

Department of education

## **Being bullied, quality of life and gender**

*A quantitative study of students at lower secondary school on bullying and self-perceived quality of life*

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# Preface

Imagine a day where everybody treats you like air; when you come to work no one looks at you, greets you or smile at you. Imagine being neglected, if you enter a group they turn their back to you, when you walk into a room they stop talking, they would laugh while looking at something on the mobile-phone, but when you approach they would switch off the device and walk away. Imagine sitting alone eating your lunch while the other gives you looks and laugh. Picture yourself never being invited to have a beer with your colleagues after work, and worse being invited but not spoken to or even worse ending up there alone because the rest did not show up. And then imagine this go on for weeks, months or even years. This is the situation for many students at school. We have heard numerous stories about children and youth who have been bullied.

As a teacher, I have interacted with students who have been exposed to bullying; they have been bullied, have bullied other or been bystanders. This has made a great impact on me. I find it hard and devastating to deal with this issue, because this affects so many people, both they who are involved and those who are close to them.

When I decided to do a master-thesis on bullying, I was lucky enough to be invited to take part in the project “Trivsel i Tromsø” (Well-being in Tromsø), and was fortunate enough to be involved by all the members in the project. The main project started in 2013, and my master thesis is the first one based in data from this project. Being an almost full time teacher while working on this thesis has been a challenge, but an interest and urge to gain more knowledge upon this interesting and important topic has kept me going. Therefore, I want to express my gratitude to my supervisor, Steinar Thorvaldsen, and also John Rønning, who gave me the opportunity to conduct this research for my master thesis. Your enthusiasm and support have been extremely valuable.

I also want to thank Gunstein Egeberg, for his contribution to this work, as well as my fellow students at the University of Tromsø.

Thanks to the schools involved, this made it possible to conduct this study. Thanks to the teachers, parents, students and principal who supported me and answered the questionnaire.

Finally, I want to thank my family for being endlessly patient with me during the time it took to complete this work. Kåre; I could not have asked for a better companion than you, this would not have been completed without your contribution and support.



# Summary

The subject of this thesis is bullying, with the title “Being bullied, quality of life and gender”. The thesis is related to the project “Trivsel i Tromsø” (TiT) (Well-being in Tromsø), which is managed by The Department of Education at the University of Tromsø.

Research on bullying in Scandinavia, has been going on for several decades, and is a topic that appears in new frames and forms. Bullying is a phenomenon of great importance, as it seems to affect particularly children and adolescents in a negative manner.

Research concerning quality of life (QoL) among healthy adolescents is in an early stage, therefore the number of articles regarding QoL and bullying are relatively few. Initially I present reviews regarding QoL, done by Crick et al. (1996, 2003), Frisch (2013), Friséen et al. (2010), Flaspohler et al. (2009) and Huebner (2004).

Furthermore I present a review on the research of traditional and cyberbullying particularly done in Norway by Olweus (1993, 2013) and Roland (2014), and in the western part of the world by Arora (1994, 1999), Kowalski et al. (2012), Menesini (2012) Smith et al. (2002, 2004, 2006, 2008), Ybarra et al. (2012), and Wang et al. (2010, 2012) .

It has been developed a questionnaire within the frame of the TiT-project, which has been answered by pupils, their teachers and parents at 6 schools in Tromsø. This questionnaire included both a standardized “Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire” (SDQ) (Goodman 1999, Rønning, Handegaard et al. 2004) and quality of life (QoL) questionnaire called KINDL<sup>R</sup> (Ravens-Sieberer and Bullinger 2000, Jozefiak, Larsson et al. 2008). It also includes a separate section of questions considering traditional and cyberbullying (Arora 1994, Rønning, Handegaard et al. 2004, Menesini, Nocentini et al. 2011). Based on this combined questionnaire, I have performed various quantitative analyses using the software “Statistical Package for Social Sciences” (SPSS), but the SDQ – part of the questionnaire is not analysed in this thesis.

The two main questions in my thesis are:

- How do the different categories of bullying distribute on gender?
- Do those who report that they are bullied also report poorer quality in life?

Regarding the first question, the objective is to find whether there are differences in the reporting of being bullied in general and/or harassed, on the categories of *physical*, *verbal*, *social*, and *cyberbullying*, with respect to *gender*. Regarding the second question, the objective is to find whether there are differences in the reporting of QoL with respect to being harassed or not.

Other than the fact that the number of students at this school who reports being bullied (11 %) is higher than the national mean (4.6 %), is that cyberbullying does not seem to be a major problem among these students. However, cyberbullying does not seem to come in addition, but partially add to the traditional bullying. As some students report to be cyberbullied only, this should be paid attention to with respect to a further development of this form of bullying. Another main finding is that students in general report a relatively good QoL, and students who report being bullied either way, report a lower QoL-score than the non-bullied students. One main finding is that satisfaction regarding self-perceived QoL seems to drop with increasing age, and girls also report lower level of quality of life than boys. There is also a medium, towards a weak correlation between what the students' report of being bullied, and what teachers and parents observe.







# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Bullying, quality of life and gender

If you think of bullying as a way to obtain a beneficial status among other individuals, one can observe this phenomenon all over the animal world. Drawing a parallel to the human race, this behaviour could be related to a genetic behaviour with roots going back to the origin of the human kind. But humans are at the same time very social creatures who seek to obtain social benefits completely the opposite way than by bullying; more by being nice to each other. Still, most certainly we have all experienced bullying in one way or another; we might have been bullied, been a bully or watched a classmate, a friend or a family member get bullied. Every day some children (and adults) are bullied.

Having the thesis' preface in mind, maybe it is hard to relate to bullying, or think that this could happen to you. I find it overwhelming to imagine, but this, or similar incidents happen to approximately 60.000 children in Norway every year (Roland 2014). What is described above can be referred to as social exclusion (Smith, Cowie et al. 2002) or social manipulation (Mynard and Joseph 2000), a way of bullying that some children, adolescents and even grown-ups can identify with.

In Scandinavia there has been focus on bullying (mobbing) for approximately forty years. One may say that it all started with Olweus and his book *Hakkekyllinger og skolebøller* (Bullies and whipping boys) (1974). In Norway bullying were put on the agenda in 1983 when three young boys from Northern Norway committed suicide due to peer-harassment, this led to a government-initiated campaign against bullying which was conducted in 1983 (Olweus 2013). An important issue in this campaign was a nationwide registration of problems regarding bully/victim by answering a student questionnaire developed by Olweus (Olweus 2013), since then several campaigns have been conducted in Norway, the latest in 2013.

The Education Act (Opplæringsloven), chapter 9a states that,

*All pupils attending primary and secondary schools are entitled to a good physical and psychosocial environment conducive to health, well-being and learning.*

Further it states;

*If any school employee learns or suspects that a pupil is being subjected to offensive language or acts such as bullying, discrimination, violence or racism, he or she shall*

*investigate the matter as soon as possible and notify the school leaders and, if necessary and possible, intervene directly. If a pupil or parent requests measures concerning the psychosocial environment, including measures against offensive behaviour such as bullying, discrimination, violence or racism, the school shall as soon as possible deal with the matter pursuant to the provisions concerning individual decisions laid down in the Public Administration Act. If the school has not assessed the matter within a reasonable time, an appeal may nevertheless be brought pursuant to the provisions of the Public Administration Act as if an individual decision had been made (Opplæringsloven §9a).*

This law state that school employee have a huge responsibility in order to maintain a good psychosocial environment for children and adolescents.

In 2002 the Norwegian Prime-Minister, Kjell Magne Bondevik, signed a binding partnership called “The Anti-Bullying Manifesto” (Manifest mot mobbing). This project is a partnership between several parties; the Government, the Norwegian Association of Local and Regional Authorities, Union of Education Norway, the Norwegian Union of Municipal and General Employees, Norwegian Union of School Employees and the National Parents’ Committee for Primary and Secondary Education. This was continued by Stoltenberg II in 2011 and by Solberg in 2014. The campaign will last until 2015, and has different topics every year, this year’s focus is; “adults creates friendship- on Internet” (Regjeringen 15-07-2014).

