conducted by Holmes and colleagues (Holmes et al., 2016), has found a correlation between bullying victimization by the age of six and lower executive function in preadolescence. This is the only study that has found a connection between bullying and cognitive performance. Research has shown that bullying is linked to poor academic performance (Reynolds et al., 2017; Strøm et al., 2013). Although boys typically have lower grade point averages than girls, this difference is not affected by whether or not they are victims of bullying (Wang et al., 2014). Anxiety and depression, in addition to externalizing behaviors, have been found to be associated with childhood bullying victimization (Copeland et al., 2013; Leiner et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2021). Out of all the studies mentioned, only Wu et al. (2018) found a unique effect related to gender. They discovered that girls had a higher connection between being bullied and experiencing social anxiety compared to boys.

Alcohol/Drug use. The association between alcohol/drug consumption and bullying is extensively documented. A study conducted on middle to high school students revealed that both aggressive victims and aggressive non-victims were more prone to using drugs and alcohol compared to their nonaggressive peers (Brockenbrough et al., 2002). Similarly, a separate study involving 43,093 adults in the United States found a significant correlation between bullying and lifetime alcohol and drug consumption. Therefore, participation in bullying is associated with both current and future alcohol/drug usage (Vaughn et al., 2010). Bullying victims are particularly susceptible to severe outcomes, such as engaging in acts of violence at school, including school shootings. Bully-victims are more likely to exhibit behaviors such as weapons possession, fighting, alcohol and substance use, depression, anxiety, psychosomatic symptoms, and psychological disorders in adulthood than bullies, victims, or uninvolved children. Bully-victims have a higher prevalence of conduct problems and school disengagement, and experience social ostracization from their peers, as compared to both bullies and victims (Graham & Bellmore, 2007). Childhood bullying is also correlated with increased vulnerability to substance use disorders (e.g., alcohol, cannabis, and nicotine) and raised rates of depression and anxiety in adulthood. In addition, the results indicated that having a psychiatric disorder was related to an increased risk of being bullied in adolescence (Galal et al., 2019).

Adolescents who bully others are at greater risk of engaging in several adverse health behaviors, including drinking alcohol and high-risk drinking (Griffin & Gross, 2004; Jimerson et al., 2010). It is not clear whether being a victim of bullying is related to drinking. For example, a longitudinal relationship with bullying victimization and drinking confirmed that drinking would be riskier after being bullied (Williams et al., 2020). However, when studies have distinguished

bullying, victimization, and bully-victims, the research has not consistently provided evidence that victims of bullying were at higher risk. For example, in a study on bullying behavior and outcomes, the authors found that the group who engaged in bullying behavior and those who were both bullies and victims were at greater risk of drinking (Sangalang et al., 2016).

Cyberbullying is a considerable problem for adolescents; however, prevalence rates are reported in a wide range. Research suggests that the reported prevalence of cyberbullying is close to 14%. Boys were more likely to be cyber bullies while girls were more likely to be cyber victims (Wang et al., 2009). In some research, they have focused on the experience of being bullied and the distinction between traditional forms of bullying and cyberbullying (Méndez et al., 2020; Tsimtsiou et al., 2018). This line of research demonstrated that experiencing cyberbullying, compared to traditional bullying, was associated with a greater likelihood of being a binge drinker (Hertz et al., 2015; Priesman et al., 2018). One study comprehensively analyzed several types of bullying and concluded that, specifically in the case of classic bullying, including physical or verbal aggression, only individuals who were designated as bullies or bully-victims were shown to have an elevated risk of alcohol consumption.

Victims of Bullying

A bully-victim refers to an individual who displays aggressive behavior while simultaneously being subjected to aggression (Cheng et al., 2011). Olweus (1993) initially classified this group as provocative victims who engage in hopeless efforts to retaliate when subjected to bullying. Few people are successful in taking revenge and are hence classified as bully-victims (Boulton & Smith, 1994). Reactive bullying is defined as instances where bullies instigate a situation with someone, only to be embroiled in a situation where there is an inverse reaction. A bully under this definition

is one who incessantly pesters a few classmates to the extent that aggressive counteractions are provoked by such harassment (Jara et al., 2017). These individuals engaging in reactive bullying could also be in the bully-victim category. These considerations need to keep the balance in grade in the range of punishments dealt. In the spectrum of these bully-victim classifications, this third, and, as the authors suggest, a complex category, is both instigator and victim. Compared to bullies and victims, Olafsen and Viemerö (2000) observe that this group possesses a unique combination of aggressive and nervous behavior, along with hyperactivity and pronounced self-destructive behavior. In the literature, such individuals are described as socially withdrawn, if not outright rejected, because of their irritability, poor social coordination, and emotional immaturity (Olweus, 2006).

Empirical research strongly suggests that being a victim of bullying has significant detrimental effects on the mental well-being of children, both in the short and long term (Arseneault, 2017). However, this matter justifies additional investigation from a fresh standpoint. A significant number of studies have been conducted from a psychopathological standpoint to investigate the mechanisms by which school bullying victimization impacts mental health. These studies primarily examine negative psychosocial factors, including loneliness, rumination, shame, social anxiety, self-stigma, anxiety, low self-esteem, and hopelessness. Nevertheless, there has been limited investigation into protective variables. Positive psychological orientations have been discovered to act as a mediator in the relationship between being a victim of bullying and experiencing mental health issues. A recent study found that self-compassion and hope act as mediators in the link between bullying victimization and depression among left-behind youth in rural China. Research on migrant children in China indicates that both internal and external factors

of resilience play a role in the connection between experiencing relational bullying and mental well-being (Cui & Xie, 2022). Nevertheless, there is a scarcity of research that has concurrently examined the mediating and moderating functions of protective factors, particularly for migrant children residing in metropolitan areas of China (Cui & Xie, 2022; Qiu et al., 2024).

Bystander's Behavior

Bystanders refer to students who are not actively participating in the roles outlined earlier and are categorized as either bystanders or the uninvolved group. Bystanders are those who are neither victims nor perpetrators of bullying. Bystanders play a crucial role in mitigating the discouraging and harmful consequences of bullying. Heinrichs (Heinrichs, 2003) found that bystanders were the most abundant among the four types. Bullying typically occurs in the presence of fellow students. Bystanders frequently fail to use a condom or even engage in bullying behavior; alternatively, they might attempt to intervene and defend the victim. A bystander can be defined as an impartial observer who is not involved in bullying and treats victims depending on their social position (Saarento & Salmivalli, 2015). These individuals are the facilitators of the bully's actions (Antti Kärnä et al., 2010). Research (Jimerson et al., 2010; Moschella & Banyard, 2020) on bystanders of bullying has identified three primary categories: First, Individuals who do not initiate the action yet actively engage in bullying. They actively participate alongside the perpetrators in engaging in bullying behavior towards the targets. They are referred to be acolytes or aids of bullies. Secondly, there is a separate category of individuals who do not engage in bullying themselves but instead support bullies by either overtly encouraging them or by secretly endorsing their actions through their silent observation. In addition, they could bolster the bullies by expressing their support through applause and laughter. Third, defenders are students who not only

have a strong aversion to bullying but also actively intervene to defend or assist the target. They do this by directly intervening in the situation or seeking adult assistance to settle the issue. Defending is a prosocial conduct that is strongly linked to high levels of empathy and can have a significant impact on attempts to prevent bullying (Gini et al., 2007; Huitsing & Monks, 2018; Pouwels et al., 2019).

Nevertheless, there exists a small number of kids who exhibit passivity or complete disengagement in each situation. They are labeled as outsiders since they neither engage in bullying behavior nor do they become victims of bullying from others (Thornberg et al., 2018). Bullying is a distinct form of violent conduct that is prevalent globally, resulting in diverse physical and psychological outcomes for the individuals affected (Cook et al., 2010; Due et al., 2005).

Importance of Bystanders

Bullies enjoy having an audience, and bullying is frequently a public interaction with perceived winners and losers. While some victims are targeted because of a perceived vulnerability or difference, it is also true that bullying can affect anyone. As a result, students intuitively assess their own chances of becoming victims and devise strategies to avoid it. They find safety in the position of bystander. According to Jeffrey (2004), peers were present in 85% of bullying episodes but intervened in only 10% of them. As a result, mobilizing bystander reaction is an important approach to bullying prevention. This article concludes with suggestions for preventing bullying. When compared to victims, bystanders, and victims/bullies, youths classified as bullies were much more likely to attribute the reason for bullying to the victim and much less to the bully. According to Espelage and his colleagues (2007), all the research evidence suggests that, at least in middle school, bullying is a group process in which many children - and educators - play a role. Moreover,

they determined that substantial data indicate that bystander participation, whether actively or passively, can have a major impact on the prevalence of bullying. In their study, Kärnä (2010) examined the impact of bystander behavior on the susceptibility of vulnerable children to becoming victims of bullying. Catanzaro (Catanzaro, 2011) achieved similar outcomes while studying adolescent females who were victims. The results of multilevel models indicate that the connections between victimization and its two contributing components, social anxiety and peer rejection, were most pronounced in classes characterized by high levels of promoting bullying and low levels of protecting victims. The actions taken by bystanders in victimization bullying appear to diminish the impact of intra-psychic and inter-relational factors that predispose individuals to be victimized. Thus, the alteration of these behaviors may be highly beneficial in the protection of at-risk children. Padgett and Notar (2013) contend that bystanders can exert considerable power to intervene and stop bullying. However, the small number of children and adolescents who choose to act in these instances calls attention to the need for a greater change in bystander behavior. Bystanders must be encouraged to break the passivity of observation and take up the activism of intervention. Stueve et al. (2006) explains that, in the bullying configuration, bystander actors take on a pivotal role as the behavior of their younger peers tends to strongly dictate the behavior of their peers. By their silence and inaction, bystanders endorse bullying hierarchies operating within their social structures and signal that bullying behavior is sanctioned and acceptable.

"In that way passive bystanders become complicit in the bullying as they permit the tormentors to act unchecked and embolden the aggressors. Observing bullying without intervening condones the behavior and gives the aggressor the perceived right to dominate the victim. In contrast, interveners, who defend the victim, report bullying or openly criticize the aggressor, show

moral strength toward the cause and contribute to a more positive social climate. Complicit observers sustain the bullying and embolden the aggressor by providing a perverse social reward for the behavior. Those who disengage passively become targets by bullying, while those who respond become active participants in social improvement."

The importance of student bystanders in shaping peer aggression is undebated; however, the motivational and situational reasons that promote and prevent intervention remain understudied. Trach et al. (2010) performed a cross-sectional study on the differences in bullying response across students' gender and grade. They found that younger students and females were more likely to engage in proactive helping and reporting to an adult in a situation. In contrast, older students and males more frequently dismissed and avoided the situation. Notably, there was a rise in the frequency of passive nonintervention as grade level increased, indicating that socialization and peer norms may over time lead to the gradual suppression of prosocial behavior.

The bystanders' reactions not only indicate personal moral evaluation but also forecast the likely social repercussions of bullying behavior, and, in turn, the social repercussions can affect the persistence of bullying behavior. Earlier studies by Hodges et al. (1999) showed that the influence of peers on the bullying- victim relationship is more nuanced, as the bullying of peers that carries a social stigma and is more overtly aggressive, is likely to be dissuaded. Given that bullying behavior occurs in public, the bystanders' presence and response can change the social atmosphere considerably. Unfortunately, the presence of bystanders has not prompted a great deal of inquiry into the reasons that influence their behavior in any meaningful way.

Sutherland (2011) stated that bullying and victimization and harassment as well as their interrelations, are the result of school and peer influences at multiple levels. In the same way,

Howard (2009) also identified that bystanders are almost universally present during bullying, and they can either continue a cycle of aggression or halt it, depending on their response. Four types of bystander behavior were identified in his work: (1) Active- participating in the bullying, (2) Passive- watching the bullying without any response, (3) Complicit- overly passive bullying behavior, and (4) Control-No Bullying - encouraging a zero-tolerance policy towards bullying. The work showed that predicting bystander behavior is a complex interplay of personal characteristics and social relationships. and perceived group order.

Consequently, the response of bystanders either reinforces or neutralizes the impact of bullying on the personal and interpersonal risk factors. While most bystanders, as much as 80%, feel distress when they observe bullying or name-calling, the number of bystanders who take action is only a small fraction, marking a disproportionate distance between moral perception and action (Salmivalli & Voeten, 2004). In the case of Aboud & Joong (2008), this so-called 'bystander apathy' is explained by social psychological factors. They argue that empathy and action can be fostered by the social psychological techniques of modeling, role-playing, and induction. Since the family, peer groups, and schools work in concert as the architects of the adolescents' moral and social faculties, it is imperative to incorporate this realization in the initial educational and socialization frameworks.

Nonetheless, there is a lack of actual confidence and tactical comprehension necessary to perform in the situation. Many students claim to disapprove of bullying, but this does little to bridge the gap between intention and action. This gap highlights the need to equip children both emotionally and mentally in a way that they will be able to perform their moral civic duties. Hickey

(2009), as well as Pellegrini & Long (2002), argue that this lack of moral action will lead the well-meaning bystanders to remain silent, and in doing so, they will cause bullying to remain.

Rock and Baird (2012) conducted a study to examine the quantity and nature of strategies that children (N = 104, aged 6-11 years) may develop for bystanders in different bullying scenarios. Adolescents produced a greater number of strategies compared to younger children when faced with bullying scenarios. The predominant recommendations from children were for the bystander to directly address the bully, with the second most common proposal being to seek assistance from a teacher or provide support to the victim. An incidence of exclusion led to an increased frequency of requests for bystanders to provide consolation to the victim, while an incident of shoving led to an increased frequency of requests for a teacher. A narrative illustrating a peer bystander effectively interfering in a bullying episode enhanced the development of problem-solving techniques in girls, while it did not provide similar outcomes in boys. In another study (Stevens, 2006), it was shown that peers experienced anxiety due to the fear of losing their social power and becoming victims of bullying. Rock and Baird (2012) highlighted the importance of addressing bully-victim situations and emphasized the need to focus on students' perceived capability in dealing with such issues. This is crucial for creating a more protected social environment.

Although the importance of student bystanders in shaping peer aggression in schools is widely acknowledged, there is less understanding of the factors that drive students to intervene in support of victims of peer aggression. In a longitudinal study (Barchia & Bussey, 2011), researchers examined the influence of social cognitive variables and empathy on the likelihood of students intervening to protect victims of peer aggression. The study involved 1,167 adolescents, predominantly of white ethnicity, with ages ranging from 12 to 15 years. Among the participants,

613 were females. Increased levels of collective efficacy beliefs among students and instructors, regarding their ability to work together to prevent peer violence, were found to be correlated with a greater frequency of engaging in defensive behavior over a period. Over time, empathy became linked to advocating for the victim among girls. Furthermore, the reactions of elementary school children when they see incidences of name-calling were investigated (Aboud & Joong, 2008). The authors primarily address name-calling, but the broader literature on bullying is pertinent, as name-calling represents the prevailing manifestation of bullying, while physical harm, exclusion, and rumors are less prevalent. To emphasize their emphasis on observers, the authors initially provided developmental information regarding bullies and victims. Unsupervised school environments are more prone to name-calling events, and the victims are typically too emotionally distraught to respond. Therefore, it is the responsibility of bystanders to act (Padgett & Notar, 2013).

Shalaby and Agyapong (2020) found that peer support significantly affected behavioral and emotional engagement within the school context. This finding underscores the important role positive peer interactions have in the cultivation of belonging and motivation. Alternatively, peers displaying problem behaviors and bullying others did not predict diminished school engagement, which suggests negative peer influences do not considerably detach a student from school. This implies that positive peer support, particularly of higher quality, is still far more important. The study also found that such peer relationships have a stronger impact on emotional engagement of older students, which is likely due to the increased social and academic pressures older students face.

The work of Flaspohler et al. (2009) emphasizes the importance of developing systems of peer acceptance and social support for productivity and well-being in school and social systems

outside of school. They argue that the initiation of friendly, supportive interactions between peers and teachers should be a basic component of universal bullying preventative measures and general school climate improvement efforts. This speaks to the importance of prevention measures that focus not simply on the cessation of aggressive behaviors to the ‘stop it’ mandate, but also on the creation of a climate of compassion, regard, and belonging. Furthermore, the need for research to understand the role of bullying bystanders in negative school culture and how they can positively shift school climate and remove bullying behaviors is valuable. Understanding peer support mechanisms will directly support educational policy and practice efforts to improve emotional engagement and resilience.

Siegel and colleagues (2009) expanded previous studies by looking at how situational empathy and peer intervention relate to bullying. They also investigated other relevant factors, such as bullying type and the gender dynamics of the aggressor and the bullying victim. They focused on the following three questions: (1) Does witnessing bullying evoke empathic feelings toward victims? (2) What bullying intervention strategies do middle school students report using? And (3) Do empathy and gender factors into the students’ decision to intervene? Related to this, the study found that children were more willing to intervene in cases of physical bullying than in cases of relational bullying. This suggests that overt and visible forms of aggression are more likely to attract empathic concern and activate a protective response, a pattern that suggests that interventions focused on increasing empathy will also need to target the more subtle and relational bullying that is often minimized and ignored in peer groups. Additionally, children reported using instrumental intervention strategies most frequently in both types of bullying situations.

Furthermore, both empathy and gender were found to significantly influence children's intervention behavior in both types of bullying situations.

Frequencies of Bullying, Victimization, and Bystander Behavior according to Gender

Consistent evidence suggests that the incidence of victimization among boys is twice that of girls, while the prevalence of bullying among boys is three times that of girls (Roland, 1980; Olweus, 1985; Schaffer, 1994). Several researchers (Veldkamp et al., 2019) ascribe the disparity to biological factors, such as hormones, whereas others (Azeredo et al., 2015; Busch et al., 2015; Cuesta et al., 2021; De Sousa et al., 2021) attribute the disparity to socialization, wherein boys are prompted to exhibit aggression and competitiveness while girls are encouraged to display nurturing and expressive behaviors. Based on gender research, it was observed that girls exhibited a higher tendency to help in a general context. Both boys and girls responded similarly to physical bullying, but had distinct reactions to relational bullying (Crick & Bigbee, 1998; Kennedy, 2020). However, Roland (1998) interviewed students in grades four through six on their involvement with bullying. He discovered that girls had almost equal participation in bullying behaviors as boys and were also victims. This finding runs contrary to the belief that aggressive behavior and bullying were almost exclusively male activities. It demonstrates that the aggressive behavior girls exhibit may be less recognized and thus underappreciated.

Hyde and Linn (1988) conducted a meta-analysis that investigated the aggressiveness of males and females. They concluded that while boys were more aggressive than girls, the difference was small, and in recent years, the gap has been getting smaller. This suggests that there may be a shift in social norms and expectations that influence the way boys and girls are able to express and control aggressive behaviors in social situations.

Other studies show that boys and girls use different techniques to resolve conflicts with peers. Compared to boys, girls display more prosocial and, at times, avoidant behaviors (Noakes & Rinaldi, 2006). Preferring to settle social conflicts without friends, girls reconciled the conflict by sharing, discussing, taking turns, or yielding to the other's opinion. These techniques reflect the relational orientation descriptive of the drive to maintain harmony and inclusion in a peer group. Unlike girls, boys displayed dominant or aggressive techniques. They apply assertive or aggressive means more frequently, even in unresolved conflicts (Hyde & Linn, 1988; Nielsen et al., 2018).

Likely resulting from the findings above, many studies and most studies have shown that girls, more than boys, use indirect and relational forms of aggression (gossip, social isolation, to aggression, and other exclusion systems) more than in physical forms (Björkqvist et al., 1994; Österman, 2018). Defused aggression to control social hierarchy and position in peer groups is more pronounced than in frontal confrontation. A larger socialization and culture picture is seen from this context of aggression domination being quantitative and qualitative as to what behavior is appropriate in a given socialization with boys and girls. As per the findings of Galen and Underwood (1997), girls displayed a greater level of concern about relational aggression compared to boys. Additionally, girls exhibited higher anger towards the girl engaging in relational aggression. Girls exhibit a preference for resolving peer disagreement through social means, leading them to be more inclined than boys to seek help from external sources, such as teachers (Newman et al., 2001). Research has also indicated that boys are more likely to engage in physical forms of bullying than girls (Espelage et al., 2000), although gender differences do not appear to exist for other types of bullying. In a meta-analysis (Card et al., 2008), evidence was found that relational forms of aggression [e.g., social exclusion, gossiping] are gender invariant. A study

conducted in 2005 included students in grades 6 to 10 in the U.S. and identified that boys were more likely to engage in physical, verbal, and electronic bullying, while girls were more likely to engage in social bullying (Nansel et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2010).

Research involving German students from fifth to tenth grade found that boys experienced greater physical and verbal bullying victimization than girls. The German boys involved in the study also exhibited more social, indirect bullying than girls, unlike the US study (Scheithauer et al., 2006). The differences in the literature on bullying gender differences are a result of age, racial and cultural context, and the definition and measurement of bullying.

Understanding Bullying and Victimization Behavior in Adolescents

Contrary to previous research that considered this transition (from Elementary to Middle School) as a possible source of stress induced on students leading to negative emotional and psychological ramifications, researchers have noted acute emotional and psychological stress during this transition period on a few students, as McCaskey (40) outlines, not negative consequences on the student. During this time, other reports and research have noted a more transient period of escalated bullying. Based on the bullying-focused research during this time, Akso (2002) noted that students in 5th grade concerned with bullying when transitioning to 6th grade. The role of peers was noted in the dissemination of bullying and being victimized. Due to the dissemination and adverse consequences on an individual's health, bullying has been noted and chronicled as a major public health problem (Nishioka et al., 2011; J. Wang et al., 2009). The act of bullying, which involves a system of aggressive actions that are repeated and the individuals involved are unequal in power, has been the focus of much research. This has been connected to the development of certain antisocial personality traits (Mitsopoulou & Giovazolias,

2015). Children who bully are also antisocial and possess certain negative traits like extraversion, psychoticism, sadism, narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy.

They also seem to display a deficiency in emotional empathy (Farrell et al., 2020; van Geel et al., 2014, 2017). Psychoanalytic approaches attribute bullying behavior to specific ego defense mechanisms, such as projecting blame and scapegoating others (Dixon & Smith, 2011; Rigby & Bortolozzo, 2013).

Research conducted by Potard and coworkers (Potard et al., 2022) states that individuals who engage in bullying show a lower tolerance to frustration. One of the cognitive approaches proposed by Bandura (1977) suggests that children who are bullies demonstrate moral disengagement and provide justifications for their harmful behavior (Hymel & Bonanno, 2014; Thornberg et al., 2019). Moreover, Smith (2017) argues that bullying with a well-developed theory of mind can manipulate bullying situations. Bullying behavior is shaped by demographic characteristics like age and sex. Studies show that bullying behavior tends to spike in early adolescence and that the bullying behavior is also influenced by the sex and cultural background of the victim (Azeredo et al., 2015; Espelage et al., 2015; Nocentini et al., 2019).

The impact of bullying is not limited to its immediate participants; it reverberates to third parties as well. All involved in bullying, whether as aggressors, victims, or bystanders, incur negative consequences relating to physical health, self-worth, and academic performance.

Victims of bullying are particularly susceptible to psychiatric disorders, including anxiety and depression (Veldkamp et al., 2019). Furthermore, individuals experiencing socioemotional difficulties who are labeled as “bully victims,” exhibiting characteristics of both bullies and victims, are particularly vulnerable to additional psychosocial complications. Furthermore, bullying and victimization during primary and secondary education are common. Evidence suggests that the

bullying of younger children is less common, though definitive conclusions are not possible due to the scarcity of research on bullying in kindergarten and early elementary grades. Identification of children who are likely to be bullied or are likely to bully is critical, as the interplay of the individual differences during early development may be combined with factors, such as differences in parenting practices and socioeconomic status (SES), that promote the emergence of bullying. The increased attention to the role of socioeconomic status as a predictor of bullying and victimization in schools reveals large inequities in the mental health of likely unrecognized children (Howard, 2009; Tippett & Wolke, 2014).

Additionally, research has indicated that adolescents from low socioeconomic status households are at greater risk for victimization and suffer deeper and longer-lasting mental health effects in comparison to adolescent victims from affluent social contexts. Additional research has indicated that children from low-income homes, characterized by their parents' low-skilled jobs or limited educational achievements, a scarcity of material resources, and single motherhood, experience greater rates of victimization. Bullying, like victimization, seems to be influenced by the social distribution of parental socioeconomic level. This is because the characteristics of the school's neighborhood, such as crime rates, social support and control, and shared norms and values, are likely to impact children's behavior. Our previous research conducted among kindergarten children in Switzerland and the United Kingdom revealed comparable rates of bullying and victimization as reported by teachers, such as the prevalence of bully-victims being 11% and 13% respectively. Nevertheless, a study conducted among young children in the United States unveiled that 23-27% of parent reported being victimized. The observed percentages are markedly higher, even after accounting for the division of harmed youngsters in our study into two

distinct groups: victims and bully-victims. The variations in prevalence may be attributed to disparities in the definitions of victimization, as well as the utilization of alternative sources of information. This is because teachers assess the situation within a distinct context and with different frames of reference compared to parents (Estrada et al., 2018; Howard, 2009; Tippett & Wolke, 2014). By employing comparable techniques, one could endeavor to modify children's ascriptions of the origins of bullying aimed at them, as well as their own aggressive conduct in the instance of bullies. This could be effectively integrated into established early intervention programs such as the Pyramid Club (Ohl et al., 2008).

Peer victimization at school is fundamentally a collective phenomenon that can be shaped by contextual factors. In contrast to schools where a greater proportion of students engage in pro-aggressive behavior, peer victimization is less prevalent in institutions where a greater proportion of students defend the victims, according to recent research (Cheon et al., 2023; Gini et al., 2007; Pouwels et al., 2019; Saarento & Salmivalli, 2015; Thornberg et al., 2018). If individuals who witness incidents of peer victimization have the capacity to intervene and mitigate their occurrence, it is imperative to comprehend the underlying reasons why certain students align themselves with the offenders or choose to adopt a passive stance, while others actively support the victims. This subject has been extensively studied in research literature. The variability in bystander behavior has been associated with several factors, such as attitudes towards bullying and victims, empathy, emotion recognition, efficacy beliefs, and morality (Antti Kärnä et al., 2010; Hymel & Bonanno, 2014; Troop-Gordon et al., 2019). Nevertheless, most of the research has focused on issues at the individual level, despite a recent surge in interest in contextual factors. Reinforcer behavior has been associated with a greater number of students in the classroom and a

less authoritative teaching environment (Thornberg et al., 2018). Students from schools with lower levels of pro-victim views and higher levels of collective moral disengagement are more likely to exhibit outsider behavior (Hymel & Bonanno, 2014). Defensive behavior is more prevalent among students who attend classrooms where student-student relationships are considerate, cordial, supportive, and respectful, and who enjoy a high social status among their peers (Espelage & Swearer, 2023; Huitsing & Monks, 2018; Thornberg et al., 2018). However, the field's ongoing dependence on individual-level elements is likely to be harmful because a thorough comprehension requires addressing the intricate social dynamics of peer victimization (Cheon et al., 2023; Hong & Espelage, 2012).

Bullying can be categorized as a subcategory of peer victimization, as supported by the existing literature on bullying. Numerous comparative studies indicate that rates of bullying within schools have been relatively low (Craig et al., 2009). Regrettably, these rates have recently risen within the past few years, with around 6-8% of Swedish students reporting bullying being carried out within the school setting (Public Health Agency of Sweden, 2018). A longitudinal study (Cosma et al., 2020) examines the bullying victimization patterns between the years of 2002-2014 across 37 countries, and the relationship between cyber victimization and traditional bullying. The study analyzes data from the Health Behavior in School-Aged Children survey, which consists of 764,518 respondents during four cycles in the years 2002, 2006, 2010, and 2014. The study performs trend analysis with logistic regression and computes the prevalence of cyber victimization. Their results show a decline in traditional forms of bullying in numerous countries, and cyber victimization remained less prevalent than traditional bullying. Most notably, 45.8% of respondents suffering from cyberbullying also endured traditional bullying, with substantial

variation between countries. The study clearly suggests the need for all-encompassing intervention and preventive strategies that simultaneously address all forms of bullying, both in the real world and online, due to interconnectedness.

Most students take no steps to assist the victims (Saarento & Salmivalli, 2015; Salmivalli, 2010). Acting contrary to one's moral values can lead to negative psychological outcomes, such as shame and guilt (Hymel & Bonanno, 2014). Bandura (1977) proposed social and psychological methods that can be used to distance moral self-regulation from the lack of morals associated with unethical behavior. Bandura (2016) elaborates that the social cognitive theory provides four ways through which people can justify the distance from moral reasoning: (1) changing an individual's behavior, (2) minimizing an individual's responsibility, (3) rationalizing the harmful consequences of an action, and (4) blaming, dehumanizing, or devaluing victims.

Furthermore, Bussey and colleagues (2020) demonstrate that strong levels of collective moral disengagement yield a positive relationship between individual moral disengagement and cyber defender behaviors. However, they did not consider the combined scoring of the overall moral disengagement scale. Thus, their measure was an indication of the extent to which their classmates, as a collective, exhibited moral disengagement, as viewed by the individual.

Arnette (1998) states that the reporting function of buddy systems may also be a positive utility. During bullying episodes, these companions will be supportive aids to the victim and will be matched with a peer or a senior. Teachers can shift the atmosphere in their classrooms by using common language and behaviors as pointed out by the researchers (Espelage & Swearer, 2004; Kartal & Bilgin, 2009). A new climate of classroom practices should include an active stance of caring and collaboration to counter ease aggression and marginalization. It is a challenging, yet

necessary, undertaking. Peer mediation (Padgett & Notar, 2013; Sullivan, 2010) is an instructional practice that teaches students to help resolve conflicts between their classmates.

Also, at the end of the mediation process, the students involved in the dispute are required to sign a contract in which they promise to change their behavior. Lodge (2011) found that both teachers and students seldom regarded professional peer mediators as a favored resource for assistance. Another research (Murphy et al., 2018) revealed a perceived necessity for enhanced teacher consciousness regarding how students perceive matters pertaining to peer harassment. Thornberg et al. (2017) found that students with a strong tendency to detach themselves from moral values were more inclined to adopt the position of an outsider when placed in a classroom environment where moral disengagement was prevalent. There was a hypothesis that children with high moral disengagement, who were in a classroom with other students who also had high collective moral disengagement, would be more inclined to adopt the position of an outsider and maybe participate in hostile behavior. Other potential cross-level interactions between the correlates were examined in an exploratory approach.

Recognizing the prevalence and perils of school bullying for children has become increasingly apparent over the past decade. Research indicates that bullying is a prevalent phenomenon in all schools and is not confined to a certain social context or culture (Espelage & Swearer, 2023; Hong & Espelage, 2012). Based on a comprehensive survey conducted in 66 countries, it was shown that approximately 30% to 40% of kids aged 13 to 15 reported experiencing bullying at least once within the preceding two months (Due & Holstein, 2008). Bullying should be viewed as an urgent problem due to its serious and lasting effects on both the victim and the perpetrator. As evidenced by the literature, bullying can cause many serious

behavioral and health issues in adolescence among both parties involved, including suicidal ideations and suicide attempts (Cuesta et al., 2021; Holt et al., 2015). Further, studies which employ a longitudinal design show that continued exposure to bullying, especially over a protracted period, can result in negative long-term effects, including elevated rates of depression and anxiety (Källmén & Hallgren, 2021; Naveed et al., 2019; Shahid et al., 2022), diminished physiological and psychological health, or worse, reduced self-worth (Olweus, 1993). Public awareness of bullying has led researchers to adopt a more multilevel or mixed-effect design to identify the social and ecological factors that accompany and influence bullying behavior in schools. Nevertheless, there has been limited investigation into the impact of school-level organizational characteristics on bullying behaviors, specifically examining distinctions between public and private schools, rural and urban schools, and single-gender versus coeducational schools. Prior studies have mostly focused on factors such as classroom attitudes and behaviors, as well as school responsiveness and student interactions (Henry et al., 2011). When pre-existing disparities are taken into account, many school characteristics, including single sex versus coeducational schools, disappear, suggesting that selection processes determine the student body composition rather than the type of school (Pahlke et al., 2014).

There may also be differences in how students respond to different school contexts. For example, some researchers mentioned that the co-educational school context may benefit male student outcomes, such as functionality through diminishing aggressiveness and improving socialization outcomes, more than it does female student outcomes. Other researchers examined the influences of gender and aggression and suggested that female aggression is more influenced by behavior in an interpersonal climate and school norms than male aggression. Thus, it is suggested that females are more "contextually responsive" than males.

Further, research suggests that a single gender school context may perpetuate gender stereotypes and subsequently lead to greater aggression among males in boys-only schools (James et al., 2011).

Theories Related to Bullying, Victimization, and Bystander Behaviors

Bullying, victimization, and bystander interventions among children and adolescents have been a major area of focus in psychological and criminological research. Through this literature review, we synthesize the essential perspectives, or the theories that have been offered to explain these behaviors, by investigating the instigation, escalation, and varying contextual factors that influence these behaviors. By integrating diverse disciplines, spanning psychological developmental frameworks to criminology, we attain a more comprehensive understanding of these intricate relations. Early bullying research focused on criminology since bullying was predominantly considered a manifestation of antisocial behavior. Farrington (1993) analyzes the relevance of understanding bullying through the prism of Re-integrative Shaming (Braithwait et al., 2006) and Defiance Theory (Sherman, 1993). Re-integrative Shaming Theory posits that the incorporation of appropriate shame on the behavior (rather than the person), accompanied by familial and communal interaction, may diminish the likelihood of recurrence of antisocial behavior. Dominance Theory suggests that bullying acts to impose social order in new or unsettled situations, especially during transitional periods, for instance, when a child starts middle school.

The field of developmental psychology evaluates the expanding interplay of the individual versus the environment in the emergence of bullying, bullying victimization, and bystander behaviors. Rather than stay within the bounds of criminology, Monks and others (2009) consider

the psychological literature and include the interplay of personal attributes and situational factors. Bowlby's (1969) Attachment Theory posits that early social and relational structures with caregivers will shape and determine social skills and behaviors. These will impact one's likelihood of carrying out bullying or being victimized. Other theories, including Bandura's (1977) Social Cognitive Theory and Crick and Dodge's (1994) Information Processing Model, define the order of cognitive functions in social behaviors, arguing that children actively learn bullying behaviors in social observation and imitation contexts. These children will also employ aggressive behaviors in conflicts with peers because of social misinterpretation. Bullying behaviors arise because of the interplay of individual factors, social learning, and situational factors, which range from environmental contexts to the climate of the children being bullied.

Defiance Theory

Defiance theory (Sherman, 1993), which focuses on re-integrative shaming, argues that violent or antisocial offenders have 4 specific characteristics: (1) inequity regarding infringing sanctions, (2) weak or limited social ties, (3) stigmatizing sanctions, especially negative shaming or humiliating shaming, and (4) defiance toward shaming sanctions. Sherman asserts that psychological pain and shame become the primary predictors of escalating aggression, bullying, and other types of behaviors. Thus, in part, to explain why the emotional instability of a bully and inequitable judgment regarding a shaming sanction, in addition to the bully's social ties, might deter future aggression or, paradoxically, reinforce aggressive behavior (Piquero et al., 2016). All in all, a bullying defiance issue is primarily a function of the four characteristics feeding off each other.

Integrated Cognitive Antisocial Potential (ICAP)

Farrington (Farrington, 1993, 2020) proposed an integrated theory that synthesizes several different ethological approaches into the study of antisocial behavior. The theory proposes a link between individual behavior tendencies and long-lasting negative environmental circumstances. The formulation of the theory suggests that the impactful imposition of biological, personal, familial, social, and community dimensions paves the way to the emergence of long-lasting crippling negative consequences, which translates into the consolidation of robust and aggressive high-risk behaviors such as bullying. Simultaneously, temporary individual factors that affect the likelihood of violence, impacted by temporary motivational factors like boredom, rage, and intoxication, as well as situational variables such as the presence of a target, are at play. For example, consistent exposure to domestic violence and frequent association with classmates involved in gang activities heighten the probability of children displaying more frequent and intense bullying behaviors.

Unlike other models, particularly the Integrated Cognitive Antisocial Potential (ICAP) theory, the latter focuses on the interaction of long-term parental influences on individuals and situational characteristics, versus other theories that focus on shame and punishments. Also, ICAP explains where aggressive behavior comes from, whereas authors positing theorizing like defiance theory and re-integrative shaming theory are primarily concerned with responses to behaviors that have already been accomplished. Monks and others (2009) note that there has been a recent shift in understanding bullying behaviors from criminal antisocial perspectives, versus developmental psychological perspectives, for want of a better term. The shift noted signifies that there is a growing interest from scholars, who are not extensive to criminologists, to understand the bullying

of school-aged children and bystander behaviors as phenomena that operate with internal characteristics of people and external environmental forces. Developmental psychological perspectives provided a two-way approach to people's interactions with their environments, resulting in a more comprehensive understanding of the processes that form the basis of concepts typically studied by criminological theories. This approach to developmental psychology is particularly relevant when we consider bullying, victimization, and bystander behavior among children who show no signs of psychopathology or criminality. This appears to favor an approach driven by developmental psychology instead of traditional criminology theories when we seek to understand normal behaviors. There are developmental theories that can help provide an understanding of this behavior and inform the development of intervention measures, including Evolutionary Theory, Social Learning Theory, Social Cognitive Theory, Attachment Theory, and Socio-Cultural Theories (Monks et al., 2009).

Dominance Theory

According to Pellegrini (2002), the transition into middle school necessitates a restructuring of power relationships between kids and an adoption of bullying as a tactical means to exert power within newly formed social groups. Within this context, social dominance is represented as a form of social hierarchy, where different levels are associated with different levels of access to various resources, such as friendship and prestige. Pellegrini and Bartini (2001) conducted a longitudinal study in a sample of 87 boys, and they found a significant relationship between aggression and dominance at the beginning of middle school. They argued that the first acts of aggression serve to allocate social status within the peer group and decrease as the groups acknowledge the social ranking. Therefore, bullying is a behavioral manifestation of gestures to establish or maintain status.

Attraction Theory

Attraction Theory (Bukowski et al., 2000; Moffitt & Caspi, 2001) explores in greater detail the idea of aggression's role during the early adolescent period. This theory suggests that young people are drawn to companions by exhibiting signs of greater autonomy from parental figures, even if these signs are negative, including aggression. In their study, Bukowski et al. (2000) demonstrated that, during the transition to middle school, both girls and boys were increasingly attracted to violent peers and were relatively less attracted to peers exhibiting high levels of academic achievement.

Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura (1977) offered the Social Cognitive Theory which explains how observing others, imitating their actions, and receiving reinforcement leads to the acquisition of bullying behaviors (Monks et al., 2009). This theory emphasizes the role of the associative and higher order relational networks in the production of aggressive behavior and is compatible with the Information Processing Model (Crick & Dodge, 1994) and the Hostile Attributional Bias. It is proposed that the bullying individuals display is the result of their faulty social information processing which leads to the aggressive and hostile response of social situations and problem solving. The cognitive processes described above in children explain the behaviors of defence, encouragement, avoidance (refusal to act), and assistance in bullying. When children observe others displaying defiant behaviors and being rewarded for such actions, they are more likely to show defiant behaviors themselves.

Attachment Theory

According to Bowlby (1969) and Ainsworth et al. (2014), an attachment between an infant and a caregiver is critical for developing social competence. Bowlby also theorized that the disruption of this bond is one of the primary causes of psychopathology. Given the psychosocial implications of caregiver-infant bonding, the nature of the bond a caregiver forms with a newborn is crucial for how that individual relates to others throughout their life (Troy & Sroufe, 1987; Walden & Beran, 2010). Through attachment relationships, children form schemas that help them understand how parents and others respond to their cries and other relational and emotional invitations. These cognitive frameworks help them shape their future relationships (Grossmann et al., 2006). The conceptualization permits one to distinguish between two divergent attachment outcomes, secure and insecure. For children, secure attachment outcomes translate social situations and the world with a high degree of confidence. They can resolve social conflicts and are generally able to ask for help. Moreover, they tend to defend those who are targeted and are less likely to participate in bullying themselves (Nickerson et al., 2008). Children with insecure attachments, on the other hand, come to view the world with indifference and uncertainty because of the erratic meeting of emotional needs. Insecure children are likely to exhibit a lack of cohesion in their behaviors during conflicts. For example, they can passively avoid and then submit to the bullying (as bullying victims do), or they can actively resist and attack the other person (as bullies do), in a manner resembling bully-victims (Troy & Sroufe, 1987; Walden & Beran, 2010). This perspective suggests that while attachment figures can have a lasting impact on a person, the person's own attachment security can change due to other major experiences in their life, such as changes in their relationships with their parents (Bowlby, 1969; E. Waters et al., 2000).

Psychological theories provide numerous methodologies and greatly advance our understanding of human behavior. One of the most noticeable similarities between the disciplines of psychology and theories within criminal justice is the pivotal role of adult caregivers and families in enabling or alleviating bullying, victimization, and bystander effects. Psychological theories explain bystander behavior and elucidate the mechanisms that might drive hostile or aggressive behaviors in ways that complement the understanding provided by criminal justice theories. One of many examples is how Bronfenbrenner's socio-cultural theory aids the understanding of the concepts in Farrington's Integrated Cognitive Antisocial Potential Theory, especially the long-lasting repercussions of adversarial parent-child relational environments. The theories reiterate the reciprocal nature of children and their environments and the varying degrees of power and control the different environments possess. For example, during certain developmental phases, the inner family system's influence is much stronger relative to that of the broader community. Even though bidirectional relations are less emphasized in Evolutionary Theory, it can still serve as a starting point for elucidating the development of bully-victim patterns of behavior. In some cases, as victims attain higher levels in social hierarchies, they may, as a form of asserting their power, engage in bullying behaviors toward younger or lower status individuals (Waters et al., 2014).

Homophily Hypothesis

Peer groups during early adolescence often consist of individuals with the same attributes, a phenomenon known as "homophily" (Berndt, 1982; Kandel, 2007). These attributes may include sex, race, and certain behaviors, including academic orientation, delinquency, and aggression. Much of the research on peer networks and violence is supportive of the homophily theory (Cairns

& Cairns, 1991); individuals are more likely to associate with others who display similar aggressive behavior and, over time, influence each other's behavior. For example, Espelage et al. (2003) studied middle schoolers and found that a peer group's general level of aggression predicted verbal aggression of individual members of the group over the course of an entire school year. This effect was robust even after controlling everyone's aggression at the start of the year and occurred with both boys and girls. These results imply that aggression during early adolescence, likely due to peer associations, survives the social reinforcement and modeling of aggressive behavior predicted during the middle school years.

Canada has conducted some valuable observational studies that gathered the first empirical accounts of student participation in bullying practices/episodes, especially in playground settings (Craig et al., 2000; Jimerson et al., 2010; O'Connell et al., 1999). While the scope of these studies was largely on the elementary school level, the importance of this research was in broadening the focus from the individual to the social surrounding environment. For example, in most of the bullying (85%) episodes described in Craig and Pepler (1998), the members of the bullying victims' social group were present. In addition, the members of the social group that surrounded the bullying episodes (or social situation) were shown to reinforce the bullying behavior (or aggression) in 81% of the episodes, while participation to support the victim occurred only 11% of the time. Expanding on previously documented research, Salmivalli (2010) described and theorized the bullying situations and the various roles assumed by students in the patterns of aggression described, including: the initiators (or provocateurs), the 'assistants' to the aggression, and the passive onlookers. Such results suggest that bullying is an organized social behavior, arising from group interactions and norms, and is therefore much more than an individualized

problem. For effective social bullying prevention programs, it is crucial to understand the structures that exist in group behavior and the social context surrounding the behavior that school programs target at the individual level.

Research on family backgrounds has also been explored in relation to bullying. Children may have seen bullying take shape in families, and parental bullying may be seen as a model for the child to adopt and engage in (Coffin et al., 2010). The research explicitly highlights that a dysfunctional family unit is a prominent factor influencing a child's involvement in bullying (Nocentini et al., 2019; Rigby & Bortolozzo, 2013; Spriggs et al., 2007). Literature suggests that children whose parents tended to operate under hostile control are more likely to bully (Ali et al., 2015). Also, children with insecure and avoidant attachments to their parents are noted to have less sympathetic behavior (Cummings-Robeau et al., 2009). Insufficient parental care and emotional warmth may lead to lower empathy in children, which can result in bullying (Mitsopoulou & Giovazolias, 2013). Children deemed to be bullies also often present cues of inadequate parental care with excessive parental support.

There is evidence that the characteristics commonly exhibited by bullies include low levels of anxiety, antisocial behavior, impulsive behavior, and a desire to dominate others (Smokowski & Kopasz, 2005). They are also more likely to exhibit externalizing problems, which might include aggressiveness and attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (Kumpulainen & Räsänen, 2000). Connections to family relationships can be an early sign of involvement in bullying behavior (Ashraf et al., 2019; Estrada Jr. et al., 2018; Smokowski & Kopasz, 2005; Tippett & Wolke, 2014). Children who are especially prone to being bullied or who are bullies often have insecure attachments with their parents (Kokkinos, 2013).

To craft and enact appropriate practices, one must determine the unique traits of students who are most at risk of becoming bullying victims (Hong & Espelage, 2012). Victims of bullying tend to suffer elevated internalizing symptoms, most notably anxiety and depression, to a greater degree than those children who suffer no victimization (Arseneault, 2017; Calpbinici & Tas Arslan, 2019; Naveed et al., 2019). Moreover, the role of the schools and community systems tends to be of considerable importance, given that children form beliefs about the potential of change based largely on the responses of teachers and adult authority figures to bullying (Athanasiaades & Deliyanni-Kouimtzis, 2010). Their beliefs tend to change little, if at all, when messages at home and school, community, and the prevailing culture, are laden with punitive and aggressive behavior. (Hong & Espelage, 2012).

In addition to the findings already noted, victims of bullying suffer unique and painful problems that are closely tied to social isolation, low self-worth, and diminished relationships with peers (Georgiou & Stavrinides, 2012; Yun & Juvonen, 2020). For a unique group referred to as bully-victims, the psychosocial problems tend to be more severe in comparison to children who are strictly classified as bullies, victims, or mere passive bystanders. (Swearer et al., 2001). So much more can and needs to be done about their reality.

Role of Ecological Factors in Bullying, Victimization, and Bystanders' Behavior

Bullying encompasses more than just the dynamic between the perpetrator and the victim. The relationship is deeply intertwined with other social characteristics that contribute to the sociocultural context of bullying. These social characteristics work together to create and sustain a bullying culture by establishing and maintaining pathways to power among students. Therefore,

it is important to consider these layers when examining bullying and thinking about prevention or intervention strategies, as well as the power that exists across to entire ecology.

The widely known ecological theory of Bronfenbrenner (Bronfenbrenner, 1996; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006) captures the existing risk and protective factors associated with school-based bullying when children and adolescents are involved. Adolescent socialization, parental monitoring, violent exposure, and teacher attitudes and atmosphere are all factors that influence the prevalence of bullying among young people. The mesosystem refers to the interplay between microsystem components, and it offers understanding of how different circumstances can either worsen or alleviate bullying experiences for young people (for example, parental support can alleviate the effects of being victimized by peers). Guidelines exist for educators and other adults who engage with young people (Espelage, 2014).

Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model

Bronfenbrenner (1996) established the ecology of human development model to advance the field of developmental research. He stressed the significance of carrying out empirical investigations in real-world environments (such as schools), alongside controlled laboratory experiments.

Bronfenbrenner and his colleagues made various modifications to the ecology model over time, such as introducing the bio-ecological model (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1996) and integrating chaos theory into this model (Bronfenbrenner & Evans, 2000). Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory comprises five systems of environment inquiry, from personal touch to that of larger culture. Micro systems, meso systems, exo systems, macro systems, and chrono systems are the five systems Bronfenbrenner described. Many scholars on the subject of aggressiveness, especially concerning younger individuals, agree that such individuals are situated within systems that in varying direct, indirect and dynamic fashions, influence their development and behavior. This is clearly evident in the social ecological model of school bullying and peer victimization, where the focus is to understand how a child's personal characteristics interact with surrounding context or systems to aid in them being victimized or in them victimizing others (Espelage, 2012; Hong & Espelage, 2012).

Microsystem. The microsystem comprises the direct and immediate surroundings of children, including their interactions with peers, family, community, and schools. The mesosystem involves the relationships of these microsystem units and how experiences in one setting affect experiences in another. For example, one aspect of the mesosystem is the connection between home and school, such as when parents play a role in their children's schooling. In contrast, the exosystem consists of the more distant and unsupervised social environments that children are not

involved in directly, yet affect the microsystem and, consequently, the child. Examples of this include a teacher's perception of the school climate as well as professional development, which impacts how teachers deal with problems in the school, such as bullying, violence, and other overarching issues in the school.

All levels of an ecosystem influence a child's social, emotional, and cognitive growth. Encouraging interactions in the microsystem, including friendships and parenting, strengthens positive defenses that help children withstand bullying. On the negative side, dysfunctions or stressors within the exosystem, including the school policies and teacher burnout, exacerbate the risks of victimization. Recognizing how these systems interact helps in developing interventions that promote growth in resilience, diminish bullying, and support environments within homes, schools, and communities.

Mesosystem. Mesosystems consist of multiple microsystems, each of which encompasses one individual (Bronfenbrenner, 1996). These exchanges occur within and among families, peers, and schools. The interpersonal dynamics among students, teachers, and administrators hold significant value. Undoubtedly, instructors and school authorities possess the ability to influence students' peer connections and their opinions of the school environment (Lee & Wong, 2009). One study found that teachers' positive involvement in their students' academic and social lives greatly decreased children's feelings of safety at school (Hong & Eamon, 2012). Additionally, it is important to mention that when teachers intervene in peer conflicts among students, there is an increased likelihood of students seeking help from teachers or school authorities (Aceves et al., 2010). In a recent comprehensive study involving more than 4,000 middle school students from 35 different schools, it was found that students experienced reduced incidents of bullying, physical

fighting, and victimization. Additionally, students showed a greater inclination to intervene in cases of bullying in schools where staff members reported feeling supported by their administration in addressing such issues in their classrooms and schools (Espelage et al., 2014). Another instance of a mesosystem configuration is the impact of family functioning on the selection of peer friendships, or the interplay between family dynamics and individual traits. A longitudinal study conducted on middle school students found that parental supervision helped to alleviate the impact of community violence exposure on both engaging in and being a victim of bullying, by decreasing participation in deviant activities. Conversely, impulsiveness heightened participation in delinquent activities, hence intensifying the impact of exposure to community violence on the act of bullying. This study demonstrates how well the ecology model works in contexts where the different systems interact with one another (Low & Van Ryzin, 2014).