August 9<sup>th</sup> 2013 the Norwegian government formed The Djupedal Committee, where the main issue is to look into what it takes to improve social environment at school and reduce bullying. In March 2015, the committee presented their expositions, with the title “Belonging to”, which considers all the instruments to improve the psychosocial school environment and suggest actions to counteract offenses and bullying at school. Initially the committee state that in Norway, 2014 was a year characterized by personal bullying-stories presented in the media, we experienced parades were people signed up giving support to those being bullied, and a year where the Norwegian king, the prime minister as well as the president for the Sami people paid specific attention to the issue *mobbing* (bullying). The Djupedal committee, in their proposition, express five main objectives: 1) better legal protection for students and a more effective enforcement of The Education Act. 2) A culture at schools which have zero tolerance for offenses, bullying, discrimination and harassment. 3) Better involvement and cooperation with students and parents. 4) The school owners and school need to be held accountable and increase capacity/knowledge in order to work long term and systematically

with school environment, offenses, bullying, discrimination and harassment. 5) A strengthen support system with distinct responsibilities and duties (Djupedal 2015:17-20)

There has also been focus on bullying in media. During the last year, while working on this thesis, I have read many articles, interviews and watched news reports where children, grown-ups and parents, who have experienced bullying, have told their stories. In the local newspaper “Nordlys” there was an interview with a mother who told about her son’s struggle regarding bullying, we could also watch this on the news (<http://www.nrk.no/nordnytt/kundrosjesjaforen-hjalp-mobbeoffer-1.11899363>). During the autumn of 2014 there were several articles in the national newspaper “VG”, which addressed this issue. These particular articles started when a 13-year old boy, tragically committed suicide due to bullying (Mikkelsen and Åsebø 2014). Later VG has also written about other youths who have been bullied, one of them is a 17-year old girl who felt she was forced to change school in order to escape those who bullied her (Åsebø and Mikkelsen 2014). The same day there was an article online on the national television, “NRK” where the Norwegian minister of Education and Research, Torbjørn Rød Isaksen proposed that children who bully should change school (NRK 2014).

As one can read there has been put great effort in to reducing bullying in school, but despite this the number of bully and victims has remained stable, around 5 % (6, 8 % in 2012 and 4, 2 % in 2013) of children in school report being bullied. When one studies different form of harassment or offense the figures are even higher (Wendelborg 2014).

## **1.2 Background of the study**

As a teacher I am concerned about student’s well-being. During my master-degree study I was introduced to the project Well-being in Tromsø. The aim of this project is to shed light upon the relevance of various types of bullying and the association to mental health and quality of life. The project management wanted a master-thesis based on one of the main subjects of the project. Thus, the main focus in this study is bullying, gender and quality of life.

To me, TiT has been an interesting project, where I saw the opportunity to learn more about bullying, in order be more aware of this topic, and try to prevent and help those involved in bullying. Hopefully, I could also be able to contribute to the project with my experience as a teacher for 22 years.

In Norway there have been conducted various studies on bullying for approximately 40 years. During this period the numbers of victims has been around 5 percent- or a little more- for pupils in primary- and secondary school. It is also found that the level of victims' drops with increased age. The level of bullies is around 3-5 percent, but while the level of victims steadily decreases with age, there is a slightly opposite tendency for bullies. The curve for boys is slightly higher than for girls (Roland 2014).

Based on these figures one can estimate that at least 60.000 pupils in primary- and secondary school, as well as in high school are bullied in school on a regular basis. The numbers of bullies are approximately 40.000. A minority is regularly involved as both bullies and victims. This shows that most certain more than 100.000 pupils are involved in bullying through their years at school (Roland 2014). Due to this, we know that this affect many children and adolescents, and I hope this study can contribute to the understanding of this problem.

### **1.3 Approach to the problem and limitation**

The aim of this thesis is to shed light upon bullying. This is the first study within the project "Well-being in Tromsø", and may be regarded as a preliminary study. The main focus is to find whether there are differences between genders concerning being bullied and to document the prevalence of bullying, another aim is to find whether bullying influence on quality of life for adolescents.

In this study we have addressed a questionnaire trying to get a picture on the range of bullying and well-being on one of the schools in a typical Norwegian town. The questionnaire contains three different tools of measurements; KINDL<sup>R</sup>, which measures quality in life for children, The Strengths and Difficulties Self-report Questionnaire, SDQ, which is not studied in this thesis, and a traditional- and cyberbullying questionnaire. Due to the aim of this study, we have looked into different aspects on peer-harassment; verbal, physical, social and cyber, in order to find whether these different means of bullying differs between genders. We have also studied whether QoL is affected by bullying.

First there is a theoretical part where the research concerning QoL and the historical aspect regarding bullying is presented. Since this study is conducted in Norway, I find it adequate to have a main focus on studies done in countries we can relate to.

The fact that this study is based on the project TiT, leads to limitations such as the scope of the study, the questionnaire this is based on, the statistical power of the data (2004), and research design, as the main limiting factors.

In the theoretical framework, I suggest that there are different definitions regarding QoL, traditional bullying and cyberbullying. Here I have pointed to some studies which are often referred to. There is further an attempt to find similarities and differences in these definitions. I try to give an insight to QoL and well-being; this has proven to be a challenge, due to the fact that there have not been many studies on these matters regarding healthy adolescents. I have referred to studies, such as Frisé et al. and Jozefiak et al. In the present study we will only do a preliminary analyse of some aspects of KINDL<sup>R</sup>. Further work on this will be done in later studies. I also pay attention to some findings in the studies done concerning QoL and gender, in order to relate this to bullying and gender.

In the next part of this chapter I give an overview of some aspect regarding bullying at school. As it is established that bullying is a school-related problem (Olweus 1993), I find it necessary to look at some of the findings regarding this topic. One object of this study is to see how bullying distribute on gender and QoL, and I relate to different studies regarding this issue, such as Crick et al., Pellegrini et al., and Björkqvist. Furthermore I point at the different categories of bullying; physical, verbal, social and cyber. Here the aim is to find whether girls and boys practice different forms of harassment. Since cyberbullying is a relatively new phenomenon, I try to describe this form of bullying thoroughly.

In chapter three, material and methods are presented. Here I give a brief introduction to why this method is chosen and what I have done. Chapter four present the results of the findings, which are illustrated in tables and texts. These findings are the basis of the discussion in chapter five.

In chapter five, I start the discussion by a relatively thoroughly methodical assessment. This is the basis for the further discussion which tries to relate the findings to the theory presented and the research on this field. At the end there is a conclusion where I give a brief summary of the major findings and propose further research concerning bullying.

In this thesis I have not paid attention to prevention strategies, prevention programs or how school handle bullying, as this is not within the scope of the study. There are various definitions of bullying, cyberbullying and quality of life, but I have mainly focused on those which are used in the project “TiT”.

## 1.4 Definitions of terms used in this study

Bullying is a main term in this study and will be explained in the chapter “Theoretical Framework”.

In this study I will use the term bullying/ traditional bullying concerning the types of bullying (mobbing in Norwegian) we are familiar with in school, and as established by Olweus and later Roland. This is to differentiate between traditional bullying, which happens in everyday life and cyberbullying which occur online and/or via e.g. mobile phones.