A child's behaviors are a result of both the intrapersonal/innate components and the ecological context present within each habitat. This method of bullying prevention is especially successful due to its comprehensive design (Kennedy, 2020; Studer & Mynatt, 2015). Cornell and Bradshaw (2014) highlight that this social-ecological approach is a model that addresses the social influences from the multiple stakeholders as well as the targeted interventions meant to change the behavior of the students. This method for intervening in bullying utilizes and focuses on the environmental structural features that can shift and perpetuate student behavior (Bradshaw, 2013). The bullying behavior's multilayered, interdependent, and complex environmental features, which respond to the collection of attitudes and beliefs at the student, school, peer, community, and societal levels, can similarly reflect students and schools, peer cohorts, and broader society (Cornell and Bandyopadhyay, 2009; Saroyan and Skaff, 2022). A unique set of features associated with any of these contexts will have a bearing on a student's likelihood of bullying and their

responses to the bullying of others. Therefore, community demographic changes, including race, disability, and sexual orientation, can influence the scope of school bullying prevention programs. The application of an ecological approach in schools will require detailed planning to enable a high degree of achievement, given the need to respond to complexities at each level. Moreover, the presence of a flexible design will allow response to the planning and design challenges described (Hornby, 2016). As stated by Lee (2011), all levels of ecological systems are and act interdependently when bullying is present.

Exo system. The exosystem includes aspects of the environment that exist outside of the immediate system that contains the individual, such as neighborhoods. Because schools are embedded in communities, an unsafe neighborhood environment can influence bullying behavior because of insufficient adult supervision or negative peer influences. Despite the well-established link between community violence and externalizing behaviors (Bacchini et al., 2015; Bacchini & Valentino, 2020). There have been few studies that look at how bullying is influenced by experiences outside of school, such as in neighborhoods. Given the disruption in adaptive peer relations and behavioral control that may be associated with features of community violence exposure, there is compelling evidence to suggest links between perpetration and victimization (Espelage et al., 2003; Rodkin et al., 2015).

Macro system. The macro system level is regarded as a cultural blueprint that influences the social structures and activities that take place at the immediate system level (Bronfenbrenner, 1996). Bullying, like other forms of aggression, differs depending on culture and context (Mcconville & Cornell, 2003). According to sociological theorists, school norms can perpetuate inequality, alienation, aggression, and oppression among students based on their race/ethnicity,

gender, and socioeconomic background (Leach, 2003). A macro system is a larger culture. Culture is a broad term that encompasses ethnicity as well as socioeconomic factors in child development. Culture is the broadest context in which students and teachers live, including community values and customs. Some cultures, for example, such as those found in Islamic countries such as Egypt and Iran, place a premium on traditional gender roles. Other cultures, such as the United States, accept a broader range of gender roles. The education system in most Islamic countries promotes male dominance. In contrast, in other Western countries, schools actively promote the value of gender equality. Poverty is one aspect of a student's socioeconomic status that affects their developmental factors and ability to learn, though some students from poor neighborhoods are very tenacious. Other macro system sub-systems include state ideology, government, religion, law, and so on.

Chrono system. The final level of the ecological framework, the chrono system level, includes the individual's and the environment's consistency or change (e.g., historical/life events) over the life course (e.g., family structure changes). Changes in life events (for example, divorce) have been shown in studies to result in negative youth outcomes such as peer aggression (Breivik & Olweus, 2006). Preadolescent children from divorced or remarried families had higher levels of aggression, noncompliance, disobedience, inappropriate classroom behaviour, and lower levels of self-regulation (Hetherington & Elmore, 2003). Because children and adolescents are situated within many systems that have direct and indirect influences on their behaviour and development, research frequently employs Bronfenbrenner's (1996) ecological model to conceptualize bullying. This model, known as a social-ecological model in the field of school bullying and peer victimization, focuses on understanding how individual characteristics of children interact with

environmental contexts or systems to promote or prevent victimization and perpetration (Espelage, 2012; Hong & Espelage, 2012).

The explanation provided describes the intertwining issues within the social systems of bullying accurately and utilizes Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory to gain insights into the issue. This approach also sees bullying as a social problem that transcends the individual level since it influences the wider social and situational arrangements. Applying Bronfenbrenner's model as a framework to understand the various dimensions of bullying is quite suitable because it captures the different levels of the social environment and the immediate and larger contextual factors.

There is great utility in employing Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory, which centers on the interaction of multiple systems, when trying to understand bullying. His various levels - microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem - offer a structured approach to break down the multiple facets of bullying. The microsystem focuses on the immediate environments of interaction, and the significance of the relationships and the contexts to which children are exposed, which influence their behaviors. The bullying of children and their victimization is, in part, explained by the dynamics of the family, school context, and peer relationships. The subsequent iterations of Bronfenbrenner's theory, the bioecological model, and chaos theory, underline the swirling, complex, and at times unpredictable influences of the various contexts of human behavior. A child's bullying behavior may be explained by victim characteristics such as a child's temperament, resilience, and bullying behavior. These characteristics interface with a number of systems to shape the role a child takes - either the bully or the victim.

As explained by Espelage (2012) and Hong & Espelage (2012), the social ecology paradigm emphasizes that school bullying is influenced by a multitude of ecological dimensions apart from human pathology. This paradigm is essential for developing comprehensive anti-bullying initiatives that consider the interrelated behaviors of individual students, school ethos, family setting, and other societal dimensions. For this reason, the current examination provides a broad conceptualization of bullying, focusing on its constituent ecological dimensions, and the integration of socially situated therapeutic strategies, which demand more than individual behavioral change; for example, the transformation of family systems, school systems, and attitudes of the wider community toward bullying, and the redefinition of school bullying as a socially situated phenomenon requiring change on multiple levels.

Literature Review from Pakistan

A study by Karmaliani and colleagues (2017) indicated that peer violence is extremely common among grade 6 students, both girls and boys, in Hyderabad schools. 1752 children were enrolled by cluster randomized control trial from 40 government schools. The researcher discovered that 46.4% girls and 72.6% of boys were victimized and perpetrated. The reported prevalence of this phenomenon appears to be significantly higher than it is in some other contexts from which studies were carried out. These pupils from public schools come from poor urban slums, making them vulnerable to all manner of violence, including cases of brutality from the police and the inhuman treatment.

Studies in Pakistan have reported a high incidence of bullying, with boys being more perpetrators of verbal, physical, racial, and sexual bullying, while girls were more perpetrators of exclusion (Khawar & Malik, 2016; Shujja et al., 2014). The victimization of bullying is prevalent,

as 41.3% of the students had experienced victimization in the last 30 days, and it was more prevalent among boys than girls (Shaikh et al., 2013). The above highlights the necessity for interventions that target the gender-specific nature of bullying in Pakistan.

In a study investigating bullying trends in rural Gujrat schools (Shahzadi et al., 2019), 400 students from both government and private schools were randomly selected using cluster random sampling. Most respondents were in the moderate range for victim level (42.6%), fight level (43.2%), and bullying level (50.5%). There was a significant difference in the level of bullying perpetrated, with males engaging in much more bullying than females. Equally surprising was the finding that the level of bullying was similar in private and public schools. These findings underscore the need for attention to students' mental health and the development of policies to address bullying in schools. Likewise, bullying negatively impacts quality of life and mental health in children and adolescents, particularly in pre-adolescents and adolescents, who experience and perceive bullying differently and have marked differences in mental illness (Shahid et al., 2022).

Recognizing the greater detrimental effects of bullying on the mental health and general well-being of children and adolescents reinforces the necessity of targeted prevention programs aimed at improving the mental and emotional health of victimized youth.

Pakistani culture, especially in the countryside, shapes the notion of masculinity in boys around assertive and even aggressive behaviors. Previous literature has noted the relevance of the classroom dynamics in influencing a student's attitude towards bullying and the overall approach towards a bullying incident (Gini et al., 2007).

Hence, this area invites further research. In some circumstances, peer violence and victimization are reported by individuals from the upper class. Poverty breeds hunger, but it also engenders violence and a plethora of depressive states. In our case study, this was manifest in unaddressed socioeconomic conditions. Unfortunately, in the Pakistani context, public schools remain the domain of the underprivileged, the so-called "bottom move". As a result, the Hyderabad case draws the negatives of urbanization and the inadequate provision of basic civil amenities - water, light, electric, sewage, and in the case of urban slums, fresh air. Male and female students in Hyderabad schools are more likely to come from poverty, as a result, a significant number of students and even whole schools are economically disadvantaged. This study illustrates the strong relationship between violence inflicted on peers and suffering from food deprivation.

The Socio-economic Model illustrates the importance of food deprivation and the pathways leading to violence inflicted on peers. It breaks down the different levels of the pathways and how they each contribute to the overall effect. The multinomial models suggest that females who missed their last day of school because of household chores were twice as likely to be victimized and to perpetrate violence. While there was a gap in the literature linking child poverty and bullying, it most likely stems from the different contexts in which studies are undertaken.

Consequently, our research outcomes diverge from those of other studies carried out in more affluent environments. There is a correlation between peer violence and decreased academic achievement in both female and male students. This phenomenon is observed in the multinomial model exclusively for boys, whereas it is observed in the structural equation model for both girls

and boys. While boys experience a direct link, girls face a mediated channel between food insecurity and violent perpetration. This means that food insecurity ultimately leads to inferior academic achievement among girls. This conclusion has been corroborated by research conducted in other countries. Schools employ corporal punishment as a measure in such circumstances. We have already established correlations among hunger, peer violence, subpar academic achievement, and the use of physical punishment. Prior studies have emphasized the role that exposure to family violence plays in the commission of peer violence, stressing the psychological effects of seeing violence as well as the transmission of attitudes and values (Ahmed et al., 2022; Bacchini et al., 2015).

The correlation between witnessing or hearing the children's father engaging in physical altercations with other males and the subsequent perpetration of violence towards their mothers (including both intimate partner violence and violence perpetrated by other family members) demonstrates the influence of family violence on child violence. Both phenomena are more prevalent among children who have experienced victimization compared to children who have not been exposed to violence. Additionally, these phenomena are more prevalent among individuals who engage in violent behavior. Based on the multinomial regression model, if a child's father had engaged in combat in the previous month, the risk of the child engaging in violent behavior increased by a factor of 5 for girls and 8 for boys. The SEM analysis revealed how fathers' behavior and mothers' abuse are correlated. Additionally, the two variables acted as mediators between food insecurity and the perpetration of violence. According to the current study, children of out-of-home working mothers had a greater prevalence of mental illness and bullying compared to children of mothers who worked at home (Zubair et al., 2021). The findings reiterate the patriarchal

framework of working women in the Pakistani context. Working women are expected to shoulder a greater part of childcare than their male counterparts. Working mothers face a combination of challenges that affect their ability to care for children, including difficult working environments, poor pay, personal stressors, and a lack of day-care centers (Khokhar et al., 2020; Sikandar et al., 2019).

Alongside these impacts, family is seen as a key constituent and a major contributor to the well-being and quality of life of an individual. The combination of family ties and positive communication leads to a feeling of emotional security and stability in children. Research has shown that children who feel loved and who experience positive attachments are much better at dealing with bullying (Estrada Jr. et al., 2018; Gini et al., 2007; Jimerson et al., 2010; Zych et al., 2019). More evidence that bullying victimization and subsequent chronic depression are connected was offered by Kaltiala-Heino and colleagues (Kaltiala-Heino et al., 2010). This is also a reflection of Freud's psychoanalytic theory. Freud's psychoanalysis also describes bullying and victimization as health detractors, therefore and thus lowering quality of life, and causing health symptoms of life such as headache, nausea, sleeplessness, and loss of appetite (Kumpulainen et al., 2000). Adolescence is a critical phase of life when people are changing and are dependent on others. Throughout this stage, peers hold an influential position towards them, and this makes them more prone to being bullied. This peer influence is an important factor that shapes the quality of life in adolescents (Holt et al., 2008). A large proportion of research has primarily focused on the negative impact of bullying on mental health and quality of life in Western cultures. Despite this, there is not much information available on this issue in the context of Pakistan. Substantial research has been focused on the violence and aggression problem in Pakistan, which is simply called

"bullying". Moreover, research has identified that young people can have behavioral issues, poor impulse control, and violent acts in numerous situations (Akbar et al., 2023; Akram et al., 2013; Shahid et al., 2022). Yet there is not much literature available on bullying victimization in schools. In the case of Pakistan, public schools and being male are strong predictors of both bullying victimization and violence (Shujja, et al., 2014).

Both being a bully and a victim of bullying were associated with significant emotional distress across a variety of contexts, such as school, activities outside school, and home, as well as in friendship relationships, and with high scores for behavioral problems. Victims of bullying, however, reported experiencing greater anguish and facing more challenges in terms of their emotions and behavior compared to the individuals who engage in bullying. It is widely believed that those who engage in bullying tend to display externalizing symptoms such as rage, criminal behavior, and hostility. On the other hand, bullying victims tend to exhibit internalizing symptoms such as sadness, anxiety, dread, and social withdrawal. Gini discovered that pupils who were bullied showed a greater inclination towards psychological maladjustment and inadequate coping mechanisms compared to those who were responsible for the bullying. According to the results of previous studies, the psychological suffering associated with bullying can be explained by two primary reasons: a) Victims present with both externalizing and internalizing psychological disorders, and b) a substantial number of these victims are bully victims, that is, they simultaneously engage in victimization and perpetration. This learned pattern of behavior is a by-product of socio-cognitive development in bullied children. When victims of peer bullying develop a belief in power egalitarianism, they also exhibit intolerance towards power differentials and are

thus, more likely to engage in retaliation. This leads to bullying behavior, and a detrimental psychological cycle of victimization and perpetration remains unbroken (Hazler, 1996).

Psychopathologies, as measured by the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, were analyzed using a two-step cluster algorithm. The results showed that the perpetrators and victim groups, as well as the bully victims, followed the same regressive patterns in the analysis of the cluster dimensions of psychopathologies. This finding, which stems from the considerable overlap of being a victim and being a perpetrator, reinforces the notion that the psychopathological landscape is inconsistent and unidirectional in the case of adolescents in Pakistan. Consequently, this finding is innovative since prior studies involving cluster analysis concentrated on the classification of various forms of bullying, as opposed to the complexities of the behavioral and emotional aspects.

One study on bullying behavior subtypes found that there were subgroups of unwanted sexual and internet solicitation. Another study identified different groups of adolescents, including those who were uninvolved, victims, verbal bullies, bully-victims, and physically aggressive bullies, based on their social support, skills status, and social behavior. Mediation studies further support the notion that the commonly held idea that pure victimization is always linked to internalizing illnesses and pure perpetration is always linked to externalizing disorders may be called into question. We believe that future research should adopt a dimensional approach when examining the connection between pediatric behavioral disorders and bullying behaviors (Naveed et al., 2020). The objective of this study was to explore the association between bullying and psychosomatic issues in school-aged children with hearing impairments (HI). Research has shown that schoolchildren are especially at risk for bullying in unsupervised spaces like classrooms,

playgrounds, and cafeterias. Moreover, children with HI are at a higher risk of being bullied in the home, playground, and public spaces because of the communication barriers that are present. This study is the first of its kind in the state of Gujarat to assess bullying victimization and psychosomatic health problems in children with HI while measuring bullying with the MPVS7 and psychosomatic health problems using the Health Questionnaire (Akram & Munawar, 2016).

The study aimed to evaluate the extent to which bullying relates to health issues among children of school age. The data revealed a substantial and positive relational consequence where health issues were of higher magnitude to children experienced victimizing bullying as opposed to children who were not victimized. Headaches, bedwetting, cramps, poor eating, and nightmares were issues of health problems consistent with previous research. Multiple regression analysis was done to assess the bullying behavior predictors of psychosomatic disorders. The dimensions of bullying - physical, social, and property - were reported to strongly predict health issues like headaches, abdominal pain, and respiratory problems, skin problems, and nausea in children with HI (Rahman et al., 2024).

Furthermore, the investigation sought to understand the extent to which the four dimensions of bullying might contribute to disrupted appetite, nightmares, bedwetting, disturbed sleep, school-related anxiety, and other problems in HI children. A T-Test was used to compare the mean scores of the participants to determine differences across the groups. The findings showed that boys victims recorded higher incidences of physical bullying, which was consistent with the existing literature. One possible explanation for this difference might be tied to the socialization of boys and girls.

Boys are encouraged to 'play rough', and 'fight' so aggressive physical interactions are probably more accepted. On the other hand, the attacks on personal properties and loss of personal belongings appeared to be more prevalent with the girls. Boys were more likely to engage in bullying based on properties, including stealing and deliberate destruction of property. These gendered variations in bullying experiences could be explained through socialization and child-raising processes, in which girls are socialized to be less aggressive and more submissive. Bullying in girls is then mostly more subtle in nature, including slander, spreading rumors, social exclusion, and manipulation of friendships. The research also noted that more health problems resulting from bullying were reported by girls compared to boys (Munawar et al., 2015).

School bullying and victimization are multifaceted events influenced by multiple ecological factors, including family life, parenting style, child characteristics, and the school as an institution, including teachers-students' relationships and the sense of belongingness at school. Social behavior in a child is significantly determined by the dynamics of a family. For instance, conflict within the family or seeing fighting behavior can predispose children to either become bullies or targets of bullying. The impact of parenting styles should not be underestimated. Authoritative parenting, which successfully integrates warmth with firmness, is likely to minimize the incidence of such behaviors. On the other hand, neglectful parenting and overly permissive parenting can contribute to the emergence of such behaviors. A child's bullying role, whether as an instigator or a victim, is determined by individual characteristics like temperament, hardiness, and social competence. The extent to which bullying is reduced or compounded is influenced by teacher-student relations and the sense of belonging within the school community. The reduction

of bullying and victimization is the result of an inclusive school climate demonstrated by respect and care toward students.

These characteristics are also a part of particular social and cultural configurations within Pakistan. For instance, some members of Pakistani culture that exhibit hyper-masculine and aggressive traits are more likely to socialize boys to exhibit violent behavior, contributing to school bullying. Moreover, within a patriarchal social order, societal expectations regarding bullying and within social discrimination patterned exploitation of aggressive bullying behavior are likely to increase the probability that boys will use physical aggression and that girls will engage in relational bullying. Also, the social inequities that are present in Pakistan are added social-ecological factors that may trigger and sustain the already existing cultural factors that pattern discrimination and exploitation through relational bullying. Thus, a cultural and social-ecological integrated understanding of these factors will help in designing more effective interventions to reduce bullying and victimization in Pakistani schools.

Proposed Model of the Study

Bullying, however, is undoubtedly prevalent in primary and middle schools. At the same time, this stage is critical for the development of identity and a positive self-concept. Bullying behavior causes problems not only for the victim, but also for the perpetrator. Victims are expected to suffer from severe and immediate negative consequences that will last for years. They frequently exhibit symptoms of depression, anxiety, and other negative emotional consequences (Rigby, 1999). Furthermore, bullying victims frequently exhibit low self-esteem (Ekman & Davidson, 1994; Tsaousis, 2016). This current study model in the field of school bullying and peer

victimization focuses on understanding how individual characteristics of children interact with environmental contexts or systems to promote or prevent victimization and perpetration. Dealing with this issue earlier will not only result in a safer and healthier school environment but will also have an impact on the community. A comprehensive picture of various types of bullying, victimization, and bystanders would also aid in the launch of an evidence-based bullying prevention programs in Pakistan.

It is especially important because it allows us to investigate the direct, indirect, and combined impact of these social contexts on bullying participation. Although the social-ecological framework has been widely applied to child development issues, it has had limited application to school-based bullying. In many ways, the framework has been studied in relation to bullying one step at a time. Individual attitudes and behaviors (micro) of bullying, for example, have been found to be shaped by family and sibling relationships (micro), which represent a mesosystem interaction in some studies, but very few studies have examined the social-ecological model comprehensively.

The model presented in Figure 1 depicts the complex interaction of various factors that lead to the occurrence of bullying and victimization in a child's ecological system. The relationship between child characteristics and bullying indicates that innate or acquired features of the child may impact or initiate bullying behaviors. Possible factors that could be involved include self-esteem, assertiveness, social skills, and even physical traits. Bullying behaviors are also significantly influenced by parenting styles and practices; permissive, neglectful, or authoritative parenting may either alleviate or aggravate these tendencies. Family functioning plays a significant influence in the development of bullying behaviors. A secure family environment can act as a

protective factor, while family dysfunction, characterized by conflict or lack of support, can contribute to the development of bullying behaviors.

Moreover, the overall atmosphere of the school, including a sense of inclusion and the quality of teacher-student relationships, can either discourage or facilitate instances of bullying. Bullying behaviors may decline in children when they experience acceptance and integration into the school community. In contrast, if students suffer alienation or bad teacher interactions, bullying may become more prevalent. Child behavioral problems influence bullying and can contribute to its exacerbation. Being involved in bullying behavior can contribute to the presence of behavioral problems, for instance, increased aggression or disobedience, and can also increase the chances of the child being a bully.

Victimization is an aspect of the ecological model that is affected by interactions with the following aspects, which are similar but also possess specific characteristics. Child characteristics, like vulnerability, societal position, or flexibility, may determine their likelihood of being victimized. Good parenting is a significant factor in a child's vulnerability to victimization. Kids who are overprotected or have parents who emotionally withdraw are also more likely to be victims. The quality of support and communication in the family system decides whether family functioning will help avoid or fail to prevent victimization. The school environment plays a major role in the prevalence of victimization since an environment that is safe and welcoming can protect children from being victimized, while an aggressive or indifferent school climate can expose them to victimization. In addition, child behavioral disorders may act as antecedents or consequences of victimization, where symptoms of social withdrawal, anxiety, or violence may be caused by or lead to being victimized, thus creating a cyclical pattern of suffering and maladaptive behaviors.

The bystander plays a pivotal role in regulating the relationship between ecological factors, victimization, and bullying. Bystanders can either support or impede bullying and victimization through their actions or inactions. Through intervening, reporting, or providing support to the victim, their actions can potentially stop the cycle of bullying and minimize the negative impact of ecological factors on child behavioral disorders. Conversely, witnesses who choose to remain passive or even join in the bullying may worsen the consequences of certain parenting styles, family dynamics, and unresponsive school settings, worsening behavioral issues in the bully and the victim. Within the ecological model, witnesses and their reactions are crucial to determining the outcome of a bullying encounter. They can either exacerbate the problem or, if managed appropriately, resolve an episode of bullying or assist the victim.

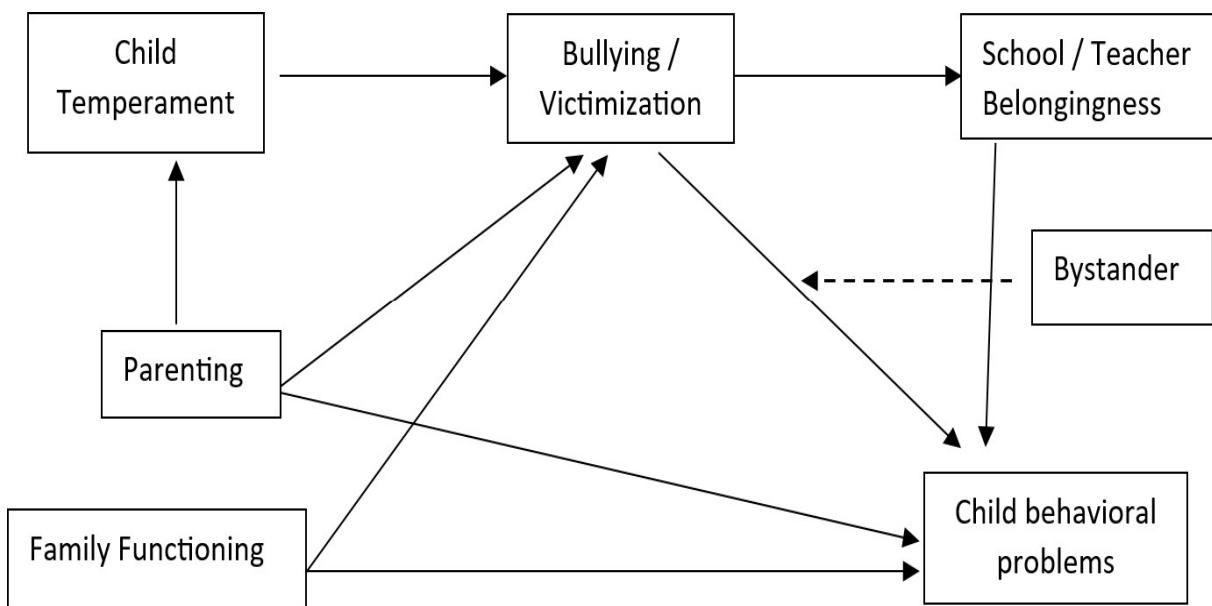
The model elegantly summarizes myriad ecological influences on bullying and victimization. It indicates that a child's unique characteristics, parental supervision, family cohesiveness, and a school's atmosphere—whether supportive or neglectful—all contribute to the likelihood that a child will bully or be victimized. Bystanders can modify the impacts of these influences and the course of a child's social development. The model illustrates an integrated ecosystem in which all components are interdependent, and each can produce certain behavioral outcomes in a child. This emphasizes the need for a unified method when addressing bullying and victimization in a child's surroundings.

This paper investigates how different ecological factors shape bullying, victimization, and bystander behavior among children in school settings. There has been scant research that has sufficiently tested the ecological model in the context of bullying, victimization, and bystander

behavior. This gap shows a higher need for research that targets examining other systems and their interrelations.

Figure 1

Proposed Model of the Study



Rationale of the Study

Bullying is a prevalent issue among schoolchildren. Based on a comprehensive nationwide investigation, it was shown that 30% of students were engaged in bullying either as a victim, perpetrator, or both in the preceding academic term (Nansel et al., 2001). Instances of bullying are first documented throughout the preschool years and thereafter become prevalent in elementary school settings. Violence and hostility have become the predominant and most severe social problems in present-day Pakistan. Bullying is characterized as aggressive behavior driven by damaging intentions, which is consistently carried out by the offender over a prolonged duration. It usually happens in contexts where there are differences in power or control (Nansel et al., 2001; Olweus, 1993). According to research, there are four categories: Bullies are those who perpetrate bullying. Victims are those who are targeted through bullying. Bullying victims are those who both bully others and are bullied themselves. Uninvolved or neutral individuals are those who do not participate in bullying activities (Antti Kärnä et al., 2010; Jimerson et al., 2010; Troop-Gordon et al., 2019).

Little is known about the bullying behavior within the Pakistani context. The current research aims to consider the gap within the literature by looking at the prevalence rates of school bullying and the varying forms taken by preadolescents in schools, looking at the variable of the gender. Each culture and context has different bullying behavior patterns. In Western countries, particularly in the context of older children, there is bullying of younger children which involves physical and verbal aggression, and such aggression is pervasive (Smith, 1999). The bullying behavior is dynamic with the highest rates of victimization and bullying occurring at the primary

school tiers, particularly the 4th to 6th grades. Higher primary grades have a greater exposure to bullying in the various forms. Gradually, the older students shift from overt, aggressive forms and harass their peers in covert and indirect ways (Selekman & Vessey, 2004). In the context of the greater bullying risk in the primary grades, the current study is focusing on 4th graders.

Overall, boys exhibit a significantly higher prevalence of physical aggression and direct bullying behavior in most contexts, which is especially true in situations of bullying.

As noted in my answer to question 2, Crick and Bigbee (1998) and Prinstein and La Greca (2004) have found that differences between sexes in relational bullying (such as rumor-spreading and social exclusion) tend to be minimal. However, some literature has also noted that bullying girls are more likely to utilize indirect forms of aggression, especially rumor-spreading and social exclusion.

The various types of bullying affect various parts of society, like schools, individual personality, family, peers, and social networking platforms. Systems theory scholars (Seifert et al., 2012) identify a multitude of interconnected elements that may inhibit social integration, rather than a solitary element, as the cause of violent behavior. Moreover, Casebeer (2012) emphasizes the need to appreciate the diversity of the components and encourages the bullying literature to be more systematic. There are far-reaching negative consequences due to bullying that extend beyond the immediate effects on a person. There are school shootings, self-inflicted injuries, and challenges to academic achievement due to bullying, and these effects are deep and negative on all the students involved.

Research indicates that those involved in bullying often experience difficulties in their family relationships (Nocentini et al., 2019; Papanikolaou et al., 2011), and other problems, like substance use (Litwiller & Brausch, 2013; Radliff et al., 2012), lower life satisfaction (Allison et al., 2014; Shahid et al., 2022), negative self-concept (Azeredo et al., 2015; Schoeler et al., 2019), and poor social relationships (Papanikolaou et al., 2011). Understanding these problem behaviors is necessary in creating a more positive and safe school culture, and it will require careful attention to the social relationships that foster bullying.

While a great deal has been researched regarding the predictors of bullying (Cosma et al., 2020; Cuesta et al., 2021; Espelage & Swearer, 2023; Litwiller & Brausch, 2013; Saarento & Salmivalli, 2015; Williams et al., 2020), the overall variety of ecological perspectives on bullying has been relatively under-explored. This study aims to help fill this gap by exploring the interrelations of bullying, victimization, and behavioral problems along with the family, personality, and school frameworks. It aims to study the role of bystander behavior as a potential moderating variable in the dynamics of bullying and victimization and aims to make a novel contribution to the current literature on the subject.

Though widely utilized in studying child development, the ecological perspective has seen limited use in school-based bullying research. Research has documented the significant impact of familial and sibling relationships on bullying attitudes and behaviors. This micro-level family context, in conjunction with school settings, can be seen as a mesosystem interaction. Unfortunately, research remains sparse in understanding bullying, victimization, and bystander behaviors through the ecological perspective. More attention needs to be given to studying the larger systems and their interactions about bullying (Espelage et al, 2011).

This investigation of bullying from a Pakistani culture perspective focuses on controversial gender relations, which previous research has already documented. Multiple Pakistani studies have documented and examined purported cases of youth violence and aggression and problem behaviors in a range of settings (Musharraf et al., 2019; Shahzadi et al., 2019; Shujja & Atta, 2011). Shujja and Shujjat (2014) determined that being male and attending public schools were strong predictors of bullying, being victimized, and aggressive behaviors such as fighting.

This study seeks to build on that foundational work but focuses on the nature and extent of bullying behavior in preadolescents in public schools in Pakistan. The relationship between bullying, which includes multiple forms of violence and aggression, and mental illness is well-established (Arseneault, 2017). Furthermore, there is some evidence that bullying is a potential precursor to escalating violence in documented cases (Ttofi et al., 2012). Attending this issue promptly will make schools safer and more pleasant places and will benefit the larger community. A comprehensive understanding of various kinds of bullying, whether victimization occurs, and how bystanders act will contribute to developing evidence-based anti-bullying strategies tailored for Pakistan.

Methodologically, previous studies on bullying have not fully embraced and integrated all ecological components. This is the first time researching Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to solve an ecological problem where the joint impact of multiple environmental factors will be examined in explaining the behaviors of bullying and victimization. This will be the first integrated and comprehensive study on the relationships among these components. This study aims to help fill this gap by exploring the interrelations of bullying, victimization, and behavioral problems along with the family, personality, and school frameworks. It aims to study the role of bystander behavior as a potential moderating variable in the dynamics of bullying and victimization and aims to make a novel contribution to the current literature on the subject.

Furthermore, understanding the various dynamics of bullying is critical to designing successful interventions (Espelage & Swearer, 2023; Jimerson et al., 2010). This study seeks to address academic discourse by analyzing the link between bullying and victimization behaviors, problem behaviors, and various other contextual relational family, individual, and school variables. Moreover, this study attempts to address a gap in the literature by exploring the moderating impact of bystander behavior on bullying and victimization behavior, thus providing additional insights into the academic discourse.

Chapter II

METHODOLOGY

The present study aims to determine the interactive effect of ecological factors in the development of bullying, victimization, and bystanders' behaviors in school children. The present study is conducted in two phases. Phase I includes translation and validation of study measures to be used in the main study. Phase II was the main study of present research. In this phase all the hypotheses of the research were tested, and structural equation models were utilized to assess the relationships between study variables. Details of research designs for both phases are provided below:

Phase I: Translation and Validation of Measures

This phase consisted of two stages. The initial stage involved the translation of outcome measures. The second stage involved the verification of the translated measures.

Objectives

The objectives of phase I are as follows.

1. To translate Forms of Bullying scale to Urdu.
2. To translate Bystander Intervention scale to Urdu.
3. To validate translated versions of measures.

First Stage: Translation of the English version of Measures

For our main study, we needed to adopt two measures, including the Forms of Bullying Scale and Bystander Intervention Scale, whereas all other study measures were available in Urdu and validated. Details of these two scales are presented below:

Measures

Forms of Bullying Scale

Urdu version of Forms of Bullying Scale (FBS), (Shaw et al., 2013) with versions to measure bullying victimization (FBS-V) and perpetration (FBS-P) was used, each form consists of 10 items. Its measures following five domains of bullying i.e. Verbal, Threatening, Physical physically, Relational and Social. The scale encompasses response options structured on a 5-point Likert-type scale, spanning from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". FBS demonstrated adequate psychometrics (Flowers et al., 2023; Shaw et al., 2013), with concurrent validity was established with measures of emotional and behavioral problems such as Strengths and Difficulty Questionnaire, Depression Anxiety and stress scale, and peer social support scale. Scale demonstrated high Cronbach's alpha values of .92 (FBS-V) and .91 (FBS-P). In our study, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were .92 (FBS-P) and .89 (FBS-V) respectively.

Bystander Intervention Scale

The Bystander Intervention Scale comprises 16 items, originally formulated by Latané and Darley in 1970, drawing upon the foundational Bystander Intervention Model. This assessment tool was subsequently adapted for application among elementary school students by

Jenkins and Nickerson (2017). It includes five subscales: notice the event, interpret the event as an emergency that requires assistance, accept responsibility for intervening, know how to intervene or provide help, and implement intervention decisions respectively. Responses to the items are recorded using a 4-point Likert scale ranging from "Really Disagree" to "Really Agree." High internal consistency coefficients ($>.77$) for all subscales have been reported (Jenkins & Nickerson, 2019). Convergent validity was established supporting five factor bystander intervention model structure (Jenkins & Nickerson, 2017). Internal consistency of the scale was found to be .86 for the present study sample.

Translation Process

Brislin's (1980) guidelines were followed to translate Forms of Bullying scale and Bystander Intervention Scale into Urdu. Translation process usually involved forward and back translation, committee review and pilot testing of the target language version of the scale. The present study considered the following steps to translate the measures.

Step I: Forward Translation

A pair of bilingual evaluators were recruited. The individuals were doctoral candidates specializing in child and educational psychology. They possessed a sufficient level of proficiency in both Urdu (target) and English (source) languages. Family Relations was translated into Urdu. Subsequently, a team consisting of three professionals in the field of psychological assessment assessed both translations. They conducted a thorough assessment of each component of the scale and subsequently developed a consolidated version.

Step II: Back translation and Committee Approach

Two bilingual experts, with a varied cultural background and at least 8 years of experience, independently translated the Urdu version of the questionnaire back into English. The expert committee, including two professionals (psychologists working in educational settings), one PhD scholar (psychology), and one Master's language expert, meticulously assessed both translations and formulated a consolidated rendition of reverse translation. The revised version was subsequently compared to the original and found to be identical and satisfactory in terms of semantic similarity.

Stage II: Validation of Study Measures

Sample

For the validation study, using cross cross-sectional study design, we recruited 500 students (boys: 268; girls: 232) with a mean age of 10.29 (SD = 1.30) years studying in 4th grade from four public elementary schools of Rawalpindi, Pakistan.

Procedure

Approval was obtained from four schools to collect data. The participants were duly apprised of the confidentiality of their data and their prerogative to disengage from the study at any time, notwithstanding their prior consent. The participants initially filled out a series of questionnaires during a 60-minute session that took place during regular school hours. All children willingly took part in the study. They were also notified of their right to withdraw from their involvement at any given moment. The interventions were applied in the child's regular classes. The questionnaire was answered anonymously, and mothers' information was linked to the students' information with code numbers marked on both measures.

Ethical Considerations

After obtaining the informed consent of all the participants, they were approached and granted permission to withdraw at any time. The participants received information about the aim of the study. They were assured that at no point would they endure physical or psychological injury. The importance of treating all the participants with dignity and decency was emphasized. All participants were given informed consent, with parents giving consent for their children.

Children were also permitted to attend. Teachers and parents who assisted in filling in the

questionnaires were informed of the purpose of the research and a guarantee of confidentiality and anonymity. Voluntary participation was ensured, and all respondents were informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any moment without repercussions.

Data Analysis Methodology

Statistical analyses were performed utilizing IBM SPSS Statistics, version 26.0 (Corp, 2019). Descriptive statistical methods were applied to ascertain the frequencies, percentages, and standard deviations pertaining to all demographic variables. The internal consistency reliability was quantified using Cronbach's alpha, adhering to established qualitative interpretation norms: alpha values ranging from .70 to .79 were deemed adequate, those between .80 and .89 were classified as good, and alpha values of .90 or higher were indicative of excellent internal consistency (Hunsley & Mash, 2008). Based on the revised item-total correlation, we subsequently performed an item analysis. A confirmation factor analysis (CFA) was performed on the initial two-factor model to assess its validity and the degree to which the identified model of the original scale corresponds to the Urdu FBS in our sample. The variation accounted for by both factors, factor loadings, and the goodness of fit results of the CFA model, all provided evidence for the presence of two dimensions, like the original scale, as determined through an examination of the scree plot. Table 4 displays the factor loadings of the items. The comparative fit index (CFI; $\geq .90$), the Tucker Lewis index (TLI; $\geq .90$), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; $\geq .08$), and the root mean squared residual (RMSR; $.08$) were used in CFA to evaluate model fits (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

Phase II: Main Study (Hypotheses Testing)

Phase II was the main study of present research. In this phase all the hypotheses of the research were tested and relationship between the variables were established.

Objectives

The objectives of the present research are:

1. To explore the associations between bullying, victimization, and bystanders' behavior in school children.
2. To determine the interacting effect of child ecological factors (i.e., child's gender, age, temperament) in development of bullying, victimization, and bystanders' behaviors in school children.
3. To determine the interacting effect of family ecological factors (i.e., parenting and family relations) in development of bullying, victimization, and bystanders' behaviors in school children.
4. To determine the interacting effect of school ecological factors (i.e., school and teacher belongingness) in development of bullying, victimization, and bystanders' behaviors in school children.
5. To explore the effects of family relations in the development of bullying, victimization, and bystanders' behavior in school children.

Hypotheses

1. Bullying behavior is positively associated with externalizing behavior problems.
2. Victimization is positively associated with internalizing behavior problems.

3. Bullying and victimization behavior are negatively associated with child temperament.
4. Negative parenting practices are positively associated with bullying and victimization behavior.
5. Negative family relations are positively associated with bullying and victimization behavior.
6. School belongingness and teacher belongingness are negatively associated with bullying and victimization behaviors.
7. There are gender differences in child bullying and victimization behaviors.
8. There are age differences in bullying and victimization behaviors.
9. There is difference in bullying and victimization based on bystander behavior.

Operational Definitions of Study Variables

Bullying

Bullying is defined as “a specific type of aggressive behavior characterized by three key components: (1) the intention to harm or disturb, (2) the repetition of such behavior over time, and (3) an imbalance of power between the aggressor and the victim” (Nansel et al., 2001; Olweus, 1993). In this study, bullying behavior is assessed using the Forms of Bullying Scale, with higher scores reflecting greater levels of bullying behavior.

Victimization

Victimization is characterized as “*the experience of being targeted by bullying behaviors. Victims often find themselves in situations where they are unable to defend themselves against the aggressive actions of their peers, leading to significant emotional and psychological distress*

 (Yu

et al., 2023). In this study, bullying behavior is assessed using the Forms of Bullying Scale, with higher scores reflecting greater levels of victimization.

Bystander's Behavior

A bystander can be defined as “*an impartial observer who is not involved in bullying and treats victims depending on their social position*” (Saarento & Salmivalli, 2015). Bystanders can adopt, including defenders, assistants, reinforcers, and outsiders (Jenkins & Nickerson, 2019; Thornberg et al., 2018). In our study, we measured bystander's behavior using Bystander intervention scale which measures five types of bystander behavior including event being noticed, interpretation of the event as an emergency requiring assistance, assumption of responsibility for intervening, knowledge of how to provide help, and implementation of intervention decisions.

Behavioral problems

Behavioral problems encompass both internalizing and externalizing issues in school children (Bista et al., 2024; Syed et al., 2009), assessed through the SDQ scale. Higher scores suggest more severe problems. The SDQ evaluates five key areas: conduct problems, hyperactivity-inattention, emotional symptoms, peer relationship difficulties, and pro-social behavior.

Ecological factors

In our study, ecological factors are based on Bronfenbrenner's socio-ecological model, which recognizes that children are embedded within systems that influence their development and behavior in both direct and dynamic ways (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). This model seeks to understand how the individual characteristics of children interact with their environmental contexts to either promote or prevent victimization and bullying behavior

(Espelage, 2012; Hong & Espelage, 2012). The ecological factors examined include child-level, parental and family-level, and school-level factors. Child factors were measured using the Early Adolescent Temperament Questionnaire, and SDQ. While parenting and family factors were assessed through the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire and the Family Relationships Scale. School factors were measured using the School and Teacher Belongingness Scale.

Sample and Study Design

The study was carried out using a cross-sectional study design. The sample consisted of 500 students studying in the 4th grade. Girls (n = 241) and boys (n = 259) were drawn from public schools of Rawalpindi. Their age ranged from 10-12 years (M =11.06; SD = 1.01). Their parents were also approached with the help of the school administration for rating parent-reported questionnaires.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

To be included in the study, students had to be enrolled in the 4th grade, within the specified age range, and attend school regularly during the data collection period. Additionally, parental consent was required, and parents were approached through the school administration to complete the parent-reported questionnaires. Students whose parents did not provide consent, or who had learning disabilities or special needs that could hinder their ability to participate, were excluded from the study. Furthermore, students who were absent or unwilling to participate during the data collection period were also excluded.

Measures

In our study, data were collected from multiple sources, including children, teachers, and parents. Consequently, we structured the measures section to differentiate between those reported by parents and teachers and the self-reported measures by the children as follows:

Parent and Teacher Reported Measures

Alabama Parenting Questionnaire - Parent reported

The Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ; Frick, 1991; Urdu version-Mushtaq, 2015), a parent-reported assessment, was utilized to evaluate parental practices. The questionnaire comprises 42 items and assesses five facets of parenting: (1) positive engagement with children, (2) monitoring and supervision, (3) implementation of positive disciplinary methods, (4) maintenance of consistency in the implementation of said methods, and (5) utilization of corporal punishment. The items are scored on a 5-point scale from "never" to "always". The APQ has appropriate psychometric properties such as convergent validity with other similar measures (Shelton et al., 1996), internal consistency, and satisfactory criterion validity (Dadds et al., 2003; Essau et al., 2006; Frick, 1991). Reliability coefficients for all subscales were satisfactory ($>.70$) in this study.

Strength and Difficulty Questionnaire – Parent Reported

The research employed the Urdu version of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) (Goodman, 1997; Samad et al., 2005), which is a 25-item tool used to measure all manner of difficulties as well as strengths. It is made up of five subscales, each with five items, and these are the conduct problems, hyperactivity-inattention, emotional symptoms, peer problems, and

pro-social behavior. The responses to these items are measured on a three-point Likert-type scale, with the scale scoring designated as 0 for "Not true," 1 for "Somewhat true," and 2 for "Certainly true." SDQ has yielded a reliability coefficient of 0.70 in this study.

Teacher Observation of Classroom Adaptation – Revised – Teacher Reported

The Teacher Observation of Classroom Adaptation - Revised (TOCA-R, Urdu version-Mushtaq, 2015) is a structured interview instrument specifically created for the purposes of measuring social adaptation among students (Koth et al., 2009). The teachers use this assessment via a structured interview method, containing 16 items. The items are presented in a six-point Likert-type scale from 'never true' to 'always true'. It encompasses the following subscales, namely, accepting authority (for aggressive behavior), social participation (for shyness or withdrawn behavior), self-regulation (for impulsivity), motor control (for hyperactivity), concentration (for inattention), and peer likeability (for rejection). TOCA-R has shown high internal consistency, with alpha estimates of more than 0.80 for all the subscales, according to the Johns Hopkins researchers (2006). Additionally, test-retest correlations over a four-month interval have shown robust results, with correlations being 0.75 or higher for each subscale. In our study, the TOCA-R subscales have shown adequate reliability coefficients (.74 to .93).

Child Reported Measures

Forms of Bullying Scale

Urdu version of Forms of Bullying Scale (FBS; Shaw et al., 2013) with versions to measure bullying victimization (FBS-V) and perpetration (FBS-P) was used, each form consists

of 10 items. It measures the following five domains of bullying i.e. verbal, threatening, physical, relational, and social.

Bystander Intervention Scale

The Urdu version of the bystanders' intervention scale was utilized. The scale consists of 16 items that assess five subscales of Latané and Darley's (1970) Bystander Intervention Model. This model proposes that bystander intervention occurs in five stages: event being noticed, interpretation of the event as an emergency requiring assistance, assumption of responsibility for intervening, knowledge of how to provide help, and implementation of intervention decisions.

Family Relationships Scale

The Urdu version of the Family Relations Scale (Nasir, 2022) was employed to assess the quality of family functioning. This instrument, a 35-item measure developed by the Chicago Youth Development Study (Gorman-Smith et al., 1998), encompasses six distinct scales: Beliefs about Family, Emotional Cohesion, Support, Communication, Shared Deviant Beliefs, and Organization. The internal consistency of all subscales was reported between .59 to .91 and six factor structure was supported (Tolan et al., 1997; Zakaria et al., 2021). In our study, we found moderate to excellent reliability coefficients (.65 to .90) for all subscales.

Early Adolescence Temperament Questionnaire (EATQ-R)

EATQ-R (Ellis & Rothbart, 2001) was used to measure the temperament of school children. It is a 62-item assessment of temperament and behavior in children and adolescents (ages 9 to 15 years old). The following scales were included: activation control,

affiliation, attention, fear, frustration, high-intensity pleasure, inhibitory control, shyness, aggression, and depressive mood. Urdu version of the scale demonstrated reliability coefficients of .71 to .88 for all subscales (Mushtaq, 2015).

School and Teacher Belongingness

The Attitudes toward School and Bonding with Teachers instrument was employed through the Piers-Harris 2 (Piers & Herzberg, 2002) to assess a child's school attitude and their level of closeness and attachment to their teachers. Children respond to 20 items using a 4-point Likert scale, where 1 represents "Strongly disagree" and 4 represents "Strongly agree". Having high scores indicates that the student has a favorable attitude toward school and a good bond with their teachers. Urdu version of the scale demonstrated a reliability coefficient of .80 (Mushtaq, 2015).

Procedure

Authorization for this study was formally obtained from the educational institutions involved, and informed consent was secured from the parents of the participants. Additionally, parents were asked to complete the enclosed questionnaires, APQ and SDQ. Of the 600 consent requests issued, 100 were declined, resulting in a final sample size of 500 students and their respective mothers. This protocol required 10-15 minutes. Participation of the students in the study was entirely voluntary, and they were apprised of their right to discontinue their involvement at any stage. Similarly, a questionnaire including TOCA-R was given to respective teachers of classes that required 6-10 minutes.

For the children reported study protocol, including FBS, FRS, EATQ, and the belongingness scale, a set of protocols was administered in the students' classroom settings. Prior to the commencement of the questionnaire, students were provided with detailed instructions. They were informed about the purpose of the questionnaire, which is to gather their honest responses to understand their experiences and perspectives. They were encouraged to report any difficulties encountered during the response process. The completion of all measures required approximately 30-40 minutes. Students did not report any challenges in understanding the questionnaire items. The questionnaires were completed anonymously. After submitting the questionnaires, each student received a goody bag containing stationery and candies as an incentive. To correlate the information provided by the mothers with the student data, code numbers were used to match responses across all study protocols.

Analysis Plan

A quantitative method was employed for the statistical analysis and interpretation of the results. After collecting the data, it was compiled and structured using SPSS 21 (Corp, 2019). The analysis was conducted using AMOS 21 and MACRO PROCESS (Corp, 2019). After first being examined, the data were cleaned to find and remove any inaccuracies that might have interfered with the results of additional analyses. The data was evaluated for normal distribution to ascertain whether the parametric assumptions were met. Therefore, descriptive statistics were utilized to ascertain the average values, standard deviation, asymmetry, and peakedness, along with other metrics. Categorical data was analyzed to establish percentages and frequencies. A study was done to investigate the association between two variables. Furthermore, t-tests, regression analysis, and analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were performed. The study employed

multilevel modeling to assess the correlation between bullying, victimization, and school and environmental factors. In addition, moderation was carried out to assess the role of bystanders in bullying and victimization behavior.

Chapter IV**RESULTS**

This chapter presents the study findings from both phases. For Phase I, the validation analysis of the translated study measures is presented. For the second phase, which is the primary study, a detailed account of the descriptive and inferential analyses is provided. This is followed by the application of structural equation modeling frameworks specifically designed to evaluate bullying and victimization. The last section of the chapter acknowledges the impact of bystander behavior as a moderator on bullying and victimization.

Phase I: Psychometric Analysis of Study Measures***Reliability Analysis***

Table 1 displays the reliability data for the Urdu version of the FBS. The internal consistency of the overall score of Urdu FBS was found to be excellent, and it was adequate for both factors, with all instances exceeding an alpha value of .89. Most of the item-test correlations were significantly above .54, indicating a high degree of relatedness within the scale and suggesting that there is no need to remove any items.

Table 1*Descriptive Statistics, item-total correlation and Alpha Reliability of FBS*

| Domains | Item s | Cronbach's | | | | | Cronbach's if item dropped |
|---------------|-----------|------------|------|------|------|------|-------------------------------|
| | | M | SD | Skew | Kurt | CITC | |
| Perpetration | 10 | | | | | | .92 |
| Scale | P1 | 2.25 | 1.27 | 1.12 | .22 | .71 | .92 |
| | P2 | 2.10 | 1.04 | 1.10 | .80 | .76 | .91 |
| | P3 | 2.05 | 0.95 | 1.23 | 1.76 | .77 | .91 |
| | P4 | 2.12 | 1.07 | 1.10 | 0.81 | .72 | .91 |
| | P5 | 2.07 | 1.02 | 1.27 | 1.40 | .67 | .92 |
| | P6 | 2.10 | 1.15 | 1.17 | 0.68 | .65 | .92 |
| | P7 | 2.09 | 1.11 | 1.26 | 1.07 | .69 | .92 |
| | P8 | 2.00 | 0.94 | 1.13 | 1.30 | .72 | .91 |
| | P9 | 2.07 | 0.99 | 1.25 | 1.52 | .72 | .91 |
| | P10 | 2.11 | 0.95 | 1.38 | 2.15 | .70 | .92 |
| Victimization | 10 | | | | | | .89 |
| Scale | V1 | 2.26 | 1.33 | 0.94 | -.27 | .68 | .88 |
| | V2 | 2.20 | 1.23 | .91 | -.14 | .63 | .89 |
| | V3 | 2.12 | 1.21 | 1.02 | .10 | .66 | .88 |
| | V4 | 2.04 | 1.10 | 1.00 | .31 | .69 | .88 |
| | V5 | 1.97 | 1.08 | 1.25 | 1.11 | .67 | .88 |
| | V6 | 2.17 | 1.26 | .90 | -.25 | .68 | .88 |

| | | | | | | |
|-----|------|------|------|------|-----|-----|
| V7 | 1.97 | 1.08 | 1.24 | 1.11 | .63 | .89 |
| V8 | 2.08 | 1.11 | 1.01 | .40 | .54 | .89 |
| V9 | 1.97 | 1.04 | 1.11 | .82 | .66 | .88 |
| V10 | 2.15 | 1.19 | .97 | .11 | .57 | .89 |

Note: α = Cronbach's Alpha; M= mean; SD= standard deviation; Skew= skewness; CITC = corrected item total correlation, P= perpetration, V=victimization

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of FBS in Pakistani Sample

We ran the CFA with the existing two-factor model, and the model fit the Pakistani sample adequately based on eigen values, with two factors exhibiting eigen values >1 and 51.40 percent total variance explained. The chi-square goodness of fit test [$\chi^2 = 598 (157, .001)$] showed inadequate fit. Nevertheless, Alavi et al. (2020) contended that in cases with extensive sample sizes (exceeding 200), the chi-square value is likely to maintain statistical significance. Consequently, Kline (2016) recommends that, at the very least, a combination of the following indices should be reported and evaluated, which include RMSEA, CFI, and SRMSR. Hence, following this principle, Table 4 shows CFA model fit indices indicating that the ratios of the RMSEA, RMR, TLI, GFI, and CFI evident a good model fit. Furthermore, Table 2 displays factor loadings of CFA. Figure 2 and Figure 3 show the factor structure and scree plot of the Urdu version of FBS.

Table 2*Factor Loadings on Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N=500)*

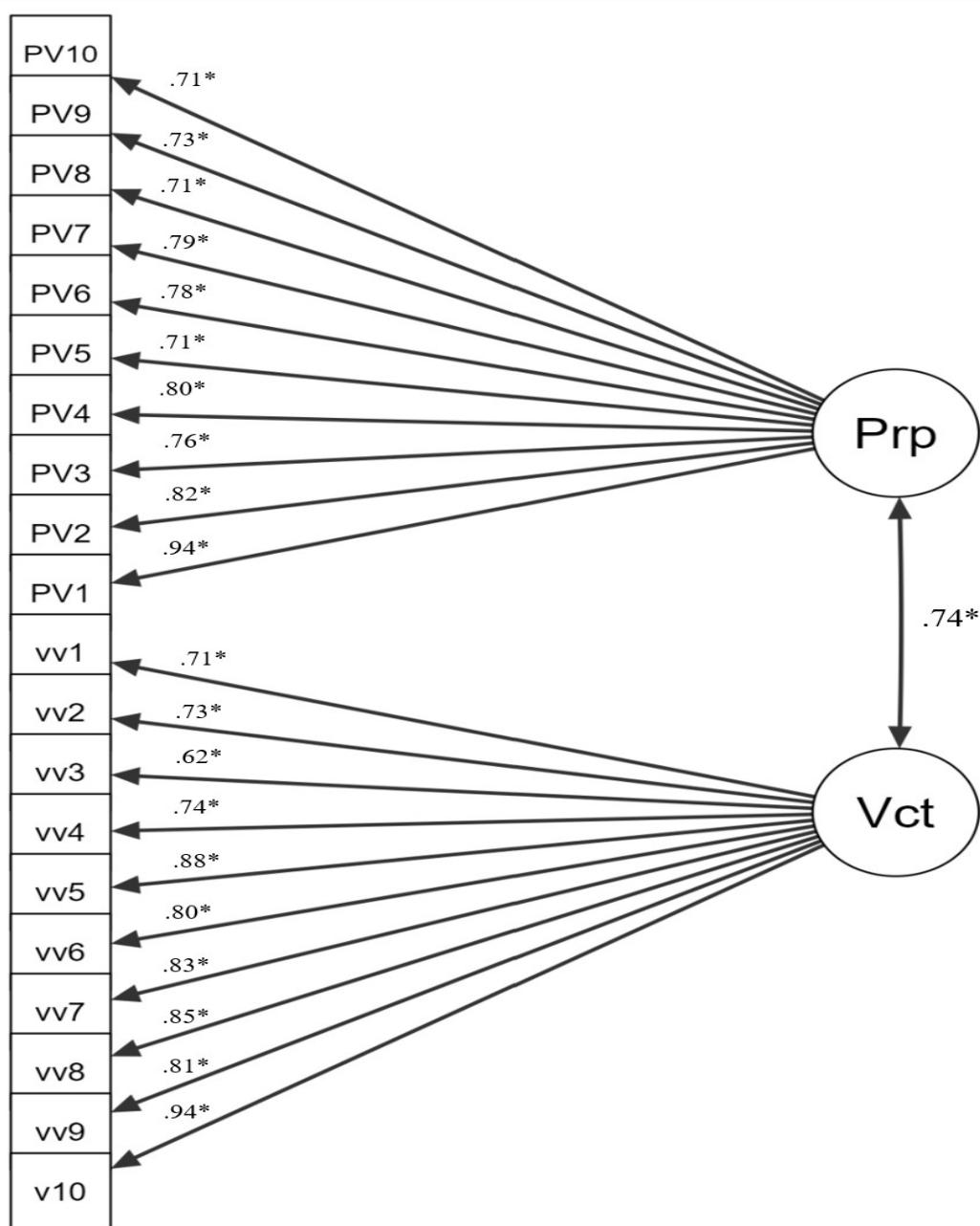
| Items | Loadings | | SE | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|-------|----------|-----|-----|-------------------------|-------|
| | PV | VV | | Lower | Upper |
| PV10 | .70 | | .04 | .62 | .77 |
| PV9 | .72 | | .04 | .64 | .79 |
| PV8 | .69 | | .04 | .62 | .76 |
| PV7 | .78 | | .04 | .69 | .87 |
| PV6 | .76 | | .05 | .67 | .85 |
| PV5 | .72 | | .04 | .64 | .80 |
| PV4 | .79 | | .04 | .71 | .87 |
| PV3 | .77 | | .04 | .70 | .84 |
| PV2 | .83 | | .04 | .76 | .91 |
| PV1 | .96 | | .05 | .86 | 1.05 |
| VV1 | | .95 | .05 | .85 | 1.06 |
| VV2 | | .83 | .05 | .73 | .93 |
| VV3 | | .86 | .05 | .76 | .96 |
| VV4 | | .84 | .04 | .76 | .93 |
| VV5 | | .81 | .04 | .73 | .89 |
| VV6 | | .87 | .05 | .77 | .97 |
| VV7 | | .72 | .04 | .64 | .81 |
| VV8 | | .55 | .05 | .46 | .65 |

| | | | | |
|--------------------------|-------|--------|-----|-----|
| VV9 | .68 | .04 | .60 | .77 |
| VV10 | .67 | .05 | .57 | .77 |
| Eigen values | 5.59 | 27.9 | | |
| Total Variance explained | 27.9% | 23.50% | | |

Note: PV=Perpetuation; VV= Victimization.

Figure 2

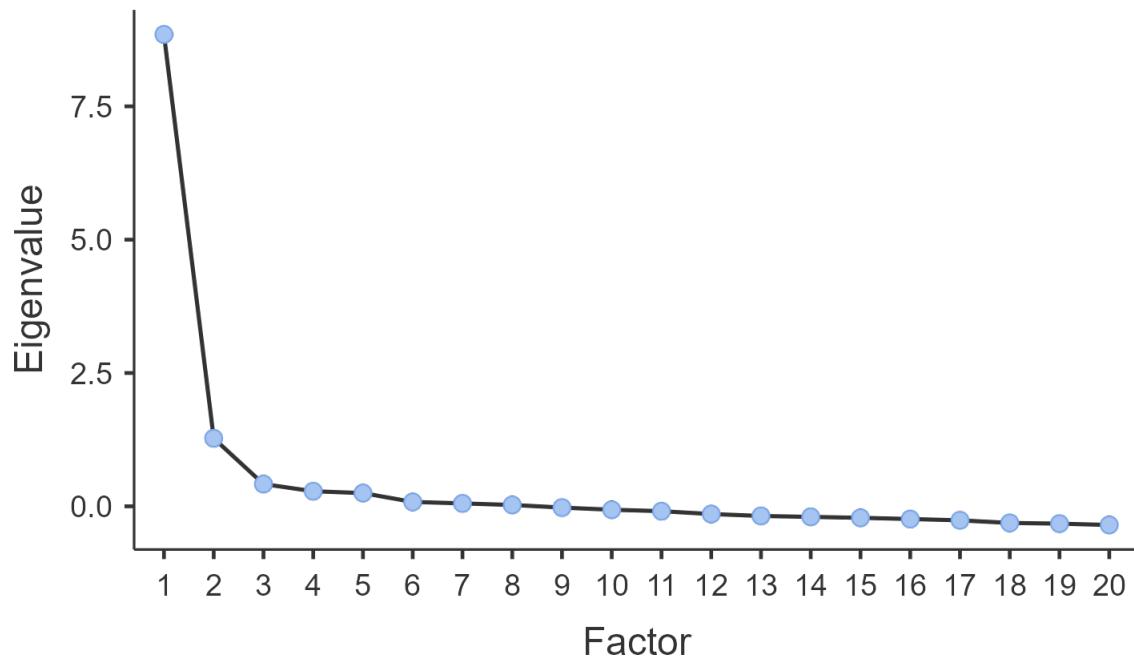
Factor structure of the Urdu version of Forms of Bullying Scale



Note. Prp=Perpetuation; Vct= Victimization.

Figure 3

Scree plot of three factor model of FBS

**Table 3**

Model Fit Indices for 2 Factors Model of FBS

| | χ^2 | Df (p value) | χ^2/df | RMSEA | CFI | GFI | SRMR | TLI |
|----------------------------------|----------|--------------|-------------|-------|-----|-----|------|-----|
| Two factor hierarchical model | 598.33 | 157(.001) | 3.81 | .08 | .92 | .94 | .04 | .90 |

Note. χ^2 = likelihood ratio chi-square statistic; df = degree of freedom for the likelihood ratio test of the model versus saturated; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean squared residual; GFI =Goodness of fit indices; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index.

Table 4*Inter Item Total Correlation of FBS and Bystander's Behavior Scales (N=500)*

| Items | M | SD | Inter Item correlation | Cronbach's alpha if item deleted |
|-------|------|------|------------------------|----------------------------------|
| FBS1 | 2.25 | 1.27 | .75*** | .88 |
| FBS2 | 2.10 | 1.04 | .78*** | .88 |
| FBS3 | 2.05 | .95 | .79*** | .88 |
| FBS4 | 2.12 | 1.07 | .75*** | .88 |
| FBS5 | 2.07 | 1.02 | .70*** | .88 |
| FBS6 | 2.10 | 1.15 | .70*** | .88 |
| FBS7 | 2.09 | 1.11 | .72*** | .88 |
| FBS8 | 2.00 | .94 | .75*** | .88 |
| FBS9 | 2.07 | .99 | .75*** | .88 |
| FBS10 | 2.11 | .95 | .74*** | .88 |
| FBS11 | 2.26 | 1.33 | .75*** | .88 |
| FBS12 | 2.20 | 1.23 | .70*** | .88 |
| FBS13 | 2.12 | 1.21 | .72*** | .88 |
| FBS14 | 2.04 | 1.10 | .74*** | .88 |
| FBS15 | 1.97 | 1.08 | .72*** | .88 |
| FBS16 | 2.17 | 1.26 | .74*** | .88 |
| FBS17 | 1.97 | 1.08 | .69*** | .88 |
| FBS18 | 2.08 | 1.10 | .61*** | .89 |

| | | | | |
|-------------|------|------|---------|-----|
| FBS19 | 1.97 | 1.04 | .70*** | .88 |
| FBS20 | 2.15 | 1.19 | .64*** | .88 |
| Bystander1 | 2.66 | 1.39 | .27*** | .88 |
| Bystander2 | 2.48 | 1.28 | .26*** | .88 |
| Bystander3 | 2.43 | 1.29 | .24*** | .88 |
| Bystander4 | 3.40 | 1.40 | .51*** | .89 |
| Bystander5 | 3.49 | 1.44 | .55*** | .89 |
| Bystander6 | 3.61 | 1.43 | .570*** | .89 |
| Bystander7 | 3.35 | 1.38 | .51*** | .89 |
| Bystander8 | 3.44 | 1.47 | .58*** | .89 |
| Bystander9 | 3.63 | 1.43 | .66*** | .89 |
| Bystander10 | 3.55 | 1.44 | .63*** | .89 |
| Bystander11 | 3.46 | 1.37 | .57*** | .89 |
| Bystander12 | 3.56 | 1.38 | .58*** | .89 |
| Bystander13 | 3.92 | 1.27 | .69*** | .89 |
| Bystander14 | 3.94 | 1.28 | .67*** | .89 |
| Bystander15 | 3.94 | 1.25 | .63*** | .89 |
| Bystander16 | 3.82 | 1.32 | .61*** | .89 |

*** p = < .001.

Note. FBS = Forms of Bullying Scale; Bystander = Bystander Behavior Scale.

Table 4 provides a detailed analysis of the Inter Item Total Correlation for the Forms of Bullying Scale (FBS) and the Bystander's Behavior Scales, using a sample size of 500. This analysis is critical for understanding the internal consistency and reliability of the scales used in the research. For the Forms of Bullying Scale (FBS), the items displayed mean (M) values ranging from 1.97 to 2.26, with standard deviations (SD) between 0.94 and 1.33. These values reflect an even spread of the responses across the items, which can be interpreted as a variety of perceptions or experiences among respondents towards the bullying behaviors. Inter-item correlation for these items is 0.61 to 0.79. This interval reflects that all items correlate highly with the total scale, which indicates that all items are suitable to measure the construct of bullying as defined in the scale. Additionally, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients, if one item were removed, all range from around 0.88. The high alpha indicates very strong internal consistency in the FBS, indicating that the items as a group constitute a sound measure.

The Bystander Behavior Scale reflects a slightly different tendency. For this scale, average scores are higher, in the range of 2.43 to 3.94, with a standard deviation of 1.25 to 1.47. Such fluctuating scores suggest there is more variability in how bystanders are evaluated. For the scale in question, item-total correlations appear to vary the most, in the range of 0.26 to 0.69. Some items, particularly those with correlations of less than 0.3, may be less central to the construct of bystander behavior overall. What this means is that while some items strongly express bystander behavior a bullying, some others do not fit the intended construct as well. By and large, high internal consistency and favorable item-total correlations suggests that the FBS reliably measures bullying behaviors.

Regarding the Bystander Behavior Scale, even if there is still high internal consistency, a more complex pattern scenario, particularly in item correlations, is still evident and can be addressed in future research. This is crucial when evaluating the scales' overall effectiveness and reliability in measuring intended constructs in the context of bullying and bystander behaviors.

Table 5

Inter Item Total Correlation of SDQ and TOCA-R (N=500)

| Items | M | SD | Inter Item | Cronbach's |
|-------|------|-----|-------------|-----------------------|
| | | | correlation | alpha if item deleted |
| SDQ1 | 1.42 | .75 | .68*** | .79 |
| SDQ2 | 1.05 | .75 | .40*** | .79 |
| SDQ3 | .84 | .79 | .67*** | .78 |
| SDQ4 | 1.28 | .77 | .71*** | .79 |
| SDQ5 | .85 | .77 | .59*** | .79 |
| SDQ6 | .77 | .78 | .55*** | .78 |
| SDQ7 | .86 | .78 | .46*** | .79 |
| SDQ8 | .78 | .77 | .65*** | .78 |
| SDQ9 | 1.29 | .77 | .71*** | .79 |
| SDQ10 | .79 | .78 | .60*** | .78 |
| SDQ11 | .87 | .80 | .55*** | .79 |
| SDQ12 | .64 | .76 | .69*** | .78 |
| SDQ13 | .75 | .80 | .74*** | .78 |

| | | | | |
|-------------------------|------|------|--------|-----|
| SDQ14 | .80 | .74 | .56*** | .79 |
| SDQ15 | .76 | .74 | .64*** | .78 |
| SDQ16 | .80 | .77 | .70*** | .78 |
| SDQ17 | 1.23 | .79 | .72*** | .79 |
| SDQ18 | .71 | .75 | .71*** | .78 |
| SDQ19 | .65 | .77 | .64*** | .78 |
| SDQ20 | 1.28 | .74 | .64*** | .79 |
| SDQ21 | .92 | .75 | .46*** | .79 |
| SDQ22 | .64 | .77 | .70*** | .78 |
| SDQ23 | .85 | .78 | .39** | .79 |
| SDQ24 | .88 | .76 | .60*** | .78 |
| SDQ25 | .89 | .76 | .56*** | .79 |
| Overt Aggression | | | | |
| TOCAR5 | 2.66 | 1.47 | .63*** | .87 |
| TOCAR6 | 2.59 | 1.50 | .65*** | .87 |
| TOCAR9 | 2.62 | 1.40 | .64*** | .87 |
| TOCAR12 | 2.59 | 1.43 | .64*** | .87 |
| TOCAR14 | 2.64 | 1.41 | .60*** | .89 |
| Oppositional | | | | |
| TOCAR3 | 2.65 | 1.34 | .73*** | .87 |
| TOCAR4 | 2.59 | 1.42 | .73*** | .84 |

| Covert Anti-Social | | | | |
|-----------------------------|------|------|--------|-----|
| TOCAR7 | 2.72 | 1.49 | .59*** | .83 |
| TOCAR10 | 2.60 | 1.43 | .59*** | .76 |
| Authority Acceptance | | | | |
| TOCAR3 | 2.65 | 1.34 | .53*** | .86 |
| TOCAR4 | 2.59 | 1.42 | .58*** | .86 |
| TOCAR5 | 2.66 | 1.47 | .59*** | .86 |
| TOCAR6 | 2.59 | 1.50 | .58*** | .85 |
| TOCAR7 | 2.72 | 1.49 | .56*** | .86 |
| TOCAR8 | 2.64 | 1.52 | .59*** | .93 |
| TOCAR10 | 2.60 | 1.43 | .60*** | .86 |

p<.01, * p = < .001.

Note: SDQ= Strengths and Difficulty Questionnaire; TOCA-R = Teacher Observation of Child Adaptation Revised.

Table 5 presents the inter-item total correlation analysis for the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) and the Revised Teacher Observation of Child Adaptation (TOCA-R) for a 500-respondent sample. The SDQ, with 25 items, reported mean scores of 0.64 to 1.42 and standard deviations of 0.74 to 0.80, indicating a generally moderate degree of variability in responses. The item total correlation values present, for the SDQ items, a reasonable picture, being between 0.61 and 0.71. The Cronbach's alpha, indicating internal consistency of the scale, and the correlation with the items, if item deletion was performed, remained between 0.78 and 0.79,

indicating that the scale has moderate internal consistency. The variability of item total correlation indicates that the integration for the scale may be improved.

The TOCA-R scale shows mean scores of 2.52 to 3.03 with standard deviations of 1.34 to 1.67, indicating a wider range of responses with 16 items. It includes four subscales: Overt Aggression, Oppositional Behavior, Covert Antisocial Behavior, and Authority Acceptance, which reflect different facets of classroom adjustment behavior. In this respect, the item-total correlation values for the TOCA items capture this adequately; values range from 0.59 to 0.76. In relation to the other subscales, the values of Cronbach's alpha, with respect to the deletion of an item, range from 0.82 to 0.93, which indicates a moderate level of internal consistency.

Table 6

Inter Item Total Correlation of School and Teacher Belongingness Scale (N=500)

| Items | M | SD | Inter item total correlation | Cronbach's alpha if item deleted |
|-----------------------------|------|------|------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| School Belongingness | | | | |
| SB3 | 2.97 | 1.06 | .30** | .79 |
| SB4 | 2.91 | .97 | .14* | .81 |
| SB5 | 3.07 | 1.05 | .33** | .78 |
| SB6 | 3.33 | .86 | .33** | .79 |
| SB7 | 3.33 | .89 | .28** | .79 |
| SB8 | 3.17 | .82 | .20** | .80 |
| SB9 | 3.22 | .96 | .31** | .78 |

| | | | | |
|------------------------------|------|------|--------|-----|
| SB10 | 2.82 | 1.00 | .29** | .79 |
| SB12 | 3.37 | .82 | .28** | .79 |
| SB15 | 2.97 | .97 | .39** | .78 |
| SB16 | 2.95 | .98 | .25** | .80 |
| SB17 | 3.15 | .98 | .34** | .78 |
| Teacher Belongingness | | | | |
| SB1 | 3.53 | .77 | .30** | .73 |
| SB2 | 3.39 | .77 | .34** | .73 |
| SB11 | 3.34 | .79 | .39** | .71 |
| SB13 | 2.40 | 1.09 | .09 | .80 |
| SB14 | 3.49 | .84 | .42*** | .71 |
| SB18 | 3.27 | .86 | .40*** | .72 |
| SB19 | 3.28 | .86 | .42*** | .71 |
| SB20 | 3.21 | .87 | .41*** | .71 |

*p<.05, **p<.01, *** p = < .001.

Note: SB = School Belongingness Attitude Scale.

In Table 6, the inter-item total correlation analysis of the School Bonding Scale, which has 20 items and two subscales: School Belongingness and Teacher Belongingness. Item means for the entire scale range from 2.40 to 3.53, while standard deviations are from 0.77 to 1.09, reflecting a moderate level of variation in student responses. The item-total correlations are between 0.09 and 0.42, and they indicate that most of the items yield a positive and moderate correlation with the overall construct.

The Teacher Belongingness subscale (SB1–SB2, SB11, SB13–SB14, SB18–SB20) has mean scores ranging from 2.40 to 3.53 with standard deviations from 0.77 to 1.09. Item-total correlations vary from 0.09 to 0.42, with SB14 and SB19 having the highest correlations (0.42), indicating high contributions to the scale. Interestingly, SB13 has the lowest item-total correlation (0.09) and is linked with the increase in Cronbach's alpha to .802 if removed. This implies that SB13 could be less on the same continuum as the rest of the subscale items, although on theoretical or conceptual grounds, its inclusion might still be warranted. The rest of the Teacher Belongingness subscale items contribute positively to internal consistency, with values if deleted ranging from .707 to .726. Additionally, Cortina (Cortina, 1993) suggests that scales with lower item-total correlations can still provide valuable information, especially when the constructs are complex and multifaceted.

Table 7*Inter Item Total Correlation of Alabama Parenting and Family Relations Scale (N=500)*

| Items | M | SD | Item total correlation | Cronbach's alpha if item deleted |
|-----------------------------|------|------|------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Positive Involvement | | | | |
| APQ1 | 3.50 | 1.47 | .38*** | .84 |
| APQ4 | 3.51 | 1.33 | .41*** | .83 |
| APQ7 | 3.26 | 1.18 | .30** | .85 |
| APQ9 | 3.49 | 1.41 | .43*** | .83 |
| APQ11 | 3.18 | 1.37 | .35** | .84 |
| APQ14 | 3.43 | 1.26 | .43*** | .83 |
| APQ15 | 3.33 | 1.31 | .36** | .84 |
| APQ20 | 3.30 | 1.39 | .38*** | .84 |
| APQ23 | 3.17 | 1.30 | .31** | .85 |
| APQ26 | 3.75 | 1.32 | .34** | .85 |
| Positive Parenting | | | | |
| APQ2 | 3.68 | 1.37 | .43*** | .82 |
| APQ5 | 3.31 | 1.33 | .45*** | .82 |
| APQ13 | 3.78 | 1.39 | .44*** | .82 |
| APQ16 | 3.49 | 1.46 | .54*** | .78 |
| APQ18 | 3.60 | 1.41 | .52*** | .79 |
| APQ27 | 3.54 | 1.28 | .38*** | .83 |
| Poor Monitoring/Supervision | | | | |
| APQ6 | 2.46 | 1.27 | .25** | .73 |

| | | | | |
|-------------------------|------|------|--------|-----|
| APQ10 | 2.28 | 1.34 | .26** | .74 |
| APQ17 | 2.84 | 1.50 | .21** | .75 |
| APQ19 | 2.73 | 1.35 | .29** | .73 |
| APQ21 | 2.28 | 1.37 | .24** | .74 |
| APQ24 | 2.04 | 1.18 | .32** | .73 |
| APQ28 | 2.88 | 1.53 | .19* | .76 |
| APQ29 | 2.69 | 1.36 | .17* | .76 |
| APQ30 | 2.08 | 1.27 | .31** | .73 |
| APQ32 | 2.25 | 1.21 | .33** | .72 |
| Inconsistent Discipline | | | | |
| APQ3 | 3.17 | 1.22 | .34** | .68 |
| APQ8 | 3.20 | 1.31 | .34** | .68 |
| APQ12 | 2.67 | 1.35 | .30** | .69 |
| APQ22 | 2.82 | 1.32 | .33** | .67 |
| APQ25 | 2.73 | 1.32 | .30** | .70 |
| APQ31 | 2.43 | 1.14 | .18* | .75 |
| Corporal Punishment | | | | |
| APQ33 | 2.87 | 1.20 | .48*** | .56 |
| APQ35 | 2.77 | 1.25 | .48*** | .57 |
| APQ39 | 2.79 | 1.24 | .42*** | .72 |
| Positive Involvement | | | | |
| APQ1 | 3.50 | 1.47 | .38*** | .84 |
| APQ4 | 3.51 | 1.33 | .41*** | .83 |
| APQ7 | 3.26 | 1.18 | .30** | .85 |

| | | | | |
|-------|------|------|--------|-----|
| APQ9 | 3.49 | 1.41 | .43*** | .83 |
| APQ11 | 3.18 | 1.37 | .35*** | .84 |
| APQ14 | 3.43 | 1.26 | .43*** | .83 |

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Note: APQ= Parenting Alabama Questionnaire

Table 8*Inter Item Total Correlation Family Relations Scale (N=500)*

| Items | M | SD | Item total | Cronbach's alpha if |
|----------------------------------|------|------|-------------|---------------------|
| | | | correlation | item deleted |
| Beliefs About Family | | | | |
| FM26 | 2.91 | 1.07 | .59*** | .89 |
| FM27 | 2.80 | 1.06 | .56*** | .90 |
| FM28 | 2.90 | 1.06 | .64*** | .88 |
| FM29 | 2.89 | 1.09 | .60*** | .89 |
| FM30 | 2.93 | 1.01 | .64*** | .88 |
| FM31 | 2.98 | 1.11 | .69*** | .88 |
| Beliefs About Development | | | | |
| FM32 | 2.85 | 1.10 | .57*** | .76 |
| FM33 | 2.77 | .99 | .55*** | .78 |
| FM34 | 2.84 | 1.03 | .55*** | .78 |
| FM35 | 2.70 | 1.16 | .52*** | .78 |
| Cohesion | | | | |
| FM13 | 2.68 | 1.00 | .35** | .74 |
| FM14 | 2.55 | 1.03 | .29** | .77 |
| FM16 | 2.71 | 1.06 | .36*** | .73 |
| FM17 | 2.77 | 1.00 | .40*** | .73 |
| FM18 | 2.61 | 1.08 | .42*** | .71 |
| FM20 | 2.62 | 1.04 | .28** | .75 |

| Shared Deviant Beliefs | | | | |
|------------------------|------|------|-------|-----|
| FM7 | 2.09 | 1.06 | .25** | .49 |
| FM11 | 2.49 | 1.06 | .19* | .61 |
| FM15 | 2.08 | 1.08 | .30** | .50 |
| FM25 | 2.10 | 1.05 | .30** | .48 |
| Support | | | | |
| FM1 | 2.23 | 1.13 | .19* | .62 |
| FM5 | 2.50 | 1.09 | .25** | .59 |
| FM4 | 2.64 | 1.03 | .27** | .57 |
| FM6 | 2.58 | 1.00 | .25** | .58 |
| FM8 | 2.77 | 1.05 | .20** | .61 |
| FM10 | 2.68 | 1.02 | .21** | .61 |
| Organization | | | | |
| FM3 | 3.04 | 1.06 | .24** | .66 |
| FM19 | 2.93 | 1.04 | .20* | .69 |
| FM21 | 3.09 | 1.02 | .33** | .61 |
| FM22 | 2.80 | 1.05 | .30** | .63 |
| FM23 | 2.77 | 1.02 | .26** | .66 |
| FM24 | 2.89 | 1.00 | .28** | .63 |
| Communication | | | | |
| FM2 | 2.63 | 1.09 | .28** | .47 |
| FM9 | 2.52 | 1.05 | .27** | .50 |
| FM12 | 2.67 | 1.02 | .32** | .38 |

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Note: FM= Family Relations Scale

Tables 7 and 8 analyze the APQ and Family Relations scale using a data set of 500 responses. The APQ has 42 items and 5 subscales, including Positive Involvement, Positive Parenting, Poor Monitoring/Supervision, Inconsistent Discipline, and Corporal Punishment. Regarding the Positive Involvement subscale, item mean values and standard deviations pointed to moderate dispersion and variability, as the mean values ranged between 3.17-3.75, and standard deviations ranged between 1.18-1.47. The inter-item correlations, which ranged between 0.30 and 0.43, indicated moderate internal consistency within the subscale. Also, the reliability assessed using Cronbach's alpha, which ranged between .832 and .848, showed that the internal consistency was strong, as the items and the scale were congruent and consistent. APQ has 42 items and 5 subscales, including Positive Involvement, Positive Parenting, Poor Monitoring/Supervision, Inconsistent Discipline, and Corporal Punishment. Positive Involvement subscale mean values ranged and standard deviations pointed to moderate dispersion.

Internal consistency for the Positive Parenting subscale suggests the scale is reliable, especially for items APQ16 and APQ18 which had inter-item correlations of 0.54 and 0.52, the highest on the scale. Most inter-item correlations ranged from 0.38 to 0.54 and the range of correlations, 0.783 to 0.835, for Cronbach's alpha if the item was deleted, is indicative of good internal consistency.

In comparison, the Poor Monitoring/Supervision subscale is of little value to the overall reliability of the scale. Inter-item correlations to 0.721 and 0.758 with APQ items removed suggests agreement of the items is poor. Lower inter-item correlations of 0.19 and 0.17 with APQ28 and APQ29, were also unaligned with other poorly fitting items, provide useful

information despite being poorly aligned overall and aligned with the problem of parental monitoring.

The Inconsistent Discipline subscale also showed poorly intercorrelated items, with correlations between 0.18 and 0.34, and with the 0.669 to 0.747 range of Cronbach's alpha if the item was removed. Reliably, most items advanced the overall reliability of the scale, except for APQ31, which was identified as a paradox for similarly low inter-item correlation of 0.18 and high 0.747 alpha if deleted, signaling a lack of cohesiveness with the subscale.

The Corporal Punishment subscale showed inter-item correlations of moderate strength, ranging from 0.42 to 0.48, with Cronbach's alpha yielding values from .559 to .720. This suggested acceptable internal consistency, but with some variation. Items APQ33 and APQ35, which had the strongest correlation of 0.48, appear to be the primary drivers of this subscale.

Family Relations Scale consists of 35 items. The Family Relations Scale, which consists of 35 items across 7 subscales: Beliefs About Family, Beliefs About Development, Cohesion, Shared Deviant Beliefs, Support, Organization, and Communication features each subscale inter-item correlations of 0.19 to 0.69, and Cronbach's alpha values range from 0.373 to 0.898 if items were to be removed, which indicate moderate variation in participant response across family-related constructs. The data suggests the Inclusion of statistically significant family-related items causes lack of closure in meanings within the whole scale, with non-contributing items explaining the absence of family cohesion. Discrepancies in responses indicate the need for additional items in the Support and Communication subscales.

The Family Relations Scale contains 35 items. The inter-item total correlation of the Family Relations Scale, which also contains 35 items, was divided into seven subscales: Beliefs About Family, Beliefs About Development, Cohesion, Shared Deviant Beliefs, Support, Organization,

and Communication. Items varied between 2.08 and 3.09, with standard deviations between 0.99 and 1.17, suggesting there was some moderate variation in family-related constructs. Item total correlation for the included items was between 0.19 and 0.69, and the “alpha of items deleted” gave estimations between 0.37 and 0.90.

Table 9*Inter Item Total Child Temperament Scale (N=500)*

| Items | M | SD | Item total correlation | Cronbach's alpha if item deleted |
|--------------------|------|------|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Aggression | | | | |
| EATQR5 | 2.86 | 1.25 | .37** | .66 |
| EATQR9 | 2.62 | 1.30 | .34** | .66 |
| EATQR13 | 2.70 | 1.27 | .38** | .65 |
| EATQR22 | 2.87 | 1.31 | .34** | .67 |
| EATQR50 | 2.85 | 1.29 | .28** | .67 |
| EATQR58 | 2.39 | 1.37 | .26** | .69 |
| Depression | | | | |
| EATQR2 | 2.31 | 1.13 | .11 | .66 |
| EATQR7 | 3.42 | 1.29 | .10 | .69 |
| EATQR20 | 2.81 | 1.26 | .09 | .60 |
| EARQR29 | 2.85 | 1.20 | .19* | .71 |
| EATQR37 | 3.48 | 1.24 | .09 | .65 |
| EATQR55 | 2.64 | 1.30 | .12* | .42 |
| Frustration | | | | |
| EATQR35 | 2.40 | 1.30 | .16* | .62 |

| | | | | |
|--------------------|------|------|--------|-----|
| EATQR36 | 3.20 | 1.24 | .14* | .41 |
| EATQR47 | 3.13 | 1.26 | .16* | .68 |
| EATQR56 | 3.14 | 1.29 | .25** | .73 |
| EATQR60 | 3.16 | 1.29 | .25** | .67 |
| EATQR62 | 3.10 | 1.26 | .31** | .67 |
| EATQR63 | 3.45 | 1.24 | .29** | .70 |
| Fear/Shyness | | | | |
| EATQR8 | 3.11 | 1.32 | .13* | .50 |
| EATQR15 | 2.88 | 1.33 | .22** | .48 |
| EATQR32 | 2.89 | 1.38 | .13* | .50 |
| EATQR35 | 2.40 | 1.30 | .35*** | .50 |
| EATQR40 | 2.70 | 1.32 | .20* | .48 |
| EATQR45 | 3.00 | 1.37 | .27** | .44 |
| EATQR46 | 3.16 | 1.31 | .58*** | .50 |
| EATQR51 | 2.38 | 1.34 | .57*** | .51 |
| EATQR53 | 3.11 | 1.37 | .42*** | .60 |
| EATQR57 | 3.41 | 1.33 | .10 | .53 |
| Activation Control | | | | |
| EATQR7 | 3.42 | 1.29 | .54*** | .38 |

| | | | | |
|--------------------|------|------|--------|-----|
| EATQR18 | 3.13 | 1.26 | .50*** | .43 |
| EATQR30 | 3.49 | 1.25 | .55*** | .35 |
| EATQR39 | 3.37 | 1.28 | .57*** | .33 |
| EATQR49 | 3.34 | 1.17 | .51*** | .42 |
| Attention | | | | |
| EATQR1 | 3.54 | 1.26 | .46*** | .17 |
| EATQR34 | 2.90 | 1.26 | .42*** | .02 |
| EATQR38 | 2.61 | 1.20 | .41*** | .06 |
| EATQR41 | 3.11 | 1.24 | .42*** | .65 |
| EATQR59 | 3.49 | 1.28 | .45*** | .14 |
| EATQR61 | 3.41 | 1.22 | .43*** | .17 |
| Inhibitory Control | | | | |
| EATQR10 | 3.04 | 1.23 | .31** | .24 |
| EATQR14 | 3.09 | 1.27 | .34** | .50 |
| EATQR26 | 3.12 | 1.26 | .31** | .69 |
| EATQR43 | 3.50 | 1.40 | .06 | .63 |
| EATQR63 | 3.45 | 1.24 | .50*** | .70 |
| Affiliation | | | | |
| EATQR17 | 2.95 | 1.28 | .22** | .56 |

| | | | | |
|------------------------|------|------|--------|-----|
| EATQR27 | 3.26 | 1.30 | .27** | .49 |
| EATQR31 | 3.51 | 1.26 | .22** | .54 |
| EATQR44 | 3.16 | 1.32 | .24** | .51 |
| EATQR54 | 3.30 | 1.31 | .18* | .57 |
| Perceptual Sensitivity | | | | |
| EATQR6 | 3.26 | 1.23 | .27** | .57 |
| EATQR12 | 2.98 | 1.21 | .25** | .59 |
| EATQR21 | 2.99 | 1.27 | .36*** | .50 |
| EATQR24 | 3.27 | 1.24 | .29** | .54 |
| Pleasure | | | | |
| EATQR4 | 2.64 | 1.28 | .41*** | .56 |
| EATQR16 | 3.46 | 1.33 | .59*** | .37 |
| EATQR23 | 3.58 | 1.23 | .26** | .35 |
| EATQR33 | 3.48 | 1.28 | .24** | .28 |
| EATQR65 | 3.05 | 1.30 | .41*** | .46 |

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Note: EATQR = Early Adolescent Temperament Questionnaire Revised.

Table 9 examines the inter-item total correlation analysis for the Early Adolescent Temperament Questionnaire – Revised (EATQR). The EATQR incorporates various subscales that focus on different emotional and behavioral components, which include Aggression, Depression, Frustration, Fear/Shyness, Activation Control, Attention, Inhibitory Control,

Affiliation, Perceptual Sensitivity, and Pleasure. Participant responses show means and standard deviations that suggest a moderate degree of variability (2.31, 3.58, 1.13, and 1.40).

The Cronbach's alpha values fall between 0.27 and 0.63, suggesting that the scale lacks items necessary for internal consistency, which is generally accepted to be 0.70 or higher. The scale's moderate reliability indicates that some items may not be adding enough to the cohesiveness of the scale. Having a broader range of temperament traits is positive, but the scale appears to lack refinement in temperament measurement. Revising or removing items that are negatively aligned with the construct being measured would likely enhance internal consistency and more accurately reflect the temperament being assessed.

Tables 4 through 8 provide various psychological scales and their internal consistencies assessed by Cronbach's alpha and item-total correlations. Table 6, which included the Forms of Bullying Scale (FBS) and Bystander Behavior Scale, reported moderate to high internal consistency, notwithstanding a few Bystander scale items that reported lower item-total correlations. In Table 7, the comparison of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) and Teacher Observation of Child Adaptation Revised (TOCA-R) showed a mix of internal consistencies, wherein the TOCA-R showed strong positive correlations and the SDQ revealed a mix of positive and negative correlations, as well as some weak negative correlations across a few items. Table 8 addressed the School Belongingness Attitude Scale, which reported high internal consistency except for one item, which showed a negative correlation. In Table 9, the findings on the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ) and Family Relations Scale reported that the APQ revealed strong internal consistency; however, the Family Relations Scale contained some problem areas with a few items that were negatively correlated. Lastly, Table 8 on the Early Adolescent Temperament Questionnaire Revised (EATQR) reported a cycle of item-total correlations and a

moderate Cronbach's alpha, which implies areas of the scale may need improvement to increase overall coherence.

These tables demonstrate the range of psychometric properties of the scales used in the study and the various bullying behaviors, adaptation of children and adolescents, school belongingness, parenting, family relations, and adolescent temperament scales that need to be improved and refined.

Phase II: Descriptive Analysis on Demographic and Study Variables

Table 10

Descriptive of the Study Participants (N=500)

| Variables | N | % | M (SD) |
|--------------------------|-----|------|--------------|
| Age | | | 11.06 (1.01) |
| Males | 259 | 51.8 | |
| Females | 241 | 48.2 | |
| Number of Siblings | | | |
| 1 | 13 | 2.6 | |
| 2 | 77 | 15.4 | |
| 3 | 139 | 27.8 | |
| 4 | 149 | 29.8 | |
| 5 | 62 | 12.4 | |
| 6 or more | 60 | 12 | |
| Birth Order | | | |
| 1 | 144 | 28.8 | |
| 2 | 172 | 34.4 | |
| 3 | 99 | 19.8 | |
| 4 | 51 | 10.2 | |
| 5 | 20 | 4.0 | |
| 6 or above | 14 | 2.8 | |
| Mother Education (Years) | | | |

| | | |
|---------------------|-----|---------------------|
| 8 | 147 | 29.4 |
| 10 | 184 | 36.8 |
| 12 | 84 | 16.8 |
| 14 | 38 | 7.6 |
| 16 and above | 47 | 9.4 |
| Father Education | | |
| 8 | 91 | 18.2 |
| 10 | 235 | 47 |
| 12 | 85 | 17 |
| 14 | 49 | 9.8 |
| 16 and above | 40 | 8 |
| Family System | | |
| Nuclear | 257 | 51.4 |
| Joint | 243 | 48.6 |
| Family Income (PKR) | | 38781.40 (21011.30) |

Table 10 presents a description of the participants' demographics. Each of the participants is 11.06 years old (SD = 1.01 years). This means the participants are primarily middle school age and are likely within a year of each other. The age distribution of the sample is approximately symmetrical. School-age children of this sample are predominantly 11.06 years of age. Gender representation is also evenly balanced. The sample comprises 259 males (51.8%) and 241 females (48.2%). Available data on the academic standing of the children as provided by the teachers indicates that most of the participants were of average (53.4%) or high (36.8%)

academic standing in their classes, with a small minority (9.8%) described as low achievers.

Overall, the participants are likely to be of average academic standing.

In the Physical well-being, most of the participants, are (64.2%) are classified as having average health. The remaining portion of the target population, 29%, is classified as weak in health. The participants classified as obese comprise only 6.8%.

The participants reported having siblings between the range of 1 and 6 or 6 and above, with 3 siblings (27.8%) and 4 siblings (29.8%) being the most common. In terms of birth order, 2nd birth was most common, as 34.4% of participants were in this order. Parents recorded between 8 and 16 years of schooling, which indicates the sample is of diverse social backgrounds. There is 92.4% of parents in the dataset that are single (divorced, separated, or widowed), and only 7.6% are married, demonstrating the dataset has an unusually large number of non-married households. The distribution of family types reveals that the nuclear family slightly outnumbers joint families, comprising 51.4% and 48.6%, respectively. There is a lower socioeconomic status as indicated in the average family income of 38,781.40 PKR (around 140 USD) per month.

Table 11*Descriptive Statistics and Alpha Reliability Coefficient for all Study Variables (N=500)*

| Variables | No. of | | Range | | | | | |
|----------------------|--------|----------|-------|-------|--------|-----------|------|-------|
| | Items | α | M | SD | Actual | Potential | Skew | Kurt |
| FBS – Bullying | 10 | .92 | 2.73 | 7.70 | 10-50 | 10-50 | 1.12 | 2.04 |
| FBS – Victimization | 10 | .89 | 2.89 | 8.14 | 10-50 | 10-50 | .75 | .17 |
| Bystander | 16 | .86 | 54.08 | 12.26 | 16-80 | 16-80 | -.84 | 1.05 |
| SDQ | 25 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Emotional Problem | 5 | .70 | 4.05 | 2.64 | 0-10 | 0-10 | .29 | -.67 |
| Conduct | 5 | .76 | 3.70 | 2.43 | 0-90 | 0-10 | .21 | -1.01 |
| Peer Problem | 5 | .79 | 3.94 | 2.10 | 0-10 | 0-10 | .30 | -.26 |
| Hyperactivity | 5 | .73 | 4.41 | 2.03 | 0-10 | 0-10 | -.12 | -.41 |
| Prosocial Behavior | 5 | .71 | 6.49 | 2.66 | 0-10 | 0-10 | -.40 | -.69 |
| Internalizing | 10 | .72 | 7.30 | 3.24 | 2-18 | 0-20 | -.15 | -.65 |
| Externalizing | 10 | .76 | 8.47 | 3.81 | 2-18 | 0-20 | .37 | -.47 |
| TOCA-R | 16 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Overt Aggression | 5 | .89 | 13.10 | 6.09 | 5-25 | 5-25 | .26 | -1.03 |
| Oppositional | 2 | .84 | 5.24 | 2.56 | 2-10 | 2-10 | .39 | -.97 |
| Covert Antisocial | 2 | .74 | 5.32 | 2.61 | 2-10 | 2-10 | .26 | -1.12 |
| Authority acceptance | 10 | .93 | 26.26 | 1.03 | 13-50 | 10-50 | .42 | -.73 |
| SBAS | 20 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Teacher Relation | 10 | .74 | 25.91 | 4.18 | 10-50 | 10-50 | -.95 | 1.13 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|----|-----|-------|------|-------|-------|------|------|
| School Belonging | 10 | .72 | 37.27 | 6.46 | 10-50 | 10-50 | -.39 | -.64 |
| APQ | 42 | | | | | | | |
| Positive Involvement | 10 | .85 | 33.69 | 8.81 | 10-50 | 10-50 | -.36 | -.12 |
| Positive Parenting | 6 | .86 | 21.38 | 6.15 | 6-30 | 6-30 | -.39 | -.74 |
| Poor Monitoring and Supervision | 10 | .71 | 23.51 | 5.81 | 10-50 | 10-50 | -.11 | -.84 |
| Inconsistent Discipline | 6 | .70 | 17.21 | 4.27 | 6-30 | 6-30 | -.23 | -.59 |
| Corporal Punishment | 3 | .71 | 8.50 | 2.83 | 3-15 | 3-15 | -.07 | -.70 |
| Family Relations | 35 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Belief About Family | 10 | .87 | 28.56 | 8.32 | 10-40 | 10-40 | -.62 | -.48 |
| Cohesion | 6 | .70 | 15.93 | 4.26 | 6-24 | 6-24 | -.50 | -.38 |
| Shared Deviant | 4 | .71 | 8.76 | 2.81 | 4-16 | 4-16 | .29 | -.57 |
| Support | 6 | .65 | 15.40 | 3.79 | 6-24 | 6-24 | .16 | -.14 |
| Organization | 6 | .90 | 17.52 | 3.89 | 6-24 | 6-24 | -.51 | .36 |
| Communication | 3 | .75 | 8.30 | 2.63 | 3-12 | 3-12 | -.63 | .21 |
| EATQ-R | 65 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Effortful Control | 16 | .71 | 52.01 | 6.86 | 16-76 | 16-80 | .70 | .42 |
| Surgency | 10 | .75 | 47.37 | 5.91 | 5-63 | 10-50 | -.23 | .05 |
| Negative Effect | 19 | .71 | 53.48 | 1.48 | 23-84 | 19-95 | -.29 | -.32 |
| Affiliation | 14 | .75 | 45.77 | 9.29 | 14-68 | 14-70 | -.44 | .16 |

Note: a = Cronbach Alpha; M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation; Skew = Skewness; Kurt = Kurtosis; FBS = Forms of Bullying Scale; SDQ= Strengths and Difficulty Questionnaire; TOCA-R = Teacher Observation of Child Adaptation Revised; SBAS= School Belongingness Attitude Scale; PAQ= Parenting Alabama Questionnaire; FR= Family Relations Scale; EATQR = Early Adolescent Temperament Questionnaire Revised.

Table 11 presents the psychometric properties for all the scales employed in the current study. It comprises essential statistical measures, including the number of items, Cronbach's alpha (α) to assess reliability, mean (M), standard deviation (SD), range (both actual and prospective), skewness, and kurtosis. All the scales exhibited a high level of internal consistency, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from .65 to .93. Furthermore, it is noteworthy to observe that certain scales exhibit a negative skewness, such as the "Bystander" scale (skewness = -.84), which suggests a concentration of higher scores within the distribution. On the other hand, scales such as the "FBS - Bullying" demonstrate a positive skewness value of 1.12 and kurtosis value of 2.04, indicating a distribution peak that surpasses that of a standard normal distribution.

Relationship between Study variables

Pearson Product moment correlation and multiple regression analyses were performed to assess the relationships between bullying, victimization, and bystander's behavior of school children with different ecological factors such as child temperament, parental and family factors, school and teacher belongingness and child behavioral problems.

Table 12

Correlations between Bullying, Victimization, and Bystander's Behaviour with Child Temperament (N=500)

| Variables | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|---|
| 1 Bullying | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 2 Victimization | .68** | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 3 Bystander | -.20** | -.01 | - | - | - | - | - |
| 4 Effortful Control | -.21** | -.20** | .24** | - | - | - | - |
| 5 Surgency | .10* | .03 | -.02 | .02 | - | - | - |
| 6 Negative Effect | .11* | .20** | -.22** | -.23** | -.29** | - | - |
| 7 Affiliation | -.28** | -.20** | .16** | .27** | -.30** | .20** | - |

*p<.05, **p<.01.

Table 12 presents associations between bullying, victimization, and bystander behavior with child temperament. There is a negative correlation between effortful control and both bullying and victimization, indicating that better self-regulation is associated with fewer bullying behaviors and victimization experiences. Furthermore, surgency shows a weak positive correlation with bullying, while negative affect has a positive correlation with victimization. These findings suggest that individuals with higher energy and sociability may engage more in bullying, whereas those experiencing more negative emotions may be more susceptible to victimization. Additionally, affiliation has a negative correlation with bullying and victimization, which supports the idea that individuals with a greater capacity for closeness and intimacy are less likely to be involved in bullying dynamics.

Table 13*Correlations between Bullying, Victimization, And Bystander's Behaviour with Parenting and Family Related Factors (N=500)*

| Variables | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
|-------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|----|
| 1 Bullying | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 2 Vict | .67** | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 3 Bystander | -.20** | -.05 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 4 PI | -.32** | -.31** | .20** | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 5 PP | -.30** | -.22** | .26** | .80** | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 6 PMS | .19** | .20** | -.26** | -.25** | -.32** | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 7 ID | .15** | .12** | -.03 | .15** | .003 | .16** | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 8 CP | .15** | .14** | -.09* | .008 | .009 | .27** | .16** | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 9 BAF | -.30** | -.15** | .23** | .41** | .42** | -.16** | .07 | -.11* | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 10 SD | .05 | .04 | -.09* | .01 | -.10* | .36** | .22** | .22** | .09* | - | - | - | - | - |
| 11 Cohesion | -.14** | -.08 | .13** | .44** | .43** | -.13** | .06 | -.02 | .66** | .16** | - | - | - | - |
| 12 Support | .05 | .11* | .04 | -.17** | -.15** | -.17** | -.07 | -.15** | -.29** | -.45** | -.42** | - | - | - |
| 13 Org | .05 | -.06 | .10* | -.06 | .03 | -.34** | -.18** | -.25** | -.08 | -.55** | -.09* | .44** | - | - |
| 14 Comm | -.09* | -.16** | .02 | .28** | .24** | -.01 | -.01 | .06 | .47** | .20** | .59** | -.56** | -.18** | - |

*p<.05, **p<.01

Note. Vict=Victimization; PI=Positive Involvement; PP=Positive Parenting; PMS=Poor Monitoring and Supervision; ID=Inconsistent Discipline; CP=Corporal Punishment; BAF=Belief About Family; SD=Shared Deviant; Org=Organization; Comm=Communication.

Table 14

Correlations between Bullying, Victimization, And Bystander's Behaviour with Child Behavioural Problems (N=500)

| Variables | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|----|
| 1 Bullying | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 2 Victimization | .67** | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 3 Bystander | -.18** | -.05 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 4 Conduct | .47** | .42** | -.31** | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 5 Peer Problem | .15** | .22** | -.17** | .42** | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 6 Hyperactivity | .14** | .19** | -.11* | .39** | .40** | - | - | - | - | - |
| 7 Emot Prob | .12** | .15** | -.13** | .42** | .53** | .49** | - | - | - | - |
| 8 Pro Behavior | -.10* | -.14** | .14** | -.40** | -.45** | -.35** | -.20** | - | - | - |
| 9 Externalizing | .38** | .38** | -.25** | .87** | .49** | .80** | .54** | -.45** | - | - |
| 10 Internalizing | .16** | .20** | -.17** | .48** | .84** | .52** | .90** | -.35** | .59** | - |

*p<.05, **p<.01.

Note. Emot Prob= Emotional problems; Pro= prosocial.