When describing specific negative acts, different terms are used like *victimization*, *teasing*, *abuse* and/or *harassment* (Arora 1994, Mynard and Joseph 2000, Smith, Cowie et al. 2002, Rønning, Handegaard et al. 2004, Kowalski, Limber et al. 2012). I will address this as *harassment*, thus victimization and bullying consist of specific acts, and this is in accordance to Rønning and Smith. Due to the dictionary the legal definition of harassment is:

*“the act of systematic and/or continued unwanted and annoying actions of one party or a group, including threats and demands. The purposes may vary, including racial prejudice, personal malice, an attempt to force someone to quit a job or grant sexual favors, apply illegal pressure to collect a bill or merely gain sadistic pleasure from making someone anxious or fearful”<sup>1</sup>*

Quality of life and well-being is observed in this study by the answers given in the KINDL<sup>R</sup>-questionnaire. The dictionary defines well-being “*as a good or satisfactory condition of existence; a state characterized by health, happiness, and prosperity; welfare: “to influence the well-being of the nation and its people”* (<http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/well-being>). These definitions will be paid further attention in the thesis.

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<sup>1</sup> Cited from the Internet: <http://dictionary.law.com/Default.aspx?selected=853>



## 2 Theoretical Frameworks

### 2.1 Introduction

All would say that in order to have a good quality of life, one need to feel content and happy. Quality of life in psychology and psychiatry, but also to a lesser extent in general medicine and cancer treatment, is often associated with life satisfaction. As reported by Frisch, many studies support the view that low life satisfaction may predict numerous problems and maladaptive behaviours (Frisch 2013). According to Huebner (2004), some authors point to the fact that physiologists have focused on the study of ill-being, further these authors suggest that psychologist also should pay attention to the study of well-being. Further Huebner has found that self-perceived life satisfaction has received increasing attention in different areas, including special and regular education, and that “as early as 1986, Landesman noted that quality of life and personal life satisfaction were the new buzz words in the field of mental disabilities” (Huebner 2004:4). In addition, researchers have developed further quality of life concepts to health promotion efforts for all individuals, mainly aimed at adults, but attention has also been paid to children and adolescents lately (Huebner 2004).

According to Huebner, quality of life has been studied from two major points of views, namely objective and subjective. “Objective measures focus on external, quantifiable conditions such as income levels, access to medical resources, and recreational opportunities. In contrast, subjective measures focus on internal evaluations of life circumstances (e.g., satisfaction judgements, emotions)” (Huebner 2004:4), this is also supported by Frisch (2013). This is from a more general point of view, but when it comes to children, one might need to study this from a more specific perspective. Adults need to pay attention to the numerous challenges experienced by children and adolescents in everyday life, addressed as for instance, family and friends, school, spare-time and online activities and media. In addition to this, the Internet, and everything that comes along with it, plays an import part in children and adolescents life (being available 24 hours a day/7 days a week, being able to be in touch/ respond to one another instantly, feel included/excluded online etc.), which is very different from the last generations way of interacting. Thus, researchers and those interacting with children and adolescents should pay attention to the field of quality of life for this group. As reported by Huebner (2004), numerous authors have argued that public school reform should emphasize affective outcomes as well as academic outcomes.

One, of many challenges for a number of schools is bullying. Bullying might influence the quality of life of children and adolescence. During 1970's the German doctor, Peter-Paul Heinemann first wrote about bullying (mobbing). He performed his work in Sweden, and in 1968 he first mentioned mobbing. His focus was bullying in groups, as he referred to the well-known zoologist and the founder of modern ethology, Konrad Lorenz. Birds and animals sometimes turn against their own that is different, in a collective attack. An instinct, something they all have, is activated. Maybe all species have these tendencies given the right circumstances (Roland 2014). Heinemann looked at bullying as an action performed by a group, a mob, against one person, which the word mobbing point at. He described the physical aspects of bullying, where the bullies hits, kicks, beats etc.

Dan Olweus, another Swedish researcher also conducted a research during this period about aggression amongst young boys in the Stockholm- area. As mentioned earlier, "*Hakkekyllinger og skolebøller*" ("*Bullies and whipping boys*"), was released in Norway in 1974. This marks the start of two traditions which is going to characterize the research of bullying and intervention. Is it the situation or the individual that count? Dan Olweus is "personality psychologist" while Peter-Paul Heinemann support "social psychology" (Roland 2014). In his earliest work Olweus stated that *in the majority of cases, the victim is harassed by a group of two or three students* (Olweus 1993:9-10). In an article Olweus underlines that bullying should be regarded from both a group - and an individual perspective,

*A group (and a larger -context) perspective on bullying problems is certainly both necessary and valuable, but so is an individual difference perspective* (Olweus 2013: 754).

Heinemann's understanding of bullying (mobbing) was that a peaceful group was disturbed, often by a person from outside this group. This was met by aggression from the group. Heinemann did not consider the provoker to be different from other, he assumed that this was unintentionally and reactive, just a reaction of provocation (Roland).

A third Swedish pioneer book was written by Anatol Pikas, "*Slik stopper vi mobbing*" ("*How to prevent bullying*"), he describes bullying as repeatedly non legitimate physical or psychical attacks and/or exclusion from the collective, which is aimed at one individual by two or more who interact, and where the member's interaction sustains one another's behaviour (Pikas 1976). Pikas emphasizes deliberate actions, but also a moral aspect considering bullying, we all want to achieve benefits, and in this struggle we can harm other. Thus, when one party is stronger than the other, there is an imbalance in power, and the harm done could be looked upon as bullying.

Heinemann did not follow up his research, but he thought that there had to be processes in the group rather than the individuals. Olweus also looks at group processes, but thinks that individual characteristics by the bullies and victims are more important (Roland 2014).

Olweus' research until the end of 1980 was centred around extension of bullying at different types of schools and local environment together with different personality traits and the situation at home both at the bullies and victims. From this material he developed his understanding of causes. Also in Finland there has been done research on bullying during the 1980's. Here, Christina Salmivalli has contributed a great deal. One of her most important contributions has been studies on how other students relate to bullies and to victims. Up to the 1990's, research on bullying has mainly taken place in the Nordic countries. After the first international conference on bullying which took place in Stavanger during the summer of 1987 (Roland 2014), there has been focus on this issue in Europe. Here researchers from the UK have contributed to the understanding of this phenomenon; here one can mention Peter K. Smith and his colleagues in England. Later on this issue has been addressed by Rigby in Australia. Another pioneer, and among the first outside Scandinavia, was Morita, who, from the 80', has been studying bullying in Japan, known as "ijime" (Roland 2014).

Today Olweus' definition of bullying is used in different countries, with the contribution from other researchers such as E. Roland and P.K. Smith. Heinemann's view upon bullying is considered to be wrong, since most researchers today think that the victim does not disturb the group, but rather is being approached by a group/a person who intend(s) to harm her or him.

As mention, bullying might influence on students perceived quality of life. Quality of life is often connected when studying individuals and illness. When dealing with bullying and quality of life there is yet more to be done in this field.

## 2.2 Definition of quality of life

Quality of life can be understood in many different ways, and there are various definitions of this term. Frisch refers to other and states;

*As with the fields of sociology and economics, the discussion of quality of life issues in general medicine is a post-World War II phenomenon, dating from 1948 but beginning in earnest during the 1960s. Until recently, quality of life was equated with symptoms of disease (or morbidity) and length of survival from an illness (Frisch 2013:202).*

Frisch further states, also based on other researchers, that

*the current conceptualizations include the constructs of happiness, well-being, subjective well-being, and life satisfaction, most emphasis is placed on behavioural competencies or “functional ability”, which is often unrelated to well being or happiness (2013:202).*

One often finds that QoL and life satisfaction (LS) are used as means to assess well-being (Flaspohler, Elfstrom et al. 2009). Frisch (2013:202) refers to other when he suggests that,

*the terms quality of life, perceived quality of life, subjective well-being, well-being, happiness, and life satisfaction have often been used interchangeably and have, for the most part, been defined in terms of affect, cognition, or a combination thereof.*

Flaspohler also states that the relationship between subjective well-being, LS and QoL is not well defined in the literature (2009). Huebner (1991) suggest that subjective well-being consist of three separate, yet interrelated, parts in children and adolescents: positive affect, negative affect and LS. Thus, one can look at LS and QoL as one's positive cognitive appraisal of the entirety of one's life (Flaspohler, Elfstrom et al. 2009).