Table 13 extends the analysis to include correlations between bullying, victimization, and various parenting and family constructs. Positive involvement and positive parenting are negatively correlated with bullying and victimization, which implies that constructive parenting practices are associated with lower incidences of bullying behaviors. Interestingly, poor monitoring and supervision are positively correlated with bullying and victimization, suggesting a potential link between less attentive parenting and increased bullying behaviors. Family cohesion and support are negatively correlated with bullying, highlighting the protective role of a supportive family environment against bullying behaviors.

Table 14 presents relationships between bullying, victimization, bystander behaviour, and various child behavioural problems. Bullying and victimization show a positive and statistically significant correlation, suggesting a strong association between being a bully and being a victim, indicating that some individuals in the study exhibit both behaviours. Whereas bystander behaviour exhibits negative correlations with bullying (-.181**) and victimization (-0.054). These negative correlations suggest that as Bystander behaviour increases, the likelihood of bullying and victimization decreases, although the correlation with Victimization is non-significant.

Furthermore, bullying (0.465**) and Victimization (0.422**) positively correlate with Conduct problems, indicating that individuals involved in Bullying and Victimization tend to have more conduct-related behavioural issues. Similarly, Bullying and victimization also positively correlate with other behavioural problems except prosocial behaviour. Bystander behaviour shows a positive correlation with Prosocial behaviour (0.141**), and negative with all other behavioural problems indicating that individuals engaging in bystander behaviour are more likely to exhibit prosocial tendencies and decreased behavioural problems.

Table 15

Correlations between Bullying, Victimization, And Bystander's Behaviour with Teacher Observations and School belongingness
(N=500)

| Variables | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|-----------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|---|
| 1 Bullying | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 2 Victimization | .67** | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| 3 Bystander | -.18** | -.05 | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| 4 Overt Agg | .13** | .12** | -.09* | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| 5 Oppositional | .12** | .09* | -.12** | .79** | — | — | — | — | — |
| 6 Covert AS | .15** | .11* | -.09* | .86** | .73** | — | — | — | — |
| 7 Auth acc | .14** | .12** | -.13** | .97** | .87** | 0.91** | — | — | — |
| 8 School Bel | -.38** | -.35** | .31** | -.08 | -.06 | -.05 | -.06 | — | — |
| 9 Teacher Rel | -.18** | -.24** | .22** | -.26** | -.20** | -.21** | -.24** | .42** | — |

*p<.05, **p<.01.

Note. Agg=aggression; AS=antisocial; Auth acc=authority acceptance; Rel= Relation; Bel= Belongingness.

Table 15 presents the associations between bullying, victimization, and bystander with teacher observations of child behavior and school belongingness. Overt aggression, oppositional behavior, and covert antisocial conduct all have significant positive associations with bullying and victimization; however, these correlations are smaller than the bullying-victimization correlation. This emphasizes the relationship between aggressive tendencies and bullying or victimization experiences. Bullying and victimization have negative connections with acceptance of authority and a sense of belonging in school. This means that more complaints of bullying are associated with lower levels of authority acceptance and a decreased sense of belonging in the school environment. Bullying and victimization have also been shown to have a negative impact on the quality of teacher relationships. This highlights how these behaviors can have a negative impact on the student-teacher dynamic, resulting in less favorable teacher relationships.

Table 16

Multiple Regression Analysis between Bullying and Child Temperament (N=500)

| Variables | Bullying | | | | | | 95% CI | |
|-------------------|-----------|-------|---------|--------|-------|--------|--------|--|
| | B | SE | β | t | p | LL | UL | |
| Constant | 25.777 | 4.901 | | 5.260 | <.001 | 16.149 | 35.406 | |
| Effortful Control | -.126 | .051 | -.112 | -2.447 | .015 | -.227 | -.025 | |
| Surgency | .109 | .059 | .084 | 1.854 | .064 | -.006 | .224 | |
| Negative Effect | .109 | .034 | .148 | 3.208 | .001 | .042 | .176 | |
| Affiliation | -.207 | .038 | -.250 | -5.394 | <.001 | -.282 | -.132 | |
| R | .342 | | | | | | | |
| R ² | .110 | | | | | | | |
| F | 16.410*** | | | | | | | |

Note. B = Unstandardized Regression coefficient; SE = Standard error; β = Standardized Regression coefficient; t = t-value; CI= Confidence Interval; LL= Lower Limit; UL= Upper Limit; p= level of significance.

Table 17*Multiple Regression Analysis between Victimization and Child Temperament (N=500)*

| Variables | Victimization | | | | | 95% CI | |
|-------------------|---------------|-------|---------|--------|-------|--------|--------|
| | B | SE | β | t | P | LL | UL |
| Constant | 25.777 | 4.901 | | 5.260 | <.001 | 16.149 | 35.406 |
| Effortful Control | -.126 | .051 | -.112 | -2.447 | .015 | -.227 | -.025 |
| Surgency | .109 | .059 | .084 | 1.854 | .064 | -.006 | .224 |
| Negative Effect | .109 | .034 | .148 | 3.208 | .001 | .042 | .176 |
| Affiliation | -.207 | .038 | -.250 | -5.394 | <.001 | -.282 | -.132 |
| R | .295 | | | | | | |
| R^2 | .080 | | | | | | |
| F | 11.829*** | | | | | | |

Note. B = Unstandardized Regression coefficient; SE = Standard error; β = Standardized

Regression coefficient; t = t-value; CI = Confidence Interval; LL = Lower Limit; UL = Upper Limit; p = level of significance.

Tables 16 and 17 provide a series of multiple regressions examining different aspects of child temperaments and their respective relations to each other. The analysis involving bullying points to several associations. The statements regarding bullying and predictions made from regressions show Effortful Control behaving as a defensive predictor of bullying (B = -0.126, β = -0.112, p = .015), thereby suggesting that increased self-control and attentional control resources bullying behaviors. The Negative Effect leads to escalation of bullying behavior, thus showing anger, sadness, and other negative emotions and feelings as motivating and enabling factors to bullying (B = 0.109, β = 0.148, p = .001).

As children grow, the Effortful Control prediction on bullying appears to strengthen, showing that self-control resources predict reduced bullying behavior. The strong negative association of Affiliation ($B = -0.207$, $\beta = -0.250$, $p < .001$) points to children showing social bonding in cooperation being less prone to bullying behaviors and targeting their peers. The association of larger and more active (Surgency) children also targets bullying behavior trends ($B = 0.109$, $\beta = 0.084$, $p = .064$) but is not robust enough to be statistically considered bullying. The model shares 11.0% of the variance in bullying behavior ($\Delta R^2 = .110$) and carries a relative reinforcement in .342. The bullying behaviors are also explained by a statistically significant F ($F = 16.410$, $p < .001$).

In terms of victimization, the findings reflect the same patterns observed in the bullying model. Again, Effortful Control has a significant negative correlation with victimization ($B = -0.126$, $\beta = -0.112$, $p = .015$), underscoring the importance of self-regulatory abilities in defending against victimization. Negative Effect has a positive correlation with victimization ($B = 0.109$, $\beta = 0.148$, $p = .001$), indicating that children who, outwardly, express more emotions in the negative range, more readily become victims. Affiliation has a significant negative correlation with victimization ($B = -0.207$, $\beta = -0.250$, $p < .001$), suggesting that more socially integrated and cooperative children are more likely to be targeted. There is no significant correlation between Surgency and victimization ($B = 0.109$, $\beta = 0.084$, $p = .064$). This model has an R-value of .295 and a significant F-statistic ($F = 11.829$, $p < .001$), and it accounts for 8.0% of the variance in victimization ($\Delta R^2 = .080$).

In both models, Effortful Control and Affiliation appear as buffers against bullying and victimization, demonstrating the role of self-regulation and social ties in the reduction of these behaviors. Negative Effect shows a positive relationship with bullying and victimization, while potentially indicating a vulnerability linked to high ranges of negative emotions. These results acknowledge the role of temperamental and emotional self-regulation in bullying and

victimization. It follows the reason that interventions aimed at promoting self-regulatory capacities and the development of positive social relations will mitigate these problems.

Table 18*Multiple Regression Analysis between Bullying and Parenting Factors (N=500)*

| Variables | Bullying | | | | | | 95% CI | |
|----------------|----------|------|---------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--|
| | B | SE | β | t | p | LL | UL | |
| Constant | 20.54 | 2.23 | | 9.20 | <.001 | 16.15 | 24.925 | |
| PI | -.35 | .062 | -.408 | -5.76 | <.001 | -.48 | -.235 | |
| PP | .10 | .09 | .082 | 1.16 | .25 | -.072 | .28 | |
| PMS | .05 | .052 | .048 | 1.05 | .29 | -.047 | .156 | |
| ID | .34 | .08 | .191 | 4.43 | <.001 | .192 | .49 | |
| CP | .33 | .12 | .120 | 2.79 | .005 | .097 | .55 | |
| R | .41 | | | | | | | |
| R ² | .16 | | | | | | | |
| F | 19.83*** | | | | | | | |

***p<.001.

Note. B = Unstandardized Regression coefficient; SE = Standard error; β = Standardized Regression coefficient; t = t-value; CI= Confidence Interval; LL= Lower Limit; UL= Upper Limit; p= level of significance; Vict=Victimization; PI=Positive Involvement; PP=Positive Parenting; PMS=Poor Monitoring and Supervision; ID=Inconsistent Discipline; CP=Corporal Punishment.

Table 19*Multiple Regression Analysis between Victimization and Parenting Factors (N=500)*

| Variables | Victimization | | | | | | 95% CI | |
|----------------|---------------|-------|---------|--------|-------|--------|--------|--|
| | B | SE | β | t | p | LL | UL | |
| Constant | 19.996 | 2.384 | | 8.388 | <.001 | 15.312 | 24.680 | |
| PI | -.383 | .066 | -.415 | -5.809 | <.001 | -.512 | -.253 | |
| PP | .172 | .095 | .130 | 1.801 | .072 | -.016 | .359 | |
| PMS | .101 | .055 | .084 | 1.821 | .069 | -.008 | .209 | |
| ID | .290 | .083 | .152 | 3.487 | <.001 | .126 | .453 | |
| CP | .314 | .125 | .109 | 2.514 | .012 | .069 | .559 | |
| R | .386 | | | | | | | |
| R ² | .140 | | | | | | | |
| F | 17.252*** | | | | | | | |

***p<.001.

Note. B = Unstandardized Regression coefficient; SE = Standard error; β = Standardized Regression coefficient; t = t-value; CI= Confidence Interval; LL= Lower Limit; UL= Upper Limit; p= level of significance; Vict=Victimization; PI=Positive Involvement; PP=Positive Parenting; PMS=Poor Monitoring and Supervision; ID=Inconsistent Discipline; CP=Corporal Punishment.

Table 20*Multiple Regression Analysis between Bullying and Family Related Factors (N=500)*

| Bullying | | 95% CI | | | | | |
|-----------|----------|--------|---------|--------|-------|--------|--------|
| Variables | B | SE | β | t | P | LL | UL |
| Constant | 24.245 | 3.940 | | 6.154 | <.001 | 16.505 | 31.985 |
| BAF | -.345 | .053 | -.372 | -6.463 | <.001 | -.450 | -.240 |
| SD | .136 | .145 | .051 | .938 | .349 | -.149 | .420 |
| Cohesion | .152 | .115 | .084 | 1.320 | .187 | -.074 | .379 |
| Support | -.024 | .122 | -.012 | -.196 | .845 | -.263 | .215 |
| Org | .132 | .105 | .067 | 1.257 | .209 | -.074 | .339 |
| Comm | .098 | .198 | .029 | .495 | .621 | -.292 | .488 |
| R | .317 | | | | | | |
| R^2 | .090 | | | | | | |
| F | 9.202*** | | | | | | |

***p<.001.

Note. B = Unstandardized Regression coefficient; SE = Standard error; β = Standardized Regression coefficient; t = t-value; CI= Confidence Interval; LL= Lower Limit; UL= Upper Limit; p= level of significance; Vict=Victimization; BAF=Belief About Family; SD=Shared Deviant; Org=Organization; Comm=Communication.

Table 21*Multiple Regression Analysis between Victimization and Family Related Factors (N=500)*

| Variables | Victimization | | | | | | 95% CI |
|----------------|---------------|-------|---------|--------|-------|--------|--------|
| | B | SE | β | t | p | LL | UL |
| Constant | 22.492 | 4.258 | | 5.282 | <.001 | 14.126 | 30.858 |
| BAF | -.159 | .058 | -.163 | -2.763 | .006 | -.273 | -.046 |
| SD | .184 | .156 | .065 | 1.178 | .240 | -.123 | .491 |
| Cohesion | .273 | .125 | .143 | 2.188 | .029 | .028 | .518 |
| Support | .290 | .132 | .135 | 2.201 | .028 | .031 | .548 |
| Org | -.233 | .114 | -.111 | -2.049 | .041 | -.456 | -.010 |
| Comm | -.448 | .214 | -.126 | -2.088 | .037 | -.869 | -.026 |
| R | .243 | | | | | | |
| R ² | .048 | | | | | | |
| F | 5.157*** | | | | | | |

***p<.001.

Note. B = Unstandardized Regression coefficient; SE = Standard error; β = Standardized Regression coefficient; t = t-value; CI= Confidence Interval; LL= Lower Limit; UL= Upper Limit; p= level of significance; Vict=Victimization; BAF=Belief About Family; SD=Shared Deviant; Org=Organization; Comm=Communication.

Tables 18 to 21 contain the findings for the multiple regression analyses measuring the impact of the parenting variables described in Tables 16 and 17, along with family variables in Tables 19 and 20, on bullying and victimization. For the bullying analyses, multiple significant findings emerged. Positive Involvement (PI) was strongly and negatively correlated with bullying ($B = -0.356$, $\beta = -0.408$, $p < .001$) indicating that parental involvement is associated with the decreased incidence of bullying. This is indicative of the engaged parent's protective influence against bullying. Inconsistent Discipline (ID) and Corporal Punishment (CP) were positively correlated with bullying (ID: $B = 0.345$, $\beta = 0.078$, $p < .001$; CP: $B = 0.326$, $\beta = 0.117$, $p = .005$) showing that these disciplinary techniques might be factors that positively influence the incidence of bullying. This emphasizes the adverse impact of these styles on the behaviour of children.

For victimization, Positive Involvement (PI) again shows a statistically significant negative association ($B = -0.388$, $\beta = -0.415$, $p < .001$), once again demonstrating the role that positive parental involvement can play in mitigating victimization. Poor Monitoring and Supervision (PMS) and Corporal Punishment (CP) display an increase in victimization as positive relations are demonstrated (PMS: $B = 0.101$, $\beta = 0.084$, $p = .069$; CP: $B = 0.314$, $\beta = 0.109$, $p = .012$), thus indicating these parenting practices are possibly linked to increased victimization. There is 15.9% variance in bullying and 14% in victimization behaviours that the model captures.

Beliefs About Family (BAF) foster a significant negative relationship with bullying, suggesting that the possible positive family beliefs and values served to lessen the likelihood of bullying. Family Cohesion, Organization and communication are predictive of increased bullying, and this may indicate the engagement of other factors at a greater level than these previously mentioned may cause the bullying. These relationships, however, were not

significant. The model accounts for significant variance in bullying (9%) and victimization (4.8%) behaviours. Family Cohesion and Support, as with the other factors, positively influence the victimization, possibly demonstrating the intricate frameworks within the family that may shape an individual's weak position to victimization.

Each of the models emphasizes the importance of positive parental involvement for the decrease of bullying and victimization. Within the contexts of bullying and victimization, much of the detrimental impact of corporal punishment and of erratic discipline has been demonstrated. Interestingly, bullying is positively associated with the cohesion and organization of the family, and the cohesion and support of the family are positively associated with victimization. This suggests that bullying and victimization may be different using the functions of the family system. The implications of these findings point to the need for a wider range of family system and parenting style characteristics in the design of interventions for bullying and victimization problems in children.

Table 22

Multiple Regression Analysis between Bullying and Teacher Observations and School belongingness (N=500)

| Variables | Bullying | | | | | | 95% CI |
|----------------|----------|-----------|---------|--------|-------|--------|--------|
| | B | SE | β | t | P | LL | |
| Constant | 34.663 | 2.651 | | 13.074 | <.001 | 29.454 | 39.873 |
| Overt Agg | -.204 | .208 | -.161 | -.982 | .327 | -.612 | .204 |
| Oppositional | -.142 | .271 | -.047 | -.525 | .600 | -.674 | .390 |
| Covert AS | .247 | .300 | .084 | .821 | .412 | -.343 | .836 |
| Auth acc | .185 | .185 | .240 | .997 | .319 | -.179 | .548 |
| School Bel | -.454 | .054 | -.381 | -8.395 | <.001 | -.560 | -.348 |
| Teacher Rel | .010 | .086 | .005 | .113 | .910 | -.160 | .179 |
| R | | .404 | | | | | |
| R ² | | .153 | | | | | |
| F | | 16.047*** | | | | | |

***p<.001.

Note. B = Unstandardized Regression coefficient; SE = Standard error; β = Standardized Regression coefficient; t = t-value; CI= Confidence Interval; LL= Lower Limit; UL= Upper Limit; p= level of significance; Agg=aggression; AS=antisocial; Auth acc=authority acceptance; Rel= Relation; Bel= Belongingness.

Table 23

Multiple Regression Analysis between Victimization and Teacher Observations and School belongingness (N=500)

| Variables | Victimization | | | | | | 95% CI |
|----------------|---------------|-----------|---------|--------|-------|--------|--------|
| | B | SE | β | t | P | LL | |
| Constant | 38.159 | 2.842 | | 13.425 | <.001 | 32.574 | 43.743 |
| Overt Agg | -.162 | .223 | -.121 | -.729 | .466 | -.600 | .275 |
| Oppositional | -.166 | .290 | -.052 | -.571 | .568 | -.736 | .404 |
| Covert AS | .096 | .322 | .031 | .298 | .766 | -.536 | .728 |
| Auth acc | .170 | .198 | .210 | .858 | .391 | -.219 | .560 |
| School Bel | -.383 | .058 | -.304 | -6.602 | <.001 | -.497 | -.269 |
| Teacher Rel | -.196 | .092 | -.101 | -2.123 | .034 | -.378 | -.015 |
| R | | .373 | | | | | |
| R ² | | .128 | | | | | |
| F | | 13.241*** | | | | | |

***p<.001.

Note. B = Unstandardized Regression coefficient; SE = Standard error; β = Standardized Regression coefficient; t = t-value; CI= Confidence Interval; LL= Lower Limit; UL= Upper Limit; p= level of significance; Agg=aggression; AS=antisocial; Auth acc=authority acceptance; Rel= Relation; Bel= Belongingness.

The Tables 22 and 23 present multiple regression analyses investigating the relationships between teacher observations, school belongingness, and two dependent variables: Bullying (Table 22) and Victimization (Table 23). In the context of bullying, the regression analysis reveals a significant negative correlation with school belongingness ($B = -0.454$, $\beta = -0.381$, $p < .001$), indicating that a stronger sense of belonging to the school is associated with lower levels of bullying. This finding underscores the importance of fostering a positive school environment as a potential deterrent to bullying behaviours.

Other teacher observation variables, such as overt aggression, oppositional behaviour, covert antisocial behaviour, and authority acceptance, do not exhibit statistically significant relationships with bullying (Overt Aggression: $B = -0.204$, $p = 0.327$; Oppositional: $B = -0.142$, $p = 0.600$; Covert Antisocial: $B = 0.247$, $p = 0.412$; Authority Acceptance: $B = 0.185$, $p = 0.319$). This suggests that these observed behaviours in isolation may not be strong predictors of bullying within this sample. The relationship between teacher relationship and bullying is not significant ($B = 0.010$, $p = 0.910$), indicating that, as per this model, the quality of teacher-student relationships might not have a direct impact on bullying behaviour. The model accounts for 15.3% of the variance in bullying behaviour ($\Delta R^2 = .153$), with an R value of .404 and a highly significant F statistic ($F = 16.047$, $p < .001$), suggesting an effective fit for the model.

Regarding victimization, like bullying, school belongingness shows a significant negative relationship ($B = -0.383$, $\beta = -0.304$, $p < .001$), reinforcing the notion that a greater sense of belonging within the school is associated with lower instances of victimization. The variables of overt aggression, oppositional behaviour, covert antisocial behaviour, and authority acceptance do not show significant correlations with victimization (Overt Aggression: $B = -0.162$, $p = 0.466$; Oppositional: $B = -0.166$, $p = 0.568$; Covert Antisocial: $B = 0.096$, $p = 0.766$; Authority Acceptance: $B = 0.170$, $p = 0.391$).

Interestingly, the quality of the teacher-student relationship is negatively related to victimization ($B = -0.196$, $\beta = -0.101$, $p = 0.034$), suggesting that better teacher-student relationships might play a role in reducing victimization. This model explains 12.8% of the variance in victimization ($\Delta R^2 = 0.128$), with an R value of .373 and a significant F statistic ($F = 13.241$, $p < .001$), indicating a solid model fit.

In both models, school belongingness is highlighted as a key factor that negatively correlates with bullying and victimization. This reinforces the importance of school climate concerning these behaviours. Teacher observations concerning aggression, oppositional, covert antisocial behaviours, authority acceptance, and the rest do not have a significant prediction of bullying or victimization. The quality of the teacher-student relationship, on the other hand, negatively correlates with victimization, which supports the idea that more positive teacher-student interactions may have a protective effect against victimization. This evidence indicates that interventions to reduce bullying and victimization would do well to focus on increasing school belongingness and improving teacher-student relationship quality.

Table 24

Multiple Regression Analysis between Bullying, Victimization and Child Behavioral Problems (N=500)

| Prosocial | | | | | | | Externalizing | | | | | | | |
|--|------|-----|---------|-------|-------|------|--|--------|-----|---------|------|-------|------|------|
| 95% CI | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | B | SE | β | t | p | LL | UL | B | SE | β | T | P | LL | UL |
| Constant | 7.49 | .36 | | 2.76 | <.001 | 6.79 | 8.20 | 3.68 | .46 | | 7.93 | <.001 | 2.77 | 4.59 |
| Bullying | -.01 | .02 | -.02 | -.28 | .776 | -.05 | .03 | .11 | .03 | .23 | 4.15 | <.001 | .06 | .16 |
| Victimization | -.04 | .02 | -.13 | -2.18 | .030 | -.08 | .00 | .10 | .03 | .22 | 4.10 | <.001 | .05 | .15 |
| <i>R</i> = .14, R^2 = .02, <i>F</i> = 5.97** | | | | | | | <i>R</i> = .41, R^2 = 0.17, <i>F</i> = 51.06** | | | | | | | |
| Internalizing | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | B | SE | β | t | p | LL | UL | 95% CI | | | | | | |
| Constant | 5.67 | .56 | | 1.20 | <.001 | 4.58 | 6.76 | | | | | | | |
| Bullying | .02 | .03 | .04 | .61 | .543 | -.04 | .08 | | | | | | | |
| Victimization | .09 | .03 | .18 | 3.06 | .002 | .03 | .15 | | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> = .20, R^2 = .04, <i>F</i> = 11.00*** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

***p<.001.

Note. B = Unstandardized Regression coefficient; SE = Standard error; CI= Confidence Interval; LL= Lower Limit; UL= Upper Limit; p= level of significance.

Table 24 displays the results of the multiple regression analysis exploring the interplay between bullying, victimization, and behavioral outcomes. In the regression analysis predicting conduct problem outcomes, bullying behavior was found to significantly predict conduct problems ($B = 0.10$, $p < 0.001$), with a moderate beta weight ($\beta = 0.33$). Victimization was found to positively predict conduct problems as well ($B = 0.06$, $p < 0.001$), and the model accounted for a substantial amount of explained variance, 23% ($R^2 = .23$). This shows the considerable effect of the bullying and victimization experienced in the behavioral context of the problem. When comparing peer problems to conduct problems, the explained variance was smaller for peer problems ($R^2 = .05$). In this case, victimization was a significant predictor ($B = 0.05$, $p < 0.001$), and bullying had no significant effect ($B = 0.00$, $p = 0.825$).

Furthermore, bullying does not significantly predict hyperactivity ($B = 0.01$, $p = 0.703$) or emotional symptoms ($B = 0.02$, $p = 0.445$). However, victimization shows a significant positive relationship with both hyperactivity ($B = 0.04$, $p < 0.001$) and a marginally significant relationship with emotional symptoms ($B = 0.04$, $p = 0.054$). These models account for relatively small proportions of variance ($R^2 = 0.03$ for hyperactivity and $R^2 = 0.02$ for emotional symptoms). Interestingly, bullying and victimization negatively predict prosocial behavior, but not significantly for bullying ($B = -0.01$, $p = 0.776$). In contrast, victimization significantly negatively predicts prosocial behavior ($B = -0.04$, $p = 0.030$). For externalizing behavior, both bullying ($B = 0.11$, $p < 0.001$) and victimization ($B = 0.10$, $p < 0.001$) are significant predictors, indicating that as bullying and victimization increase, so do externalizing behaviors. The model for externalizing behavior explains a significant portion of the variance ($R^2 = 0.17$).

Furthermore, internalizing symptoms offered minimal explanation concerning bullying behavior ($B = 0.02$, $p = 0.543$). In contrast, victimization is indicative of

internalizing symptoms ($B = 0.09$, $p = 0.002$). Captured in a mere 4 % of variance, the internalizing symptoms ($R^2 = 0.04$) were the least explainable of all assessed symptoms.

The impact of victimization illustrated in the analysis is manifestly profound across the range of assessed behavioral and emotional domains. It predominantly affects the behavioral and emotional domains of conduct problems, peer problems, hyperactivity, emotional symptoms, and internalizing symptoms, as well as overall internalizing and emotional symptoms. Victimization and bullying both directly impact the externalizing behaviors, suggesting an avalanche of potential risk factors. Moreover, the prosocial dimension seems to have a lack of influence on bullying has emotional and internalizing symptoms, and the emotional and internalizing dimensions of prosocial behavior is a source of perplexity.

Demographics-related Mean comparisons on Study Variables

Table 25

Mean Comparisons of Bullying and Victimization across Demographics Variables (N=500).

| Variable | Bullying | | | | Victimization | | | |
|-----------------------|----------|------|--------|-------|---------------|------|--------|-------|
| | M | SD | t-test | p | M | SD | t-test | p |
| Gender | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 22.33 | 8.62 | 4.971 | <.001 | 22.21 | 8.85 | 4.149 | <.001 |
| Female | 19.02 | 6.14 | | | 19.26 | 6.99 | | |
| Family System | | | | | | | | |
| Joint | 2.59 | 8.03 | -.431 | .197 | 21.01 | 7.91 | .615 | .563 |
| Nuclear | 2.88 | 7.35 | | | 2.56 | 8.37 | | |
| Marital Status | | | | | | | | |
| Single ^a | 20.56 | 7.67 | -1.782 | .175 | 20.5 | 8.06 | -2.839 | .603 |
| Married | 22.87 | 7.84 | | | 24.37 | 8.33 | | |

Note. ^a Single means divorced or widowed or separated.

In Table 25, the mean differences of bullying and victimization by demographic categories such as gender, family system, and marital status are captured. There are notable differences, statistically speaking, in both bullying and victimization by gender. For both bullying and victimization, higher mean scores are assigned to males than females. T-test results are statistically significant ($p < 0.001$ for bullying and victimization), which suggests that males in this sample are more active participants in bullying and are victimized more than females. In addition, within the family system and the marriage status of the parents, the differences in mean scores for both bullying and victimization are not statistically significant.

Table 26 shows the scores and results from the post hoc analyses for different age groups. There are statistically significant results for ANOVA across age groups for levels of bullying and victimization, which suggests that there are trends for certain ages. Also, post hoc analyses show that the youngest age group (10 years) has higher mean scores in both bullying and victimization as compared to the 11-year-olds, and 10-year-olds also report lower mean scores in bullying compared to the 12-year-olds.

Table 26

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Post Hoc Comparison of Age Groups in Relation to Bullying and Victimization (N=500).

| | Age group 1 (10y) (n=144) | Age group 2 (11y) (n=130) | Age group 3 (12y) (n=226) | | | | | | | |
|---------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------|-------|------|----------|-------|----------|-------------------|
| Variables | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD | F(2,497) | P | η^2 | Post hoc Analysis |
| Bullying | 21.20 | 6.87 | 19.09 | 6.01 | 20.60 | 8.37 | 6.797 | <.001 | .04 | 1<3. 2<3 |
| Victimization | 22.15 | 8.36 | 2.16 | 7.25 | 19.66 | 8.01 | 7.206 | <.001 | .04 | 1<2; 3>2 |

Note. η^2 =Partial eta squared values are suggestive of significant effect size. Cohen (1969) classified the effect of 0.2 as small, 0.5 as medium, and 0.8 or higher as largest.

Structural Equation Modeling Frameworks

Bullying Measurement Model

A bullying incident can be studied using the framework of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) and analyzing individual behaviors and other contextual factors (see Figure 4 and Figure 5). Within the SEM framework, the constructs “Child Characteristics” includes temperament and coping skills, “Parenting” roles, and “Family Functioning” attributes influence the shaping of behavioral styles in a juxtaposed manner. This framework explains the bullying potential influence of the relational environment, particularly the interactions and policies of schools and teachers. The framework includes the phenomenon of “Child Behavioral Problems” which serves as a precursor and an outcome of environmental factors, thus referring to a bidirectional influence between the individual and the environment. The SEM approach analyzes bullying as a multifactorial problem with an empirical foundation made possible by measuring latent variables and their observable indicators. This multifactorial analysis is critical for the effective design of targeted prevention and intervention efforts.

Figure 4

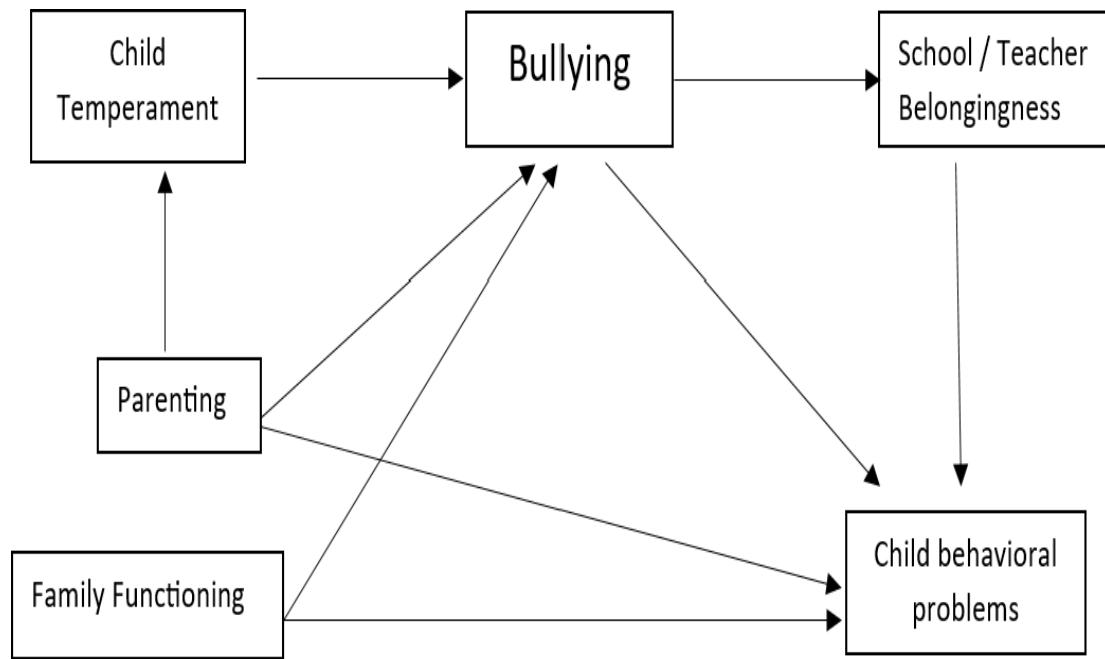
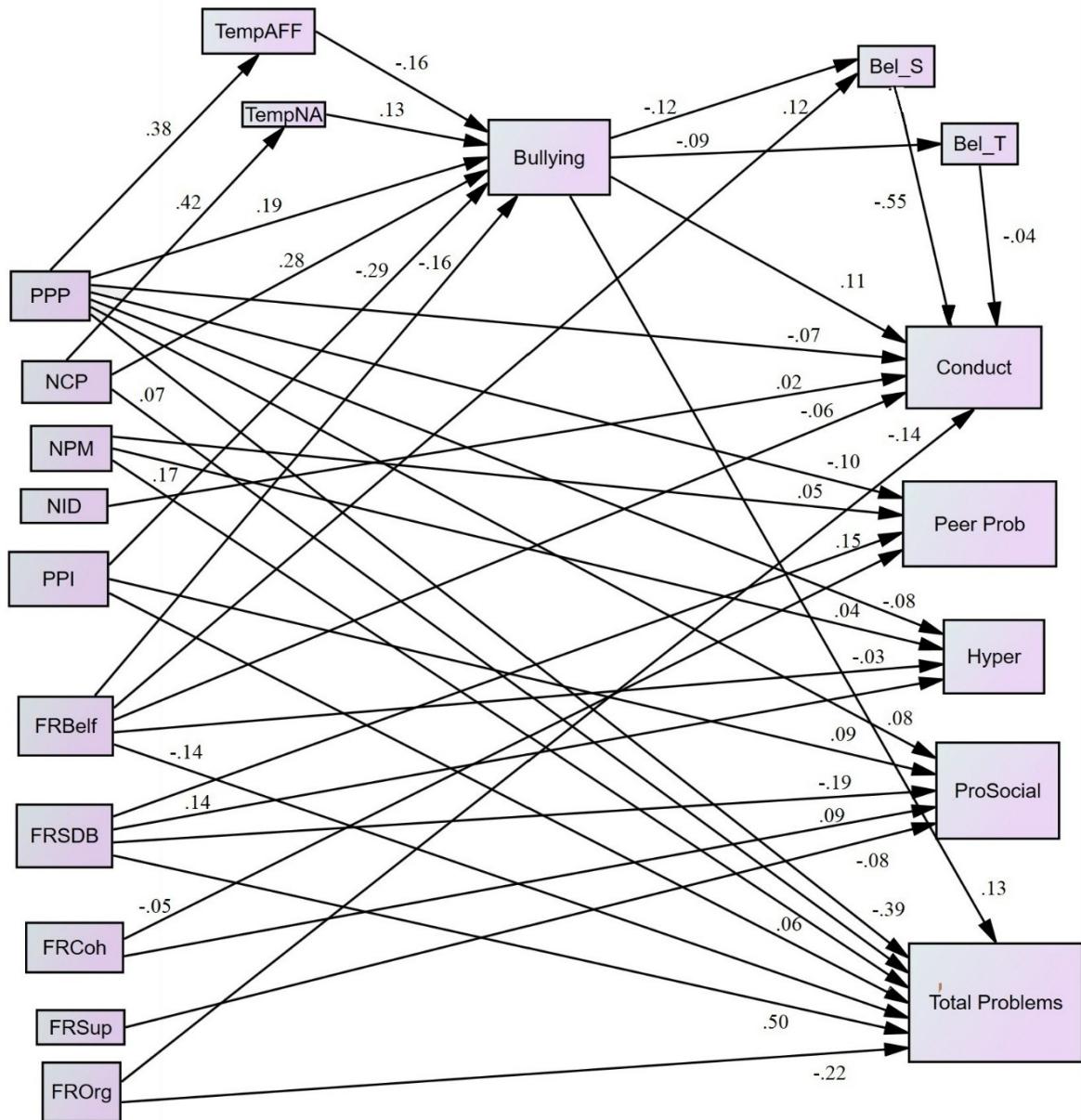
Bullying within the Structural Equation Modeling Framework

Figure 5*Bullying SEM Model*

Note. TempAFF= temperament affiliativeNess; TempNA= temperament negative affect ; PPP = Positive Parenting; NCP = Corporal Punishment; NPM = Poor Monitoring and Supervision; NID = Inconsistent Discipline; PPI = Parenting Positive Involvement; Family Relationsbelf = Family Relations Belief About Family; Family RelationsSDB = Family Relations Shared Deviant; Family RelationsCoh = Family Relations Cohesion; Family RelationsSup = Family Relations Support; Family

RelationsOrg = Family Relations Organization; Bel_S = School belongingness; Bel_T = Teacher belongingness; hyper = hyperactivity

Table 27

Model Fit Indices for Structural Equation Modeling for Bullying

| | χ^2 | Df (p-value) | χ^2/df | RMSEA | CFI | GFI | SRMR | TLI |
|---------|----------|--------------|-------------|-------|-----|-----|------|-----|
| Model 1 | 5204.96 | 158(.000) | 32.94 | .25 | .01 | .56 | .28 | .51 |
| Model 2 | 624.76 | 123(.001) | 5.08 | .07 | .91 | .92 | .06 | .90 |

Note. χ^2 = likelihood ratio chi-square statistic; df = degree of freedom for the likelihood ratio test of the model versus saturated; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean squared residual; GFI =Goodness of fit indices; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index.

Table 27 displays the model fit indices for both models pertaining to the phenomenon of bullying. In the first model, all factors were included, whereas in the second model, non-significant paths, such as child temperaments (specifically surgency, negative affect, and effortful control) and parenting (specifically poor monitoring), predicting bullying behavior, were removed. Additionally, we deleted non-significant variables pertaining to family relations, including cohesion, support, and organization, to predict behavioral problems. In addition, we included covariates as recommended by modification indices. Including parenting paths, including corporal punishment and positive parenting, in the second model resulted in a notable increase in significance. These paths were used to predict child temperaments and family relations, predicting the child's school attitude and conduct problems.

A structural equation model was constructed to illustrate the regression and correlation paths found to be statistically significant at $p < 0.05$ to $p < 0.001$. The chi-square value revealed a statistically significant result, indicating a deviation from the expected distribution. However,

the fit indices for the adjusted model were found to be within an acceptable range, RMSEA = 0.07, GFI = 0.92, TLI = 0.90, CFI = 0.91, NFI = 0.88, IFI = 0.90, $\chi^2/df = 5.08$, suggesting a reasonable fit between the model and the observed data.

Based on the model, it was found that child behavioral concerns, specifically conduct problems, were strongly associated with bullying and inconsistent discipline. Conversely, positive parenting, family relations organization and beliefs, and teacher belongingness were found to have a negative association with these behavioral problems. Negative child temperament, bullying, and total behavioral problems were significantly predicted by corporal punishment. Positive parenting was found to have a strong positive association with child affiliative temperament and prosocial behavior and a negative association with conduct problems, peer problems, hyperactivity, and total behavioral problems. Family-held deviant beliefs significantly predicted peer-related, hyperactive, and overall behavioral problems. In contrast, it was shown that family cohesion exhibited a favorable association with prosocial behaviors, whereas family beliefs displayed a negative association with hyperactivity and total problems. The standardized estimates for each path are depicted in Figure 5.

Table 28*Path model of Bullying*

| Path | Estimate | S.E. | C.R. | P |
|--|----------|------|-------|-------|
| EATQ Affiliativeness ← Positive Parenting | .38 | .06 | 6.15 | <.001 |
| EATQ Negative Affect ← Corporal Punishment | .42 | .15 | 2.75 | .006 |
| Bullying Total ← EATQ Affiliativeness | -.17 | .04 | -4.72 | <.001 |
| Bullying Total ← EATQ Negative Affect | .12 | .03 | 4.18 | <.001 |
| Bullying Total ← Positive Parenting | .19 | .09 | 2.20 | .028 |
| Bullying Total ← Corporal Punishment | .28 | .11 | 2.58 | .010 |
| Bullying Total ← Positive Involvement | -.30 | .06 | -4.90 | <.001 |
| Bullying Total ← Family Relations Beliefs Family | -.16 | .04 | -3.97 | <.001 |
| Teacher Belongingness ← Bullying Total | -.10 | .02 | -3.93 | <.001 |
| SDQ Conduct ← Bullying Total | .11 | .01 | 9.92 | <.001 |
| SDQ Conduct ← Positive Parenting | -.07 | .02 | -5.02 | <.001 |
| SDQ Conduct ← Family Relations Organization | -.14 | .02 | -6.62 | <.001 |
| SDQ Conduct ← Family Relations Beliefs Family | -.07 | .01 | -6.07 | <.001 |
| SDQ Conduct ← Inconsistent Discipline | .02 | .01 | 2.13 | .034 |
| SDQ Conduct ← Teacher Belongingness | -.04 | .01 | -3.26 | .001 |
| School Belongingness ← Bullying Total | -.20 | .02 | -5.34 | <.001 |
| SDQ Hyperactivity ← Family Relations Beliefs Family | -.03 | .01 | -3.13 | .002 |
| SDQ Total Problems ← Family Relations Beliefs Family | -.14 | .02 | -5.78 | <.001 |
| SDQ Peer Problems ← Positive Parenting | -.11 | .01 | -7.94 | <.001 |
| SDQ Hyperactivity ← Positive Parenting | .05 | .01 | 4.13 | <.001 |
| SDQ Hyperactivity ← Poor Monitoring | -.05 | .01 | -3.24 | .001 |

| | | | | |
|--|------|-----|-------|-------|
| SDQ Peer Problems ← Poor Monitoring | .08 | .02 | 3.07 | .002 |
| SDQ Peer Problems ← Family Relations Cohesion | .08 | .02 | 4.95 | <.001 |
| SDQ Prosocial ← Positive Parenting | -.20 | .04 | -5.38 | <.001 |
| SDQ Prosocial ← Positive Involvement | .09 | .03 | 3.47 | <.001 |
| SDQ Prosocial ← Family Relations Shared Deviant Beliefs | .13 | .02 | 7.19 | <.001 |
| SDQ Prosocial ← Family Relations Cohesion | -.22 | .04 | -6.01 | <.001 |
| SDQ Total Problems ← Bullying Total | .07 | .03 | 2.34 | .020 |
| SDQ Total Problems ← Family Relations Organization | -.40 | .04 | -9.79 | <.001 |
| SDQ Total Problems ← Corporal Punishment | .07 | .02 | 4.00 | <.001 |
| SDQ Total Problems ← Positive Parenting | .17 | .03 | 5.96 | <.001 |
| SDQ Total Problems ← Positive Involvement | -.08 | .03 | -2.86 | .004 |
| SDQ Total Problems ← Poor Monitoring | .16 | .03 | 5.36 | <.001 |
| SDQ Prosocial ← Family Relations Support | .50 | .07 | 7.25 | <.001 |
| SDQ Peer Problems ← Family Relations Shared Deviant Beliefs | .14 | .03 | 4.79 | <.001 |
| SDQ Total Problems ← Family Relations Shared Deviant Beliefs | -.55 | .12 | -4.74 | <.001 |
| SDQ Hyperactivity ← Family Relations Shared Deviant Beliefs | .05 | .01 | 4.13 | <.001 |
| School Belongingness ← SDQ Conduct | -.05 | .01 | -3.23 | .001 |
| School Belongingness ← Family Relations Beliefs Family | .13 | .03 | 3.98 | <.001 |

Note. Estimate= unstandardized regression weights; SE= standardized error; CR= critical ratio, p = significance value.

Table 28 provides a detailed path model that analyzes the possible connections among several parenting styles and the emotional and behavioral attributes that shape the outcomes concerning adolescents. Findings show that Positive Parenting goes together with EATQ Affiliative (estimate = 0.384). This can be interpreted as "Affiliative" parenting correlates

positively with "Affiliative" parenting behaviors and "Affiliative" parenting behaviors promote "Affiliative" traits and behaviors among the children. On the contrary, the practice of Corporal Punishment and the EATQ Negative Affect demonstrates a correlation of 0.421. This suggests that the practice of Corporal Punishment increases "Negative Affect." This suggests that "Harsh" parenting increases "Negative" emotional children. While "Bullying" behavior can be "Negatively" controlled with "Affiliative" traits, children with high EATQ Affiliativeness (estimate = -0.167) are bullying less. The positive correlation with Negative Affect EATQ suggests that the negative emotional children (estimate = 0.129) are bullying more. In addition, Positive Parenting, Positive Involvement and Corporal Punishment have estimated (-0.289, 0.192, 0.281) correlations to suggest that the first 2 positively shift while the last increases bullying.

The relationship between Bullying Total and Teacher Belongingness is negative (estimate = -0.095). This could mean that as bullying increases, teachers' sense of belonging to the school decreases. In addition, Bullying Total is positively associated with SDQ Conduct (estimate = 0.112), identifiable as bullying and conduct problems. The model has identified several family structure and child behavior outcomes. For example, Positive Parenting has a negative impact on SDQ Conduct, Hyperactivity, and Peer Problems, thus suggesting these problems are within the protective range of that parenting. Family Relations Beliefs and Organization have similar protective functions. Conversely, Inconsistent Discipline, Poor Monitoring, and Shared Deviant Beliefs have a negative relationship with family structure as well as positively with several problem scenarios of the SDQ, thus these family dynamics are likely to be damaging regarding child behavior problems.

Moreover, school Belongingness negatively relates to SDQ Conduct problems (estimate = -0.555) and is positively affected by Family Relations Beliefs (estimate = 0.125). This shows that conduct problems are likely to create a barrier to belonging at school, while positive beliefs from family is likely to be beneficial in that respect. The declared significance of the connections, with almost all of them being highly significant ($p<0.001$ or $p<0.05$), confirms relationship sturdiness.

Victimization Measurement Model

SEM Framework Figure 6 presents a complex analysis of the paths of victimization in bullying situations. It emphasizes the importance of 'Child Characteristics', namely, temperaments as the first filters of experiences. The influence of 'Parenting' has been intricately modeled as a variable that shapes responses to bullying either as a children's protective 'buffer' or a risk 'vulnerability' factor, relative to the level, style, and involvement of 'Parenting'. School/Teacher Factors reflect the importance of the educational context and teachers' influence on the frequency and severity of victimization experiences. "Family Functioning" is posited as a background construct that, through its quality and stability, can profoundly affect the incidence and severity of victimization. Finally, "Child Behavioral Problems" are examined both as potential outcomes of being victimized and as factors that might influence a child's risk of becoming a victim. Through the SEM approach (See figure 6), each of these constructs is empirically examined, allowing for the estimation of direct and indirect effects, as well as the identification of potential points for preventive interventions and support mechanisms for affected children.

Figure 6

Victimization within the Structural Equation Modeling Framework

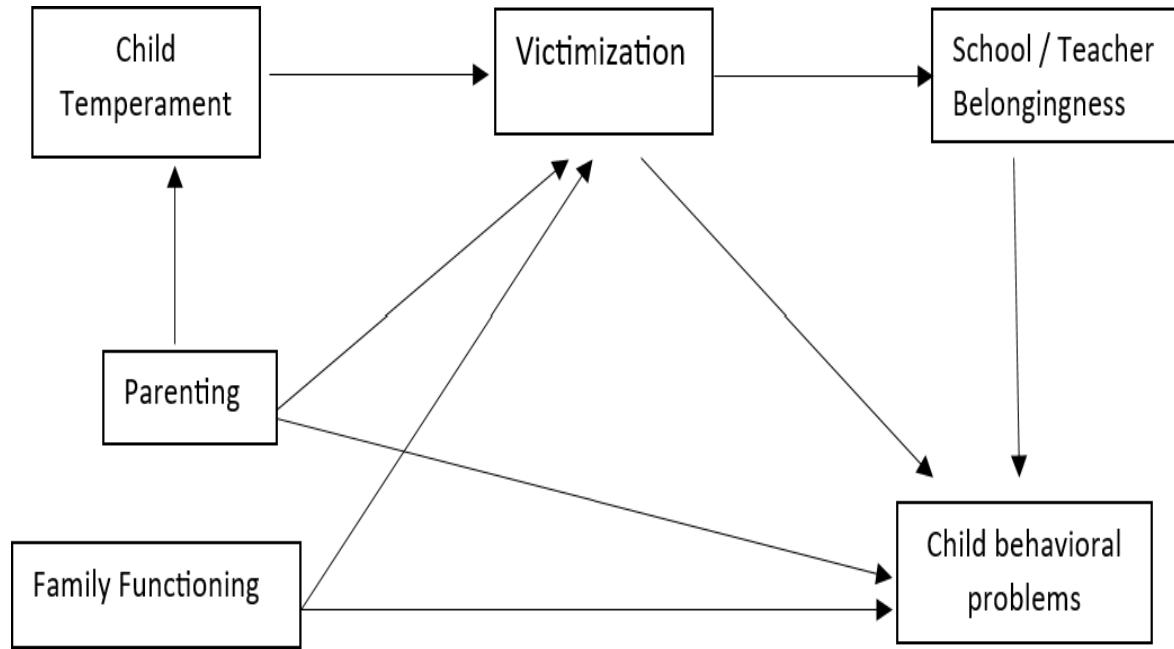
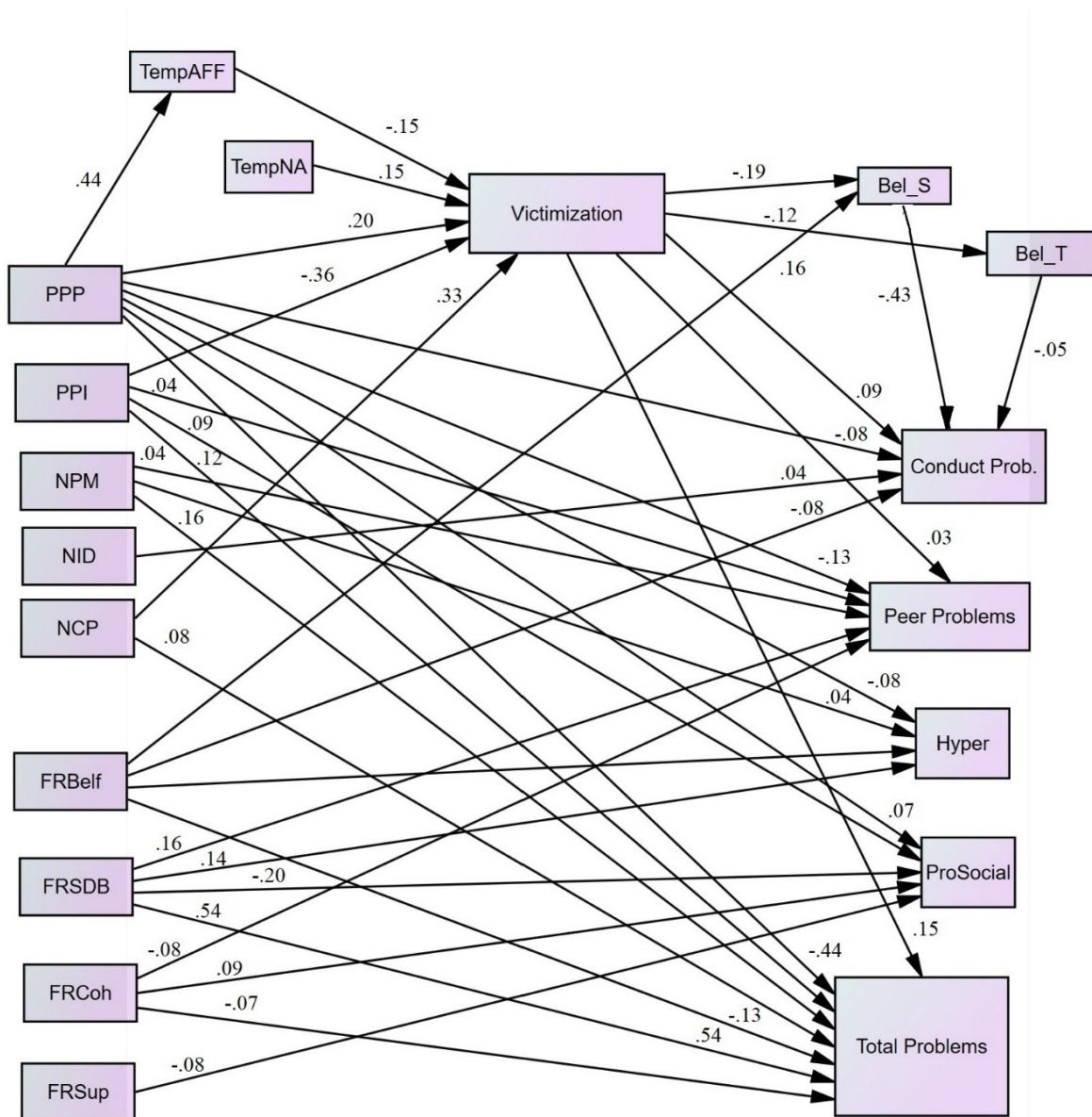


Figure 7*Victimization SEM Model*

Note. TempAFF= temperament affiliativeNess; TempNA= temperament negative affect ; PPP = Positive Parenting; NCP = Corporal Punishment; NPM = Poor Monitoring and Supervision; NID = Inconsistent Discipline; PPI = Parenting Positive Involvement; Family Relationsbelf = Family Relations Belief About Family; Family RelationsSDB = Family Relations Shared Deviant; Family RelationsCoh = Family Relations Cohesion; Family RelationsSup = Family Relations Support; Family RelationsOrg = Family Relations Organization; Bel_S = School belongingness; Bel_T = Teacher belongingness; hyper = hyperactivity.

Table 29*Path model of Victimization*

| Path | Estimate | S.E. | C.R. | P |
|---|-----------------|-------------|-------------|----------|
| EATQ affiliativeness ← Positive Parenting | .44 | .06 | 7.01 | <.001 |
| Victimization Total ← EATQ Affiliativeness | -.15 | .04 | -3.98 | <.001 |
| Victimization Total ← EATQ Negative Affect | .15 | .03 | 4.55 | <.001 |
| Victimization Total ← Positive Involvement | -.36 | .06 | -5.70 | <.001 |
| Victimization Total ← Positive Parenting | .20 | .09 | 2.16 | .031 |
| Victimization Total ← Corporal Punishment | .33 | .12 | 2.85 | .004 |
| Teacher Belongingness ← Victimization Total | -.12 | .02 | -5.49 | <.001 |
| SDQ Conduct ← Family Relations Beliefs Family | -.08 | .01 | -6.94 | <.001 |
| SDQ Conduct ← Positive Parenting | -.08 | .02 | -5.30 | <.001 |
| SDQ Conduct ← Inconsistent Discipline | .04 | .01 | 3.20 | .001 |
| SDQ Conduct ← Victimization Total | .09 | .01 | 8.41 | <.001 |
| SDQ Conduct ← Teacher Belongingness | -.05 | .01 | -3.49 | <.001 |
| School Belongingness ← Victimization Total | -.20 | .04 | -5.53 | <.001 |
| SDQ Hyperactivity ← Family Relations Beliefs Family | -.03 | .01 | -3.20 | .002 |
| SDQ Total Problems ← Family Relations Beliefs Family | -.13 | .02 | -5.51 | <.001 |
| SDQ Peer Problems ← Family Relations Shared Deviant | .20 | .03 | 5.60 | <.001 |
| Beliefs | | | | |
| SDQ Hyperactivity ← Family Relations Shared Deviant Beliefs | .14 | .03 | 4.74 | <.001 |
| SDQ Prosocial ← Family Relations Shared Deviant Beliefs | -.20 | .04 | -5.42 | <.001 |
| SDQ Total Problems ← Family Relations Shared Deviant | .54 | .07 | 7.63 | <.001 |
| Beliefs | | | | |

| | | | | |
|--|------|-----|-------|-------|
| SDQ Peer Problems ← Family Relations Cohesion | -.08 | .02 | -4.29 | <.001 |
| SDQ Prosocial ← Family Relations Cohesion | .10 | .02 | 3.85 | <.001 |
| SDQ Total Problems ← Family Relations Cohesion | .08 | .04 | -2.05 | .040 |
| SDQ Prosocial ← Family Relations Support | -.09 | .03 | -2.86 | .004 |
| SDQ Total Problems ← Victimization Total | .15 | .02 | 6.62 | <.001 |
| SDQ Peer Problems ← Positive Involvement | .04 | .02 | 2.61 | .009 |
| SDQ Prosocial ← Positive Involvement | .09 | .02 | 4.87 | <.001 |
| SDQ Total Problems ← Positive Involvement | .12 | .03 | 4.54 | <.001 |
| SDQ Peer Problems ← Positive Parenting | .13 | .02 | -6.48 | <.001 |
| SDQ Hyperactivity ← Positive Parenting | -.08 | .01 | -6.10 | <.001 |
| SDQ Prosocial ← Positive Parenting | .08 | .03 | 3.02 | .003 |
| SDQ Total Problems ← Positive Parenting | -.44 | .05 | -9.23 | <.001 |

Note. Estimate= unstandardized regression weights; SE= standardized error; CR= critical ratio, p = significance value.

Table 29 provides path model analysis of the relationships between parenting practices, emotional and social traits of children, and their impact on victimization and other behavioral outcomes. The model begins by demonstrating a strong positive relationship between Positive Parenting and EATQ Affiliativeness (estimate = 0.437), indicating that positive parenting techniques foster affiliative traits in children. Literature across prosocial developmental psychology and nurture and supportive parenting focuses on the child's temperament with victimization. In this model, the strongest association estimated is EATQ Affiliativeness with Victimization Total, which indicates -0.152. This indicates children with predominately affiliated traits experience victimization much less. EATQ Negative Affect, in contrast, is estimated at 0.151, which suggests children high in Negative Affect are more likely to experience

victimization. In parenting style terms, Positively Involved Parenting is associated with an enormous reduction in victimization (estimate = -0.361) and Victim Corporal Punishment with an increase (estimate = 0.334). Positively Parenting Victims gives a positive estimation with the victimization model, which is a notable estimate = 0.199, elucidating a possible complexity in the interaction multiple parenting styles may have on a child's social experience.

The cumulative effects of all five tiers of the victimization pyramid demonstrates negative effects on Teacher Belongingness (-0.124) and School Belongingness (-0.196) which implies that victimized children have a weaker sense of emotional affiliation with the teachers who care for them and the school community. This obviously aligns with the existing literature concerning the social ramifications of the experience of victimization. Additionally, Total Victimization displays a positive correlation with SDQ Conduct (0.093), which confirms that the experience of victimization is associated with the presence of conduct issues. The construct Family Relations Beliefs combined with Positive Parenting does protect against the development of conduct problems, whereas the construct Inconsistent Discipline does heighten them. The model further highlights the impact of Family Relations Shared Deviant Beliefs and Cohesion, Positive Parenting, and Positive Involvement on multiple SDQ subscales of Hyperactivity, Total Problems, Peer Problems, and Prosocial behavior. The complexity of the relationships between family functioning and the resulting behavior of children cannot be underestimated. The statistical significance of most paths ($p < .001$ or $p < .05$) reinforces the robustness of these relationships.

Table 30*Model Fit Indices for Structural Equation Modeling for Victimization*

| | χ^2 | Df (p-value) | χ^2/df | RMSEA | CFI | GFI | SRMR | TLI |
|---------|----------|--------------|-------------|-------|-----|-----|------|-----|
| Model 1 | 5151.44 | 158(.000) | 32.60 | .25 | .02 | .56 | .27 | .51 |
| Model 2 | 614.44 | 107(.001) | 5.74 | .08 | .91 | .92 | .07 | .90 |

Note. χ^2 = likelihood ratio chi-square statistic; df = degree of freedom for the likelihood ratio test of the model versus saturated; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean squared residual; GFI = Goodness of fit indices; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index.

Table 30 displays the model fit indices for both models pertaining to the phenomenon of victimization. In the first model, all factors were included, whereas in the second model, non-significant path, such as child temperaments (specifically surgency and effortful control) and parenting (specifically poor monitoring, corporal punishment, and inconsistent discipline), predicting victimization and behavioral problems, were removed. Additionally, we deleted non-significant factors pertaining to family relations, including family beliefs, cohesion, support, and organization, to predict behavioral problems. In addition, we included covariates as recommended by modification indices. The inclusion of positive parenting with child affiliative temperament and conduct problems predicting school belongingness in the second model resulted in a notable increase in significance.

A structural equation model was constructed to illustrate the regression and correlation paths found to be statistically significant at $p < 0.05$ to $p < 0.001$. The chi-square value revealed a statistically significant result, indicating a deviation from the expected distribution. However, the fit indices for the adjusted model were found to be within an acceptable range, RMSEA =

0.08, GFI = 0.92, TLI = 0.90, CFI = .91, NFI = 0.89, IFI = 0.88, suggesting a reasonable fit between the model and the observed data.

Based on the model, it was found that child behavioral concerns, specifically conduct and total problems, were strongly predicted by victimization and corporal punishment. Victimization further negatively predicts school and teacher belongingness. Conversely, parenting involvement and teacher belongingness were found to have a negative association with victimization. Positive parenting was found to have a strong positive association with child affiliative temperament, prosocial behavior and a negative association with conduct problems, peer problems, hyperactivity, and total behavioral problems. Family-held deviant beliefs significantly predicted peer-related, hyperactive, and overall behavioral problems. In contrast, it was shown that family cohesion exhibited a favorable association with prosocial behaviors, whereas family beliefs displayed a negative association with hyperactivity and total problems. The standardized estimates for each path are depicted in Figure 7.

Bystander Measurement Model of Moderation

We examined an influential methodological framework for disentangling the interrelationships within bullying dynamics, especially the bystander effect. As illustrated in this framework (see Figure 8), the “Bystander Moderation effect” is an anchor latent construct for the bystander influence bullying eco-system. This construct embodies the bystander effect in multitiered roles by profiling the environmental parameters wherein these actors modulate bullying, as well as its consequences on the victim(s). While the SEM framework assumes a direct pathway of “Bullying” “Victimization” and “Child Behavioral Problems” interconnecting reciprocally, and with “Victimization” and “Bullying” from this bullying eco-system, the bystander effect is assumed to moderate the inter-component relationships of bullying and

victimization and behavioral problems in a way of either softening or strengthening the effects with their bystander response.

Figure 8

Measurement Model of Moderation of Bystander Between Victimization / Bullying and Child Behavioral Problems

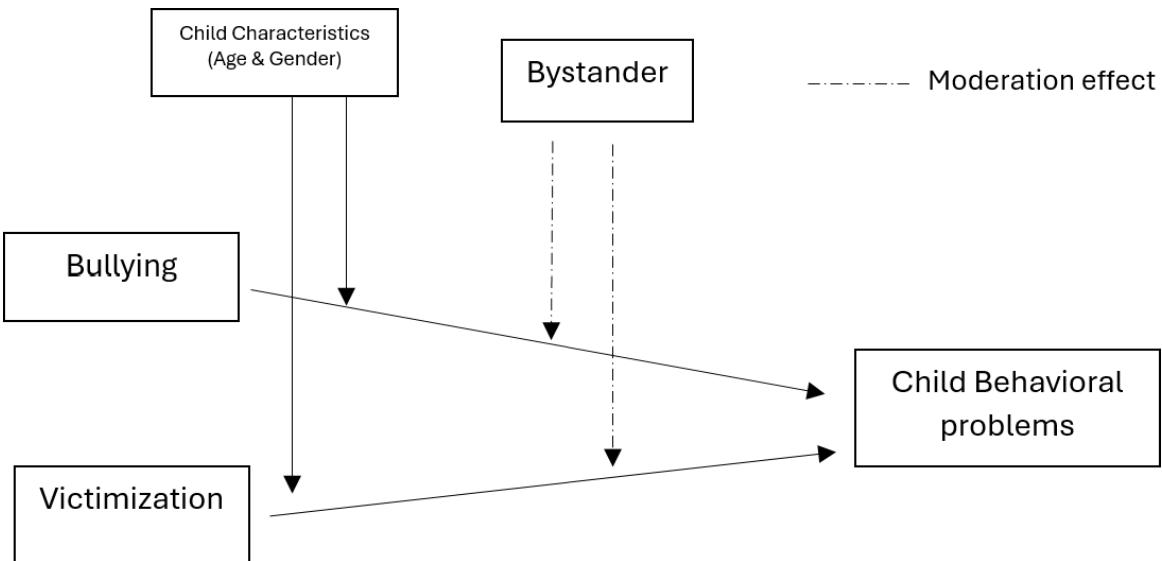


Table 31

Moderating Effect of Bystander Behavior in The Relationship of Bullying and Child Behavioral Problems

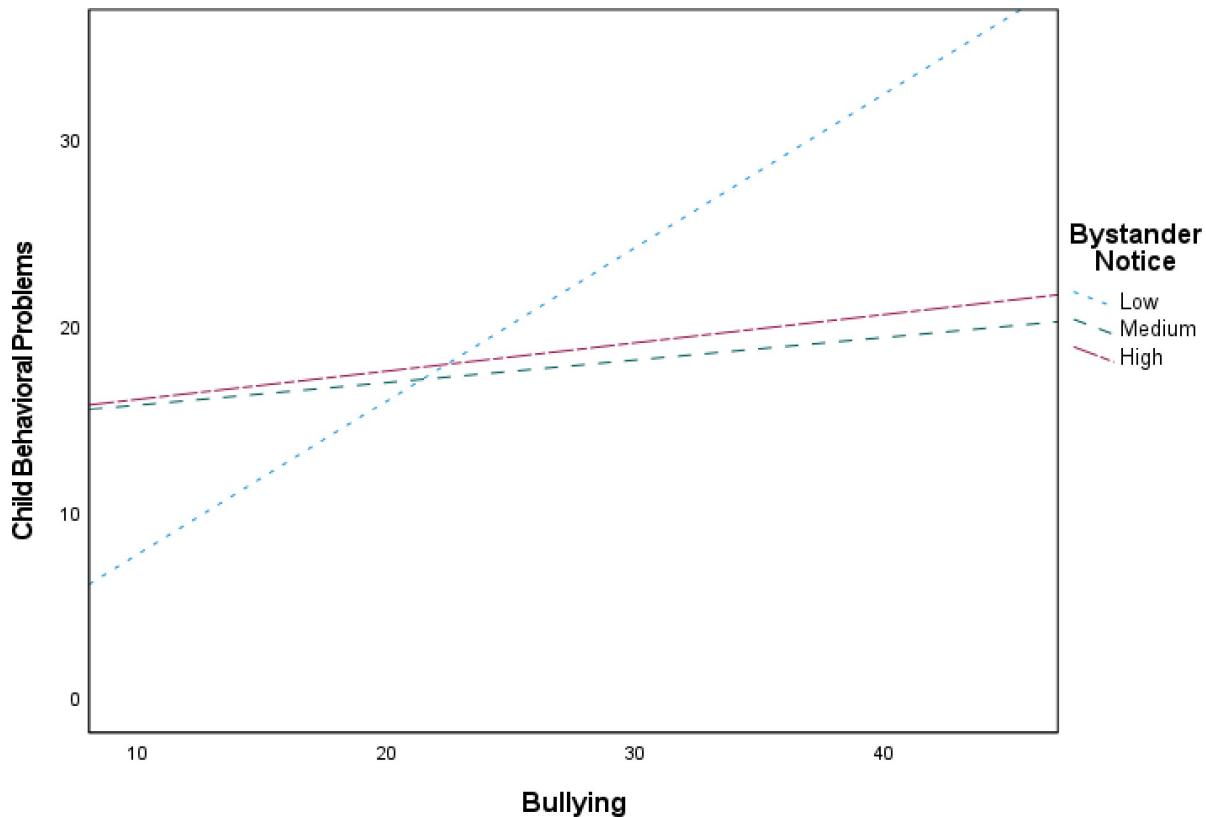
| Predictors | Child Behavioral Problems | | | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|----------|------|--------|------|
| | B | t | p | 95% CI | |
| | | | | LL | UL |
| Constant | .01 | .12 | .908 | -.21 | .23 |
| Bullying (X) | -.25 | -1.02 | .309 | -.74 | .23 |
| Bystander notice (W) | .02 | 2.02 | .044 | .00 | .04 |
| Bullying x Bystander notice | -.61 | -2.25 | .025 | -1.13 | -.08 |
| Age | -.14 | -.22 | .825 | -1.34 | 1.07 |
| Gender | .01 | .12 | .908 | -.21 | .23 |
| R ² | | .10 | | | |
| ΔR ² | | .00 | | | |
| F | | 11.90*** | | | |
| ΔF | | 7.84 | | | |

*** $p < .001$.

Note. B = Unstandardized Regression coefficient; SE = Standard error; CI= Confidence Interval; LL= Lower Limit; UL= Upper Limit.
Age and Gender were covariates.

Figure 9

Moderating Effect of Bystander Behavior in The Relationship of Bullying and Child Behavioral Problems.



Tables and figures have been discussed in prior sections and will not be reiterated in this instance. The impact of bystanders' noticing behaviors (W) on bullying (X) and behavioral issues in children (Y) considering age and gender as covariates reveals crucial points. Firstly, bullying itself does not have any bearing on behavioral issues ($B = 0.01, p = 0.908$) and, therefore, does not hold significance on predicting in this case. Similarly, bystanders' noticing behaviors does not have significance on predicting child behavioral issues ($B = -0.25, p = 0.309$) either.

Regardless, as for the interactions, bullying x bystanders' noticing behaviors ($B = 0.02, p = 0.044$) suggests the association between bullying and child behavioral issues impacts the bystanders' noticing behaviors. Moreover, age has a negative effect on behavioral issues in children ($B = -0.61, p = 0.025$), suggesting that as children get older, those behavioral problems get less severe. The impact of gender on behavioral problems of children is negative and not significant ($B = -0.14, p = 0.825$). The overall explanatory power of the predictors is underscored by the significance of the F-statistics, which also suggests the goodness of fit of the model. ($F = 11.90, p < 0.001$)

The R^2 value suggests the model explains a small proportion of the variance in Child Behavioral Problems ($R^2 = 0.10, \Delta R^2 = 0.00$), leading to the conclusion that, taken in isolation, bullying and bystander behavior are not significant predictors of child behavioral problems. However, the interaction between these two factors is significant, indicating a potential moderating effect.

Table 32

Moderating Effect of Bystander Behavior and Gender in The Relationship of Bullying and Child Behavioral Problems

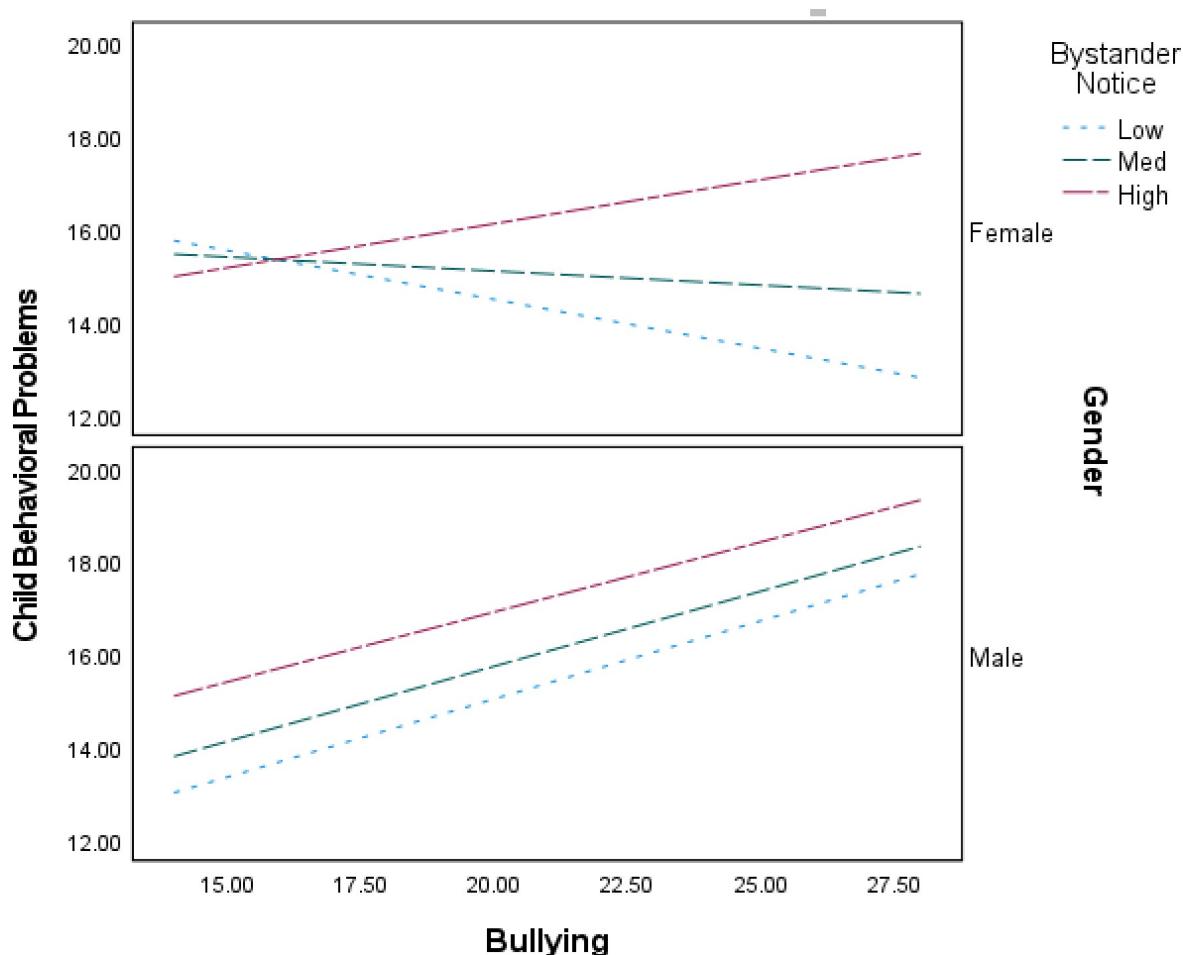
| Predictors | Child Behavioral Problems | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|----------|------|--------|-------|
| | B | t | p | 95% CI | |
| | | | | LL | UL |
| Constant | -7.84 | -1.13 | .260 | -21.50 | 5.82 |
| Bullying (X) | 1.12 | 3.39 | .001 | .47 | 1.76 |
| Bystander notice (W) | 1.44 | 1.87 | .062 | -.07 | 2.95 |
| Gender (Z) | 14.85 | 3.22 | .001 | 5.79 | 23.92 |
| Bullying x Bystander notice | -.06 | -1.81 | .070 | -.12 | .00 |
| Bullying x Gender | -.76 | -3.31 | .001 | -1.22 | -.31 |
| Bystanders notice x Gender | -1.12 | -2.19 | .028 | -2.12 | -.12 |
| Bullying x Bystander notice x Gender | .05 | 2.38 | .018 | .00 | .09 |
| R ² | | .125 | | | |
| ΔR ² | | .01 | | | |
| F | | 10.03*** | | | |
| ΔF | | 4.35 | | | |

*** p<.001.

Note. B = Unstandardized Regression coefficient; SE = Standard error; CI= Confidence Interval; LL= Lower Limit; UL= Upper Limit.

Figure 10

Moderating Effect of Bystander Behavior and Gender in The Relationship of Bullying and Child Behavioral Problems



As demonstrated in Table 32 and Figure 10, we analyze the data pertaining to the moderating effects of bystander noticing behavior (W) and gender (Z) on bullying (X) and child behavioral problems (Y). Given the value of the bullying coefficient ($B = 1.12$, $p < 0.001$), we can conclude that child behavioral problems increase by 1.12 units for every additional bullying,

with all the other variables in the model held constant. On the other hand, bystanders noticing behavior has a coefficient of 1.44, indicating an increase, although not statistically significant ($p = 0.062$), associated with child behavioral problems.

Moderation effects are notable in this context. These interaction terms assess the joint impact of predictors. Focusing on the 'Bullying x Gender' interaction term, the influence of bullying on child behavioral problems is most pronounced for boys, as evidenced by the negative interaction term (-0.76, $p = 0.001$). Moreover, in this context, gender plays an important role, with girls, coded as 2, exhibiting more child behavioral problems ($b = 14.85$, $p < 0.001$) compared to boys, coded as 1. Gender and bystander noticing behavior also demonstrate moderation, with an interaction effect captured by the term 'bystander behavior x gender' (-1.12). The three-way interaction of bullying x bystander behavior x gender also influences model outcomes with a value of 0.05. These terms stand out in the analysis of child behavioral problems. Finally, an F-statistic ($F = 10.03$, $p < 0.001$) and R^2 of 0.125 (12.5% variability) indicate model fit within the context of child behavioral problems, substantiating the role of bystander noticing behavior as a moderator in the linkage of bullying to behavioral problems.

Table 33

Moderating Effect of Bystander Behavior and Age in The Relationship of Bullying and Child Behavioral Problems

| Predictors | Child Behavioral Problems | | | | |
|---|---------------------------|----------|------|--------|--------|
| | B | T | p | 95% CI | |
| | | | | LL | UL |
| Constant | 91.72 | 3.87 | .000 | 45.21 | 138.24 |
| Bullying (X) | -1.85 | -1.77 | .077 | -3.91 | .20 |
| Bystander Interpretation (W) | -8.19 | -3.62 | .000 | -12.63 | -3.75 |
| Age (Z) | -6.42 | -3.07 | .002 | -1.53 | -2.31 |
| Bullying x Bystander Interpretation | .24 | 2.36 | .019 | .04 | .43 |
| Bullying x Age | .16 | 1.73 | .085 | -.02 | .35 |
| Bystander Interpretation x Age | .65 | 3.28 | .001 | .26 | 1.05 |
| Bullying x Bystander Interpretation x Age | -.02 | -2.09 | .038 | -.04 | .00 |
| R ² | | .152 | | | |
| ΔR ² | | .007 | | | |
| F | | 12.60*** | | | |
| ΔF | | 8.25 | | | |

*** p<.001.

Note. B = Unstandardized Regression coefficient; SE = Standard error; CI= Confidence Interval; LL= Lower Limit; UL= Upper Limit.

Figure 11

Moderating Effect of Bystander Behavior and Age in The Relationship of Bullying and Child Behavioral Problems

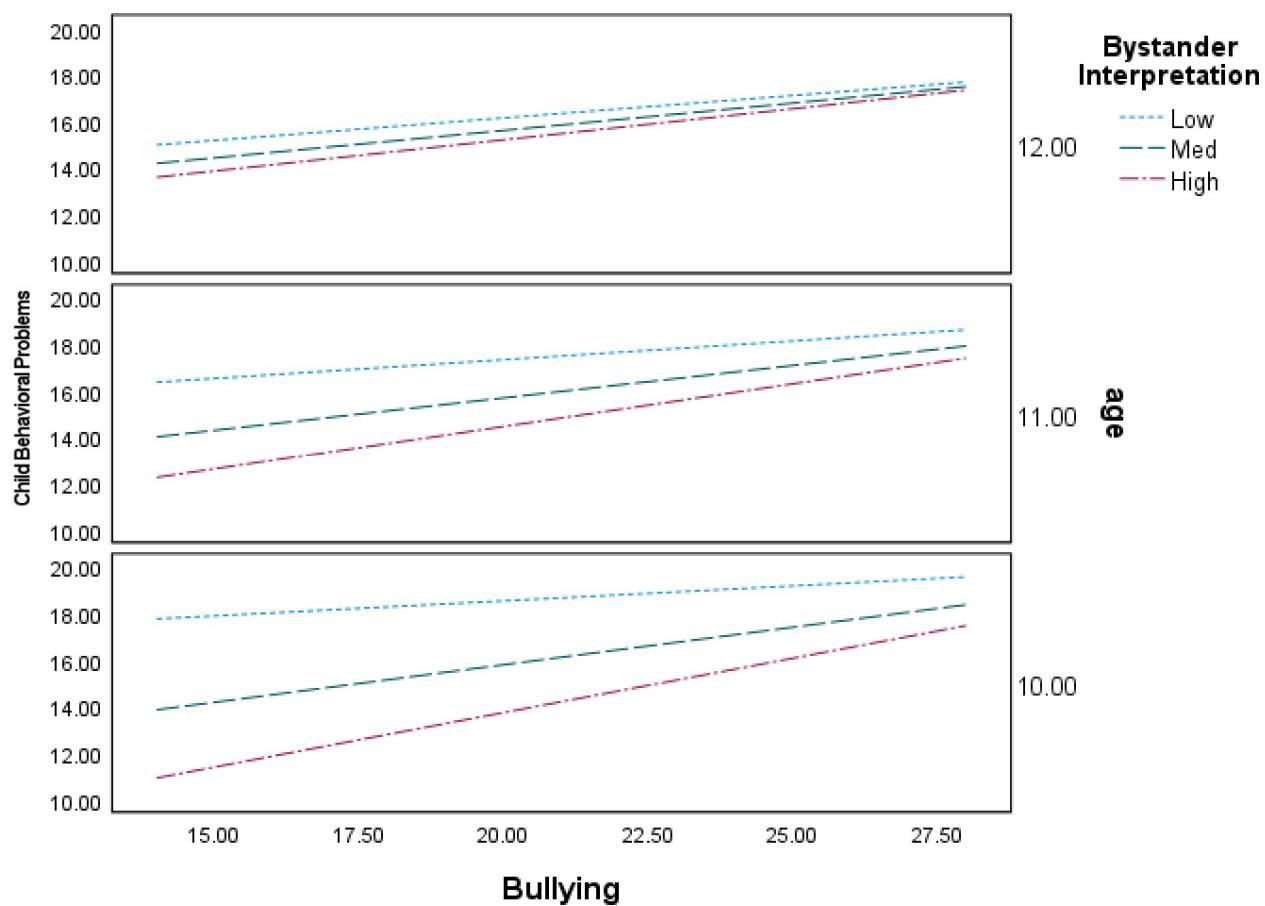


Table 33 and Figure 11 present the intricate dynamics surrounding the moderating influences of bystander interpretation behavior (W) and age (Z) in the association between bullying (X) and child behavioral problems (Y). In this model, bullying exhibits a negative coefficient of -1.85, suggesting a decrease in child behavioral problems as bullying increases, the

statistical significance of this relationship is not firmly established ($p = 0.077$). Bystander interpretation behavior is notably influential, with a coefficient of -8.19 and a highly significant t-statistic ($p < 0.001$), thus qualifies as a strong predictor with a considerable negative relationship with child behavior problems.

The interaction term Bullying x Bystander Interpretation incorporates a statistically significant positive coefficient ($B = 0.24$, $p = 0.019$), suggesting that the relationship between Bullying and Child Behavioral Problems is contingent upon Bystander Interpretation. More active interpretation of bystander behavior amplifies the effect of Bullying on Child Behavioral Problems. In addition, the interaction term Bystander Interpretation x Age contains a strong positive coefficient ($B = 0.65$, $p = 0.001$), which demonstrates the moderating effect of Age on the relationship between Bystander Interpretation and Child Behavioral Problems. The three-way interaction of Bullying x Bystander Interpretation x Age does show a negative coefficient of -0.02, yet statistically significant ($p = 0.038$), which suggests the variable complexities that exist between the interplays of these parameters. The model's goodness of fit is affirmed by a significant F-statistic ($F = 12.60$, $p < 0.001$) and an R^2 value of 0.152, indicating that approximately 15.2% of the variability in child behavioral problems is explicable by the predictors. Hence, our model revealed that both bystander interpretation and age moderate the relationship between bullying and behavioral problems of children.

Table 34

Moderating Effect of Bystander Behavior and Age in The Relationship of Victimization and Child Behavioral Problems

| Predictors | Child Behavioral Problems | | | | |
|---|---------------------------|-------|------|--------|--------|
| | B | t | p | 95% CI | |
| | | | | LL | UL |
| Constant | 90.27 | 3.40 | .001 | 38.03 | 142.51 |
| Victimization (X) | -2.19 | -1.88 | .061 | -4.49 | .10 |
| Bystander_decision implementation (W) | -5.03 | -2.96 | .003 | -8.37 | -1.70 |
| Age (Z) | -6.31 | -2.70 | .007 | -10.89 | -1.72 |
| Victimization x Bystander_decision implementation | .16 | 2.07 | .039 | .01 | .31 |
| Victimization x Age | .21 | 1.99 | .047 | .00 | .42 |
| Bystander_decision implementation x Age | .40 | 2.68 | .008 | .11 | .70 |
| Victimization x Bystander_decision implementation x Age | -.01 | -1.98 | .048 | -.03 | .00 |
| R ² | .177 | | | | |
| ΔR ² | .006 | | | | |
| F | 15.18*** | | | | |
| ΔF | 11.27 | | | | |
| Constant | 75.09 | 3.01 | .003 | 26.15 | 124.03 |
| Victimization (X) | -1.33 | -1.21 | .227 | -3.48 | .83 |
| Bystander intervention (W) | -5.93 | -2.65 | .008 | -10.32 | -1.53 |

| | | | | | |
|---|----------|-------|-------|-------|--------|
| Age (Z) | -5.40 | -2.46 | .014 | -9.72 | -1.08 |
| Victimization x Bystander_ intervention | .15 | 1.53 | .127 | -.04 | .35 |
| Victimization x Age | .14 | 1.39 | .167 | -.06 | .33 |
| Bystander_ intervention x Age | .50 | 2.51 | .013 | .11 | .89 |
| Victimization x Bystander_ intervention x Age | -.01 | -1.46 | .144 | -.03 | .00 |
| R ² | .142 | | | | |
| ΔR ² | .003 | | | | |
| F | 11.60*** | | | | |
| ΔF | 9.46 | | | | |
| Constant | 79.21 | 23.95 | 3.31 | .001 | 32.15 |
| Victimization (X) | -1.20 | 1.12 | -1.07 | .284 | -3.40 |
| Bystander interpretation (W) | -6.88 | 2.21 | -3.12 | .002 | -11.22 |
| Age (Z) | -5.51 | 2.13 | -2.59 | .010 | -9.69 |
| Victimization x Bystander_ interpretation | .16 | .10 | 1.52 | .128 | -.05 |
| Victimization x Age | .11 | .10 | 1.13 | .259 | -.08 |
| Bystander_ interpretation x Age | .56 | .20 | 2.82 | .005 | .17 |
| Victimization x Bystander_ interpretation x Age | -.01 | .01 | -1.33 | .183 | -.03 |
| R ² | .165 | | | | |
| ΔR ² | .003 | | | | |
| F | 13.91*** | | | | |
| ΔF | 12.14 | | | | |

*** p<.001.

Note. B = Unstandardized Regression coefficient; SE = Standard error; CI= Confidence Interval; LL= Lower Limit; UL= Upper Limit.

Figure 12

Moderating Effect of Bystander Interpretation Behavior and Age in The Relationship of Victimization and Child Behavioral Problems

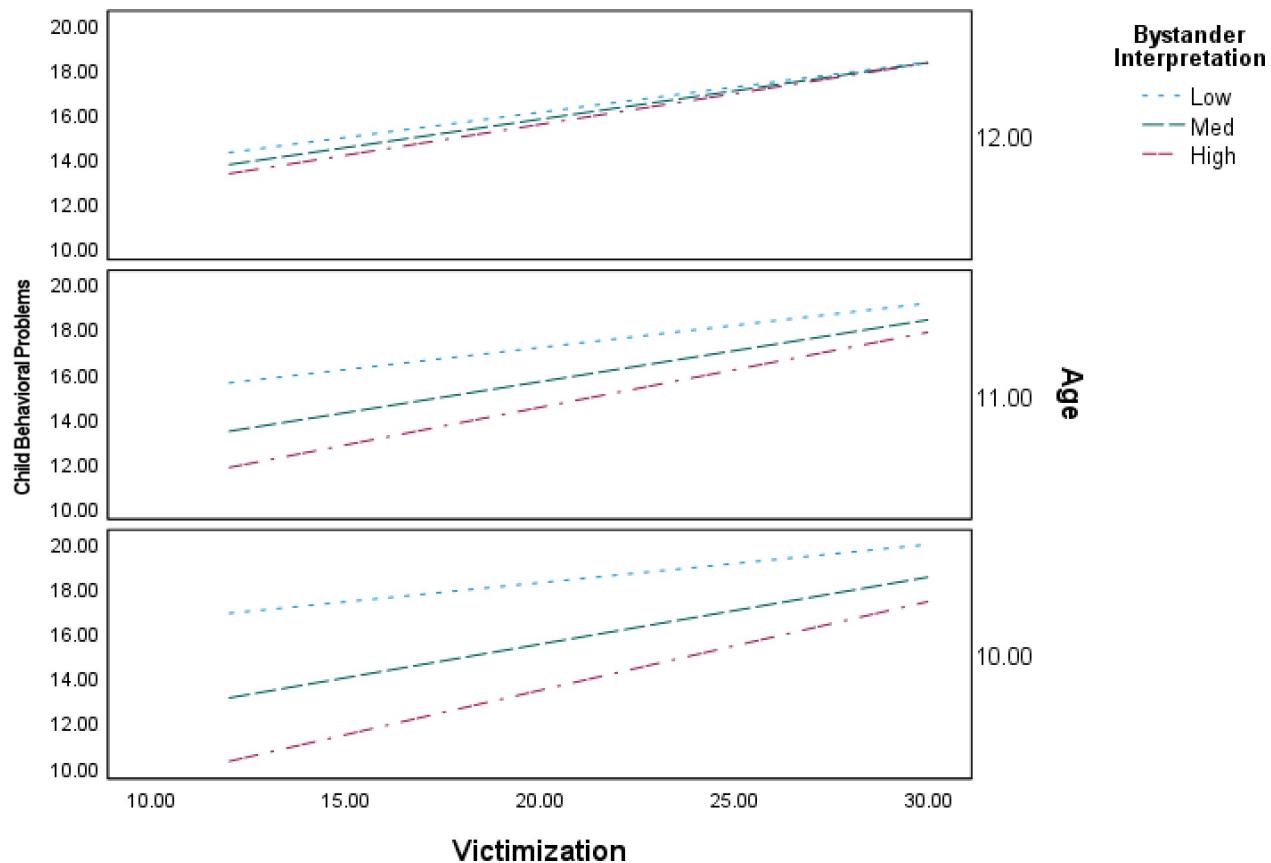


Figure 13

Moderating Effect of Bystander Decision Implementation Behavior and Age in The Relationship of Victimization and Child Behavioral Problems

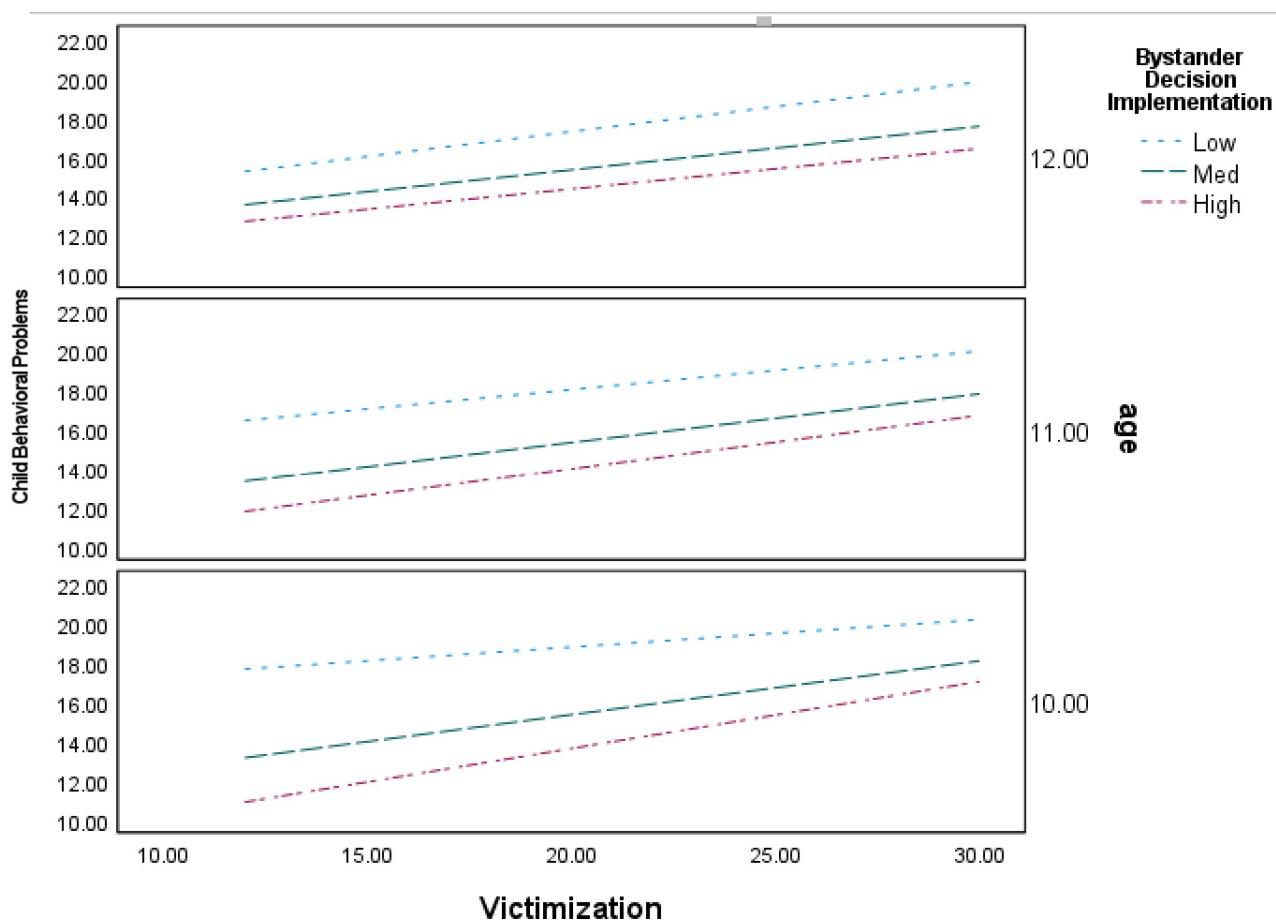


Figure 14

Moderating Effect of Bystander Intervention Behavior and Age in The Relationship of Victimization and Child Behavioral Problems

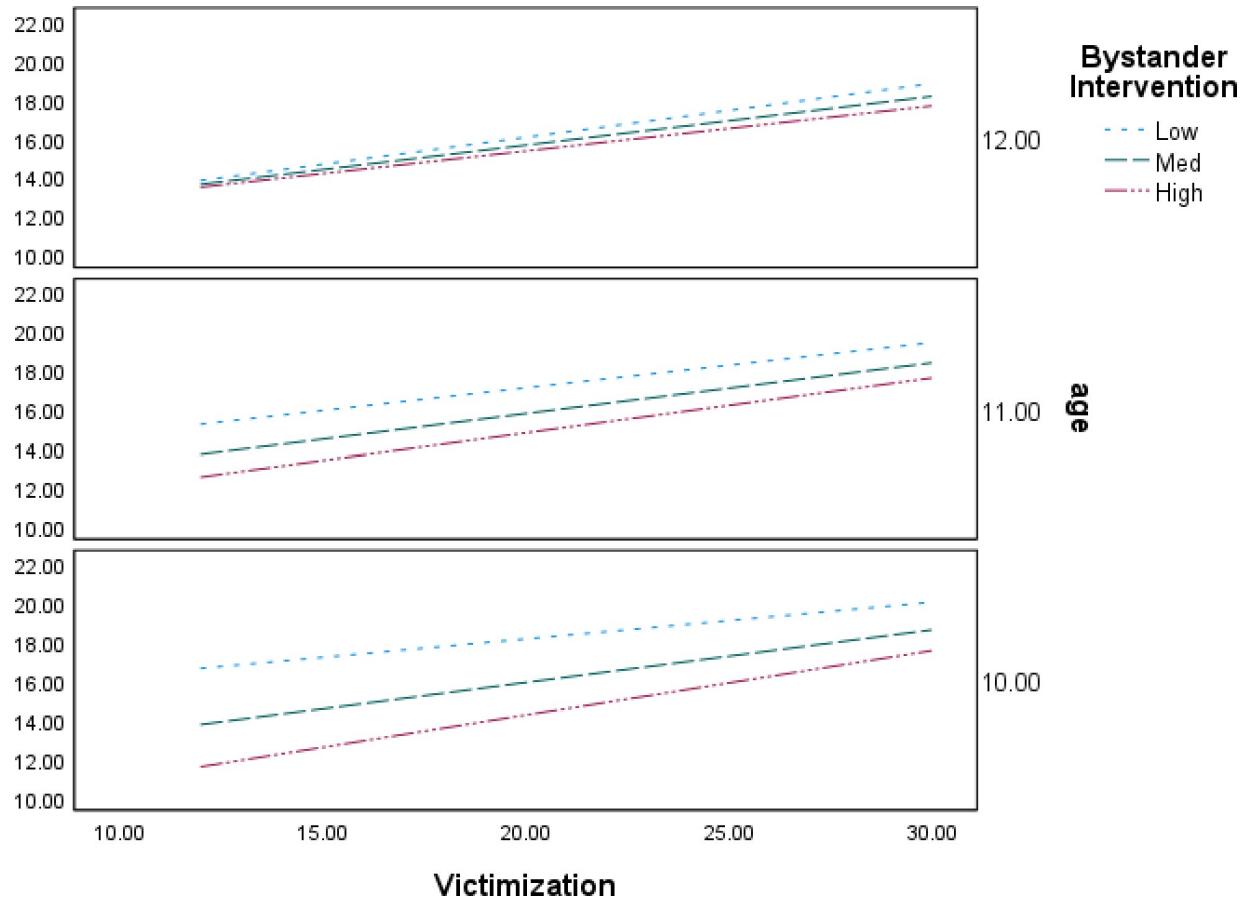


Table 34 and figure 12, 13 and 14 present an analysis centered on the moderating influences of bystander behavior (W) and age (Z) concerning the relationship between victimization (X) and child behavioral problems (Y). In the first model, bystander decision implementation significantly predicts child behavioral problems with a negative coefficient (B = -5.03, p = 0.003), indicating that an increase in this behavior is associated with a decrease in Behavioral Problems. The interaction term Victimization x Bystander decision implementation is

significant ($B = 0.16, p = 0.039$), implying that the relationship between victimization and child behavioral problems is moderated by bystander decision implementation. The model's overall fit is supported by a significant F-statistic ($F = 15.18, p < 0.001$).

In the second model concerning bystander intervention behavior, Victimization (X) does not significantly predict Child Behavioral Problems ($B = -1.33, p = 0.227$). Meanwhile, Bystander Intervention appears to significantly predict a decrease in Child Behavioral Problems ($B = -5.93, p = 0.008$). The interaction term Victimization x Bystander Intervention does not reach significance either ($B = 0.15, p = 0.127$), suggesting that bystander intervention does not influence the relationship between victimization and child behavioral problems. This model also demonstrates a good overall fit with a significant F-statistic ($F = 11.60, p < 0.001$). Finally, the third model with bystander interpretation illustrates a different scenario. Victimization has a non-significant effect on Child Behavioral Problems ($B = -1.20, p = 0.284$). However, Bystander Interpretation significantly predicts a decrease in Child Behavioral Problems ($B = -6.88, p = 0.002$), and Age also exhibits a significant negative effect ($B = -5.51, p = 0.010$). The interaction term Victimization x Bystander Interpretation is not significant ($B = 0.16, p = 0.128$), implying that the relationship between victimization and child behavioral problems is not moderated by bystander interpretation. This model also demonstrates a good overall fit with a significant F-statistic ($F = 13.91, p < 0.001$).

Chapter IV

DISCUSSION

Discussion of the validation of study measures

The purpose of this study was to examine the reliability and validity of the Urdu version of FBS for adolescents in Pakistan. Results of the CFA indicated the factor structure of the FBS is congruent with the original factor structure of FBS on the Australia sample (Shaw et al., 2013). Researchers in the field of youth violence widely agree that there is a significant overlap between bullying victimization and perpetration (Walters, 2021). And according to the results of a meta-analysis, the cross-lagged longitudinal relationship between bullying victimization and bullying perpetration is bidirectional, with perpetration being just as likely to lead to future victimization as victimization is to lead to future perpetration. Being a victim of traditional bullying has been shown to enhance one's likelihood of perpetrating traditional bullying by as much as one hundred percent in some circumstances but to have essentially no effect on perpetration in other contexts (Paez & Richmond, 2022). However, it is generally accepted that bullying victimization can contribute to bullying perpetration, so both factors can be considered as elements of bullying behavior (Walters, 2021).

Our study's findings indicate that the Urdu FBS scale has acceptable psychometric properties. The present study confirmed that the Urdu version of the FBS has excellent internal consistency, reliability, and goodness-of-fit indices. Results indicate that the respective self-report measure may be valid and reliable for assessing the perpetration and victimization forms of bullying among Pakistani adolescents. Analyses of reliability revealed adequate estimates for

all subscales as well as excellent internal consistency for the total scale, which is comparable with findings from previous research (Shaw et al., 2013). Literature (Farmer et al., 2015; Källmén & Hallgren, 2021; Nansel et al., 2001; Shahid et al., 2022) has shown both cross-sectional and longitudinal associations of bullying perpetration and bullying victimization on several psychosocial problems, including conduct, emotional, peer, hyperactivity, and prosocial behaviors. Busch and colleagues (2015) showed significantly less prosocial behaviors and greater peer and conduct problems. Furthermore, emotional difficulties related to higher victimization at follow-up, while inattention-hyperactivity problems and less pro-social conduct were related to increased risks of becoming a perpetrator at follow-up. In our study, significant correlations of the Urdu version of FBS with subscales of SDQ i.e., conduct, peer, emotional problems, hyperactivity, and prosocial behavior suggests its adequate convergent and divergent validity. In summary, these findings provide preliminary evidence that the Urdu FBS retains adequate psychometric properties. Furthermore, based on the present validation, we encourage researchers, teachers, school counselors, and psychologists working with children to use the measure to assess forms of bullying. Furthermore, the FBS Urdu version may be used for future bullying-based research and further cross-cultural comparisons.

This chapter focuses on interactions among bullying, victimization, bystander behaviors, and the associated ecological variables. The primary focus is on the interplay of individual, familial, and contextual societal variables in the Pakistani context, where empirical research on school bullying and associated behaviors is lacking. This research aimed to develop a more inclusive understanding of the behaviors, their incidence, and their expressions in the public and private schooling systems in Pakistan, particularly in the context of preadolescents. This is a cross-

sectional study and is intended to contribute to the growing, however limited, literature on the multifaceted issue of bullying. Given the rise in the incidence of bullying, the school surroundings need to address the different forms of bullying, inclusive of direct and indirect, as each affects the target and observer in diverse ways. This will review the issue within the relevant literature to understand the patterns and peculiarities of the Pakistani case. The focus of this chapter is to examine the triggering factors across different systemic levels to offer implementable systemic recommendations to improve the policies and interventions regarding school bullying. This is framed according to the generalized theoretical perspective of the ecological frameworks on bullying.