Hon-Lam Li, a professor in philosophy, state that there are three main ways to understand quality of life; first there is the wealth or purchasing power of citizen, secondly there is social and political goods (such as democracy) and at last one can understand this as happiness, both as a subjective and an objective state of mind (World policy institute 2013).

According to Wallander and Schmitt (2001:572), quality of life *is by its nature a holistic concept, an attempt to describe how well or poorly life works at a particular point in time.*

In the study by Frisén et al. (2010:597), they refer to health-related quality of life (HRQL) as *a multi-dimensional construct that includes several major domains such as physical, social and emotional functioning of the individual .*

Jozefiak et al. (2008:2-3), define quality in life (QoL) as *the subjective reported well-being in regard to the child's physical and mental health, self-esteem and perception of own*

*activities(playing/having hobbies), perceived relationship to friends and family as well as to school.*

World Health Organization define mental health as

*a state of well-being in which every individual realizes his or her own potential, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to her or his community (...)* Furthermore, *health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity"*(World health organization 2015) . This one can bear on mind when focusing on student's QoL.

At times, well-being is defined as *the science of the study and promotion of meaning and positive life goals. (...) meaning of life or a meaningful life comes from identifying and successfully pursuing cherished needs, goals, and wishes which gives life a sense of purpose and direction* (Frisch 2013:205).

From this one could suggest that QoL could be looked upon as the ways a person perceive his or her social, physical and emotional functioning and how he or she manage life. This is a simplified way to try to describe a complex term. But similarly to other abstract terms, such as bullying, quality of life cannot be described in a simple way, or as Jozefiak et al. state; there is *"no gold standard for the definition of QoL"*(2009).

In order to find adequate instruments to measure QoL, there have been conducted several studies (Wallander, Schmitt et al. 2001, Acquadro, Conway et al. 2008, Frisé and Bjarnelind 2010).

## **2.3 Background of quality of life studies**

Many studies of QoL have been conducted in relation to disease and defects, such as diabetes, epilepsy, obesity etc. Wallander et al. (2001) referred to Cumin (1995), and state,

*"[i]t is imperative that all definitions of [QL] be referenced to the general population both in their conception and operational measures"* (p.573).

Further they express, that although the objective characteristics of a person's surroundings are essential in any evaluation of quality in life, QoL is a subjective state. The same fact applies on the term being bullied, as it is only a result of a subjective measure. Therefore, when making a judgment based on these measures it might be valuable to have more than one

perspective, e.g. adolescents and children; this statement is also supported by Wallander et al. above.

In a review article by Huebner, he addresses the fact that relevant indicators of subjective QoL in the school context have not been agreed upon. But, there are findings which indicate that LS may be relevant to school functioning (Huebner 2004). This could indicate that there is something to gain from studying relations between QoL and bullying.

Concerning QoL and adolescent, peers tend to be more important with increasing age, thus difficult peers relations includes a wide range of psychological and behavioural problems during youth. Therefore, it is likely that peer relationships affect an individual's QoL (Frisén and Bjarnelind 2010). Hence, bullying has a major impact on children and adolescents this ought to be paid attention to with respect to QoL. Flaspohler et al.(2009), indicate that those being bullied and having social support from peers showed a weaker association between bullying and QoL, while those who only received support from teachers did not show this effect. They further found that a combination of peer- and teacher support provided the strongest buffer against the negative effect of bullying (ibid).

Frisén et al. (2010) also state that Wilkins-Shurmer et al. (2003), found that lower adolescents Health related quality in life scores, especially in scales measuring self-esteem and mental health, overall was associated with increasing frequency of being bullied.

In 1994 Bullinger et al. created a questionnaire for measuring health-related quality of life for children and adolescents in the German language for use in clinical populations, but also with healthy children and adolescents (Ravens-Sieberer and Bullinger 2000). KINDL<sup>R</sup> aims more at the psychosocial than the physical aspects of health-related QoL; therefore we use this questionnaire to find to which extent this can shed light upon bullying at school. We find it important to study to which extent bullying can influence self-perceived QoL.

In a study conducted in the middle of Norway, Jozefiak et al. (2009) found that students in 8<sup>th</sup> grade reported a decrease in QoL over the six-month follow up period as compared to those in the 6<sup>th</sup> grade concerning to "Family" and "School" domains and "Total quality of life" on the KINDL<sup>R</sup>. They also found a significant linear decrease for "Emotional well-being", yet students' ratings on "Friend" and "Self-esteem" did not change significantly by age.

In a literature review conducted by Acquadro et al. (2008), they point to the fact that there is found to be some difficulties regarding translated versions of health-related QoL questionnaire, all the time that "*culture and nations differ with regard to a more ethological and political perspective*", as stated by Bullinger and colleagues. In the Norwegian

translation, an effort has been made to ensure quality in this version of KINDL<sup>R</sup> (Jozefiak, Larsson et al. 2008).

## **2.4 Gender differences in perceived quality of life**

Research on the development of psychopathology in childhood and adolescence, have had a focus on boys for decades. This could be for various reasons, such as that boys' adjustment difficulties are more externalizing than girls and therefore draw more attention from others, and due to the fact that they also have more life-threatening consequences, such as to complete suicide (Crick and Zahn-Waxler 2003). *Past studies have shown that prevalence rates of psychopathology are much higher for boys than for girls during early and middle childhood* (Crick and Zahn-Waxler:719).

There have been few studies conducted on Health related quality of life (HRQL) in adolescents. Nonetheless, according to Frisé and Bjarnelind (2010), many studies have recently observed a decline in HRQL during the adolescent years; the older the youths get, the more negative they view their HRQL. In the same study they state that girls tend to view their HRQL more positively than boys during childhood, but after puberty girls usually have a more negative view on HRQL than boys, also throughout life.

In the article by Crick and Zahn-Waxler (2003), they focus on externalizing- and internalizing problems. Some studies have "*suggested that starting in adolescence, adjustment problems are equally distributed across the sexes*" (Crick and Zahn-Waxler:721). However, boys are more likely than girls to express physical aggression, violence and also show more criminal behaviour. During adolescence girls are also more likely to show internalizing disorders. "*By this time girls are at least twice as likely as males to become anxious and depressed*" (ibid: 721).

In a simplified way one can say that boys tend to have more conduct problems than girls that are established in early childhood. These childhood- pathways have been shown to have significantly larger number of relatively serious adjustment problems during young adulthood, such as conviction for violent crime, use of drugs, to commit partner-abuse, and similar problems (Crick and Zahn-Waxler 2003).

In an article (1996:993) Crick and Dogde state that; "*Theories of aggressive behaviour and ethological observations in animals and children suggest the existence of distinct forms of reactive (hostile) and proactive (instrumental) aggression*".

They further point at,

*Reactive aggression, which has its theoretical roots in the frustration-aggression model, is an angry, defensive response to frustration or provocation. Proactive aggression, which is described in social learning theory formulations of aggression, is a deliberate behaviour that is controlled by external reinforcements.*

## 2.5 Definition of bullying

In Norway there has been a focus on bullying for about 30-40 years. During these years Olweus and Roland has contributed a great deal in order to study bullying, to establish an understanding of the term and so on. Therefore there will be an emphasis on their definition on the term bullying in this study.

Bullying is commonly regarded as an aspect of aggression. Olweus suggest bullying as:

*“A student is being bullied or victimized when he or she is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other student” (Olweus 1993:9)*

Another, yet quite similar definition is:

*“Bullying is longstanding violence, physical or mental, conducted by an individual or a group and directed against an individual who is not able to defend himself in the actual situation”* Translated from Norwegian (Roland 2014:25).