There is a strong linkage in the distress and aggression associated with the bullying phenomenon and the externalizing and internalizing problems, which is documented in the literature as expressed behaviorally (De Sousa et al., 2021; Farmer et al., 2015; Kelly et al., 2015). The relation between victimization and internalizing problems also points to the profound internal distress the victim is suffering. Research on child temperament shows that higher self-regulation is correlated with less bullying and victimization, suggesting bully-victim patterns exist. Research on family environments emphasizes the role of positive family environments and supportive relationships as protective against bullying. The critical role of the school climate and the relationships students foster with teachers is also documented. The demographic gaps point to a need for gender-specific and age-specific interventions. The higher incidence of bullying among boys, along with age-related trends, underpins the need for interventions that cater to the differing developmental stages of students.

In analyzing the relationship between the environment and conduct problems, the research captures the multifaceted relationship between bullying and associated conduct problems/issues rather well. Regarding predictive relations, the problems of conduct seem to be the more prominent predictor, and, additionally, externalizing problems are correlated with the likelihood of bullying. Positive parenting, coupled with the protective motivational function, strives toward the healthy development of the child and discourages the likelihood of involvement in bullying and related behaviors. Integration of family and teacher relationships is also important to minimize the child's behavioral problems. Relationships of the family, together with teacher-relationships, determine to a considerable extent the valuing of the child-as-a-student and the student's behavioral problems. The results generated concerning the victim, the predictor, and the associated collective ecological phenomena again depict similar themes. This involves the linked phenomena of victimization, the use of corporal punishment, and subsequent problems of conduct. The protective mechanisms against victimization include supportive parenting, involved parents, and inclusive teachers. The family, especially with deviant beliefs and dysfunctional family relations, can shape the precursor of conduct problems, thus highlighting the need to target family dynamics.

The research seeks to determine the moderator effect of bystander behavior and the age of the child on victimization and child behavioral problems, and identifies intricate dynamics. By deciding to act, a bystander can have a protective role and affect the value of victimization and behavioral problems. An age-related bystander role interaction makes understanding these relationships even more intricate, necessitating age and appropriate role interventions. In this regard, the study captures the essence of bullying behavior thoroughly along with the surrounding ecological contexts, thereby facilitating the planning of more empirical and targeted interventions. Such interventions should research and implement specialized interventions that translate findings

into practical strategies. In planning these interventions, the integration of the child, family, and school should be prioritized, as these systems work together and are socially adjacent to the problem of bullying. From the perspective of ecological contexts, the study aimed to understand children's bullying and victimization behavior in school settings. To this end, this study focused on a few specific hypotheses that will guide the presentation of our results.

Relationship between Bullying, Victimization Behavior, and Behavioral Problems in School Children

The results provide strong support for Hypotheses H1 and H2, indicating a robust correlation between exhibiting bullying behavior and the externalizing behavioral problems of conduct disorder, hyperactivity, and challenges in peer relations, whereas victimization experiences show a positive correlation with the internalizing behavioral problems of emotional disorders. These findings are congruent with current literature (Kelly, 2015; Farmer, 2015; Sousa, 2021), wherein it is indicated that those involved in bullying have a higher tendency to have externalizing behaviors of aggression, defiance, and disruptiveness. There is consistent research demonstrating a strong correlation between bullying and externalizing behaviors of mainly aggression. (Eastman et al., 2018) established that bullying victims were more likely to have high levels of both internalizing and externalizing symptoms, with higher frequency of victimization raising the chances of belonging to these profiles. This is complemented by (Kaliampos et al., 2022), who highlighted the interrelated nature of aggression and bullying, and the imperative for effective anti-bullying strategies in schools. Prinstein & La Greca, (2004) also brought into focus the function of peer rejection to moderate the relationship between aggression in childhood and outcomes during adolescence, indicating that social processes are important in the development of externalizing behavior. This externalization of concerns could be a function of self-regulation

issues, social difficulties, or even family dynamics at home. Likewise, the validation of H2 is consistent with earlier studies demonstrating that victims of bullying tend to have internalizing issues such as anxiety, depression, and social withdrawal (De Sousa et al., 2021; Pengpid & Peltzer, 2019).

Research consistently demonstrates the relationship between victimization and bullying and the internalizing and externalizing behavior problems of adolescents. Kelly (2015) detailed that victims and bullies, and bullies and victims, reported more problems than those who were not involved, with victims having the most problems with internalizing behaviors. Pengpid and Peltzer (2019) built on this by showing that victim bullying was associated with numerous adverse psychosocial and other health consequences. Moreover, steering the course of the present analysis, we established that victimization and bullying behaviors were strongly correlated. A more recent meta-analysis (Walters, 2021) of 22 longitudinal studies concerning adolescents attempted to illuminate the relationship between victimization and bullying perpetration. It was found that there is a strong, mutually influencing longitudinal connection between the two, underscoring the necessity of studying both in the context of bullying. In addition, this weakens the need for a more integrated approach in the school system on the unsolved issues of bullying that centers on the psychological health of every student involved.

Also, contrary to expectations, bullying was negatively associated with prosocial behavior, while bully-victims positively correlated with prosocial behavior. The negative correlation indicates that bullying behavior is associated with a lack of empathic behavior and a lack of cooperative helping behavior. Gini et al. (2007) showed that empathic irresponsiveness was linked to the involvement of students in bullying. Conversely, empathy was linked to the

active assistance of victimized peers. These results are consistent with the social and emotional competency deficit theories on bullying.

The positive correlation with prosocial behavior was shown with bullying victims as well. Engaging in more prosocial behavior might allow a victim to obtain social support or peer validation to avoid further victimization (Warden et al., 2003) in the case of bullying. Griese and colleagues (Griese et al., 2016) further discussed the stabilizing role that prosocial behavior could have with resilient victims, especially in the case of victims who showed high, stable levels of resilient prosocial behavior. In contrast to bullies concerning socially awkward situations, prosocial child victims and victims of bullying responded more constructively. Compared to prosocial children, bullies showed more ignorance of the adverse consequences of their aggressive solution strategies. These findings point to the need to encourage programs that constructively promote prosocial behavior, in addition to discouraging negative behavior.

Relationship between Bystander's Behavior and Behavioral Problems in School Children

The results indicate that bystander behavior is negatively correlated with externalizing behavior problems—including conduct problems, hyperactivity, problems with peers, and even emotional difficulties which constitute internalizing problems. Simultaneously, bystander behavior is positively correlated with prosocial behavior. Having bystander behavior indicates that those individuals are less likely to have or develop externalizing and internalizing problems and more likely to exhibit prosocial behavior. This is consistent with the literature that links positive social behavior to lower behavioral and emotional difficulties (Jenkins & Nickerson, 2017). The inverse relation with externalizing problems suggests that active bystanders are more self-regulated and socially competent, which inhibits the aggressive, hyperactive, or disruptive behavior that is

characteristic of externalizing problems (Pouwels et al., 2019). The negative correlation with emotional difficulties also suggests that active bystanders take part in positive social interaction, which is protective against emotional distress and social withdrawal (Frey et al., 2020; Lynn Hawkins et al., 2001). Moreover, the relationship with prosocial behavior denotes that bystanders exhibit empathy and social responsibility.

This aligns with research that recognizes the helping behaviors within bullying situations as one expression of prosocial behavior (Padgett & Notar, 2013; Frey et al., 2020). These findings reveal the intricacy surrounding bullying bystanders and emphasize the need to develop students' prosocial behaviors and emotional competencies as integral components in the mechanisms for bullying prevention and intervention.

Relationship between Bullying, Victimization, and Child-Related Factors

Findings related to Hypothesis 3, including a negative relationship of bullying, victimization, and child temperament, show the role of child temperament on the continuum of bullying and victimization spectrum. Bullying was negatively related to effortful control and affiliation, while positively related to surgency and negative affect. These correlations suggest that children with problems in emotional and behavioral regulation and children with low levels of social engagement and affiliation will tend to bully. This is congruent with previous research stating that less effortful control, including self-regulation skills, is usually associated with increased aggressive and disruptive acts (Rothbart, 2007; Rothbart et al., 1994). Likewise, the negative correlation with affiliation is consistent with evidence that children who are less so, or have issues with maintaining close relationships, are more likely to engage in bullying behavior (Boivin et al., 2013). Notably, the positive relationship between bullying and surgency, which encompasses features such as high activity levels and impulsivity, suggests that increasingly

extroverted and more impulsive children are more likely to bully, perhaps because they tend to seek to dominate or respond impulsively in social interactions (Decety, 2012; Eisenberg et al., 2003).

On the other hand, victimization had a negative correlation with effortful control and affiliation, but a positive correlation with negative affect. This suggests that victimized bullies have difficulties/failures in emotion regulation and in the formation and maintenance of social ties, in addition to the presence of negative emotions, including fear, sadness, and anger. The current findings validate the bullying victim literature by demonstrating that negative affectivity, particularly anxiety and sadness, contributes to the risk of being a target as bully victims (Schwartz et al., 1999). The negative association with effortful control is further proof that victims struggle with the loss of assertiveness and social affiliation, which, in turn, might lower the level of bullying that victims experience (Kochenderfer-Ladd & Wardrop, 2001).

Bullying, Victimization, and Child's Age and Gender

The substantial differences in mean scores for both bullying and victimization by gender, where males scored higher, are consistent with the literature on bullying behaviors and support hypothesis 7. We reiterate the analysis of the literature, which states that males are more likely to engage in acts of bullying and are more likely to be victims of bullying. This is consistent with the literature that states boys are more likely to be involved in bullying, whether as perpetrators or victims, than girls (Olweus, 1993; Nansel et al., 2001). One possible explanation for the higher prevalence of bullying behaviors in males is the social and cultural expectations that shape boys' aggression to establish dominance or control in a situation (Espelage & Swearer, 2003). Moreover,

the increased victimization of men can be explained by the bullying they experience, which is more overt and physical, and thus more visible and reportable (Smith et al., 1999).

Nonetheless, the intricacies pertaining to these behaviors warrant further investigation. Unlike boys who may have been more engaged in the physical and overt forms of the bullying, girls more often engaged in the relational form of bullying, or indirect bullying, through social exclusion and gossip. Although in the current study this may not have been described as such, this is also supported in the literature (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). In addition, girls more often may not report bullying behaviors overtly, and may have been a victim of bullying through more covert means.

The importance these findings have prompted indicates the need for the development of anti-bullying frameworks and policies to be implemented in a more tailored manner. Such understanding facilitates the development of more focused approaches that will address the differing patterns of bullying that boys and girls both perpetrate and experience. At the same time, this requires schools to counteract the enforcement of rigid gender norms that fuel such behaviors and, instead, promote an openly supportive climate that encourages constructive communication for conflict resolution.

Relationship between Bullying, Victimization, Parenting and Family Related Factors

Results from Hypotheses 4 and 5 shed light on the influence of parenting and family dynamics on children's behavior as bullies and victims. To gain a comprehensive understanding of family life, the impact of different facets of parenting on bullying behavior must be acknowledged. Particular attention should be paid to the findings. They suggest that Positive Involvement (PI) and Positive Parenting (PP) are predictors of a reduction in bullying behavior, whereas Inconsistent Discipline (ID) is a predictor of an increase in bullying behavior. Therefore,

children who are bullied are less likely to do so when their parents are actively Positive Involvement and Positive Parenting. Parents' Positive Involvement and Positive Parenting help children (Lereya et al., 2013; Rodkin et al., 2015) may develop social and emotional skills, which subsequently act as a barrier to the growth of bullying behavior. The link between bullying and inconsistent discipline suggests the need for consistent parenting in the other direction to help curb the behavior. Inconsistent discipline may create a state of uncertainty and diminished control (Dishion & Patterson, 2015), which may be facilitating bullying as an external behavior.

In relation to victimization, our study showed that Positive Involvement had a negative predictive value while Poor Monitoring and Supervision (PMS) had a positive predictive. Therefore, a lack of parental supervision, as well as unsupervised involvement, increases the probability that a child will get victimized. Poor parental supervision and care might leave the child "over-vulnerable" to possible victimization, such as decreased self-esteem and social skill deficiencies (Baldry & Farrington, 1998, 2005). This corresponds with literature where adolescents with more unsupervised parental involvement were able to get "unsupervised" and "unstructured" parental guidance and support, which are crucial for the social complexities children face and are particularly relevant to bullying (Fosco et al., 2012). The influence of parenting becomes very important about children's behavior as bullies or victims. This indicates the importance of including parent training and family-centered support as additions to the anti-bullying strategies. These strategies should include parent training on the promotion of positive parenting, enforcement of age-appropriate, consistent discipline, as well as active parental involvement and supervision, which seem to be central to the decrease of bullying and victimization among children.

The findings of the current study indicate the differentiated impacts of various components of familial bonds on the perpetration and victimization of bullying behavior. With regards to bullying, the attitudes held towards the family, as well as the degree of family cohesiveness, had a negative predictive influence, whereas family organization exhibited a positive predictive influence. Such findings indicate that children who possess positive attitudes towards and emotionally cohesive family channels, where members experience psychological closeness and reciprocity of support, are less prone to engage in bullying behavior.

The inverse correlation with BAF and cohesion is consistent with supportive family literature, which argues that family support is a large facilitator of positive pro-social behaviors and discourages aggressive behaviors (Jenkins & Nickerson, 2017). The positive association with family cohesion is puzzling and may suggest that in some situations, an organized family structure may unintentionally encourage bullying, perhaps in the form of overcontrol or excessive expectation of conformity to social behaviors (Patterson, 1995).

Family organization and family communication each negatively predicted victimization, but family support positively predicted victimization. This implies bullying victims come from less organized and possibly poorly integrated families, and families may have some communication difficulties. As noted in the literature, the risk arising from the absence of order and structure in the family's communication may include problems related to social interactions and self-esteem, which may increase one's vulnerability to bullying (Fosco et al., 2012). When considering the positive correlation in support, the situation may be more complicated. It may be that family members, in the aftermath of victimization, engage the child more, but it may also work in the other direction, wherein the victim, depending on the dynamics of the family, is engaged

more, which may be a sign of less adequate social skills and overprotective parenting (Baldry & Farrington, 2005).

The results do not primarily call for a revision of the fundamental principles of the bullying and victimization frameworks but rather underscore the importance of the family in the issue. This suggests the need to alleviate the pressure on dysfunctional families to enhance victimization interventions. Greater family communication may be a necessary element of these wider anti-bullying strategies.

Relationship between Bullying, Victimization, and School-Related Factors

As our findings suggest, the interaction between teacher and school belongingness, bullying, and victimization behavior illuminates the influence of the educational context on these phenomena. School belongingness was negatively predicted, and covert antisocial (AS) behavior positively predicted bullying. This signifies that belonging and connectedness within the school context are instrumental in the reduction of bullying behavior. School community members and those of accepted and supportive status within the school community are less and to depict school bullying behavior. This is congruent with findings by Jenkins and Nickerson (2017) describing school connectedness as protective against aggressive behavior. The positive association with surreptitious antisocial behavior emphasizes that bullying is likely an expression of more severe antisocial behavior that school bullying is less realized in contexts where students feel sensed and bonded (Gorman-Smith et al., 1998; Henry et al., 2015).

Teacher and school belongingness negatively predicting victimization points to the importance of and need for the positive and inclusive school environments and student-teacher relationships to eliminate bullying. The importance of belongingness ascribed to teachers denotes

the protective role teachers play against victimization through their positive interactions with students and the safe, respectful, and protective classroom atmosphere they offer (Gregory et al., 2010; Gregory & Cornell, 2009). The positive protective role teachers play is further described in educational literature, informing the building of safe school cultures around positive student-teacher relationships (Thapa et al., 2013). The need for school-initiated and school-based programs to create feelings of belongingness and relatedness among students is evident and imperative. Building positive student-teacher relationships and fostering a school environment and climate through the control of subtle and overt antisocial inactions and behaviors will help in the reduction of bullying and victimization. Such programs have the potential to improve student well-being and safety by building positive social networks and a sense of community in schools.

The results for Hypothesis 6 clarify the importance of school belongingness and teacher affiliation in relation to bullying and victimization behaviors in children. These findings highlight the role of the school environment and relationships with teachers and peers in the occurrence of these behaviors. Strong positive relationships between overt aggression, oppositional behaviors, covert antisocial behaviors and bullying, and victimization, and the relationships of these behaviors with aggression, confirm the linkage between these behaviors. Although the magnitude of these relationships is smaller relative to the bullying and victimization relationship, the aggressive behaviors are nonetheless significant to the bullying and victimization processes. The negative relationships of bullying and victimization with the acceptance of authority and the sense of belonging in school support Hypothesis 6. This indicates that bullying is associated with lower levels of authority acceptance and belonging to the school. The consequent detrimental effect of bullying and victimization on the quality of relationships with teachers, illustrating how these behaviors can constrict student-teacher relationships, is additionally important to the results. In

conclusion, the results support Hypothesis 6, which emphasizes the importance of school and teachers belonging to bullying and victimization. The implementation of school-wide interventions combined with the promotion of positive teacher-student relationships is likely to be more effective in preventing and reducing these behaviors in the school.

Contribution of Ecological Factors in the Development of Bullying Behavior

The SEM examination of the ecological contexts that shape bullying behavior offers a multidimensional perspective on the contributing factors in these contexts. One key finding of this model is that there is a strong relationship between child behavioral issues, especially conduct problems, and bullying and inconsistent discipline. This concurs with earlier research that posits externalising behavior, including conduct disorder, is a major precursor to bullying and can be exacerbated by inconsistent parenting styles (Patterson et al., 1989). The model also indicated that positive parenting, productive family relations organisation, and beliefs, and teacher belongingness are negatively associated with these behaviour disorders. This emphasizes the role of supportive, structured family surroundings and good school relationships in buffering bullying behavior, supporting the evidence of Olweus (1993) and others working in the field.

Furthermore, the model identified strong prediction of negative child temperament, overall behavioral problems, and bullying behavior by corporal punishment. This result is consistent with the increasing volume of literature that demonstrates how negative effects on children's behavior and social relationships emanate from harsh discipline practices (Gershoff, 2002). Positive parenting was significantly correlated with child affiliative temperament and prosocial behavior, and negatively correlated with conduct problems, peer problems, hyperactivity, and total behavioral problems. This is consistent with the significant role of supportive and positively active

parenting styles in promoting healthy child temperament characteristics and lessening deviant behaviors (Denham et al., 2000).

Deviant familial beliefs predicted deviant peers, hyperactivity, and overall behavior problems. This implies the structure, beliefs, and deviant norms of the family mainly influence the behavioral and social interaction patterns of children with peers (Matson, 2017; McDowell et al., 2002). Nevertheless, the positive correlation of family cohesion was associated with prosocial behavior, indicating that cohesive family environments develop social competencies in children. Moreover, the negative correlation of family beliefs with hyperactivity and behavior problems overall demonstrates the positive influence of value-regulating systems of the family (Bronfenbrenner, 1996).

The comprehensive SEM results underscore the need for multifaceted intervention strategies. Those strategies must account for the broad and interrelated elements that encompass parent relationships and styles, family structure, child temperament, systemic school and behavioral problems, and bullying.

Contribution of Ecological Factors in the Experience of Victimization

Among the most interesting facets of user victimization and psychological relational modeling, victimization of children and correlational punishment on children, victimization of children focused on behavior problems, including conduct and general problems, were predicted. Unlike the problem behavior literature, concerning the opposite direction of the relationship between victimization and behavior problems, the findings suggest that victimization and problem behavior are interconnected. In the case of victimization, behavioral problems and conduct problems are underlying problems admitted, suggesting the victimization behavioral problems. The intricate and

complex behavioral relationship problems and victimization of children do suggest a two-way relationship. The model also suggests that victimization is subtracted from the belongingness predicted by the school and teachers. This does lend some credence to the thesis that victimized children are likely to feel emotionally disengaged from the school setting and teachers. The impact of victimization on children, as it has been, supports findings concerning the children's perception of school and connectedness, which is pivotal in the children's social and academic development (Hawker & Boulton, 2000).

The role of adults and the safeguarding function of teachers were observed to diminish victimization and highlight the importance of adult relationships while minimizing victimization. This is consistent with the work of Nickerson and Mele-Taylor (2014), focusing on how adults help mitigate bullying's negative effects. Positive outcomes were associated with the presence of an affiliative temperament, prosocial behaviors, and avoidance of behavioral issues. This is suggestive of the positive parenting described in the literature, which plays an important role in child development, overall social competence, and alleviating victimization (Lereya et al., 2013).

In addition, the model suggested that family-held deviant beliefs were strong predictors of peer-related, hyperactive, and general behavioral problems. This means that belief systems and family values shape how children relate to and interact with their peers. As for the associations of family cohesion, it, in cohesion with other family relations, was positively related to the above-mentioned children's social behaviors. This suggests that cohesive and supportive family dynamics may promote social competence, potentially as a shield against victimization. Conversely, hyperactive and general disruptive behaviors, in addition to social related depression based on negative family beliefs, point to the importance of valuing and consistent functional belief systems within a family context. Collectively, results from the victimization SEM model point to the

importance of a range of ecological variables, including parent and/or child relationships, family dynamics, child temperament and behavioral disorder, school, and peer-related victimization. This implies the importance of developing interventions in the context of multiple extrinsic variables to address the needs of children at risk.

The study's findings encourage the implementation of new programs focused on bullying and similar behaviors. Given the findings, the relation of bullying to conduct problems means that focusing on and alleviating bullying and its then behavioral issues may help reduce its problem frequency. Evaluating the effectiveness of behavioral problem mitigation on bullying and bullying behaviors will remain an essential consideration. Positive parenting's impact on some conduct problem behaviors and bullying is also considerable, and parenting and family focused on positive parenting will need to encompass these future areas of need. Furthermore, family interventions targeted on promoting family cohesion and addressing deviant beliefs will need to be centered on behavioral problem mitigation. Research should explore how deviant family belief systems and a lack of family cohesiveness negatively impact behaviors such as bullying, victimization, social interactions, and other relational behaviors. In the school context, the improvement of teacher-student relationships and the positive school climate will be critical to addressing behavioral problems and the bullying situation.

The impact of focusing teacher training programs on positive and empathic teacher-student interactions on bullying relationships can be assessed and developed in future research. On a broader scope, these guidelines' multi-dimensional framework addresses individual, familial, and school-based aspects to reduce the intricacies surrounding bullying and its associated behaviors. The multi-faceted approach targets both the immediate issue of bullying and includes the

underlying causes of such behaviors in an attempt to create more of a sustainable solution to addressing issues of bullying.

Role of Bystander's Behavior with Bullying Behavior

The findings of this study, analyzed through Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), illustrate the links between bullying, bystander behavior, and child behavioral issues as complex and multi-dimensional. Unlike most literature that claims bullying has an unmediated effect on children's behavioral and emotional issues (Juvonen & Graham, 2014), data from this study suggested that bullying unmediated does cause children's behavioral issues. This indicates the presence of complex relationships that are likely to involve other mediating variables and coincides with scholars who highlight the complexity involved in assessing the impact of bullying on children's development (Smith & Brain, 2000).

As expected, bystanders themselves were not strong predictors of child behavioral issues. However, the intercalation of bullying with bystander noticing behaviors was. This supports the idea that passive bystander behavior in bullying situations has little impact, while active bystander behavior can be bullying themselves (Salmivalli, 2010). This suggests that some bystander behaviors may exacerbate the effects of bullying, possibly through bullying the victim as described in the works of Polanin and colleagues (Polanin et al., 2012).

More advanced adaptive strategies and heightened social competence (Hawker and Boulton, 2000) may help older children in the sample defend against the embedded-violence bullying considered in the research. Age, however, seems underemphasized in bullying literature, which likely accounts for the emerging concern. By contrast, the lack of substantial influence from the child's gender on problem behavior may imply that the consequences surrounding

bullying are similar for both boys and girls. This runs counter to the research which suggests differences exist (Espelage and Swearer, 2003). The overall statistical significance of the model suggests considerable explanatory power. The lack of explained variance in child problem behavior (i.e., $R^2 = 0.10$) hints at the need for further research on other variables, as in general bullying (Rigby, 2002). This seems a reasonable assumption, given the literature generalizes bullying and does not speak to the lack of explained variance in child problem behavior.

Role of Bystander's Behavior with Victimization

The effect of observing bystanders on the relationship between exposure to victimization and children's behavioral problems was also analyzed. The findings underscored the importance of bystanders to the unfolding bullying situation. The results confirmed the assumptions regarding the bystander's role and how it positively countered the victim's adverse consequences. These results corroborate the findings of Polanin et al. (2012) that the active involvement of bystanders can alleviate the consequences of victimization. The interplay of victimization and the bystander's action (or inaction) is discussed in the results. Salmivalli (2010) serves as the theoretical basis for the results through her bystander intervention model, which suggests that the passivity of bystanders directly corresponds to the level of distress experienced by the victim. The strong model fit offered additional support for the proposed mechanisms of the constituent elements in the relational framework of victimization and behavioral distress.

In the model describing bystander behavior, the result that victimization did not predict child behavior problems, but that bystander intervention did, means that bystander action in bullying situations has the potential to lessen behavioral issues. This, however, did not align with

the expectations of Hawkins et al. (2001), who suggested the importance of moderation in bystander intervention on the victimization-behavior problem relationship. This insight once again shows the complexity of the relationships involved.

The third model approaches bystander interpretation differently when taking predictive power for declining child problem behavior. This points to the bystander's perception and understanding of the bullying situation as significant. These results are consistent with developmental perspectives, where age findings, along with Hawker & Boulton (2000), were supportive, as older children, in fact, do develop more effective coping mechanisms, thus diminishing the consequences of victimization. The lack of significant interaction, however, with victimization and bystander interpretation remains unanswered and aligned with Nickerson et al. (2014), indicates that bystanders' situation cognitive processes are insufficient to mediate the victimization-behavior relationship.

These models represent the complex and equally important continuing functions bystanders assume for bullying and victimization. They demonstrate that while bystander direct participation and understanding of the situation are paramount, the bystander's participation is one of several pivotal agency decisions for the victim. This underscores the requirement for the development of comprehensive anti-bullying policies that do more than encourage bystander participation. Such policy frameworks must consider bystanders' reasoning and decision-making processes.

Moderating Role of Bystander Noticing Behavior

The most important conclusion from this study pertains to the interaction effect of moderate magnitude. Whether or not a bystander is present determines whether the effect of bullying on the child's behavior is worsened. This illustrates the importance of bystanders in the situation. This also demonstrates that the social context and bystander behavior are crucial when considering the potential harm of bullying on a child.

The importance of contextual factors in the dynamic of bullying bystanders and a child's developing conduct issues cannot be overstated. As is well established in the body of scholarship in this field, bullying is a considerable predictor of the worsening conduct problems of the child. This impact is also contingent on the child's sex and appears to be most pronounced in girls. The documented relationship between bystanders' knowledge of bullying and the child's sex suggests that the implications of witnessing bullying vary with the child's gender. This complex three-way interplay of bullying, bystander actions, and child sex deserves further inquiry.

The evidence suggests the importance of developing sensitivity frameworks tailored for various population segments, considering the disproportionate vulnerabilities determined by gender. Moreover, the importance of comprehending the distinct roles that bystanders hold in anti-bullying and pro-bullying circumstances cannot be overstated. With respect to the impact that bullying has on children's behavioral outcomes, this study contributes to the understanding of the complex factors, which in turn could be used to develop targeted and effective interventions.

Conclusion

This study provides valuable insights into the bullying dynamics, victimization, and bystander behaviors among children in Pakistan, along with the influences of individual, family, and school contexts. Although the study intends to be thorough, it is constrained by a cross-sectional approach and self-report surveys. These constraints emphasize the need for future research to adopt longitudinal studies and examine larger and more heterogeneous samples to enhance the robustness and generalizability of the conclusions drawn from this study.

The literature prompts the development of comprehensive and genuinely thoughtful intervention programs. Such programs will encompass, but are not limited to, externalizing and internalizing behavior, the dimensions of constructive parenting, the family constellation, and the school context. Given the intricate, multi-dimensional relational dynamic of the aforementioned variables, the literature points to the need for restorative and collaborative synergy as the core strategy for successful interventions. Such synergy will likely involve restorative relational restructuring and corrective behavioral interventions at the family and school levels. Future studies will seek to understand the longevity of interventions from an applied perspective while deeper appreciative inquiry of the bullying culture will advance construct activities. This study contributes to the literature on bullying in Pakistan and serves as a foundation for developing specific anti-bullying initiatives.

Limitations and Future Directions

This study helps in understanding the dynamics of bullying, victimization, bystander behavior among school-aged children, and some specific contextual factors, but there are still limitations which can inform other studies. The lack of longitudinal data remains a key limitation

of the study, as it prevents the author from making any causal claims. Longitudinal studies would provide the necessary insights to chart the changes and patterns over time with respect to victimization and bullying. Additionally, self-report measures are always vulnerable to bias, particularly recall and social desirability biases. Future studies would improve the overall quality of the work by employing other diverse strategies to enhance the overall reliability of the research, in this case, peer nomination and observational methods.

Considering the absence of social and cultural diversities in the sampled students from public colleges in Pakistan, it is equally valid to state the other side of the argument. Having a more diverse geography and socio-economic sample representation would result in a better understanding of the contextual issues. While the research helped to some extent the understanding of the interplay across individual, family, and social levels, the understanding of the detailed cultural framework in the Pakistani context is still a significant gap. Subsequent research needs to focus more on culturally prescribed norms, practices, beliefs, and their impact on the dynamics of victimization and harassment.

While the research analyses age and bystander behavior as the moderating variables, the need for inclusion of other possible moderators such as peer relations, organizational structures within schools, and the wider community are equally important to address. The abuse model may include multiple systems but lack of understanding the complete ecological model still augments the research. The local study also provides for research on the highly relevant and emerging issues of the intersection of technology, social media, and bullying.

Considering the impact of family dynamics, the quality of parenting, and teacher-student relationships on the effectiveness of interventions, future research could focus on the description, execution, and assessment of such interventions. Impact assessment of such initiatives should

ideally follow experimental designs, notably randomized controlled trials. Additionally, the impact of such initiatives on the bullies, victims, and bystanders should be analyzed to revise ineffective strategies for countering bullying. The literature on bullying, particularly in the Pakistani context, has benefitted from this work, while the absence of more impactful research in the literature begins to point the need for work using different methodologies. Addressing this will provide valuable insights into the bullying problem as well as improve the effectiveness of interventions on bullying and its impact on adolescents. The work also raises considerable potential for collaboration between researchers and practitioners in the design of more integrated interdisciplinary initiatives.

Implications of the Study

There are several study limitations that must be acknowledged, including that the study did not consider the physical attributes of the child, such as weight and height, that may be correlated with the phenomena of victimization and bullying. Another limitation is that while the study concentrated on parenting practices, the study of parenting styles would be relevant for future research. The study documented the relationship that externalizing and internalizing behaviors have with both bullying and victimization. The holistic nature of this relationship expands existing theories and the understanding of bullying behavior to include the need for a more complex theory. The theory that victim bullying may be reinforced by socially accepted behavior is advanced by the relationship that prosocial behavior is correlated with victimization, as bullying is reinforced, and the growing body of research around the social deficits of victims accounts for the inverse relationship of prosocial behavior with bullying. The study adds to the understanding of the bystanders to bullying and their relationship with externalizing and internalizing problems. In

addition, the study highlights the interaction of child attributes, social and parental elements, the family system, the climate of the school, bullying, and victimization.

The value of examining the relationships between certain child temperament traits (effortful control, surgency, and negative effects) with bullying behaviors adds to the theoretical advancements associated with understanding individual differences. In the same manner, the role of parent and family constellation, especially the place of positive parenting and family cohesiveness, is an additional contribution to the contextual ecological theories of child development and behavior. Relational dynamics within the school environment as well as the school climate and the treatment of the ecology model provide a more thorough understanding of bullying relational dynamics within the ecology of the school environment. Such an intricate approach encompasses and integrates numerous ecological systems, accentuating the intricate nature of bullying and victimization.

Our research, overall, points out numerous practical implications to be taken to confront the intricate nature of victimization and bullying. More explicitly, the predicted outcomes of certain intervention programs that focus directly on the externalizing and internalizing behavioral clusters would contribute to the primary bullying prevention layer. Self-regulation, emotional competencies, and other protective factors against victimization and bullying would be instrumental in frontline bullying prevention. Given the positive role of parenting on the dynamics of bullying and victimization, the stabilization of the family structure and improvement of parenting programs should be of primary focus.

We highlighted considerable reductions in bullying behaviors in positive family contexts. Also, the importance of teacher-student relationships and school belonging in understanding the

bullying phenomenon suggests the need for more attention to the creation of nurturing schools and the fostering of positive teacher-student relationships. School initiatives are needed that train bystanders to intervene safely and effectively in bullying situations, as well as for the establishment of caring, inclusive school climates in which all students experience a sense of belonging. This research also revealed the need for a more gender-responsive approach in anti-bullying work, as boys and girls interact with and experience bullying differently. From the perspective of the individual, family, and educational systems, the situation of bullying and victims, and the support to the victim can all be addressed sustainably and in a comprehensive manner. This will involve the family belief systems, the school climate, and the teacher-student relationships needing to shift. There should be a focus in future research on specific interventions regarding individual behavioral problems, especially conduct problems, family-centric approaches, and the bullying teachers which are aimed at improving school climates to be more protective and supportive environments for learning and development.

References

Aboud, F. E., & Joong, A. (2008). Intergroup name-calling and conditions for creating assertive bystanders. In *Intergroup attitudes and relations in childhood through adulthood* (pp. 249–260). Oxford University Press.

Aceves, M. J., Hinshaw, S. P., Mendoza-Denton, R., & Page-Gould, E. (2010). Seek Help from Teachers or Fight Back? Student Perceptions of Teachers' Actions during Conflicts and Responses to Peer Victimization. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 39(6), 658–669.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-009-9441-9>

Ahmad, Y., & Smith, P. K. (2022). Bullying in Schools and the Issue of Sex Differences. In J. Archer, *Male Violence* (1st ed., pp. 70–83). Routledge.
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003342717-5>

Ahmed, G. K., Metwaly, N. A., Elbeh, K., Galal, M. S., & Shaaban, I. (2022). Risk factors of school bullying and its relationship with psychiatric comorbidities: A literature review. *The Egyptian Journal of Neurology, Psychiatry and Neurosurgery*, 58(1), 16.
<https://doi.org/10.1186/s41983-022-00449-x>

Ainsworth, M. D. S., Blehar, M. C., Waters, E., & Wall, S. (2014). *Patterns of Attachment* (0 ed.). Psychology Press. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315802428>

Akbar, P. D. M., Khalid, P. D. I., & Khan, D. W. A. (2023). Religious Extremism and Community Resilience: Case Study of Pakistan. *Journal of Politics and International Studies*, 9(01), Article 01.

Akram, B., & Munawar, A. (2016). Bullying victimization: A risk factor of health problems among adolescents with hearing impairment. *JPMA. The Journal of the Pakistan Medical Association*, 66(1), 13–17.

Akram, M., Zafar, M., Abbasi, S.-U.-R., Nawaz, H., & Sher, F. (2013). Causes and Implication of Male Youth Violence/Crime in the Punjab, Pakistan. *International Journal of Educational Science and Research (IJESR)*, 3, 113–122.

Ali, S., Khaleque, A., & Rohner, R. P. (2015). Influence of Perceived Teacher Acceptance and Parental Acceptance on Youth's Psychological Adjustment and School Conduct: A Cross-Cultural Meta-Analysis. *Cross-Cultural Research*, 49(2), 204–224.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1069397114552769>

Alikasifoglu, M., Erginoz, E., Ercan, O., Uysal, O., & Albayrak-Kaymak, D. (2007). Bullying behaviours and psychosocial health: Results from a cross-sectional survey among high school students in Istanbul, Turkey. *European Journal of Pediatrics*, 166(12), 1253–1260. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00431-006-0411-x>

Antti Kärnä, Marinus Voeten, Elisa Poskiparta, & Christina Salmivalli. (2010). Vulnerable Children in Varying Classroom Contexts: Bystanders' Behaviors Moderate the Effects of Risk Factors on Victimization. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 56(3), 261–282.

<https://doi.org/10.1353/mpq.0.0052>

Arhuis-Inca, W., Ipanaqué-Zapata, M., Bazalar-Palacios, J., Quevedo-Calderón, N., & Gaete, J. (2021). Violence at School and Bullying in School Environments in Peru: Analysis of a Virtual Platform. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11.

<https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.543991>

Armitage, R. (2021). Bullying in children: Impact on child health. *BMJ Paediatrics Open*, 5(1), e000939. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjpo-2020-000939>

Arnette, J. L. (1998). *Combating Fear and Restoring Safety in Schools*. U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Arseneault, L. (2017). The long-term impact of bullying victimization on mental health. *World Psychiatry*, 16(1), 27–28. <https://doi.org/10.1002/wps.20399>

Ashraf, M. U., Asif, M., Iqbal, M. M. A., & Warraich, I. A. (2019). Role of Socioeconomic Status and Parenting Practices in construction of Violent Behavior among Youth: A Study from South Punjab, Pakistan. *Pakistan Journal of Social Sciences*, 39(2), 639–651.

Athanasiades, C., & Deliyanni-Kouimtzis, V. (2010). The experience of bullying among secondary school students. *Psychology in the Schools*, 47(4), 328–341. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.20473>

Azeredo, C. M., Levy, R. B., Araya, R., & Menezes, P. R. (2015). Individual and contextual factors associated with verbal bullying among Brazilian adolescents. *BMC Pediatrics*, 15(1), 49. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12887-015-0367-y>

Bacchini, D., Affuso, G., & Aquilar, S. (2015). Multiple Forms and Settings of Exposure to Violence and Values: Unique and Interactive Relationships With Antisocial Behavior in Adolescence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 30(17), 3065–3088. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260514554421>

Bacchini, F., & Valentino, P. A. (2020). Culture for a sustainable development: From theory to evidence. *Economia della Cultura*, 3–4, 413–424. <https://doi.org/10.1446/100734>

Baldry, A. C., & Farrington, D. P. (1998). Parenting influences on bullying and victimization. *Legal and Criminological Psychology*, 3(2), 237–254. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8333.1998.tb00364.x>

Baldry, A. C., & Farrington, D. P. (2005). Protective Factors as Moderators of Risk Factors in Adolescence Bullying. *Social Psychology of Education, 8*(3), 263–284.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-005-5866-5>

Ball, H. A., Arseneault, L., Taylor, A., Maughan, B., Caspi, A., & Moffitt, T. E. (2008). Genetic and environmental influences on victims, bullies and bully-victims in childhood. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 49*(1), 104–112. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.2007.01821.x>

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84*(2), 191–215. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.84.2.191>

Barchia, K., & Bussey, K. (2011). Individual and collective social cognitive influences on peer aggression: Exploring the contribution of aggression efficacy, moral disengagement, and collective efficacy. *Aggressive Behavior, 37*(2), 107–120.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.20375>

Baumrind, D. (1989). *Rearing competent children: Child Development Today and Tomorrow* (W. Damon, Ed.; pp. 349–378). Jossey-Bass.

Benbenishty, R., & Astor, R. A. (2005). *School violence in context: Culture, neighborhood, family, school, and gender*. Oxford University Press [u.a.].

Berndt, T. J. (1982). The Features and Effects of Friendship in Early Adolescence. *Child Development, 53*(6), 1447–1460. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1130071>

Bibou-Nakou, I., Tsiantis, J., Assimopoulos, H., & Chatzilambou, P. (2013). Bullying/victimization from a family perspective: A qualitative study of secondary school students' views. *European Journal of Psychology of Education, 28*(1), 53–71.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10212-011-0101-6>

Bista, S., Tait, R. J., Straker, L. M., Lin, A., Steinbeck, K., Graham, P. L., Kang, M., Lymer, S., Robinson, M., Marino, J. L., & Skinner, S. R. (2024). Joint developmental trajectories of internalizing and externalizing problems from mid-childhood to late adolescence and childhood risk factors: Findings from a prospective pre-birth cohort. *Development and Psychopathology*, 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0954579423001505>

Björkqvist, K., Österman, K., & Lagerspetz, K. M. J. (1994). Sex differences in covert aggression among adults. *Aggressive Behavior*, 20(1), 27–33. [https://doi.org/10.1002/1098-2337\(1994\)20:1<27::AID-AB2480200105>3.0.CO;2-Q](https://doi.org/10.1002/1098-2337(1994)20:1<27::AID-AB2480200105>3.0.CO;2-Q)

Boivin, M., Brendgen, M., Vitaro, F., Dionne, G., Girard, A., Pérusse, D., & Tremblay, R. E. (2013). Strong Genetic Contribution to Peer Relationship Difficulties at School Entry: Findings From a Longitudinal Twin Study. *Child Development*, 84(3), 1098–1114. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cdev.12019>

Bond, L., Carlin, J. B., Thomas, L., Rubin, K., & Patton, G. (2001). Does bullying cause emotional problems? A prospective study of young teenagers. *BMJ*, 323(7311), 480–484. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.323.7311.480>

Boulton, M. J., & Smith, P. K. (1994). Bully/victim problems in middle-school children: Stability, self-perceived competence, peer perceptions and peer acceptance. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 12(3), 315–329. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-835X.1994.tb00637.x>

Bowes, L., Maughan, B., Caspi, A., Moffitt, T. E., & Arseneault, L. (2010). Families promote emotional and behavioural resilience to bullying: Evidence of an environmental effect. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, and Allied Disciplines*, 51(7), 809–817. <https://doi.org/10.1111/J.1469-7610.2010.02216.X>

Bowlby, J. (1969). *Attachment and loss: Attachment* (Vol. 1). Basic Books.

Bradshaw, C. P., Waasdorp, T. E., Debnam, K. J., & Johnson, S. L. (2014). Measuring School Climate in High Schools: A Focus on Safety, Engagement, and the Environment. *Journal of School Health*, 84(9), 593–604. <https://doi.org/10.1111/josh.12186>

Bradshaw, C. P., Waasdorp, T. E., Goldweber, A., & Johnson, S. L. (2013). Bullies, Gangs, Drugs, and School: Understanding the Overlap and the Role of Ethnicity and Urbanicity. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 42(2), 220–234. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-012-9863-7>

Braithwait, J., Braithwaite, V., & Ahmad, E. (2006). Reintegrative Shaming 1. In *The Essential Criminology Reader*. Routledge.

Breivik, K., & Olweus, D. (2006). Adolescent's Adjustment in Four Post-Divorce Family Structures: Single Mother, Stepfather, Joint Physical Custody and Single Father Families. *Journal of Divorce & Remarriage*, 44(3–4), 99–124. https://doi.org/10.1300/J087v44n03_07

Brendgen, M., Boivin, M., Dionne, G., Barker, E. D., Vitaro, F., Girard, A., Tremblay, R., & Pérusse, D. (2011). Gene-Environment Processes Linking Aggression, Peer Victimization, and the Teacher-Child Relationship: Aggression, Peer Victimization, and the Teacher-Child Relationship. *Child Development*, 82(6), 2021–2036. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2011.01644.x>

Brislin, R. W. (1980). Translation and content analysis of oral and written materials. *Methodology*, 389–444.

Brockenbrough, K. K., Cornell, D. G., & Loper, A. B. (2002). Aggressive Attitudes Among Victims of Violence at School. *Education and Treatment of Children*, 25(3), 273–287.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1996). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design*. Harvard University Press.

Bronfenbrenner, U., & Evans, G. W. (2000). Developmental Science in the 21st Century: Emerging Questions, Theoretical Models, Research Designs and Empirical Findings. *Social Development*, 9(1), 115–125. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9507.00114>

Bronfenbrenner, U., & Morris, P. A. (2006). The Bioecological Model of Human Development. In *Handbook of child psychology: Theoretical models of human development, Vol. 1, 6th ed.* (pp. 793–828). John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Bukowski, W. M., Sippola, L. K., & Newcomb, A. F. (2000). Variations in patterns of attraction of same- and other-sex peers during early adolescence. *Developmental Psychology*, 36(2), 147–154. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.36.2.147>

Busch, V., Laninga-Wijnen, L., Yperen, T. A. van, Schrijvers, A. J. P., & Leeuw, J. R. J. D. (2015). Bidirectional longitudinal associations of perpetration and victimization of peer bullying with psychosocial problems in adolescents: A cross-lagged panel study. *Http://Dx.Doi.Org/10.1177/0143034315604018*, 36(5), 532–549. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0143034315604018>

Bussey, K., Luo, A., Fitzpatrick, S., & Allison, K. (2020). Defending victims of cyberbullying: The role of self-efficacy and moral disengagement. *Journal of School Psychology*, 78, 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2019.11.006>

Cairns, R. B., & Cairns, B. D. (1991). Social Cognition and Social Networks: A Developmental Perspective. In *The Development and Treatment of Childhood Aggression*. Psychology Press.

Calpbinici, P., & Tas Arslan, F. (2019). Virtual behaviors affecting adolescent mental health: The usage of Internet and mobile phone and cyberbullying. *Journal of Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Nursing*, 32(3), 139–148. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jcap.12244>

Camodeca, M., & Goossens, F. A. (2005). Aggression, social cognitions, anger and sadness in bullies and victims. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 46(2), 186–197. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.2004.00347.x>

Camodeca, M., Goossens, F. A., Terwogt, M. M., & Schuengel, C. (2002). Bullying and Victimization Among School-age Children: Stability and Links to Proactive and Reactive Aggression. *Social Development*, 11(3), 332–345. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9507.00203>

Card, N. A., Stucky, B. D., Sawalani, G. M., & Little, T. D. (2008). Direct and Indirect Aggression During Childhood and Adolescence: A Meta-Analytic Review of Gender Differences, Intercorrelations, and Relations to Maladjustment. *Child Development*, 79(5), 1185–1229. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2008.01184.x>

Carney, A. G., & Merrell, K. W. (2001). Bullying in Schools: Perspectives on Understanding and Preventing an International Problem. *School Psychology International*, 22(3), 364–382. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0143034301223011>

Casebeer, C. M. (2012). School Bullying: Why Quick Fixes Do Not Prevent School Failure. *Preventing School Failure: Alternative Education for Children and Youth*, 56(3), 165–171. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1045988X.2011.633283>

Catanzaro, M. F. (2011). Indirect aggression, bullying and female teen victimization: A literature review. *Pastoral Care in Education*, 29(2), 83–101. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02643944.2011.573495>

Cheng, Y.-Y., Chen, L.-M., Ho, H.-C., & Cheng, C.-L. (2011). Definitions of school bullying in Taiwan: A comparison of multiple perspectives. *School Psychology International*, 32(3), 227–243. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0143034311404130>

Cheon, S. H., Reeve, J., Marsh, H. W., & Jang, H.-R. (2023). Cluster randomized control trial to reduce peer victimization: An autonomy-supportive teaching intervention changes the classroom ethos to support defending bystanders. *American Psychologist*, 78(7), 856–872. <https://doi.org/10.1037/amp0001130>

Cicchetti, D., Toth, S. L., & Maughan, A. (2000). An Ecological-Transactional Model of Child Maltreatment. In A. J. Sameroff, M. Lewis, & S. M. Miller (Eds.), *Handbook of Developmental Psychopathology* (pp. 689–722). Springer US. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4615-4163-9_37

Clark, L. A., & Watson, D. (2016). *Constructing validity: Basic issues in objective scale development* (p. 203). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/14805-012>

Coffin, J., Larson, A., & Cross, D. (2010). Bullying in an Aboriginal Context. *The Australian Journal of Indigenous Education*, 39(1), 77–87. <https://doi.org/10.1375/S1326011100000934>

Cook, C. R., Williams, K. R., Guerra, N. G., Kim, T. E., & Sadek, S. (2010). Predictors of bullying and victimization in childhood and adolescence: A meta-analytic investigation. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 25(2), 65–83. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020149>

Cooper, L. A., & Nickerson, A. B. (2013). Parent Retrospective Recollections of Bullying and Current Views, Concerns, and Strategies to Cope with Children's Bullying. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 22(4), 526–540. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-012-9606-0>

Copeland, W. E., Wolke, D., Angold, A., & Costello, E. J. (2013). Adult Psychiatric Outcomes of Bullying and Being Bullied by Peers in Childhood and Adolescence. *JAMA Psychiatry*, 70(4), 419. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamapsychiatry.2013.504>

Cornell, D. G., & Bandyopadhyay, S. (2009). The Assessment of Bullying. *Handbook of Bullying in Schools: An International Perspective*, 265–276. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203864968-22>

Cornell, D., Shukla, K., & Konold, T. (2015). Peer victimization and authoritative school climate: A multilevel approach. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 107(4), 1186–1201. <https://doi.org/10.1037/edu0000038>

Corp, I. (2019). *IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows* (Version 26.0) [Computer software]. IBM Corp.

Cortina, J. M. (1993). What is coefficient alpha? An examination of theory and applications. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(1), 98–104. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.78.1.98>

Cosma, A., Walsh, S. D., Chester, K. L., Callaghan, M., Molcho, M., Craig, W., & Pickett, W. (2020). Bullying victimization: Time trends and the overlap between traditional and cyberbullying across countries in Europe and North America. *International Journal of Public Health*, 65(1), 75–85. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00038-019-01320-2>

Costello, E. J., Mustillo, S., Erkanli, A., Keeler, G., & Angold, A. (2003). Prevalence and Development of Psychiatric Disorders in Childhood and Adolescence. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 60(8), 837. <https://doi.org/10.1001/archpsyc.60.8.837>

Craig, W. M., Pepler, D., & Atlas, R. (2000). Observations of bullying in the playground and in the classroom. *School Psychology International*, 21(1), 22–36.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0143034300211002>

Crick, N. R., & Bigbee, M. A. (1998). Relational and overt forms of peer victimization: A multiinformant approach. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 66(2), 337–347. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.66.2.337>

Crick, N. R., & Dodge, K. A. (1994). A review and reformulation of social information-processing mechanisms in children's social adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 115(1), 74–101. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.115.1.74>

Crick, N. R., & Grotpeter, J. K. (1995). Relational aggression, gender, and social-psychological adjustment. *Child Development*, 66(3), 710–722. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1131945>

Cuesta, I., Montesó-Curto, P., Metzler Sawin, E., Jiménez-Herrera, M., Puig-Llobet, M., Seabra, P., & Toussaint, L. (2021). Risk factors for teen suicide and bullying: An international integrative review. *International Journal of Nursing Practice*, 27(3), e12930.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/ijn.12930>

Cui, K., & Xie, H. (2022). Intrapersonal and Interpersonal Sources of Resilience: Mechanisms of the Relationship Between Bullying Victimization and Mental Health Among Migrant Children in China. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, 17(5), 2479–2497.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-021-09984-w>

Cummings-Robeau, T. L., Lopez, F. G., & Rice, K. G. (2009). Attachment-Related Predictors of College Students' Problems With Interpersonal Sensitivity and Aggression. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 28(3), 364–391.
<https://doi.org/10.1521/jscp.2009.28.3.364>

Dadds, M. R., Maujean, A., & Fraser, J. A. (2003). Parenting and conduct problems in children: Australian data and psychometric properties of the alabama parenting questionnaire. *Australian Psychologist*, 38(3), 238–241.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/00050060310001707267>

De Sousa, M. L., Peixoto, M. M., & Cruz, S. F. (2021). The Association between Externalizing and Internalizing Problems with Bullying Engagement in Adolescents: The Mediating Role of Social Skills. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 18(19), 10444. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph181910444>

Decety, J. (2012). *Empathy: From Bench to Bedside*. MIT Press.

Denham, S. A., Workman, E., Cole, P. M., Weissbrod, C., Kendziora, K. T., & Zahn-Waxler, C. (2000). Prediction of externalizing behavior problems from early to middle childhood: The role of parental socialization and emotion expression. *Development and Psychopathology*, 12(1), 23–45. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0954579400001024>

Dishion, T. J., & Patterson, G. R. (2015). The Development and Ecology of Antisocial Behavior in Children and Adolescents. In *Developmental Psychopathology* (pp. 503–541). John Wiley & Sons, Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470939406.ch13>

Dixon, R., & Smith, P. K. (2011). *Rethinking School Bullying: Towards an Integrated Model*. Cambridge University Press.

Due, P., & Holstein, B. E. (2008). Bullying victimization among 13 to 15 year old school children: Results from two comparative studies in 66 countries and regions. *International Journal of Adolescent Medicine and Health*, 20(2), 209–222.

<https://doi.org/10.1515/IJAMH.2008.20.2.209>

Duncan, R. D. (1999). Maltreatment by Parents and Peers: The Relationship between Child Abuse, Bully Victimization, and Psychological Distress. *Child Maltreatment*, 4(1), 45–55. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077559599004001005>

Eastman, M., Foshee, V., Ennett, S., Sotres-Alvarez, D., Reyes, H. L. M., Faris, R., & North, K. (2018). Profiles of internalizing and externalizing symptoms associated with bullying victimization. *Journal of Adolescence*, 65(1), 101–110. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2018.03.007>

Eisenberg, M. E., Neumark-Sztainer, D., & Perry, C. L. (2003). Peer Harassment, School Connectedness, and Academic Achievement. *Journal of School Health*, 73(8), 311–316. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1746-1561.2003.tb06588.x>

Ekman, P., & Davidson, R. J. (Eds.). (1994). *The nature of emotion: Fundamental questions*. Oxford University Press.

Eliot, M., Cornell, D., Gregory, A., & Fan, X. (2010). Supportive school climate and student willingness to seek help for bullying and threats of violence. *Journal of School Psychology*, 48(6), 533–553. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2010.07.001>

Ellis, L. K., & Rothbart, M. K. (2001, April). Revision of the Early Adolescent Temperament Questionnaire. *Poster Presented at the 2001 Biennial Meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development*, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Espelage, D. L., Holt, M. K., & Henkel, R. R. (2003). Examination of Peer-Group Contextual Effects on Aggression During Early Adolescence. *Child Development*, 74(1), 205–220. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00531>

Espelage, D. L., Hong, J. S., Rao, M. A., & Thornberg, R. (2015). Understanding Ecological Factors Associated With Bullying Across the Elementary to Middle School Transition in

the United States. *Violence and Victims*, 30(3), 470–487. <https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.VV-D-14-00046>

Espelage, D. L., & Swearer, S. M. (2004). *Bullying in American Schools: A Social-Ecological Perspective on Prevention and Intervention*. Routledge.

Espelage, D. L., & Swearer, S. M. (2023). Updated Perspectives on Linking School Bullying and Related Youth Violence Research to Effective Prevention Strategies. In T. W. Miller (Ed.), *School Violence and Primary Prevention* (pp. 199–216). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-13134-9_7

Essau, C. A., Sasagawa, S., & Frick, P. J. (2006). Psychometric Properties of the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 15(5), 595–614. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-006-9036-y>

Estrada Jr., J. N., Huerta, A. H., Hernandez, E., Hernandez, R. A., & Kim, S. W. (2018). Socio-Ecological Risk and Protective Factors for Youth Gang Involvement. In *The Wiley Handbook on Violence in Education* (pp. 185–202). John Wiley & Sons, Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118966709.ch9>

Fanti, K. A., & Kimonis, E. R. (2012). Bullying and Victimization: The Role of Conduct Problems and Psychopathic Traits. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 22(4), 617–631. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1532-7795.2012.00809.x>

Farmer, T. W., Irvin, M. J., Motoca, L. M., Leung, M.-C., Hutchins, B. C., Brooks, D. S., & Hall, C. M. (2015). Externalizing and Internalizing Behavior Problems, Peer Affiliations, and Bullying Involvement Across the Transition to Middle School. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 23(1), 3–16. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1063426613491286>

Farrell, A. H., Volk, A. A., & Vaillancourt, T. (2020). Empathy, Exploitation, and Adolescent Bullying Perpetration: A Longitudinal Social-Ecological Investigation. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment*, 42(3), 436–449.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10862-019-09767-6>

Farrington, D. P. (1993). Understanding and Preventing Bullying. *Crime and Justice: A Review of Research*, 17, 381.

Farrington, D. P. (1995). The Twelfth Jack Tizard Memorial Lecture.: The Development of Offending and Antisocial Behaviour from Childhood: Key Findings from the Cambridge Study in Delinquent Development. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 36(6), 929–964. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.1995.tb01342.x>

Farrington, D. P. (2020). The Integrated Cognitive Antisocial Potential (ICAP) Theory: Past, Present, and Future. *Journal of Developmental and Life-Course Criminology*, 6(2), 172–187. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40865-019-00112-9>

Fink, E., Patalay, P., Sharpe, H., & Wolpert, M. (2018). Child- and school-level predictors of children's bullying behavior: A multilevel analysis in 648 primary schools. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 110(1), 17–26. <https://doi.org/10.1037/edu0000204>

Flaspohler, P. D., Elfstrom, J. L., Vanderzee, K. L., Sink, H. E., & Birchmeier, Z. (2009). Stand by me: The effects of peer and teacher support in mitigating the impact of bullying on quality of life. *Psychology in the Schools*, 46(7), 636–649.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.20404>

Flouri, E., & Buchanan, A. (2003). The Role of Mother Involvement and Father Involvement in Adolescent Bullying Behavior. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 18(6), 634–644.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260503251129>

Flowers, J., Dawes, J., Marr, D., & Cuitareo, J. (2023). Validation of the Forms of Bullying Scale-Perpetration (FBS-P) in the United States. *International Journal of Bullying Prevention*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42380-023-00158-w>

Fosco, G. M., Stormshak, E. A., Dishion, T. J., & Winter, C. E. (2012). Family Relationships and Parental Monitoring During Middle School as Predictors of Early Adolescent Problem Behavior. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology*, 41(2), 202–213. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15374416.2012.651989>

Frey, K. S., Strong, Z. H., Onyewuenyi, A. C., Pearson, C. R., & Eagan, B. R. (2020). Third-Party Intervention in Peer Victimization: Self-Evaluative Emotions and Appraisals of a Diverse Adolescent Sample. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 30(3), 633–650. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jora.12548>

Frick, P. J. (1991). The Alabama parenting questionnaire. *Unpublished Rating Scale, University of Alabama*.

Galal, Y. S., Emadeldin, M., & Mwafy, M. A. (2019). Prevalence and correlates of bullying and victimization among school students in rural Egypt. *Journal of the Egyptian Public Health Association*, 94(1), 18. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s42506-019-0019-4>

Georgiou, S. N., & Stavrinides, P. (2012). Social-Psychological Profiles of Early Adolescents Involved in Bullying Activities. *International Journal of Criminology and Sociology*, 1, 60–68. <https://doi.org/10.6000/1929-4409.2012.01.5>

Gershoff, E. T. (2002). Corporal punishment by parents and associated child behaviors and experiences: A meta-analytic and theoretical review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 128(4), 539–579. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.128.4.539>

Gini, G., Albiero, P., Benelli, B., & Altoè, G. (2007). Does empathy predict adolescents' bullying and defending behavior? *Aggressive Behavior, 33*(5), 467–476.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.20204>

Gonzálvez, C., Bacon, V., & Kearney, C. A. (2023). Systematic and evaluative review of school climate instruments for students, teachers, and parents. *Psychology in the Schools, 60*(6), 1781–1836. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.22838>

Goodman, R. (1997). The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire: A Research Note. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 38*(5), 581–586. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.1997.tb01545.x>

Gorman-Smith, D., Tolan, P. H., Loeber, R., & Henry, D. B. (1998). Relation of Family Problems to Patterns of Delinquent Involvement Among Urban Youth. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 26*(5), 319–333. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1021995621302>

Goswami, H. (2012). Social Relationships and Children's Subjective Well-Being. *Social Indicators Research, 107*(3), 575–588. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-011-9864-z>

Gottfredson, G. D., Gottfredson, D. C., Payne, A. A., & Gottfredson, N. C. (2005). School Climate Predictors of School Disorder: Results from a National Study of Delinquency Prevention in Schools. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 42*(4), 412–444.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0022427804271931>

Graham, S., & Bellmore, A. D. (2007). Peer Victimization and Mental Health During Early Adolescence. *Theory Into Practice, 46*(2), 138–146.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00405840701233081>

Gregory, A., & Cornell, D. (2009). “Tolerating” Adolescent Needs: Moving Beyond Zero Tolerance Policies in High School. *Theory Into Practice*, 48(2), 106–113.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00405840902776327>

Gregory, A., Cornell, D., Fan, X., Sheras, P., Shih, T.-H., & Huang, F. (2010). Authoritative school discipline: High school practices associated with lower bullying and victimization. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 102(2), 483–496. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0018562>

Griese, E. R., Buhs, E. S., & Lester, H. F. (2016). Peer victimization and prosocial behavior trajectories: Exploring sources of resilience for victims. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 44, 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appdev.2016.01.009>

Griffin, R. S., & Gross, A. M. (2004). Childhood bullying: Current empirical findings and future directions for research. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 9(4), 379–400.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S1359-1789\(03\)00033-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1359-1789(03)00033-8)

Griffiths, L. J. (2005). Obesity and bullying: Different effects for boys and girls. *Archives of Disease in Childhood*, 91(2), 121–125. <https://doi.org/10.1136/adc.2005.072314>

Grossmann, K. E., Grossmann, K., & Waters, E. (2006). *Attachment from Infancy to Adulthood: The Major Longitudinal Studies*. Guilford Press.

Hagquist, C., Due, P., Torsheim, T., & Välimäa, R. (2019). Cross-country comparisons of trends in adolescent psychosomatic symptoms – a Rasch analysis of HBSC data from four Nordic countries. *Health and Quality of Life Outcomes*, 17(1), 27.
<https://doi.org/10.1186/s12955-019-1097-x>

Hawker, D. S. J., & Boulton, M. J. (2000). Twenty Years’ Research on Peer Victimization and Psychosocial Maladjustment: A Meta-analytic Review of Cross-sectional Studies. *The*

Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry and Allied Disciplines, 41(4), 441–455.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/1469-7610.00629>

Hazler, R. J. (1996). *Breaking the cycle of violence: Interventions for bullying and victimization* (pp. xix, 222). Accelerated Development.

Heinrichs, R. (2003). *Perfect Targets: Asperger Syndrome and Bullying : Practical Solutions for Surviving the Social World*. AAPC Publishing.

Henry, C. S., Sheffield Morris, A., & Harrist, A. W. (2015). Family Resilience: Moving into the Third Wave. *Family Relations*, 64(1), 22–43. <https://doi.org/10.1111/fare.12106>

Hertz, M. F., Everett Jones, S., Barrios, L., David-Ferdon, C., & Holt, M. (2015). Association Between Bullying Victimization and Health Risk Behaviors Among High School Students in the United States. *Journal of School Health*, 85(12), 833–842.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/josh.12339>

Hetherington, E. M., & Elmore, A. M. (2003). Risk and resilience in children coping with their parents' divorce and remarriage. In *Resilience and vulnerability: Adaptation in the context of childhood adversities* (pp. 182–212). Cambridge University Press.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511615788.010>

Hickey, A. D. P., Jeffrey D. Long, David Solberg, Cary Roseth, Danielle Dupuis, Catherine Bohn, Meghan. (2009). Bullying and Social Status During School Transitions. In *Handbook of Bullying in Schools*. Routledge.

Holmes, C. J., Kim-Spoon, J., & Deater-Deckard, K. (2016). Linking Executive Function and Peer Problems from Early Childhood Through Middle Adolescence. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 44(1), 31–42. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10802-015-0044-5>

Holt, M. K., Kaufman Kantor, G., & Finkelhor, D. (2008). Parent/Child Concordance about Bullying Involvement and Family Characteristics Related to Bullying and Peer Victimization. *Journal of School Violence, 8*(1), 42–63.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/15388220802067813>

Holt, M. K., Vivolo-Kantor, A. M., Polanin, J. R., Holland, K. M., DeGue, S., Matjasko, J. L., Wolfe, M., & Reid, G. (2015). Bullying and Suicidal Ideation and Behaviors: A Meta-Analysis. *Pediatrics, 135*(2), e496–e509. <https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2014-1864>

Hong, J. S., & Eamon, M. K. (2012). Students' Perceptions of Unsafe Schools: An Ecological Systems Analysis. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 21*(3), 428–438.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-011-9494-8>

Hong, J. S., & Espelage, D. L. (2012). A review of research on bullying and peer victimization in school: An ecological system analysis. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 17*(4), 311–322.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2012.03.003>

Hornby, G. (2016). Bullying: An Ecological Approach to Intervention in Schools. *Preventing School Failure: Alternative Education for Children and Youth, 60*(3), 222–230.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/1045988X.2015.1086969>

Hosozawa, M., Bann, D., Fink, E., Elsden, E., Baba, S., Iso, H., & Patalay, P. (2021). Bullying victimisation in adolescence: Prevalence and inequalities by gender, socioeconomic status and academic performance across 71 countries. *eClinicalMedicine, 41*, 101142.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eclim.2021.101142>

Howard, A. M. (2009). *Socio-cultural, Situational, and Individual Differences Among Peer Bystanders of Bullying: Who Will Help the Victim?* - ProQuest [Illinois State University].

<https://www.proquest.com/openview/6b2cb0f0d2471394b014aa0f59902476/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=18750>

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1998). Fit indices in covariance structure modeling: Sensitivity to underparameterized model misspecification. *Psychological Methods*, 3(4), 424–453.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.3.4.424>

Hughes, K., Bullock, A., & Coplan, R. J. (2014). A person-centred analysis of teacher-child relationships in early childhood. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84(2), 253–267. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bjep.12029>

Huitsing, G., & Monks, C. P. (2018). Who victimizes whom and who defends whom? A multivariate social network analysis of victimization, aggression, and defending in early childhood. *Aggressive Behavior*, 44(4), 394–405. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.21760>

Hunsley, J., & Mash, E. J. (Eds.). (2008). *A Guide to Assessments that Work*. Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/med:psych/9780195310641.001.0001>

Hyde, J. S., & Linn, M. C. (1988). Gender differences in verbal ability: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 104(1), 53–69. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.104.1.53>

Hymel, S., & Bonanno, R. A. (2014). Moral Disengagement Processes in Bullying. *Theory Into Practice*, 53(4), 278–285. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2014.947219>

Hymel, S., & Swearer, S. M. (2015). Four decades of research on school bullying: An introduction. *American Psychologist*, 70(4), 293–299. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038928>

James, D., Flynn, A., Lawlor, M., Courtney, P., Murphy, N., & Henry, B. (2011). A Friend In Deed? Can Adolescent Girls Be Taught to Understand Relational Bullying? *Child Abuse Review*, 20(6), 439–454. <https://doi.org/10.1002/car.1120>

Jansen, P. W., Verlinden, M., Berkel, A. D., Mieloo, C., van der Ende, J., Veenstra, R., Verhulst, F. C., Jansen, W., & Tiemeier, H. (2012). Prevalence of bullying and victimization among children in early elementary school: Do family and school neighbourhood socioeconomic status matter? *BMC Public Health*, 12(1), 494.

<https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-12-494>

Jara, N., Casas, J. A., & Ortega-Ruiz, R. (2017). Proactive and reactive aggressive behavior in bullying: The role of values. *International Journal of Educational Psychology*, 6(1), Article 1. <https://doi.org/10.17583/ijep.2017.2515>

Jeffrey, L. R. (2004). Bullying Bystanders. *Prevention Researcher*, 11(3), 7–8.

Jenkins, L. N., & Nickerson, A. B. (2017). Bullying participant roles and gender as predictors of bystander intervention. *Aggressive Behavior*, 43(3), 281–290.

<https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.21688>

Jenkins, L. N., & Nickerson, A. B. (2019). Bystander Intervention in Bullying: Role of Social Skills and Gender. *The Journal of Early Adolescence*, 39(2), 141–166.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0272431617735652>

Jimerson, S. R., Swearer, S. M., & Espelage, D. L. (Eds.). (2010). *Handbook of bullying in schools: An international perspective* (1. publ). Routledge.

Juvonen, J., Nishina, A., & Graham, S. (2000). Peer harassment, psychological adjustment, and school functioning in early adolescence. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 92(2), 349–359. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.92.2.349>

Juvonen, J., & Schacter, H. L. (2017). Bullying in School and Online Contexts. In *The Wiley Handbook of Group Processes in Children and Adolescents* (pp. 315–332). John Wiley & Sons, Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118773123.ch15>

Kaliampos, G., Katsigiannis, K., & Fantzikou, X. (2022). Aggression and bullying: A literature review examining their relationship and effective anti-bullying practice in schools. *International Journal of Educational Innovation and Research*, 1(2), 89–98. <https://doi.org/10.31949/ijeir.v1i2.2655>

Källmén, H., & Hallgren, M. (2021). Bullying at school and mental health problems among adolescents: A repeated cross-sectional study. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatry and Mental Health*, 15(1), 74. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13034-021-00425-y>

Kaltiala-Heino, R., Fröjd, S., & Marttunen, M. (2010). Involvement in bullying and depression in a 2-year follow-up in middle adolescence. *European Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, 19(1), 45–55. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00787-009-0039-2>

Kandel, D. B. (2007). Homophily, Selection, and Socialization in Adolescent Friendships 1. In *Interpersonal Development*. Routledge.

Kartal, H., & Bilgin, A. (2009). Bullying and School Climate from the Aspects of the Students and Teachers. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 36, 209–226.

Katsantonis, I. (2021). Cultural Variation in Aggressive Behavior: A Cross-Cultural Comparison of Students' Exposure to Bullying Across 32 Countries. *Electronic Journal of Research in Education Psychology*, 19(55). <https://doi.org/10.25115/ejrep.v19i55.3741>

Keikha, M., Qorbani, M., Kazemi Tabaee, M. S., Djalalinia, S., & Kelishadi, R. (2020). Screen Time Activities and Aggressive Behaviors Among Children and Adolescents: A Systematic Review. *International Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 11, 59. https://doi.org/10.4103/ijpvm.IJPVM_71_20

Kelly, E. V., Newton, N. C., Stapinski, L. A., Slade, T., Barrett, E. L., Conrod, P. J., & Teesson, M. (2015). Suicidality, internalizing problems and externalizing problems among

adolescent bullies, victims and bully-victims. *Preventive Medicine*, 73, 100–105.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2015.01.020>

Kennedy, R. S. (2020). A meta-analysis of the outcomes of bullying prevention programs on subtypes of traditional bullying victimization: Verbal, relational, and physical. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 55, 101485. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2020.101485>

Khawar, R., & Malik, F. (2016). Bullying behavior of Pakistani pre-adolescents: Findings based on olweus questionnaire. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research*, 31, 23–43.

Khokhar, A., Zia, D., & Nas, Z. (2020). *WORKING MOTHERS DILEMMA IN PAKISTAN: ANALYZING THEIR BATTLE WITH WORK, FAMILY DEMANDS, AND WELL-BEING*. 2414–2336.

Kiriakidis, S. P., & Kavoura, A. (2010). Cyberbullying: A Review of the Literature on Harassment Through the Internet and Other Electronic Means. *Family and Community Health*, 33(2), 82–93.

Kline, R. B. (2016). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*, 4th ed. (pp. xvii, 534). Guilford Press.

Knoff, H. M. (2007). Teasing, Taunting, Bullying, Harassment, and Aggression: A School-Wide Approach to Prevention, Strategic Intervention, and Crisis Management. In *Bullying, Victimization, and Peer Harassment*. Routledge.

Knous-Westfall, H. M., Ehrensaft, M. K., Watson MacDonell, K., & Cohen, P. (2012). Parental Intimate Partner Violence, Parenting Practices, and Adolescent Peer Bullying: A Prospective Study. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 21(5), 754–766.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-011-9528-2>

Kochenderfer-Ladd, B., & Wardrop, J. L. (2001). Chronicity and Instability of Children's Peer Victimization Experiences as Predictors of Loneliness and Social Satisfaction

Trajectories. *Child Development*, 72(1), 134–151. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00270>

Kokkinos, C. M. (2013). Bullying and Victimization in Early Adolescence: Associations With Attachment Style and Perceived Parenting. *Journal of School Violence*, 12(2), 174–192. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15388220.2013.766134>

Koth, C. W., Bradshaw, C. P., & Leaf, P. J. (2009). Teacher Observation of Classroom Adaptation—Checklist: Development and Factor Structure. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, 42(1), 15–30. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0748175609333560>

Kumpulainen, K., & Räsänen, E. (2000). Children involved in bullying at elementary school age: Their psychiatric symptoms and deviance in adolescence: An epidemiological sample. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 24(12), 1567–1577. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0145-2134\(00\)00210-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0145-2134(00)00210-6)

Kumpulainen, K., Räsänen, E., & Henttonen, I. (1999). Children involved in bullying: Psychological disturbance and the persistence of the involvement. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 23(12), 1253–1262. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0145-2134\(99\)00098-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0145-2134(99)00098-8)

Kuppens, S., & Ceulemans, E. (2019). Parenting Styles: A Closer Look at a Well-Known Concept. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 28(1), 168–181. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-018-1242-x>

Kuppens, S., Laurent, L., Heyvaert, M., & Onghena, P. (2013). Associations between parental psychological control and relational aggression in children and adolescents: A multilevel

and sequential meta-analysis. *Developmental Psychology, 49*(9), 1697–1712.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030740>

Lane, D. A. (1989). Bullying in School: The Need for an Integrated Approach. *School Psychology International, 10*(3), 211–215. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0143034389103007>

Law, D. M., Shapka, J. D., Hymel, S., Olson, B. F., & Waterhouse, T. (2012). The changing face of bullying: An empirical comparison between traditional and internet bullying and victimization. *Computers in Human Behavior, 28*(1), 226–232.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2011.09.004>

Le, H. T. H., Tran, N., Campbell, M., Gatton, M. L., Nguyen, H. T., & Dunne, M. P. (2019). Mental health problems both precede and follow bullying among adolescents and the effects differ by gender: A cross-lagged panel analysis of school-based longitudinal data in Vietnam. *International Journal of Mental Health Systems, 13*(1).
<https://doi.org/10.1186/s13033-019-0291-x>

Leach, F. (2003). Learning to be Violent: The role of the school in developing adolescent gendered behaviour. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education, 33*(3), 385–400. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03057920302587>

Lee, C.-H. (2011). An Ecological Systems Approach to Bullying Behaviors Among Middle School Students in the United States. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 26*(8), 1664–1693. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260510370591>

Lee, S. S., & Wong, D. S. (2009). School, Parents, and Peer Factors in Relation to Hong Kong Students' Bullying. *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth, 15*(3), 217–233.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02673843.2009.9748030>

Leiner, M., Dwivedi, A., Villanos, M. T., Singh, N., Blunk, D., & Peinado, J. (2014). Psychosocial Profile of Bullies, Victims, and Bully-Victims: A Cross-Sectional Study. *Frontiers in Pediatrics*, 2. <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fped.2014.00001>

Lereya, S. T., Winsper, C., Heron, J., Lewis, G., Gunnell, D., Fisher, H. L., & Wolke, D. (2013). Being Bullied During Childhood and the Prospective Pathways to Self-Harm in Late Adolescence. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, 52(6), 608-618.e2. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaac.2013.03.012>

Litwiller, B. J., & Brausch, A. M. (2013). Cyber Bullying and Physical Bullying in Adolescent Suicide: The Role of Violent Behavior and Substance Use. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 42(5), 675–684. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-013-9925-5>

Llewellyn, A. (2000). Perceptions of mainstreaming: A systems approach. *Developmental Medicine & Child Neurology*, 42(2), 106–115. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0012162200000219>

Low, S., & Espelage, D. (2013). Differentiating cyber bullying perpetration from non-physical bullying: Commonalities across race, individual, and family predictors. *Psychology of Violence*, 3(1), 39–52. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030308>

Low, S., & Van Ryzin, M. (2014). The moderating effects of school climate on bullying prevention efforts. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 29(3), 306–319. <https://doi.org/10.1037/spq0000073>

Lynn Hawkins, D., Pepler, D. J., & Craig, W. M. (2001). Naturalistic Observations of Peer Interventions in Bullying. *Social Development*, 10(4), 512–527. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9507.00178>

Malta, D. C., Oliveira, W. A. D., Prates, E. J. S., Mello, F. C. M. D., Moutinho, C. D. S., & Silva, M. A. I. (2022). Bullying among Brazilian adolescents: Evidence from the National Survey of School Health, Brazil, 2015 and 2019. *Revista Latino-Americana de Enfermagem*, 30(spe), e3679. <https://doi.org/10.1590/1518-8345.6278.3678>

Matson, J. L. (Ed.). (2017). *Handbook of Social Behavior and Skills in Children*. Springer International Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-64592-6>

Mcconville, D. W., & Cornell, D. G. (2003). Aggressive Attitudes Predict Aggressive Behavior in Middle School Students. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 11(3), 179–187. <https://doi.org/10.1177/10634266030110030501>

McDowell, D. J., Kim, M., O’neil, R., & Parke, R. D. (2002). Children’s Emotional Regulation and Social Competence in Middle Childhood: The Role of Maternal and Paternal Interactive Style. *Marriage & Family Review*, 34(3–4), 345–364. https://doi.org/10.1300/J002v34n03_07

Meltzer, H., Gatward, R., Goodman, R., & Ford, T. (2003). Mental health of children and adolescents in Great Britain. *International Review of Psychiatry*, 15(1–2), 185–187. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0954026021000046155>

Méndez, I., Jorquera, A. B., Esteban, C. R., & García-Fernández, J. M. (2020). Profiles of Mobile Phone Use, Cyberbullying, and Emotional Intelligence in Adolescents. *Sustainability*, 12(22), Article 22. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12229404>

Menolascino, N., & Jenkins, L. N. (2018). Predicting bystander intervention among middle school students. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 33(2), 305–313. <https://doi.org/10.1037/spq0000262>

Meter, D. J., & Bauman, S. (2018). Moral Disengagement About Cyberbullying and Parental Monitoring: Effects on Traditional Bullying and Victimization via Cyberbullying Involvement. *The Journal of Early Adolescence*, 38(3), 303–326.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0272431616670752>

Meyer, E. J. (2020). Gender and Bullying. In E. J. Meyer, *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Education*. Oxford University Press.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/acrefore/9780190264093.013.1320>

Miller, J. G., Wice, M., & Goyal, N. (2019). Culture, Parenting Practices, and Moral Development. In D. J. Laible, G. Carlo, & L. M. Padilla-Walker (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Parenting and Moral Development* (pp. 146–162). Oxford University Press.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780190638696.013.10>

Mitsopoulou, E., & Giovazolias, T. (2015). Personality traits, empathy and bullying behavior: A meta-analytic approach. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 21, 61–72.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2015.01.007>

Modecki, K. L., Minchin, J., Harbaugh, A. G., Guerra, N. G., & Runions, K. C. (2014). Bullying Prevalence Across Contexts: A Meta-analysis Measuring Cyber and Traditional Bullying. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 55(5), 602–611.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2014.06.007>

Moffitt, T. E., & Caspi, A. (2001). Childhood predictors differentiate life-course persistent and adolescence-limited antisocial pathways among males and females. *Development and Psychopathology*, 13(2), 355–375. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0954579401002097>

Monks, C. P., Smith, P. K., Naylor, P., Barter, C., Ireland, J. L., & Coyne, I. (2009). Bullying in different contexts: Commonalities, differences and the role of theory. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 14*(2), 146–156. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2009.01.004>

Moon, S. S., Kim, H., Seay, K., Small, E., & Kim, Y. K. (2016). Ecological Factors of Being Bullied Among Adolescents: A Classification and Regression Tree Approach. *Child Indicators Research, 9*(3), 743–756. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12187-015-9343-1>

Moschella, E. A., & Banyard, V. L. (2020). Reactions to Actions: Exploring How Types of Bystander Action Are Linked to Positive and Negative Consequences. *The Journal of Primary Prevention, 41*(6), 585–602. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10935-020-00618-9>

Murphy, H., Tubritt, J., & Norman, J. O. (2018). The Role of Empathy in Preparing Teachers to Tackle Bullying. *Journal of New Approaches in Educational Research (NAER Journal), 7*(1), 17–23.

Musharraf, S., Bauman, S., Anis-ul-Haque, M., & Malik, J. A. (2019). General and ICT self-efficacy in different participants roles in cyberbullying/victimization among Pakistani university students. *Frontiers in Psychology, 10*. sadia_musharraf@hotmail.com, ORCID: 0000-0002-9521-4276

Mushtaq, A. (2015). *REDUCING AGGRESSION IN CHILDREN THROUGH A SCHOOL-BASED COPING POWER PROGRAM*. QAU, Islamabad.

Nansel, T. R., Overpeck, M., Pilla, R. S., Ruan, W. J., Simons-Morton, B., & Scheidt, P. (2001). Bullying behaviors among US youth: Prevalence and association with psychosocial adjustment. *JAMA, 285*(16), 2094–2100. <https://doi.org/10.1001/JAMA.285.16.2094>

Naveed, S., Waqas, A., Aedma, K. K., Afzaal, T., & Majeed, M. H. (2019). Association of bullying experiences with depressive symptoms and psychosocial functioning among

school going children and adolescents. *BMC Research Notes*, 12(1), 198. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13104-019-4236-x>

Naveed, S., Waqas, A., Shah, Z., Ahmad, W., Wasim, M., Rasheed, J., & Afzaal, T. (2020). Trends in Bullying and Emotional and Behavioral Difficulties Among Pakistani Schoolchildren: A Cross-Sectional Survey of Seven Cities. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, 10. <https://www.frontiersin.org/journals/psychiatry/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00976>

Newman, R. S., Murray, B., & Lussier, C. (2001). Confrontation with aggressive peers at school: Students' reluctance to seek help from the teacher. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 93(2), 398–410. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.93.2.398>

Ngo, A. T., Nguyen, L. H., Dang, A. K., Hoang, M. T., Nguyen, T. H., Vu, G. T., Thi, H., Tran, B. X., Latkin, C. A., Ho, R., & Ho, C. S. H. (2021). Bullying experience in urban adolescents: Prevalence and correlations with health-related quality of life and psychological issues. *Plos One*, 16(6). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0252459>

Nickerson, A. B., Mele, D., & Princiotta, D. (2008). Attachment and empathy as predictors of roles as defenders or outsiders in bullying interactions. *Journal of School Psychology*, 46(6), 687–703. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2008.06.002>

Nickerson, A. B., & Mele-Taylor, D. (2014). Empathetic responsiveness, group norms, and prosocial affiliations in bullying roles. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 29(1), 99–109. <https://doi.org/10.1037/spq0000052>

Nielsen, T., Dammeyer, J., Vang, M. L., & Makransky, G. (2018). Gender Fairness in Self-Efficacy? A Rasch-Based Validity Study of the General Academic Self-Efficacy Scale (GASE). *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 62(5), 664–681. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00313831.2017.1306796>

Nikiforou, M., Georgiou, S. N., & Stavrinides, P. (2013). Attachment to Parents and Peers as a Parameter of Bullying and Victimization. *Journal of Criminology*, 2013, 1–9.
<https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/484871>

Nishioka, V., Coe, M., Burke, A., Hanita, M., & Sprague, J. (2011). Student-Reported Overt and Relational Aggression and Victimization in Grades 3-8. *Regional Educational Laboratory at Education Northwest.*, 114.

Noakes, M. A., & Rinaldi, C. M. (2006). Age and Gender Differences in Peer Conflict. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 35(6), 881–891. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-006-9088-8>

Nocentini, A., Fiorentini, G., Di Paola, L., & Menesini, E. (2019). Parents, family characteristics and bullying behavior: A systematic review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 45, 41–50. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2018.07.010>

O'connell, P., Pepler, D., & Craig, W. (1999). Peer involvement in bullying: Insights and challenges for intervention. *Journal of Adolescence*, 22(4), 437–452.
<https://doi.org/10.1006/jado.1999.0238>

Ohl, M., Mitchell, K., Cassidy, T., & Fox, P. (2008). The Pyramid Club Primary School-Based Intervention: Evaluating the Impact on Children's Social-Emotional Health. *Child and Adolescent Mental Health*, 13(3), 115–121. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-3588.2007.00476.x>

Olafsen, R. N., & Viemerö, V. (2000). Bully/victim problems and coping with stress in school among 10- to 12-year-old pupils in Åland, Finland. *Aggressive Behavior*, 26(1), 57–65.
[https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1098-2337\(2000\)26:1<57::AID-AB5>3.0.CO;2-I](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1098-2337(2000)26:1<57::AID-AB5>3.0.CO;2-I)

Oliveira, W. A. D., Silva, J. L. D., Yoshinaga, A. C. M., & Silva, M. A. I. (2015). Interfaces entre família e bullying escolar: Uma revisão sistemática. *Psico-USF*, 20(1), 121–132.
<https://doi.org/10.1590/1413-82712015200111>

Olweus, D. (1993). *Bullying at school: What we know and what we can do*. (pp. xii, 140). Blackwell Publishing.

Olweus, D. (1997). Bully/victim problems in school: Knowledge base and an effective intervention program. *The Irish Journal of Psychology*, 18(2), 170–190.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/03033910.1997.10558138>

Olweus, D. (2009). Understanding and Researching Bullying: Some Critical Issues. In *Handbook of Bullying in Schools*. Routledge.

Olweus, D. (2010). Bullying in schools: Facts and intervention. *Kriminalistik*, 64.

Orpinas, P., & Horne, A. M. (2006). *Bullying prevention: Creating a positive school climate and developing social competence*. American Psychological Association.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/11330-000>

Österman, K. B., Karin. (2018). Sex differences in aggression. In *The Routledge International Handbook of Human Aggression*. Routledge.

Padgett, S., & E. Notar, C. (2013). Bystanders are the Key to Stopping Bullying. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 1(2), 33–41. <https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2013.010201>

Paez, G. R., & Richmond, O. L. (2022). Contextualizing Adolescent Bullying: The Overlap Between Victimization and Perpetration. *Crime & Delinquency*.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/00111287221103754>

Pahlke, E., Hyde, J. S., & Allison, C. M. (2014). The effects of single-sex compared with coeducational schooling on students' performance and attitudes: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 140*(4), 1042–1072. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0035740>

Papanikolaou, M., Chatzikosma, T., & Kleio, K. (2011). Bullying at School: The role of family. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 29*, 433–442. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.260>

Patchin, J. W., & Hinduja, S. (2010). Cyberbullying and Self-Esteem*. *Journal of School Health, 80*(12), 614–621. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1746-1561.2010.00548.x>

Paterson, J., Faibairn-Dunlop, P., Cowley-Malcolm, E. T., & Schluter, P. J. (2007). Maternal Childhood Parental Abuse History and Current Intimate Partner Violence: Data From the Pacific Islands Families Study. *Violence and Victims, 22*(4), 474–488. <https://doi.org/10.1891/088667007781553973>

Patterson, C. J. (1995). Families of the baby boom: Parents' division of labor and children's adjustment. *Developmental Psychology, 31*(1), 115–123. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.31.1.115>

Patterson, G. R., DeBaryshe, B. D., & Ramsey, E. (1989). A developmental perspective on antisocial behavior. *American Psychologist, 44*(2), 329–335. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.44.2.329>

Pellegrini, A. D., & Bartini, M. (2001). Dominance in Early Adolescent Boys: Affiliative and Aggressive Dimensions and Possible Functions. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 47*(1), 142–163.

Pellegrini, A. D., & Long, J. D. (2002). A longitudinal study of bullying, dominance, and victimization during the transition from primary school through secondary school. *British*

Journal of Developmental Psychology, 20(2), 259–280.
<https://doi.org/10.1348/026151002166442>

Pengpid, S., & Peltzer, K. (2019). Bullying victimization and externalizing and internalizing symptoms among in-school adolescents from five ASEAN countries. *Children and Youth Services Review, 106*, 104473. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2019.104473>

Pepler, D., Craig, W., & O'Connell, P. (2010). Peer processes in bullying: Informing prevention and intervention strategies. In *Handbook of bullying in schools: An international perspective* (pp. 469–479). Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.

Pepler, D. J., & Craig, W. M. (1998). Assessing Children's Peer Relationships. *Child Psychology and Psychiatry Review, 3*(4), 176–182. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1475-3588.00238>

Perren, S., & Alsaker, F. D. (2006). Social behavior and peer relationships of victims, bully-victims, and bullies in kindergarten. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 47*(1), 45–57. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.2005.01445.x>

Piers, E. V., & Herzberg, D. S. (2002). *Piers-Harris 2: Piers-Harris children's self-concept scale*. Western Psychological Services.

Piquero, A. R., Bouffard, J. A., Piquero, N. L., & Craig, J. M. (2016). Does Morality Condition the Deterrent Effect of Perceived Certainty Among Incarcerated Felons? *Crime & Delinquency, 62*(1), 3–25. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011128713505484>

Polanin, J. R., Espelage, D. L., & Pigott, T. D. (2012). A Meta-Analysis of School-Based Bullying Prevention Programs' Effects on Bystander Intervention Behavior. *School Psychology Review, 41*(1), 47–65. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02796015.2012.12087375>

Potard, C., Pochon, R., Henry, A., Combes, C., Kubiszewski, V., & Roy, A. (2022). Relationships Between School Bullying and Frustration Intolerance Beliefs in

Adolescence: A Gender-Specific Analysis. *Journal of Rational-Emotive & Cognitive-Behavior Therapy*, 40(1), 103–123. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10942-021-00402-6>

Pouwels, J. L., Van Noorden, T. H. J., & Caravita, S. C. S. (2019). Defending victims of bullying in the classroom: The role of moral responsibility and social costs. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 84, 103831. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2019.103831>

Priesman, E., Newman, R., & Ford, J. A. (2018). Bullying Victimization, Binge Drinking, and Marijuana Use among Adolescents: Results from the 2013 National Youth Risk Behavior Survey. *Journal of Psychoactive Drugs*, 50(2), 133–142.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02791072.2017.1371362>

Prinstein, M. J., & La Greca, A. M. (2004). Childhood Peer Rejection and Aggression as Predictors of Adolescent Girls' Externalizing and Health Risk Behaviors: A 6-Year Longitudinal Study. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 72(1), 103–112.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.72.1.103>

Qiu, T., Wang, S., Hu, D., Feng, N., & Cui, L. (2024). Predicting Risk of Bullying Victimization among Primary and Secondary School Students: Based on a Machine Learning Model. *Behavioral Sciences*, 14(1), Article 1. <https://doi.org/10.3390/bs14010073>

Radliff, K. M., Wheaton, J. E., Robinson, K., & Morris, J. (2012). Illuminating the relationship between bullying and substance use among middle and high school youth. *Addictive Behaviors*, 37(4), 569–572. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.2012.01.001>

Rahman, R., Tey, C. S., Matthews, S., & Govil, N. (2024). Bullying, Peer Victimization, and Quality of Life in Pediatric Hearing Loss Patients: A Pilot Study. *Annals of Otology, Rhinology & Laryngology*, 133(3), 292–299.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/00034894231208260>

Reijntjes, A., Kamphuis, J. H., Prinzie, P., & Telch, M. J. (2010). Peer victimization and internalizing problems in children: A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 34(4), 244–252. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chab.2009.07.009>

Reynolds, K. J., Lee, E., Turner, I., Bromhead, D., & Subasic, E. (2017). How does school climate impact academic achievement? An examination of social identity processes. *School Psychology International*, 38(1), 78–97.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0143034316682295>

Reynolds, S., Wilson, C., Austin, J., & Hooper, L. (2012). Effects of psychotherapy for anxiety in children and adolescents: A meta-analytic review. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 32(4), 251–262. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2012.01.005>

Rigby, K. (1999). Peer victimisation at school and the health of secondary school students. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 69(1), 95–104.
<https://doi.org/10.1348/000709999157590>

Rigby, K. (2002). Bullying in childhood. In *Blackwell handbook of childhood social development* (pp. 549–568). Blackwell Publishing.

Rigby, K., & Bortolozzo, G. (2013). How schoolchildren's acceptance of self and others relate to their attitudes to victims of bullying. *Social Psychology of Education*, 16(2), 181–197.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-013-9213-y>

Rock, P. F., & Baird, J. A. (2012). Tell the Teacher or Tell the Bully off: Children's Strategy Production for Bystanders to Bullying. *Social Development*, 21(2), 414–424.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9507.2011.00627.x>

Rodkin, P. C., Espelage, D. L., & Hanish, L. D. (2015). A relational framework for understanding bullying: Developmental antecedents and outcomes. *American Psychologist*, 70(4), 311–321. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038658>

Roland, E. (1998). *School Influences on Bullying* [University of Durham].

Rothbart, M. K. (2007). Temperament, Development, and Personality. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 16(4), 207–212. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8721.2007.00505.x>

Rothbart, M. K., Ahadi, S. A., & Hershey, K. L. (1994). Temperament and Social Behavior in Childhood. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 40(1), 21–39. JSTOR.

Saarento, S., & Salmivalli, C. (2015). The Role of Classroom Peer Ecology and Bystanders' Responses in Bullying. *Child Development Perspectives*, 9(4), 201–205. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cdep.12140>

Sağkal, A. S., Özdemir, Y., & Ak, S. (2022). The effect of violent video game playing on bullying in low-income urban neighborhoods: A serial mediation model. *International Journal of School & Educational Psychology*, 10(1), 18–28. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21683603.2020.1802376>

Salmivalli, C. (2010). Bullying and the peer group: A review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 15(2), 112–120. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2009.08.007>

Salmivalli, C., & Voeten, M. (2004). Connections between attitudes, group norms, and behaviour in bullying situations. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 28(3), 246–258. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01650250344000488>

Samad, L., Hollis, C., Prince, M., & Goodman, R. (2005). Child and adolescent psychopathology in a developing country: Testing the validity of the Strengths and Difficulties

Questionnaire (Urdu version). *International Journal of Methods in Psychiatric Research*, 14(3), 158–166. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mpr.3>

Sangalang, C. C., Tran, A. G. T. T., Ayers, S. L., & Marsiglia, F. F. (2016). Bullying among urban Mexican-heritage youth: Exploring risk for substance use by status as a bully, victim, and bully-victim. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 61, 216–221. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2015.12.019>

Santos, M. M., Perkoski, I. R., & Kienen, N. (2015). Bullying: Atitudes, consequências e medidas preventivas na percepção de professores e alunos do ensino fundamental. *Temas Em Psicologia*, 23(4), 1017–1033. <https://doi.org/10.9788/TP2015.4-16>

Saroyan, J., & Skaff, L. S. (2022). Detection and first step intervention for child victims of bullying. *Advances in Developmental and Educational Psychology*, 4(1), 143–146. <https://doi.org/10.25082/ADEP.2022.01.002>

Scheithauer, H., Hayer, T., Petermann, F., & Jugert, G. (2006). Physical, verbal, and relational forms of bullying among German students: Age trends, gender differences, and correlates. *Aggressive Behavior*, 32(3), 261–275. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.20128>

Schoeler, T., Choi, S. W., Dudbridge, F., Baldwin, J., Duncan, L., Cecil, C. M., Walton, E., Viding, E., McCrory, E., & Pingault, J.-B. (2019). Multi–Polygenic Score Approach to Identifying Individual Vulnerabilities Associated With the Risk of Exposure to Bullying. *JAMA Psychiatry*, 76(7), 730. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamapsychiatry.2019.0310>

Schwartz, C. E., Snidman, N., & Kagan, J. (1999). Adolescent Social Anxiety as an Outcome of Inhibited Temperament in Childhood. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, 38(8), 1008–1015. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00004583-199908000-00017>

Schwartz, D., Dodge, K. A., & Coie, J. D. (1993). The Emergence of Chronic Peer Victimization in Boys' Play Groups. *Child Development*, 64(6), 1755–1772.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1993.tb04211.x>

Seifert, K. (2012). *Youth violence: Theory, prevention, and intervention* (pp. xx, 235). Springer Publishing Company.

Selekman, J., & Vessey, J. A. (2004). Bullying: It isn't what it used to be. *Pediatric Nursing*, 30(3), 246–249.

Shahid, M., Rauf, U., Sarwar, U., & Asif, S. (2022). Impact of Bullying Behavior on Mental Health and Quality of Life Among Pre-Adolescents and Adolescents in Sialkot-Pakistan. *Pakistan Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 10(1), 324–331.
<https://doi.org/10.52131/PJHSS.2022.1001.0200>

Shahzadi, N., Akram, B., & Bibi, B. (2019). Bullying Behavior in Rural Area Schools of Gujrat, Pakistan: Prevalence and Gender Differences. *Pakistan Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 17(1), 25–30.

Shaikh, M. A., Kayani, A., & Shaikh, I. A. (2013). *Bullying and injury profile of female intermediate and bachelor programme students—Perspective from Islamabad*.

Shalaby, R. A. H., & Agyapong, V. I. O. (2020). Peer Support in Mental Health: Literature Review. *JMIR Mental Health*, 7(6), e15572. <https://doi.org/10.2196/15572>

Shaw, T., Dooley, J. J., Cross, D., Zubrick, S. R., & Waters, S. (2013). The Forms of Bullying Scale (FBS): Validity and reliability estimates for a measure of bullying victimization and perpetration in adolescence. *Psychological Assessment*, 25(4), 1045–1057.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0032955>

Shelton, K. K., Frick, P. J., & Wootton, J. (1996). Assessment of parenting practices in families of elementary school-age children. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 25(3), 317–329.
https://doi.org/10.1207/s15374424jccp2503_8

Sherman, L. W. (1993). Defiance, Deterrence, and Irrelevance: A Theory of the Criminal Sanction. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 30(4), 445–473.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0022427893030004006>

Shetgiri, R., Espelage, D. L., & Carroll, L. (2015). *Practical Strategies for Clinical Management of Bullying*. Springer International Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-15476-3>

Shin, W., & Kim, H.-W. (2023). Problematic mobile phone use and cyberbullying perpetration in adolescents. *Behaviour & Information Technology*, 42(4), 424–443.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/0144929X.2022.2104756>

Shujja, S., & Atta, M. (2011). Translation and Validation of Illinois Bullying Scale for Pakistani Children and Adolescents. *Pakistan Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 9, 79–82.

Shujja, S., Atta, M., & Shujjat, J. M. (2014). Prevalence of Bullying and Victimization among Sixth Graders with Reference to Gender, Socio-economic Status and Type of Schools. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 38(2), 159–165.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09718923.2014.11893246>

Siegel, R. S., La Greca, A. M., & Harrison, H. M. (2009). Peer Victimization and Social Anxiety in Adolescents: Prospective and Reciprocal Relationships. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 38(8), 1096–1109. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-009-9392-1>

Sikandar, A., Ahmad, S., Maqsood, S., & Maqsood, F. (2019). Child Care Arrangements, Division of Household Labor and Other Employment Based Familial Predictors of

Marital Adjustment Among Husbands of Employed Females in Pakistan. *Marriage & Family Review*, 55(3), 258–276. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01494929.2018.1460005>

Slonje, R., & Smith, P. K. (2008). Cyberbullying: Another main type of bullying? *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 49(2), 147–154. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9450.2007.00611.x>

Smith, P. K. (2017). Bullying and Theory of Mind: A Review. *Current Psychiatry Reviews*, 13(2). <https://doi.org/10.2174/1573400513666170502123214>

Smith, P. K., & Brain, P. (2000). Bullying in schools: Lessons from two decades of research. *Aggressive Behavior*, 26(1), 1–9. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1098-2337\(2000\)26:1<1::AID-AB1>3.0.CO;2-7](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1098-2337(2000)26:1<1::AID-AB1>3.0.CO;2-7)

Smith, P. K., Madsen, K. C., & Moody, J. C. (1999). What causes the age decline in reports of being bullied at school? Towards a developmental analysis of risks of being bullied. *Educational Research*, 41(3), 267–285. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0013188990410303>

Smith, R. G., & Gross, A. M. (2006). Bullying: Prevalence and the Effect of Age and Gender. *Child & Family Behavior Therapy*, 28(4), 13–37. https://doi.org/10.1300/J019v28n04_02

Smith, Y. A., Peter K. (1994). Bullying in Schools and the Issue of Sex Differences. In *Male Violence*. Routledge.

Smokowski, P. R., & Kopasz, K. H. (2005). Bullying in School: An Overview of Types, Effects, Family Characteristics, and Intervention Strategies. *Children & Schools*, 27(2), 101–110. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cs/27.2.101>

Sourander, A., Helstelä, L., Helenius, H., & Piha, J. (2000). Persistence of bullying from childhood to adolescence—A longitudinal 8-year follow-up study. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 24(7), 873–881. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0145-2134\(00\)00146-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0145-2134(00)00146-0)

Spriggs, A. L., Iannotti, R. J., Nansel, T. R., & Haynie, D. L. (2007). Adolescent Bullying Involvement and Perceived Family, Peer and School Relations: Commonalities and Differences Across Race/Ethnicity. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 41*(3), 283–293.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2007.04.009>

Stefanek, E., Strohmeier, D., Van De Schoot, R., & Spiel, C. (2011). Bullying and Victimization in Ethnically Diverse Schools: Risk and Protective Factors on the Individual and Class Level. *International Journal of Developmental Science, 5*(1–2), 73–84.
<https://doi.org/10.3233/DEV-2011-11073>

Stevens, S. K. (2006). *Bullying: The Student Perspective* [Miami University].
https://etd.ohiolink.edu/acprod/odb_etd/etd/r/1501/10?clear=10&p10_accession_num=miami1155927409

Strøm, I. F., Thoresen, S., Wentzel-Larsen, T., & Dyb, G. (2013). Violence, bullying and academic achievement: A study of 15-year-old adolescents and their school environment. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 37*(4), 243–251. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chab.2012.10.010>

Studer, J. R., & Mynatt, B. S. (2015). Bullying Prevention in Middle Schools: A Collaborative Approach: Collaborative, Proactive Anti-Bullying Interventions and Policies That Strive to Create and Sustain a Safe Environment for All Adolescents. *Middle School Journal, 46*(3), 25–32. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00940771.2015.11461912>

Stueve, A., Dash, K., O'Donnell, L., Tehranifar, P., Wilson-Simmons, R., Slaby, R. G., & Link, B. G. (2006). Rethinking the Bystander Role in School Violence Prevention. *Health Promotion Practice, 7*(1), 117–124. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524839905278454>

Sullivan, K. (2010). *The Anti-Bullying Handbook*. SAGE.

Syed, E. U., Hussein, S. A., Azam, S. I., & Khan, A. G. (2009). Comparison of Urdu version of Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) and the Child Behaviour Check List (CBCL) amongst primary school children in Karachi. *Journal of the College of Physicians and Surgeons--Pakistan: JCPSP*, 19(6), 375–379.

Thapa, A., Cohen, J., Guffey, S., & Higgins-D'Alessandro, A. (2013). A Review of School Climate Research. *Review of Educational Research*, 83(3), 357–385.
<https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654313483907>

The first generation of JHU PIRC preventive intervention trials: Methods and mea sures. (2006).
Johns Hopkins Prevention Intervention Research Center.