These two definitions define bullying as negative actions that is repeated and performed by one person or a group toward one exposed person. The definition given by Roland also point to two facts; 1) that bullying could be physical or mental, 2) that the person who is bullied, is not able to defend himself, thus an imbalance in power. Over the years the definition of bullying has been developed and expanded.

In an article from 2013, Olweus emphasizes the three criteria in bullying, namely; intentional negative acts, repeatedly and over time and with a certain imbalance of power and strength. In the same article he also expands the definition and includes specific forms of bullying, such as say mean and hurtful things, ignore or exclude, hit, tell lies and spread false rumours.

Olweus define “negative action” as *“when someone intentionally inflicts, or attempt to inflict, injury or discomfort upon another – basically what is implied in the definition of aggressive behaviour” (Olweus 1993:9)*. Negative actions can be carried out in different ways; verbally, for instance by calling names, threatening, teasing etc., physically by hitting, pushing, or



restraining others etc., and by social manners, such as intentionally exclusion, make gestures and faces etc. When it comes to aggressive behaviour amongst equals one does not define it as bullying. Bullying always involves behaviour intended to hurt someone who is not quite able to defend oneself, this also has to be repeated over time.

Olweus definition (from 1993) was slightly extended by Whitney and Smith in 1993, and is referred to as,

*We say a young person is being bullied, or picked on, when another child or young person, or a group of young people, say nasty and unpleasant things to him or her. It is also bullying when a young person is hit, kicked or threatened, locked inside a room, sent nasty notes, when no-one ever talks to them and things like that. These things can happen frequently and it is difficult for the young person being bullied to defend himself or herself. It is also bullying when a young person is teased repeatedly in a nasty way. But it is not bullying when two young people of about the same strength have the odd fight or quarrel (Smith, Cowie et al. 2002:1120).*

By this definition Smith and Whitney specify what bullying is; you are bullied when you are picked on, when someone say nasty or unpleasant things, if you are hit, kicked or threatened, locked inside a room, sent nasty notes, when no-one talks to you. You are also bullied if you are teased repeatedly in a nasty way. But it is not bullying when two children about the same age or strength fight or quarrel. Here Smith and Whitney extend the definition of bullying by adding specific means, they also establish that you are not bullied if you have a fight with an equal, and further when we talk about bullying we refer to children and adolescents. In the study conducted by Mynard and Joseph they found that adolescent, to more extent than children, could differentiate between verbal and physical aggression (Mynard and Joseph 2000). This could indicate that Smith's explanation was necessary.

In a commentary by Bradshaw and Waasdorp (2009), they state that the definition of bullying vary slightly from measure to measure, some miss certain elements from Olweus' definition, usually the imbalance of power. They also pay attention to the fact that whether there is provided a definition does not ensure that the participants are consistently applying it. Gradually there has been a common international understanding of how bullying could be defined, and the definitions used have almost identical elements (Roland 2014). On the other hand Monks and Smith (2006) states that,

*there is no universal agreement on the definitional issues amongst those researching the topic of bullying, but there is now some degree of consensus that bullying refers to behaviours that hurt or harm another person, with intent to do so; the hurt or harm*

*may be physical or psychological and is repeated; and there is a power imbalance(...)such that it is difficult for the victim to defend him- or herself (Monks and Smith 2006:802).*

According to Monks and Smith not all researchers agree on this definition of bullying. Some may regard an action, which is not intended to harm, as bullying if the victim look upon this as such. And the attempt also does not have to be repeated if it has caused long lasting fear of repetition (ibid).

What they all have in common is that bullying is described as negative, unfriendly or aggressive actions. The term aggressive action or aggression has an intentional meaning. Most researchers on aggression define it as an intended act to hurt. Most of them therefore look at bullying as negative behaviour where one deliberately or unconsciously wants to harm the victim (Monks and Smith 2006). Still one has to keep in mind that there are differences concerning how to operationalize the term bullying.

Usually the definition of bullying implies that the action can be performed by a group or by an individual person. The definition also underlines that the action has to be repeated over time. This can be discussed, because one action can have the same pattern as repeatedly actions. For instance, if someone writes a nasty comment about another child on the toilet wall or post it on the Internet, this will stand there for others to read, and if you spread a nasty rumor, this will lead its own life regardless of whether you only said it ones. From this one can lead that one action can do as much harm as repeated actions. Another element which is important is imbalance in power; the victim is unable to defend himself in the given situation (Olweus 1993, Smith, Cowie et al. 2002, Roland 2014).

The different ways of understanding bullying shows that there is not one easy way to interpret this phenomenon. There may be an understanding that bullying is when someone intentionally hurt another person that is unable to defend him- or herself and when the action is repeated over time.

## 2.6 Being bullied

Everybody has to go to school for at least 10 years. This is an important arena for young people. At school students learn different subjects, they also learn to interact and develop their social skills. There are many different opinions about school, some students enjoy this part of their life, and they learn and develop as human beings, whereas other feels uncomfortable there. Some even dislike school, there could be many reasons, maybe they do not manage subjects, maybe because of social difficulties or they might feel insecure or are exposed to bullying or harassment.

Different studies roughly show that 5 percent- or some more- pupils are being bullied once or more per week in Norway (Olweus 1993, Roland 2014), and that the number of victims sink according to age (Olweus 1993, Pellegrini and Long 2002, Roland 2014). Amongst the youngest pupils, the level of victims is 6-8 percent, and amongst the oldest it is 2-4 percent. Studies also show that boys bully slightly more than girls (Olweus 1993, Roland and Idsøe 2001, Pellegrini and Long 2002, Roland 2014). Olweus looked upon the victims of bullying as shy, insecure, passive and nonaggressive (1993), however, Salmivalli found that so-called counteraggressive victims were not rare, on the contrary, especially boys were counteraggressive, e.g. trying to pay back the bully (2013). These victims, as a group, seem to fit the description of a reactively aggressive child, also referred to as bully-victims or aggressive victims (Salmivalli and Nieminen 2002).

Researchers have tried to find reason why some bully and some become victims, but this is a difficult field. Olweus suggested that the typical victims are more anxious and insecure than students in general. They are also more quiet and sensitive, and they are often lonely at school and not aggressive. Frisén state that in adolescence peers are important, and if you are unpopular or rejected by friends, this part of your life can be the loneliest time in life. Studies show that being involved in bullying is a “*source of much distress and associated with negative psychological, social as well as physical consequences both in a child’s present life as well as later in life*” (Frisén and Bjarnelind 2010:597). In the same study, she found that adolescents who had been bullied reported feeling less energetic and vital and had physical limitations, and being bullied during high school and/or secondary school seemed to cause greater health related problems than being bullied in lower grades (Frisén and Bjarnelind 2010). Rigby states that “*peer victimization is reliably associated with seriously impaired mental and physical health among both boys and girls*” (Juvonen and Graham 2001:322), further he states that those being bullied might experience being more anxious, depressed,

social dysfunctional, less physically well and more prone to suicidal ideation than other children (ibid). Then there is a smaller group which Olweus refer to as *the provocative victims*, they are both anxious and aggressive (Olweus 1993), these are also endangered to become <sup>2</sup>bully-victims (Smith, Talamelli et al. 2004, Roland 2014).

According to Salmivalli and Nieminen (2002), Dodge and colleagues were the first to introduce the concepts of reactive and proactive aggression, but they have their roots within the long traditions of aggression research. As mention in section 2.4, reactive aggression is an angry and defensive response to frustration or provocation, while proactive aggression is a wilful act that is controlled by external reinforcement (Crick and Dodge 1996). Further, it seems reasonable to distinguish between reactive and proactive aggression. Thus, the tendency to view other as hostile in provocative situations are linked with reactive, but not with proactive aggression, while beliefs in the social effectiveness of aggression are connected with proactive but not with reactive aggression (Crick and Dodge 1996, Salmivalli and Nieminen 2002).

The definition of bullying implies that bullying is proactive rather than reactive aggression (Olweus 1993, Salmivalli and Nieminen 2002). In a research by Pellegrini et al., they found that both reactive and proactive aggression correlated with bullying (Pellegrini and Long 2002).

In a study by Salmivalli and Nieminen where they divided children in to four groups; bullies, victims, bully-victims and control children, they found that bully-victims scored higher than bullies and victims (and control group) in both proactive and reactive aggression, while bullies were the second most aggressive group. They also found that both girl and boy victims were perceived as more reactively aggressive than the control group, while victims and control group showed equally low level of proactive aggression. Further, reactive aggression together with the lack of proactive aggression predicted a child's being a victim (2002).

Smith et al. (2004), in a follow-up design, compared different strategies of pupils who had two years previously answered a questionnaire identifying themselves as victims or non-victims of school bullying and whose current victim status could be identified. They divide pupils into four categories; *non-victims*, *escaped victims*, *new victims* and *continuing victims*. They found that *escaped victims* did not differ markedly from *non-victims*, whereas there were most significant differences between *non-victims* and *continuing-* and *new victims*.

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<sup>2</sup> Described the subject of both being a bully and victim.

Continuing victims reported to like peers and school break less, but not other aspects at school. Many continuing victims, on the contrary, reported to like teachers. Continuing victims also reported to have fewer friends at school, but not outside of school. They also reported to be more absent from school and to have high scores on problems scales on the SDQ. They also reported to be more involved in bully-victim relationships. Also, this finding was more significant for girls. Further they found that new victims tended to resemble continuing victims, which in its turn did not differ from escaped victims concerning types of bullying, but they, as well as new victims, less often reported talking to someone about bullying incidents. In addition, most victims gave victim related reason for being bullied; they often blamed themselves for their situation of being a victim.

When studying coping strategies, Smith et al. found seven discrete categories. Whereas the most common was to talk to someone about it, this was significant for escaping victims, while less than half of continuing victims and new victims told about bullying incidents. Another strategy was to find new, or different friends, this was more often reported by the escaping victims, while continuing- and new victims often “blamed themselves” for bullying incidents. Olweus described the typical bully as *having an aggressive reaction pattern combined (in the case of boys) with physical strength (Olweus 1993:35)*, whereas girls often tend to use more covert means (Crick and Zahn-Waxler 2003). Pellegrini et al. state that when emerging from primary- to secondary school, boys should tend to use proactive aggression to establish and maintain dominance, whereas girls should have a more negative attitude toward bullying. Further they state that boys should be more involved in bullying than girls (Pellegrini and Long 2002).

In a study conducted by Roland and Idsøe and rendered in Roland, the main finding was that the level of proactive aggression to a very great extent predicted bullying of classmates, while reactive aggression to small extent predicted this. The main reason for this is that bullying gives certain rewards such as power over the victim and companionship through a mutual front toward the victim (2014).

For many years there has been focus on bullying at school. Many schools have also used different intervention programs, but still students experience bullying. Olweus refer to the Cambridge group that conducted a meta-analysis of the effectiveness of all bullying programs in the world, and the conclusion was that the antibullying programs reduced bullying and victimization by 20% to 23% in intervention schools as compared to control conditions (Olweus 2013). In a report by NIFU (2010), the conclusion is that they could not establish an obvious connection between school-preventing programs on bullying and reduction in

bullying, and if they could, the findings were weak and sometimes contradictory. In this study, they also found that there are different causes that can have an impact on bullying, the main factor they found to be the learning environment.

In a study of 15 primary schools in Norway (Roland 2014), he found that in schools with poor leadership there were a higher degree of bullying. This was also the case if the staff did not cooperate well, especially considering agreement upon educational issues. The same opinion, is also to some degree supported by the NIFU-report (Lødding and Vibe 2010).

The different studies indicate that classroom management and structure in the classroom could have great impact on issues concerning bullying (Lødding and Vibe 2010, Roland 2014, Wendelborg 2014). In these studies, several aspects of classroom- and school management were considered, these were for instance the teachers care for each student, the ability to teach and organize and the ability to control and intervene. There were also found that a generally well-run school, with digital learning platform and school administrative system had lower level of bullying.

## **2.7 Are there gender differences in the experience of being bullied and harassed?**

There is suggested that there are diversity between boys and girls regarding well-being and bullying. As mentioned earlier, in a study by Crick et al. (1996), they found that reactive aggression is an angry and defensive response to frustration or provocation, while proactive aggression is a calculated action. In a study conducted by Pellegrini et al. (2002), they stress the point that, in order to research, proactive aggression should be more frequent among boys than girls, and also that girls, as they grow up, will have a more negative attitude towards bullying than boys. They found that the boys view upon aggression and bullying was more positive than for girls in early adolescence. In the same study, they found that bullying and proactive aggression are also looked upon as more positive by peers during early adolescence. Salmivalli and Nieminen (2002), described the bully-victims and victims of bullying and found, as mentioned before, that both girl and boy victims were nominated by peers to be more reactively aggressive than control children. *“The reactive aggression scores, both peers and teachers reported, significantly predicted a child’s being a bully-victim”* (2002:39).

There has been detected at least three different types of victimization; physical (e.g. hitting), verbal (e.g. calling names) and social (e.g. backbite). One might also add a fourth type,

namely cyber or digital (e.g. posting cruel messages online). The third type social, is also often referred to as relational or indirect, and often involves social ostracism or spreading rumours in order to ruin the victim's reputation. Some researchers have suggested that boys tend to use physical means when bullying others, while girls often use social means (Olweus 1993, Crick and Zahn-Waxler 2003, Roland 2014). Graham and Bellmore (2007:141) state that: *By middle adolescents, relational victimization becomes the norm for both genders as it becomes less socially accepted for individuals to physically aggress against peers.* They further claim that relational victimization is probably a less gendered subtype than previously thought (ibid).

It is important to understand that aggressive reaction is accompanied by a special drive, understood as an angry and hostile feeling which is directed against the source of the frustration, or a different substitute (Roland 2014). This aggressive act is directly aimed at the one looked upon as the source of, or associated with the feeling of "harm". In the study by Crick and Dollard they concluded that;

*Reactive-aggressive children are not likely to give peers the "benefit of doubt," however, as they tend to perceive hostility in the part of the peer even when none is necessarily intended (Crick and Dodge 1996:999).*

They further write that this may become a self-fulfilling prophecy all the time a reactive-aggressive child is characterized by hostile intent to peers, and then peers respond with increased hostility toward the child, who again interprets this as a confirmation of earlier interpretation.

Many studies conclude that boys are more likely than girls being bullied, and to bully (Olweus 1993, Pellegrini and Long 2002, Lødding and Vibe 2010, Kowalski, Limber et al. 2012, Roland 2014). According to the different studies and the NIFU-report (Lødding and Vibe 2010), girls and boys are bullied in different ways and by different means. Girls are more prone to be teased for their clothes and appearance, false rumours and ostracism, while physical attacks are more common for boys. Nasty comments are equally common for both genders. This indicates that bullying amongst boys and girls take place in different forms. The same tendencies are also found in the student survey for 2013 (Wendelborg 2014).

In the student survey in 2013, which is the large, national survey comprising many students, Wendelborg found that the percentage in bullying decreases with increasing age. He further found that students in 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade report to be more bullied, and for the first time girls report to be slightly more bullied than boys (Wendelborg 2014).

Roland (2014), finds that there is only a small difference between genders, though there are differences in girls and boys social orientation. Girls are more concerned about belonging to a group, while boys are more concerned about the activity and hierarchy of power. *This gave reason to assume that the dimension of relations by proactive aggression predicts bullying by peers better for girls than for boys, while the opposite tendencies will be found in the power-aspect. This was also found to be the fact* (Roland 2014:87) (translated from Norwegian to English).