<https://publichealth.jhu.edu/center-for-prevention-and-early-intervention/data/first-generation/the-first-generation-of-jhu-pirc-preventive-intervention-trials>

Thornberg, R., Wänström, L., & Hymel, S. (2019). Individual and Classroom Social-Cognitive Processes in Bullying: A Short-Term Longitudinal Multilevel Study. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10.

<https://www.frontiersin.org/journals/psychology/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01752>

Thornberg, R., Wänström, L., & Jungert, T. (2018). Authoritative classroom climate and its relations to bullying victimization and bystander behaviors. *School Psychology International*, 39(6), 663–680. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0143034318809762>

Tippett, N., & Wolke, D. (2014). Socioeconomic status and bullying: A meta-analysis. *American Journal of Public Health*, 104(6). <https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2014.301960>

Tolan, P. H., Gorman-Smith, D., Huesmann, L. R., & Zelli, A. (1997). Assessment of family relationship characteristics: A measure to explain risk for antisocial behavior and

depression among urban youth. *Psychological Assessment*, 9(3), 212–223.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/1040-3590.9.3.212>

Trach, J., Hymel, S., Waterhouse, T., & Neale, K. (2010). Bystander Responses to School Bullying: A Cross-Sectional Investigation of Grade and Sex Differences. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology*, 25(1), 114–130.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0829573509357553>

Treadway, D. C., Shaughnessy, B. A., Breland, J. W., Yang, J., & Reeves, M. (2013). Political skill and the job performance of bullies. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 28(3), 273–289. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683941311321169>

Troop-Gordon, W., Frosch, C. A., Wienke Totura, C. M., Bailey, A. N., Jackson, J. D., & Dvorak, R. D. (2019). Predicting the development of pro-bullying bystander behavior: A short-term longitudinal analysis. *Journal of School Psychology*, 77, 77–89.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2019.10.004>

Troy, M., & Sroufe, L. A. (1987). Victimization Among Preschoolers: Role of Attachment Relationship History. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, 26(2), 166–172. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00004583-198703000-00007>

Tsaousis, I. (2016). The relationship of self-esteem to bullying perpetration and peer victimization among schoolchildren and adolescents: A meta-analytic review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 31, 186–199. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2016.09.005>

Tsimtsiou, Z., Haidich, A.-B., Drontsos, A., Dantsi, F., Sekeri, Z., Drosos, E., Trikilis, N., Dardavesis, T., Nanos, P., & Arvanitidou, M. (2018). Pathological Internet use, cyberbullying and mobile phone use in adolescence: A school-based study in Greece.

International Journal of Adolescent Medicine and Health, 30(6).

<https://doi.org/10.1515/ijamh-2016-0115>

Ttofi, M. M., Farrington, D. P., & Lösel, F. (2012). School bullying as a predictor of violence later in life: A systematic review and meta-analysis of prospective longitudinal studies. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 17(5)*, 405–418.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2012.05.002>

Unnever, J. D., & Cornell, D. G. (2004). Middle School Victims of Bullying: Who Reports Being Bullied? *Aggressive Behavior, 30(5)*, 373–388. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.20030>

Vaillancourt, T., Hymel, S., & McDougall, P. (2003). Bullying Is Power. *Journal of Applied School Psychology, 19(2)*, 157–176. https://doi.org/10.1300/J008v19n02_10

van Geel, M., Toprak, F., Goemans, A., Zwaanswijk, W., & Vedder, P. (2017). Are Youth Psychopathic Traits Related to Bullying? Meta-analyses on Callous-Unemotional Traits, Narcissism, and Impulsivity. *Child Psychiatry & Human Development, 48(5)*, 768–777.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10578-016-0701-0>

van Geel, M., Vedder, P., & Tanilon, J. (2014). Bullying and Weapon Carrying: A Meta-analysis. *JAMA Pediatrics, 168(8)*, 714–720.

<https://doi.org/10.1001/jamapediatrics.2014.213>

Vaughn, M. G., Fu, Q., Bender, K., DeLisi, M., Beaver, K. M., Perron, B. E., & Howard, M. O. (2010). Psychiatric Correlates of Bullying in the United States: Findings from a National Sample. *Psychiatric Quarterly, 81(3)*, 183–195. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11126-010-9128-0>

Veldkamp, S. A. M., Boomsma, D. I., De Zeeuw, E. L., Van Beijsterveldt, C. E. M., Bartels, M., Dolan, C. V., & Van Bergen, E. (2019). Genetic and Environmental Influences on

Different Forms of Bullying Perpetration, Bullying Victimization, and Their Co-occurrence. *Behavior Genetics*, 49(5), 432–443. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10519-019-09968-5>

Volk, A. A., Dane, A. V., & Marini, Z. A. (2014). What is bullying? A theoretical redefinition. *Developmental Review*, 34(4), 327–343. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dr.2014.09.001>

Walden, L. M., & Beran, T. N. (2010). Attachment Quality and Bullying Behavior in School-Aged Youth. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology*, 25(1), 5–18. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0829573509357046>

Walters, G. D. (2021). School-Age Bullying Victimization and Perpetration: A Meta-Analysis of Prospective Studies and Research. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 22(5), 1129–1139. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838020906513>

Wang, J., Iannotti, R. J., & Nansel, T. R. (2009). School Bullying Among Adolescents in the United States: Physical, Verbal, Relational, and Cyber. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 45(4), 368–375. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2009.03.021>

Wang, M.-T., & Degol, J. L. (2016). School Climate: A Review of the Construct, Measurement, and Impact on Student Outcomes. *Educational Psychology Review*, 28(2), 315–352. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-015-9319-1>

Wang, M.-T., L. Degol, J., Amemiya, J., Parr, A., & Guo, J. (2020). Classroom climate and children's academic and psychological wellbeing: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Developmental Review*, 57, 100912. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dr.2020.100912>

Wang, W., Vaillancourt, T., Brittain, H. L., McDougall, P., Krygsman, A., Smith, D., Cunningham, C. E., Haltigan, J. D., & Hymel, S. (2014). School climate, peer

victimization, and academic achievement: Results from a multi-informant study. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 29(3), 360–377. <https://doi.org/10.1037/spq0000084>

Warden, D., Cheyne, B., Christie, D., Fitzpatrick, H., & Reid, K. (2003). Assessing children's perceptions of prosocial and antisocial peer behaviour. *Educational Psychology*, 23(5), 547–567. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0144341032000123796>

Waters, E., Merrick, S., Treboux, D., Crowell, J., & Albersheim, L. (2000). Attachment security in infancy and early adulthood: A twenty-year longitudinal study. *Child Development*, 71(3), 684–689. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00176>

Waters, S., Lester, L., & Cross, D. (2014). How Does Support From Peers Compare With Support From Adults as Students Transition to Secondary School? *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 54(5), 543–549. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2013.10.012>

Whitney, I., & Smith, P. K. (1993). A survey of the nature and extent of bullying in junior/middle and secondary schools. *Educational Research*, 35(1), 3–25. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0013188930350101>

Williams, G. C., Battista, K., deGroh, M., Jiang, Y., Morrison, H., & Leatherdale, S. T. (2020). Longitudinal associations between bullying and alcohol use and binge drinking among grade 9 and 10 students in the COMPASS study. *Canadian Journal of Public Health = Revue Canadienne de Santé Publique*, 111(6), 1024–1032. <https://doi.org/10.17269/s41997-020-00319-0>

Wilson, M. L., Dunlavy, A. C., & Berchtold, A. (2013). Determinants for Bullying Victimization among 11–16-Year-Olds in 15 Low- and Middle-Income Countries: A Multi-Level Study. *Social Sciences*, 2(4), Article 4. <https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci2040208>

Wu, X., Qi, J., & Zhen, R. (2021). Bullying Victimization and Adolescents' Social Anxiety: Roles of Shame and Self-Esteem. *Child Indicators Research*, 14(2), 769–781.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12187-020-09777-x>

Yu, L., Li, X., Hu, Q., Guo, Z., Hong, D., Huang, Y., Xu, Y., Zhang, J., Xu, Q., & Jiang, S. (2023). School bullying and its risk and protective factors in Chinese early adolescents: A latent transition analysis. *Aggressive Behavior*, 49(4), 345–358.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.22080>

Yun, H.-Y., & Juvonen, J. (2020). Navigating the Healthy Context Paradox: Identifying Classroom Characteristics that Improve the Psychological Adjustment of Bullying Victims. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 49(11), 2203–2213.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-020-01300-3>

Zakaria, P., Md. Noor, A., Mohd Khir, A., Wan Jaafar, W. M., & Hassan, M. M. (2021). The Association between Family Relationship, Deviant Peer Socialization, Self-Concept and Aggressive Behavior among At-Risk Student in Selangor. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 11(12), Pages 601-617.
<https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v11-i12/11801>

Zedan, R. (2010). New dimensions in the classroom climate. *Learning Environments Research*, 13(1), 75–88. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10984-009-9068-5>

Zubair, F., Khan, M. I. H., Zulfiqar, M., & Shakeel, S. (2021). Anxiety and depression level in working mothers who leave their children at home as compared to those who leave them at day care. *The Professional Medical Journal*, 28(07), Article 07.
<https://doi.org/10.29309/TPMJ/2021.28.07.5844>

Zych, I., Ttofí, M. M., & Farrington, D. P. (2019). Empathy and Callous–Unemotional Traits in Different Bullying Roles: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 20(1), 3–21. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838016683456>

Annexure A

والدین/سرپرست کی رضامندی کا فارم

پی ایچ ڈی تحقیقی شمولیت

تحقیق کا عنوان

اسکول کے بچوں میں بُلینگ، وکٹمائزیشن اور تماشائیوں کے رویوں کا مطالعہ: ماحولیاتی عوامل کا کردار

تحقیق کار

صنم نواز

پروگرام

اسلام آباد، (NUML) پی ایچ ڈی (نفسیات/تعلیم) – نیشنل یونیورسٹی آف میڈین لینگویجز

تحقیق کا مقصد

آپ کے بچے کو ایک تحقیقی مطالعے میں شامل ہونے کی دعوت دی جا رہی ہے جس کا مقصد اسکول کے بچوں کے تجربات کو سمجھنا ہے جو بُلینگ، وکٹمائزیشن اور تماشائیوں کے رویے سے متعلق ہیں۔ یہ تحقیق یہ بھی جانچنے کی کوشش کرے گی کہ مختلف ماحولیاتی عوامل (جیسے خاندان، ہم جماعت، اساتذہ اور اسکول کا ماحول) ان تجربات کو کیسے متاثر کرتے ہیں۔ اس تحقیق کے نتائج اساتذہ، والدین اور پالیسی سازوں کو بہتر اقدامات کرنے میں مدد فراہم کریں گے تاکہ زیادہ محفوظ اور حوصلہ افزائی ماحول فراہم کیا جاسکے۔

شرکت میں کیا شامل ہوگا

- آپ کے بچے سے سوالنامے پُر کروائے جائیں گے اور/یا اسکول کے تجربات اور بُلینگ سے متعلق رہنمائی شدہ گفتگو میں حصہ لیا جائے گا۔
- یہ سرگرمیاں تقریباً 30 سے 45 منٹ تک جاری رہیں گی۔
- شرکت اسکول کے اوقات میں اور اسکول کی انتظامیہ کی اجازت سے ہوگی۔

رضاکارانہ شمولیت

شرکت مکمل طور پر رضاکارانہ ہے۔ آپ کا بچہ کسی بھی سوال کا جواب دینے سے انکار کر سکتا ہے یا کسی بھی وقت مطالعہ چھوڑ سکتا ہے، اس پر کسی قسم کا کوئی جرمانہ یا نقصان نہیں ہوگا۔ شرکت نہ کرنے کی صورت میں آپ کے بچے کی اسکول میں پوزیشن یا اساتذہ کے ساتھ تعلقات پر کوئی اثر نہیں پڑے گا۔

رازداری

تمام جوابات مکمل طور پر خفیہ رکھے جائیں گے اور صرف تحقیقی مقاصد کے لیے استعمال ہوں گے۔ کسی بھی مقالے، اشاعت یا پیشکش میں نام یا ذاتی معلومات ظاہر نہیں کی جائیں گی۔ اعداد و شمار محفوظ طریقے سے رکھے جائیں گے اور صرف محقق اور اس کے نگرانوں کو دستیاب ہوں گے۔

ممکنہ خطرات اور فوائد

خطرات: کچھ سوالات بچے کو ماضی کے منفی تجربات یاد دلا سکتے ہیں جن سے معمولی ذہنی دباؤ محسوس ہو سکتا ہے۔ آپ کا بچہ اپسے سوالات چھوڑ سکتا ہے جن کا جواب دینا اسے ناگوار لگے۔

فوائد: آپ کے بچے کی شرکت سے اس تحقیق کو فروغ ملے گا جو بُلینگ کے خلاف بہتر پالیسیوں اور محفوظ تعلیمی ماحول پیدا کرنے میں مددگار ثابت ہو سکتی ہے۔

رضامندی کا بیان

میں نے اوپر دی گئی معلومات کو پڑھا اور سمجھا ہے۔ میں جانتا/جانٹی ہوں کہ میرے بچے کی شرکت مکمل طور پر رضاکارانہ ہے اور میں کسی بھی وقت اپنے بچے کو تحقیق سے نکال سکتا/سکتی ہوں، اس پر کوئی جرمانہ نہیں ہوگا۔ میں اپنے بچے کو اس تحقیق میں شامل کرنے کی اجازت دیتا/دیتی ہوں۔

بچے کا نام:

والدین/سرپرست کا نام:

والدین/سرپرست کے دستخط:

تاریخ:

تحقیق کار سے رابطے کی معلومات

صنم نواز

اسسٹنٹ پرنسپل

پی ایچ ڈی اسکالر، شعبہ [آپ کا شعبہ]

اسلام آباد، (NUML) نیشنل یونیورسٹی آف مائڈرن لینگویجز

ای میل: sanam819@gmail.com

فون نمبر: 03315578833

Annexure B

تعارف نامہ

میں پی- ایچ- سائیکالوجی کی طالبہ ہوں اور اپنی نصابی ضرورت کے تحت ایک تحقیق کر رہی ہوں اس ضمن میں آپکو تحقیقی مقصد کے ڈی اس تحقیق کی تکمیل کے لیے مجھے آپکا تعاون درکار ہے میں آپ کو یقین دلاتی ہوں کہ آپ سے حاصل کردہ معلومات کو متعلق سوالنا سے حل کرنے ہوں گے آپ کو صیغہ راز میں رکھا جائے گا اور وہ تعلیمی / تحقیقی مقاصد کے لیے استعمال کی جائیں گی یقین دلایا جاتا ہے کہ آپ کو اس تحقیق سے کسی قسم کا جسمانی ، سماجی اور نفسیاتی گزند نہیں آپ کے پاس یہ اختیار ہے کہ آپ دوران تحقیق جب چاہیں خود کو اس تحقیق سے الگ کر پہنچے گا لیں

اگر آپ کو / آپ کے والدین / سر پرست اس تحقیق میں شمولیت پر رضامند ہیں اور اجازت نامہ مندرجہ بالا دی گئی ہدایات اور طریقہ پر کوئی اعتراض نہیں تو اپنے براہ مہربانی اپنے دستخط کر دیں۔

ذاتی کوائف:

عمر -----

جنس: لڑکا / لڑکی

جماعت -----

بہن بھائیوں کی تعداد :

بہن----- / بھائی-----

بہن بھائیوں میں آپ کی پیدائش کا نمبر -----

والدین کی ازدواجی حیثیت - شادی شدہ / طلاق یافته / عارضی علیحدگی / بیوہ / رنہ

والد کی تعلیم: -----

والدہ کی تعلیم -----

مابانہ آمدنی -----

خاندانی نظام: - علیحدہ / مشتر کہ

Annexure C

Child Reported Scales

Early Adolescent Temperament Questionnaire - Revised

(EATQ-R) Short Form

درجن ذیل میں ایسے بیانات دیے جا رہے ہیں جو لوگ خود کو بیان کرنے کے لیے استعمال کرتے ہیں۔ یہ بیانات بڑی تعداد میں رویوں اور سرگرمیوں کی نشاندہی کرتے ہیں۔ یہ چند سیچے گئے بیانات کے جوابات کے لیے اس پر دائرہ لگائیں جو آپ پر بہترین لائگو ہوتا ہے۔ ان میں کوئی جواب غلط یا صحیح نہیں ہے۔ لوگ ان بیانات کے حوالے سے اپنے احساسات میں ایک درسے سے بہت مختلف ہیں۔ برائے ہماری اس جواب پر دائرہ لگائیں جو آپ کو اپنے بارے میں بالکل صحیح لگاتا ہے۔

مکمل جوابات ہیں: 1) تقریباً بیش غلط 2) اکثر غلط 3) کبھی درست کبھی غلط 4) اکثر صحیح 5) تقریباً بیش صحیح

| نمبر شمار | بیانات | تقریباً بیش صحیح | تقریباً بیش غلط | کبھی درست کبھی غلط | اکثر غلط | کبھی درست | اکثر صحیح |
|-----------|---|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|----------|-----------|-----------|
| 1 | میرے لیے ہوم ورک کے مسائل پر توجہ دینا آسان ہے۔ | | | | | | |
| 2 | میں دن کے زیادہ تر حصے میں خوش رہتا/ رہتی ہوں۔ | | | | | | |
| 3 | میرے خیال میں کسی نئے شہر میں منتقل ہونا بہت دلچسپ ہو گا۔ | | | | | | |
| 4 | میں گرم چلتی ہوئی ہوا کوئی چہرے پر محسوں کرنا پسند کرتا/ اکرتی ہوں۔ | | | | | | |
| 5 | اگر میں کسی پر بہت غصہ ہوں تو میں ایسی باتیں کہہ جاتا/ جاتی ہوں جو میں جانتا/ جانتی ہوں کر ان کے احساسات کو مجرور کر سکیں۔ | | | | | | |
| 6 | میں اپنے اردوگرد ہونے والی معمولی تبدیلی کو بھی نوٹ کر لیتا/ لیتی ہوں۔ جیسے کہے کی لائسٹ تیز ہو جائے۔ | | | | | | |
| 7 | وقت پر کام کرنا میرے لیے مشکل ہے۔ | | | | | | |
| 8 | میں بعض خالف کے بیچوں کے ساتھ شرم محسوس کرتا/ اکرتی ہوں۔ | | | | | | |
| 9 | جب میں خستے میں ہوں تو چیزیں چھینکتا یا لاؤڑ دیتا/ دیتی ہوں۔ | | | | | | |
| 10 | مقررہ وقت سے پہلے تھا اکتف سکھونا میرے لیے مشکل ہوتا ہے۔ | | | | | | |
| 11 | میرے دوست میری نسبت کہیں زیادہ لطف اندازو ہوتے ہیں۔ | | | | | | |
| 12 | میں معمولی تبدیلی کو بھی بھانپ لیتا/ لیتی ہوں جو دوسرے لوگ نہیں بھانپتے۔ | | | | | | |
| 13 | اگر میں کسی پر داقی بہت غصہ ہو جاؤں تو شاید میں اسے مار دوں۔ | | | | | | |
| 14 | جب کوئی مجھ کی کام سے روکتا ہے تو میرے لیے اس کام سے رکنا آسان ہوتا ہے۔ | | | | | | |
| 15 | سنے لوگوں سے ملتے ہوئے مجھے شرم آتی ہے۔ | | | | | | |
| 16 | مجھے یوندوں کی چیزیں سننے میں لطف آتا ہے۔ | | | | | | |
| 17 | میں چاہتا/ چاہتی ہوں کہ میں اپنی بھی سوچیں (Private thoughts) کسی اور کے ساتھ پانٹنے کے قابل ہو جاؤں۔ | | | | | | |
| 18 | میں اپنا کام شروع کرنے سے پہلے کچھ دیر کے لیے کوئی پر لطف کام ضرور کرتا/ اکرتی ہوں حالانکہ جب بھی جب مجھا ایسا نہیں کرنا چاہیے۔ | | | | | | |

| نمبر شمار | بیانات | تقریباً بیانیہ | تقریباً بیانیہ | اکٹھنے کی سمجھی نیاز | بھی درست | اکٹھنے کی سمجھی نیاز | تقریباً بیانیہ | تقریباً بیانیہ |
|-----------|--|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------|----------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 45 | میں شرمیا/ شرمیلی ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 46 | میں سکول میں چند بچوں سے گھبرا آ گھرا تی ہوں جو دوسروں کو لا کر الماری میں دھکیل دیتے ہیں۔ آپ کی کہتا ہیں ادھر اور چھپک دیتے ہیں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 47 | میں جھنگلا ہست کا شکار ہو جاتا/ جاتی ہوں جب مجھے ایسے کام سے روکا جائے جس سے میں محفوظ ہو رہا/ رہی ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 48 | میں کوئی بھی ایسی چیز کرنے سے خوفزدہ نہیں ہوں گا/ گی جیسے پہاڑی چڑھتا۔ | | | | | | | |
| 49 | میں اپنے منصوبوں پر میں اس وقت کام کرنا چھوڑ دیتا/ دیتی ہوں جب وہ باکل تکمیل ہونے کے قریب ہوتے ہیں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 50 | جب میں واقعی دوستوں پر بہت غمہ ہوں تو میں ان پر بھت بڑتا/ بڑتی ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 51 | میں اپنے والدین کے مر جانے یا چھوڑ جانے کے خیال سے پریشان ہوتا/ ہوتی ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 52 | میں اسی بچہوں پر جانا پسند کرتا/ اکرتی ہوں جہاں بہت ہجوم ہو اور بہت زیادہ ہجوش و خروش پایا جاتا ہو۔ | | | | | | | |
| 53 | میں شرمیا/ شرمیلی نہیں ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 54 | میں خاصا پہ جو ش اور دوستائی مزاج کا/ کی حامل انسان ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 55 | میں اس وقت بھی ادا محسوس کرتا/ اکرتی ہوں جب میں لطف اندوڑ ہوتا چاہیے جیسے عین کے موقع پر کسی ترپ (Trip) کے موقع پر۔ | | | | | | | |
| 56 | لبی لائیں میں لگ کر انتفار کرنا مجھے واقعی غصہ دلاتا ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 57 | گھر کے اندر ہرے کمرے میں داخل ہونے سے میں اکثر خوف محسوس کرتا/ اکرتی ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 58 | میں بغیر کسی وجہ کے لوگوں کو اذیت پہنچاتا/ پہنچاتی ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 59 | جب کوئی مجھے ہتا ہے کہ کوئی کام کیسے کر رہا ہے تو میں اس پر یورنی توجہ دیتا/ دیتی ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 60 | میں بہت مایوس ہو جاتا/ جاتی ہوں جب میں اپنے سکول کے کام میں غلطی کرتا/ اکرتی ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 61 | میں ایک کام شروع کرتا/ اکرتی ہوں لیکن پھر اسے درمیان میں چھوڑ کر کوئی دوسرا کام کرنے لگتا/ اکرتی ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 62 | جب لوگ مجھے بات کرتے ہوئے نوکیں تو میں جھنگلا جاتا/ جاتی ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 63 | میں اپنے منصوبوں اور متصادیہ قائم روکتا/ اکرتی ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 64 | میں پریشان ہو جاتا/ جاتی ہوں اگر میں دیے گئے کام کو بہتر طریقے سے کرنے کے قابل نہ ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 65 | مجھے خداں رسیدہ پتوں کی چیختی آواز پسند ہے۔ | | | | | | | |

SB School Attitudes

گزرے ہوئے سال پر غور کیجیے اور ہمیں بتائیے کہ آپ ہر بیان کے متعلق کیا رائے رکھتے ہیں اور جواب سے قریب تر دائرہ پر نشان لگادیں۔ اور کوشش کریں کہ آپ کا جواب ایمانداری پر منی ہو اور سچا ہو اور وہ نہ ہو جو آپ کے دل میں ہم سننا چاہتے ہیں۔ اگر آپ کی کوئی رائے نہیں یا آپ کچھ نہیں کہہ سکتے تو سوال کو غالی چھوڑیں بغیر نشان لگائیں۔

| نمبر/ٹھہر | ہیئتات | بہت زیادہ متقن | غیر متقن | بہت زیادہ غیر متقن |
|-----------|---|-------------------|----------|-----------------------|
| 1 | میں اسکول میں اپنے زیادہ تر استادوں کو پسند کرتا / کرتی ہوں۔ | | | |
| 2 | جب میں محنت کرتا ہوں تو میرے اساتذہ میری تعریف کرتے ہیں۔ | | | |
| 3 | مجھے اسکول میں کوئی دلچسپی نہیں ہے۔ | | | |
| 4 | میرے اسکول میں مزراو یعنی کاطریتہ شیک ہے۔ | | | |
| 5 | میں اسکول کے دوران کلاس میں چھوڑ دیتا / دیتی ہوں۔ | | | |
| 6 | مجھے اسکول میں بڑا مزرا آتا ہے۔ | | | |
| 7 | میں اسکول میں اپنے آپ کو محفوظ محسوس کرتا / / کرتی ہوں۔ | | | |
| 8 | میں اسکول میں اچھے گریدیتہ / لیتی ہوں۔ | | | |
| 9 | میں پراؤں اسکول سے غائب رہتا / رہتی ہوں۔ | | | |
| 10 | میری زیادہ کلاس میں پور کرنے والی ہوتی ہیں۔ | | | |
| 11 | میرے استاد اس بات کا خیال رکھتے ہیں کہ میں (پڑھائی میں) کیسا جاہرا / رہتی ہوں۔ | | | |
| 12 | میں اپنی کلاسوں میں بہت کچھ سیکھتا / سیکھتی ہوں۔ | | | |
| 13 | اسکول میں ایک بڑی عمر کا آدمی ہے جس سے میں اپنے سائل پر بات کر سکتا / سکتی ہوں۔ | | | |
| 14 | میں اپنے اساتذہ کی عنعت کرتا / کرتی ہوں۔ | | | |
| 15 | میں اسکول کے بجائے گھر رہنے کی کوشش کرتا / کرتی ہوں۔ | | | |
| 16 | میں اسکول چھوڑنے کے لیے زیادہ انتظار نہیں کر سکتا / سکتی۔ | | | |
| 17 | اسکول میں میرا وقت ضائع ہوتا ہے۔ | | | |
| 18 | میرے اساتذہ مجھے یہ بتاتے رہتے ہیں کہ مجھے کیا کرنا چاہیے۔ | | | |
| 19 | میرے اساتذہ مجھے سمجھتے ہیں۔ | | | |
| 20 | میرے اساتذہ مجھ سے بہت زیادہ امیدیں رکھتے ہیں۔ | | | |

FAMILY RELATIONS SCALE

خاندانی تعلقات کا پیشہ (بچہ)

میں آپ سے آپ کے اور آپ کے خاندان کے بارے میں کچھ سوال کروں گی۔ جملہ پڑھنے کے بعد برائے میر بانی مجھے تائیں کہ آپ اس جملے کی پر زور دئیں ہیں، صرف تائید، اختلاف یا پر زور اختلاف کرتے ہیں، میر بانی ان کے جواب کی ترجیح کے دائرے کو جتنا جلدی ممکن ہو سکے تک پر کرے۔

| نمبر شمار | بیانات | پر زور اخلاف | صرف ادیاف | تائید احیا | حایات احیا | پر زور |
|-----------|--|--------------|-----------|------------|------------|--------|
| 1 | میر اخاندان بھائے بہت زیادہ تو قریح کرتا ہے۔ | | | | | |
| 2 | میر اخاندان جانتا ہے کہ میر اکیا مطلب ہے جب میں کچھ کہتا ہوں۔ | | | | | |
| 3 | میر اخاندان میری پر وادیں کرتا ہے۔ | | | | | |
| 4 | میں اکثر یہیں کچھ پاتا کہ خاندان کے دوسرے افراد کیا کہدا ہے ہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 5 | اگر خاندان میں کسی نے پریشان کیا ہے تو میں اسے اپنے تک میں رکھتا ہوں۔ | | | | | |
| 6 | مجھے خاندان کی مشکل کے حوالے سے کسی اور کا جواب منظور کرنے میں مشکل پڑتی ہے۔ | | | | | |
| 7 | کبھی کبھار سکول سے غیر حاضر ہونے میں کوئی حرج نہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 8 | میر اخاندان مجھے دیا نہیں بنے دیتا جیسا میں ہوں۔ | | | | | |
| 9 | میرے اور میرے خاندان کے صحیح اور غلط کے تعلق ایک جیسے خیالات ہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 10 | خاندان کے سائل کے لیے مجھے مور دلار امتحان ہائے جانے سے میں تھک جاتا ہوں۔ | | | | | |
| 11 | اگر کوئی شخص آپ یا آپ کے خاندان کے بارے میں ہری باتیں کہتا ہے تو اس سے اڑائی کرنے میں کوئی حرج نہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 12 | میرے اور میرے خاندان کے کامیاب ہونے کے بارے میں ایک جیسے خیالات ہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 13 | جب خاندان میں دوسرے مجھے بات کرنا چاہیں تو میں ہمیشہ مستحبہ رہتا ہوں۔ | | | | | |
| 14 | میں سنتا ہوں کہ دوسرے لوگ کیا کہنا چاہتے ہیں اگرچہ میں اختلاف کیوں نہ کرتا ہوں۔ | | | | | |
| 15 | کسی امیر آدمی کی کوئی ایسی چیز چرانے میں کوئی برائی نہیں ہے وہ دوبارہ خرید سکتا ہو۔ | | | | | |
| 16 | خاندان کے افراد ایک دوسرے سے مدد مانگتے رہتے ہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 17 | خاندان کے افراد ایک دوسرے کے ماتحت فارغ وفت گزارہ بند کرتے ہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 18 | خاندان کے افراد ایک دوسرے کے بہت قریب محسوس کرتے ہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 19 | ہمارے خاندان میں بچے فیصلہ کرتے ہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 20 | ہم آسانی سے ان چیزوں کے بارے میں سوچ لیتے ہیں نہیں، ہم اپنے خاندان اکھر کئے ہیں۔ | | | | | |

| نمبر شمار | بیانات | پر زور اختلاف | صرف اختلاف | تائید/ہمایت | ہمایت/تائید |
|-----------|---|---------------|------------|-------------|-------------|
| 21 | ہمارے خاندان میں سر برہان کو شناخت کرنا مشکل ہے۔ | | | | |
| 22 | یہ بتانا مشکل ہے کہ کون گھر کے کون سے کام کرتا ہے۔ | | | | |
| 23 | میں اپنے خاندان سے لڑنے کے بعد اکثر ابھی بھار سر دردار دوسرے درد، ہمکایف محسوس کرتا / کرتی ہوں۔ | | | | |
| 24 | میں بھی بھار کسی چیز کو کرنے سے بچنے کے لیے بیماری کا سہارا لیتی / لیتا ہوں۔ | | | | |
| 25 | اپنے آپ کو مشکل سے بچانے کے لیے جھوٹ بولنے میں کوئی حرج نہیں۔ | | | | |
| 26 | خاندان کا اکٹھا ہونا بہت ضروری ہے۔ | | | | |
| 27 | بچوں کو اپنے خاندان کے ساتھ قریبی تھاں کو اہمیت دیتی چاہیے اور انہیں گھر پر وقت گزارنے کے بارے میں کہنے کی نوبت نہیں آئی چاہیے۔ | | | | |
| 28 | کچھ بھی ہو جائے خاندان کے افراد کو ایک دوسرے کے ساتھ جڑے رہنا چاہیے۔ | | | | |
| 29 | خاندان کے افراد میں اپنے خیالات ایک دوسرے سے باٹھنی قابلیت ہوں چاہیے | | | | |
| 30 | والدین کو اپنے بچوں کو سکھانا چاہیے کہ اس دنیا میں اپنا آپ ہنانے کے لیے انہیں کیا جانا ضروری ہے۔ | | | | |
| 31 | بچوں کو بیشہ ادب کے ساتھ اپنے والدین سے بات کرنی چاہیے۔ | | | | |
| 32 | بچوں کو اپنے والدین کا فرمانبردار ہونا چاہیے اس وقت بھی جب وہ اختلاف کریں۔ | | | | |
| 33 | والدین کو اس عمر کے بچوں سے توقع رکھنی چاہیے کہ وہ گھر کا بچہ کام کروائیں گے۔ | | | | |
| 34 | آپ کی عمر کے بچوں کو اپنے گھر میں فون کرنا چاہیے اگر ان کے خیال میں انہیں دیر ہو جائے گی۔ | | | | |
| 35 | آپ کی عمر کے بچوں کو کسی کے کہے بغیر خود اپنی صفائی کرنی چاہیے۔ | | | | |

Forms of Bullying Scale (Perpetration version)

| نمبر شمار | سوالات | متفق | متافق | پتہ نہیں | غیر متفق | بہت زیادہ غیر متفق |
|-----------|---|------|-------|----------|----------|--------------------|
| 1 | میں دوسروں کو برمی طرح چھیڑتا ہوں۔ | | | | | |
| 2 | میں دوسروں کو تکلیف دینے کے لیے ان کے بارے میں راز دوسروں کو بتاتا ہوں۔ | | | | | |
| 3 | میں دوسروں کو تکلیف دیتا ہوں اور انکی دوستی توڑنے کی کوشش کرتا ہوں۔ | | | | | |
| 4 | میں جان بوجھ کر دوسروں کو دُڑ راتا دھمکاتا ہوں۔ | | | | | |
| 5 | میں جان بوجھ کر دوسروں کو جسمانی طور اور یا ان کے خلاف دوسروں کو اکٹھا کر کے ٹنگ کرتا ہوں۔ | | | | | |
| 6 | میں برمی طرح دوسروں کے نام بگاڑتا ہوں۔ | | | | | |
| 7 | میں دوسروں کو کہتا ہوں کہ ان کو اس وقت تک پسند نہیں کروں گا جب تک وہ میری مرضی کے کام نہیں کریں گے۔ | | | | | |
| 8 | میں دوسروں کو گوپ سے نکال کر یا اکیلا کر کے تکلیف پہنچاتا ہوں۔ | | | | | |
| 9 | میں جان بوجھ کر دوسروں کی چیزوں کو خراب ہتا یا چوری کرتا ہوں۔ | | | | | |
| 10 | میں دوسروں کی دوستیاں خراب کرنے کے لیے ان کے خلاف جھوٹ اور غلط باتیں پھیلاتا ہوں۔ | | | | | |

Forms of Bullying Scale

(Victimization version)

| نمبر شمار | سوالات | متفق | متفق | پتہ نہیں | غیر متفق | بہت زیادہ غیر متفق | بہت زیادہ |
|-----------|---|------|------|----------|----------|--------------------|-----------|
| 1 | مجھے بُری طرح چیزیں اجاہتی ہیں۔ | | | | | | |
| 2 | مجھے تکلیف دینے کے لیے میرے بارے میں راز دوسروں کو بتائے جاتے ہیں۔ | | | | | | |
| 3 | دوسرے مجھے ڈکھ دیتے ہیں اور دوستی توڑنے کی کوشش کرتے ہیں۔ | | | | | | |
| 4 | مجھے بلا وجہ ڈرایا اور دھرم کایا جاتا ہے۔ | | | | | | |
| 5 | مجھے جان بوجھ کر جسمانی طور پر اور یا اکھی ہو کر تکلیف دی جاتی ہے۔ | | | | | | |
| 6 | مجھے بُرے طریقے سے مختلف ناموں سے چیزیں اجاہتی ہیں۔ | | | | | | |
| 7 | دوسرے مجھے کہتے ہیں کہ جب تک میں ان کی مرضی کے کام نہیں کر دیں گا اور مجھے پسند نہیں کریں گے۔ | | | | | | |
| 8 | میری چیزوں کو جان بوجھ کر خراب، تباہ اور چوری کیا جاتا ہے۔ | | | | | | |
| 9 | دوسرے مجھے گروپ سے نکال کر یا اکیلا کر کے تکلیف پہنچاتے ہیں۔ | | | | | | |
| 10 | میرے بارے میں جھوٹ بول کر یا ناٹ باتیں پھیلا کر میرے دوستوں کے مجھے سے دور کرنے کی کوشش کی جاتی ہے۔ | | | | | | |

Bystander Intervention Model

| نمبر شمار | سوالات | متفرق | متفرق | پتہ نہیں | غیر متفرق | بہت زیادہ | غیر متفرق | بہت زیادہ |
|-----------|---|-------|-------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 1 | میرے سکول میں دھونس جانا ایک مسئلہ ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 2 | میرے سکول میں بچوں پر دھونس جانا جاتی ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 3 | اس سال میں نے دیکھا کہ سکول میں بچوں پر دھونس جانا گئی۔ | | | | | | | |
| 4 | جب ایک بچہ پر دھونس جانا جاتی ہے تو اسے مدد کی ضرورت ہوتی ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 5 | بڑے انتظام دوسروں کے احساسات کو محروم کرتے تھیں بے شک وہ مزاج میں ہی ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 6 | میرے خیال میں غندہ گردہ تکنیف ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 7 | میرے خیال میں یہ میرے اپر ہے کہ میں غندہ گردی کو روک سکوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 8 | حتیٰ کہ میں دوسروں پر دھونس نہیں جاتا لیکن پچھلی یہ مچھ پر ہے کہ میں اسے روکوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 9 | مجھے یقین ہے کہ میرے کام غندہ گردی کو روکنے میں مدد کر سکتے ہیں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 10 | میرے اندر یہ ہے کہ میں ایک طالب علم کی مدد کروں جب اس پر دھونس جانا جائے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 11 | مجھے معلوم ہے کہ کسی کو دوسرا پر غندہ گردی کرنے سے روکنے کے لیے کیا کہنا ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 12 | میں دوسروں کو غندہ گردی کی حالت سے نکالنے میں مدد کر سکتا ہوں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 13 | میں اپنے دوستوں کو برا کام کرتے ہوئے دیکھوں یا سنوں تو انکو روکوں گا۔ | | | | | | | |
| 14 | میں کسی کو دوسرا کے ساتھ را کرتے دیکھوں تو اسے کچھ بھوں گا۔ | | | | | | | |
| 15 | میں اپنے دوست کو دوسروں کے بارے میں بڑی باقی کرنے سے روکوں گا۔ | | | | | | | |
| 16 | انگریز میں کسی انجام بچہ پر دھونس جتے دیکھوں گا تو اس کی مدد کروں گا۔ | | | | | | | |

Annexure D

Parent Reported Scales

مہدوں اور مشکلات کا سوالانہ (Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire) (URDU)

برہنی پڑتے، براہ کرم درست نہیں ہے، بلکہ درست ہے یا بیٹا درست ہے کے ماننے میں نکاح نکالیں۔ اس سے، بیٹیں خود لگتی ہیں اگر آپ نامہ بخوبی ملھیں تو اسے بخوبی دے گی۔ اسی سے، بیٹیں خود لگتی ہیں اگر آپ نامہ بخوبی ملھیں تو اسے بخوبی دے گی۔

بیویوں کے لئے آپ کو بالکل بخوبی دیں۔ بیوی بخوبی آپ کو اعتماد نہ فراہم کرے! براہ کرم جوابات دلچسپ، بخوبیوں کے دروان اپنے بیوی کے رودی کی میاد پر رون۔

آپ کے لئے نامہ: -----

نامہ پیدائش: -----

درست نہیں ہے بلکہ درست ہے بیٹا درست ہے

| | | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | دوسرا لوگوں کے احساسات کا خیال رکھنے والا |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | بے آرام، خود رست سے زیادہ مھر تلا، ایک بند پر نیادہ دری کیلئے نہیں فہر سکتا |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | اکثر درد و بیٹھ میں درد یا احتیاط یا یقینے آنے کی شکایت کرتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | دوسرا لوگوں کے ساتھ خوشی سے بیرونی بانٹ کر مکھیا ہے (بیرونی بھٹکنے، بھیلنے وغیرہ) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | اکثر غیظ و غصہ دلکے حرخان یا گرم مزاح کا ظاہرہ کرتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | ندرستے ہیں اسے ہے، ایکیلے اکھیا ہمہ کرتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | عام طور پر بے امانتا ہے، عموماً باعث افراد جو کرنے کیلئے کہہ ہیں کرتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | بہت سی پریشانیاں ہیں، اکثر پریشان نہ فراہم کرتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | اگر کسی کو جو ٹھنڈا ہے، پریشان یا ہمہار گوس کر رہا ہو تو مدد کرتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | مسئلے پر قرار پا لے سکتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | اس کا کم از کم ایک امداد و سوت / ایسیلی ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | اکثر دوسرا لوگوں کے ساتھ لڑتا ہے یا دھکیاں دیتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | اکثر ناخوش، بے دل یا امبارہ ہوتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | عام طور پر اسے دوسرا پیچے ملکہ کرتے ہیں |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | بے اسانی تو بدھیر لتا، بھوکی تو بدھن لیتا، بھکٹ کھاتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | نہ ماحول میں مگر اپنا یادت ہاتا ہے، اشتادار ایساں کو نہ دیتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | خوبیے لوگوں کے ساتھ رہم دل ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | اکثر خصوت بولتا ہے یا دھوکے بازی کر جاتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | دوسرا بیٹے اس کو نشانہ بناتے یا دھکیاں دیتے ہیں |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | دوسرا لوگوں کی مدد کرنے کیلئے اکثر اپنی خدمات بھیش کرتا ہے (والدین، اساتذہ، دوسرا بیٹے) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | مل کرنے سے پہلے جزوں پر غور کرتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | گھر، سکول یا کسی اور بھگتے چوری کرتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | دوسرا لوگوں کے مقابلے میں باعث افراد کے ساتھ بھر دوستی بنا سکتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | بہت سے خوف، ایساں اور ہاتا ہے |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | کام کو ختم کرنے کے لئے نہیں مصروف ہے، تو دیتے کی مدت اونچی ہے |

براہ کرم ورق ایس۔ دوسرا طرف تھوڑے سے اور سوالات میں

Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ)
(Parent Form)

ہدایات: درج ذیل بیانات آپ کے خاندان کے متعلق ہیں۔ برائے مہربانی جو باتیں آپ کے خاندان میں خاص طور پر پائی جاتی ہیں ان کی نشاندہی کریجی۔

نکش جوابات ہیں 1) کبھی نہیں 2) بہت ہی کم 3) کبھی کبھار 4) اکثر اوقات 5) بہت

| نمبر شمار | سوالات | نیشن بیش اکثر کبھی کبھار بہت ہی کم نہیں | بہت اوقات کبھار |
|--------------|---|--|-----------------------|
| 1 | آپ اپنے بچے سے دوستائے گفتوگ کرتے ہیں۔ | | |
| 2 | آپ اپنے بچے کو سراہتے ہیں جب وہ کوئی اچھا کام کرتا ہے۔ | | |
| 3 | آپ اپنے بچے کو سزا کی دھمکی دیجیں ہیں مگر اصل میں اسے سزا نہیں دیتے۔ | | |
| 4 | آپ رضاکارانہ طور پر اپنے بچے کی خاص کاموں میں مدد کرتے ہیں۔ مثلاً کھلیل، سکاؤٹ، نہ ہی سرگرمیاں وغیرہ۔ | | |
| 5 | آپ اپنے بچے کے اچھے بڑاؤ کے بدالے میں اسے انعام دیتے ہیں یا کچھ اور خاص کرتے ہیں۔ | | |
| 6 | آپ کا بچہ آپ کے لیے کوئی نوث نہیں چھوڑتا یا آپ کو نہیں بتاتا کہ وہ کہاں جا رہا ہے۔ | | |
| 7 | آپ اپنے بچے کے ساتھ گیمز کھیلتے ہیں یا کوئی اور تفریحی کام میں حصہ لیتے ہیں۔ | | |
| 8 | آپ کا بچہ سزا ہو جانے کے ذر کے باوجود آپ کو بتا دیتا ہے کہ اس نے کچھ غلط کر دیا ہے۔ | | |
| 9 | آپ اپنے بچے سے پوچھتے ہیں کہ اسکوں میں اس کا دن کیسا گزرا۔ | | |
| 10 | آپ کا بچہ شام کو درستک بہر رہتا ہے یعنی اس وقت تک جب اسے گھر پر ہونا چاہیے۔ | | |
| 11 | آپ اپنے بچے کا ہوم ورک کرنے میں مدد کرتے ہیں۔ | | |
| 12 | آپ محض کرتے ہیں کہ اپنے بچے کو فرمائیں اور بہنہ بہت مشکل کام ہے۔ | | |
| 13 | آپ اپنے بچے کی تعریف کرتے ہیں جب وہ کوئی اچھا کام کرتا ہے۔ | | |
| 14 | آپ اپنے بچے سے اس کے آئندہ آنے والے دن کے معاملات کے بارے میں پوچھتے ہیں۔ | | |
| 15 | آپ اپنے بچے کو خاص سرگرمی (Special Activity) کے لیے لیکر جاتے ہیں۔ | | |
| 16 | آپ اپنے بچے کے اچھے رویے پر اسکی تعریف کرتے ہیں۔ | | |
| 17 | آپ نہیں جانتے کہ آپ کا بچہ کن دوستوں کے ساتھ بہر جاتا ہے۔ | | |
| 18 | آپ اپنے بچے کو گلے گلے یا پیار کرتے ہیں جب وہ کچھ اچھا کرتا ہے۔ | | |
| 19 | آپ کا بچہ گھر سے بہر جاتے وقت والی کی کے وقت کا تعین نہیں کرتا۔ | | |
| 20 | آپ اپنے بچے سے اس کے دوستوں کے متعلق بات کرتے ہیں۔ | | |
| 21 | آپ کا بچہ رات کے وقت کسی بڑے کو ہراہ لیے بغیر بہر جاتا ہے۔ | | |

| نمبر شمار | سوالات | ہدایت ہدایت | اکثر اوقات | کمی کمی | بہت عی کم | کمی نہیں |
|--------------|--|----------------|---------------|------------|--------------|-------------|
| 22 | آپ اپنے بچے کو مقرر و وقت سے پہلے سزا سے چھوٹ دیتے ہیں (مثلاً اپنے مقرر کر دو وقت سے پہلے پابندیاں اٹھاتے ہیں) | | | | | |
| 23 | آپ کا بچہ فیلی کی سرگرمیاں Plan کرنے میں آپ کی مدد کرتا ہے۔ | | | | | |
| 24 | آپ اتنے مصروف ہو جاتے ہیں کہ یہ بھی بھول جاتے ہیں کہ آپ کا بچہ کہاں ہے اور کیا کر رہا ہے۔ | | | | | |
| 25 | آپ اپنے بچے کو سزا نہیں دیتے جب وہ کچھ غلط کر دیتا ہے۔ | | | | | |
| 26 | آپ اپنے بچے کے اسکول کی میٹنگ (Meeting) میں جاتے ہیں مثلاً Parent Teacher Meeting یا دوسری میٹنگز میں۔ | | | | | |
| 27 | آپ اپنے بچے سے اپنی پسندیدگی کا اظہار کرتے ہیں جب کہ گھر کے کاموں میں مدد کرتا ہے۔ | | | | | |
| 28 | آپ چیک (Check) نہیں کرتے کہ آپ کا بچہ اس وقت تک گھر آ جاتا ہے جس وقت تک اُسے آ جانا چاہیے۔ | | | | | |
| 29 | آپ اپنے بچے کو نہیں بتاتے کہ آپ کہاں جا رہے ہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 30 | امید کے بر عکس آپ کا بچہ اسکول سے تقریباً ایک گھنٹہ دیرے گھر آ جاتا ہے۔ | | | | | |
| 31 | آپ اپنے بچے کو اپنے موڑ کے مطابق سزا دیتے ہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 32 | آپ کا بچہ کسی بڑے کی سرپرستی کے بغیر گھر میں اکیلا ہوتا ہے۔ | | | | | |
| 33 | آپ اپنے بچے کے ہاتھ پہنچی کرتے ہیں جب وہ کچھ غلط کر دیتا ہے۔ | | | | | |
| 34 | بد تیزی کرنے پر آپ اپنے بچے کو نظر انداز کر دیتے ہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 35 | آپ اپنے بچے کو تھیڑا راتے ہیں جب وہ کچھ غلط کر دیتا ہے۔ | | | | | |
| 36 | سزا کے طور پر اپنے بچے سے سیپیا کی اور سر اعانت داہیں لیتے ہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 37 | آپ سزا کے طور پر اپنے بچے کو کمرے میں بیٹھ دیتے ہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 38 | آپ بچے کو بیلٹ یا کسی اور چیز سے مارتے ہیں جب وہ کچھ غلط کر دیتا ہے۔ | | | | | |
| 39 | جب آپ کا بچہ کچھ غلط کر دیتا ہے تو آپ ٹھیکنے اور چلاتے ہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 40 | جب آپ کا بچہ بد تیزی کرتا ہے تو آپ اپنے بچے کو ٹھیک سے سمجھاتے ہیں کہ جو رویہ اس کا تھا اس میں کیا غلطی ہے۔ | | | | | |
| 41 | آپ سزا کے طور پر بچے کو ایک کونے میں کھڑا ہونے یا میٹھے کو کہہ دیتے ہیں۔ | | | | | |
| 42 | سزا کے طور پر آپ اپنے بچے سے زیادہ کام کر داتے ہیں۔ | | | | | |

Annexure E

Teacher Reported Scales

TEACHER OBSERVATION OF CHILD ADAPTATION REVISED (TOCA-R)

ہدایات: اس بچے کے ساتھ اپنے تجربے کی بنیاد پر برائے مہربانی سکیل کی پوری ریٹچ استعمال کریں اور مناسب ترین جواب کے نیچے دیے گئے دائرے کو پر کریں۔

| نمبر شمار | بیانات | تقریباً بہبیش | زیادہ تر | اکثر | کم | کم بھی بکھار | تقریباً کم بھی نہیں | بہت کم |
|-----------|--|---------------|----------|------|----|--------------|---------------------|--------|
| 1 | اسائنسٹ مکمل کرتا ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 2 | دوستانہ رو یہ ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 3 | ضدی ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 4 | تو امین توڑتا ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 5 | دوسروں کو لفڑان پہنچاتا ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 6 | چیزیں توڑتا ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 7 | دوسروں کی جائیداد غصب کرتا ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 8 | خود پر بھروسہ رکھتا ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 9 | اڑائی جھگڑا کرتا ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 10 | چھوٹ بولتا ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 11 | حاکیت کو تسلیم کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے نافرمان ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 12 | ہم جماعتوں کو نیگ کرتا ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 13 | اپنے کام پر بکھار ہتا ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 14 | دوسروں پر چلاتا ہے۔ | | | | | | | |
| 15 | ہم جماعت اسے پسند کرتے ہیں۔ | | | | | | | |
| 16 | ہم جماعت اسے ناپسند کرتے ہیں۔ | | | | | | | |

Annexure F

T

Ther... Dec 22, 2020 😊 ⏪ ...
to me, Donna ^

Dear Sanam

Apologies for the long delay in replying to you.

You are most welcome to use and translate the Forms of Bullying Scale (FBS) for your research as long as you reference the scale appropriately in all research reports and articles (by citing our journal article). See the attached document for the wording of the items and a definition of bullying, which we recommend you include prior to the FBS. If you include illustrations with your definition such as those attached, please ensure they are culturally appropriate for the population being surveyed.

N

Nicke... Dec 6, 2020 😊 ⏪ ...
to me ▾

Hello,

Thank you for your interest in this scale. Yes, you have permission to translate it for your work. I have attached information about the scale, including adaptations that have been made for the age of students you wish to study. I hope this helpful and best of luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Amanda