In the review article by Björkqvist (1994), he concluded that when individuals feel threatened, they look for an effective strategy to minimize danger; *Therefore, when verbal skills develop, verbal means of aggression tend to replace physical ones whenever possible* (Björkqvist 1994:185). Because females in general are physical weaker than males they may tend to use other means, such as verbal and indirect, to avoid physical aggression. Further Björkqvist states that indirect aggression, some also refer to this as social- and relational aggression depends upon some level of social intelligence, and indirect aggression correlate with measures of social intelligence. Björkqvist and colleagues also refer that indirect aggressive strategies are used in many cultures and that it is more frequent among females than males, though there are cultural variations (Björkqvist 1994).

Mynard and Joseph (2000), found that bullied boys scored significantly higher than bullied girls on physical victimization and attacks on property, while bullied girls scored significantly higher than bullied boys on social manipulation. There was not observed any significant differences in verbal victimization. Rønning et al. conducted a study in the northern part of Norway where they found that boys scored higher on all scales, especially physical aggression. They also found that while boys experienced an increase in social manipulation across grades, girls reported the opposite (Rønning, Handegaard et al. 2004).

Studies show that boys are more likely to be physically bullied while girls are more likely being bullied through rumour-spreading or through sexual comments or gesture (Olweus 1993, Roland 2014). According to Roland these findings *can probably be explained by the fact that girls, more than boys, are stimulated by intimacy within the group, while boys are stimulated, more than girls, by the power to create powerlessness* (Roland 2014:87) (Translated from Norwegian to English).

Another difference is that boys are typically bullied by other boys, but girls are bullied by both boys and girls. Furthermore boys bully pupils within and outside their own grade, while girls mostly bully pupils only within their own grade (Olweus 1993, Roland 2014). Roland argues that these differences in picking victims may be due to the fact that ostracism requires



intimate knowledge of, and attraction between the victim and the bully. The abuse of power does not require this to the same extent. This could also explain the way the sexes pick their victim associated to the two dimensions proactive and reactive aggression.

On the other hand, Pellegrini et al.(2002) found that boys, as they grew older, mainly bullied other boys and less aimed their aggression at girls, whereas girls were most often targeted by other girls. In addition, they suggest that it could be possible that boys bully other boys in order to establish and maintain status in male groups. Further they question if boy do so to attract females. They emphasize that this is premature and should be studied in a dominance theory framework. Pellegrini et al. further suggest that one should take into account that both boys and girls, who bully others, could do so to attract the opposite sex.

## **2.8 The different categories of traditional harassment; physical, verbal and social**

Over the years researchers have distinguished between direct (e.g., hitting, calling names) and indirect (e.g., ignoring) types of peer-harassment, but there still is some disagreement regarding how to classify these forms of harassment. Direct forms of harassment are defined as openly confrontational attacks and indirect forms as covertly manipulative attacks (Rønning, Handegaard et al. 2004).

In 1994 Arora presented a checklist to gain clarity about the actual extent of bullying experienced by pupils in the duration of one week. The main purpose of this checklist is to supply the school with a specific measurement. The list did not use the term “bullying”, but asked a range of experiences that could be considered as this, as well as neutral and pleasant questions, this was done to draw attention away from the central investigated term, namely “bullying” (1994:11). Arora found this checklist to be “an indirect but more precise measurement of bullying”, as there are first, so many different types of bullying, secondly many use different definitions of bullying, third teachers may find the term “bullying” to be emotive and suggest that children would not provide reliable response to such a direct question and last, after intervention one may report higher number of incidents as “bullying” due to sensitivity (1994:13).

Arora also state that “Life in school” checklist provides direct data of the actual bullying incidents as self-reported by students. Thus, data obtained are based as exactly as possible on actual occurrence rather than opinion (1999:21).

In a study by Mynard and Joseph (2000), they identified four main factors of bullying in which they developed a multidimensional peer-victimization scale to estimate physical victimization, verbal victimization, social manipulation, and attacks on property. According to them, scales made up of less than 4 items have been criticized by researchers, therefore factors with less than 4 items loading at 0.50 in the Principal Components Analysis was not retained. The four factors mentioned above therefore retained, and for each of these four factors, the 4 items with the highest factor loadings were selected and retained for inclusion in 4 subscales (Mynard and Joseph 2000:173). These four factors were found to have convergent validity with self-reports of being bullied. Further they found that physical and verbal victimization were separable factors, but associated (ibid).

Rønning et al., (2004) in a study in Northern Norway, found that boys dominated in all forms of harassment; physical, verbal and social. They also saw that while girls reported a slightly falling level in experienced social manipulation across grades, boys reported a slight increase in their experience of this type of harassment in 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade. Girls scored higher than boys on social manipulation (Olweus 1993, Mynard and Joseph 2000).

Physical aggression is often looked upon as actions, and in several studies this is supported (Olweus 1993, Björkqvist 1994, Mynard and Joseph 2000, Rønning, Handegaard et al. 2004, Wang, Iannotti et al. 2009). This could be performed in different ways; like threatened to hit, punch, kick, beat, till threatened by weapon.

Björkqvist (1994) found that when verbal skills developed, adolescents tend to replace physical aggression with verbal means, this is also supported Rønning et al. (2004) .

Regarding verbal harassment Mynard and Joseph (2000) did not observed significant differences between boys and girls , while in a study conducted by Wang et. al. (2009), they found that boys also scored higher regarding verbal harassment .

Björkqvist also established that when social skills developed, *more sophisticated strategies of aggression are made possible*, and then it is possible to ruin a person without being identified. These strategies is referred to as indirect aggression (Björkqvist 1994). In the same study Björkqvist also stated that it is reason to believe that, when concerning adult conflicts, physical aggression is the exception, - and other means are more likely to be used.

According to Mynard and Joseph social manipulation might be described as acts that are aimed at manipulating another person's social surroundings to hurt or harm that person (Mynard and Joseph 2000). Smith et al. (2002), refers to different studies, which describe social and relational aggression (Smith, Cowie et al. 2002). Their studies relate more to the consequences of the negative act and the intention to harm relationships.

Recent studies suggest that being a traditional victim increases the risk of cyber victimization (Smith, Mahdavi et al. 2008, Wang, Iannotti et al. 2010). Olweus conducted a study which showed that there were only 10% of students who had been cyberbullied or had cyberbullied others. Further he states *These results suggest that the new electronic media have actually created few new bullies and victims* (Olweus 2013:767).

## 2.9 Definition of cyberbullying

Cyber bullying is a relatively new field for researchers, obviously since the devices to conduct this form of bullying are relatively new. Therefore one has to establish what should be included in the term *cyberbullying*. Cyberbullying includes a wide spectre of behaviours.

There is inconsistency regarding how to look upon cyberbullying. Ybarra et al. found that some researchers treat cyberbullying as a type of bullying, in the same way as physical and relational bullying, while others looked upon it as an environment, equivalent to school (Ybarra, Boyd et al. 2012).

By using the same terms as Olweus in his definition of bullying, Peter Smith and his colleagues (Smith, Mahdavi et al. 2008) defined cyber bullying as;

An aggressive, intentional act carried out by a group or individual, using electronic forms of contact, repeatedly and over time against a victim who cannot easily defend him or herself.

Hinduja and Patchin define cyber bullying as “willful and repeated harm inflicted through the use of computers, cell phone, or other electronic devices” (Hinduja and Patchin 2009:5). While Hinduja and Patchin refer to cyberbullying as *wilful* and *repeated* harm by the use of devices, Smith et al. define cyberbullying by using the traditional bullying-terms; *intentional*, *repeatedly* and against someone who *cannot defend himself*, and add that this happens by using electronic devices.

Menesini et al. (2012), conducted a study where they compared the understanding of cyberbullying among adolescents across six European countries. Here they looked at whether the three criteria formed by Olweus for defining traditional bullying also could be applied to cyberbullying; intentionally, repetition and imbalance of power. When studying *intentionality*, qualitative research has found that young people regard it as cyberbullying when the perpetrator has the intent to harm another person. Further they write that in *the*

*virtual context a single aggressive act can lead to an immense number of repetitions of the victimization, without the contribution of the perpetrator (Menesini, Nocentini et al. 2012:455).* From this one may interpret that *repetition* has to be further studied in cyberbullying, since one act can be viewed a number of times. Olweus conducted a study in 2012, referred to in a paper from 2013, where he examined *if cyber bullying items would relate differently than the global traditional bullying items to a variable that these items can be expected to correlate with* (Olweus 2013: 758). In this study he found that *Students who were exposed to cyber bullying more often tended to have systematically poorer self-esteem* (Olweus 2013:758). He further found that the three key criteria in traditional bullying seem to function in roughly the same way in cyberbullying.

Regarding *imbalance of power* Menesini et al. (2012) have suggested that this criterion may differ in cyberbullying, since victims can use other strategies to “avoid” perpetrators. They also refer to two other criteria that have been suggested as specific to cyberbullying, namely anonymity and public versus private. The possibility of *anonymity* in cyberbullying is unique for this mean of bullying, and it could leave the victim feeling powerless. They further state that, when dealing with *public versus private*, youth consider it to be more serious if an embarrassing picture is posted public, as the audience is larger, than if it is sent privately.

In another study by Menesini et al. (2011:460), they were able to single out different criteria for cyberbullying. The clear first dimension is imbalance of power, and a clear second dimension is intentionality, at a lower level they identified anonymity. This indicates that students look at two of three traditional bullying criteria as relevant to cyberbullying, namely intentionality and imbalance of power, which exclude repetition.

Imbalance of power may suggest that this is not only based on the social statues, popularity or strength by the person who bullies, but a more interactional description (Menesini, Nocentini et al. 2012). Regarding intentionality, there must be an intention to harm another person in order to consider it as cyberbullying, if not the behaviour is looked upon as a joke. Menesini et al. suggest *that anonymity might change its impact on perception in relation to the other criteria and needs to be considered together with other criteria to be fully understood.*

Public versus private criterion did not show any relevance for the definition of cyberbullying in the study by Menesini et al. They found that students regarded it as cyberbullying whether or not it was sent to a larger audience, nevertheless this can be considered a criterion in combination with other criteria (Menesini, Nocentini et al. 2012).

Based on literature discussed in this section, cyberbullying should be defined by these three criteria: imbalance of power, intentionality and anonymity. Concerning repetition there seem

to be different opinions, as mentioned above. Nevertheless, the exact definition has to be further investigated.

## 2.10 Categories of cyberbullying

When talking about different means of traditional harassment, we have divided this in to three different categories; physical, verbal and social. Each of these items consist of more specific terms like hit, kick, call names and told a lie about me. Being harassed by digital means, if often, in literature referred to as cyberbullying, therefor the term cyberbullying will be used in this thesis. There have not been conducted many studies in order to categorize different means of cyberbullying.

Smith et al. (2002, 2012) found that *cyberbullying describes forms of bullying using electronic devices such as mobile phones and email*. They also divided cyberbullying into seven sub-categories; Text message bullying, Picture/ Video Clip bullying (via mobile phone cameras), Phone call bullying (via mobile phones), Email bullying, Chat-room bullying, Bullying through instant messaging and Bullying via websites.

Here I will give a brief overview of the different forms of cyberbullying as referred to in Kowalski et al. (2012). *Flaming refers to a brief, heated exchange between two or more individuals that occurs via any communication technology... flaming occurs in "public" settings...*(Kowalski, Limber et al. 2012:62). In cyberbullying literature, harassment is more one-sided than flaming. Denigration is described as *information about another that is derogatory and untrue* (Kowalski, Limber et al. 2012:63), and impersonation is to pose as the victim, the most often form is to gain access to the victims accounts, and to harass others pretending to be the victim. When referring to outing and trickery this is seen upon as sharing personal, often embarrassing, information with others and to trick someone into reveal personal information about themselves and then share this with others. Exclusion/ostracism is when someone is excluded from an e.g. Facebook- group or "defriend" on social network sites. Another form of cyberbullying is to cyberstalk, this *refers to the use of electronic communications to stalk another person through repetitive harassing and threatening communications* (Kowalski, Limber et al. 2012:67). Then the author refer to video recording of assault/happy slapping and hopping which is a way to utterly humiliate the target by digitally record assaults on the target and upload those recording to the Internet. In happy slapping one walks up and slap someone while another person record this, something similar

is done in hopping. At last there is sexting which *refers to the sending or posting of nude or semi-nude pictures or videos via text messages or other electronic means* (Kowalski, Limber et al. 2012:68). This shows that according to Kowalski et al. cyberbullying can be carried out in different ways. They also describe the most commonly used methods of cyberbullying to be; instant messaging, electronic mail, text messaging, bash-boards (online bulletin boards) and social networking sites.

Staksrud (2013), refers to the most common forms of cyberbullying as “someone sent me an insulting/ mean message on the Internet”, this is common among all groups of students, but most common among those who are 15-16 years old. The second most common she found was “someone posted an insulting/mean message on the Internet so other could view it, or sent it to other”. She has also pointed at seven major differences concerned cyberbullying contra traditional bullying.

1. You never get away
2. Audio-visuals material can be used to bully
3. Bullying can be documented
4. The bully can easily hide behind anonymity
5. Cyberbullying leads to new forms of exclusion, in form of digital isolation
6. Bullying can become more visible
7. Bullying can become less visible for parents, teachers and other grown ups

In a study involving 3767 students in grades 6 – 8, Kowalski and Limber found that although 78% of the students surveyed had no experience with cyber bullying, 11% were victims of cyber bullying, 7% were bully/victims, and 4% were bullies (Kowalski and Limber 2007).

## 3 Materials and Methods

### 3.1 Introduction

The objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between bullying, quality of life and gender based on questionnaires focusing on the topics. Traditionally these kinds of studies are based on two main approaches: either a quantitative, or a qualitative method.

The analysis presented in this thesis is a part of the project “Well-being in Tromsø”, administered by the Arctic University of Norway (UiT). The data selected for analysis was collected during the autumn 2013. The project, “Well-being in Tromsø”, uses mix methods to gain information and understanding of students self-perceived bullying and their self-perceived QoL, here we seek to get a wide spectre of descriptions of phenomenon, and also the possibility to investigate interactions from a statistic perspective.

In modern time research there is a tendency towards using both methods, quantitative and qualitative, in combination whenever appropriate, this is called mixed-methods (Kleven, Tveit et al. 2011). According to Kleven, while quantitative methods have tried to keep distance between the researcher and the participants, qualitative researches give priority to proximity (ibid).

When referring to quantitative methods one often describes this as looking into statistic and numbers. This is basically about analysing numerical data that reflect a person’s identity at certain fields of interest, in order to explain various phenomenon of interest. However, we can also use a quantitative approach by design research instruments that aim at transforming phenomena that we do not find in quantitative form into this form of data. This could be for example bullying and quality of life (Kleven, Tveit et al. 2011).

The quantitative approach is used to get an understanding on general, and not on individual basis. This method seek to encompass the entire range in order to describe and explain different phenomenon’s expansion and statistic coherence (Kleven, Tveit et al. 2011).

Both qualitative and quantitative methods have their advantages and limitations, which have been discussed over decades. Which of the research methods that are the best to use, have to be considered due to the aims of the research conducted (Kleven, Tveit et al. 2011).

The project “Well-being in Tromsø” addresses a range of research questions using a combination of three different measures, shown in table 3.1.

## Structure of the questionnaire

Table 3.1 An overview of the structure in the questionnaire “Well-being in Tromsø”, showing categories and constructs used in all three questionnaire, for students, parents, and teachers. The part marked *grey* (SDQ) is not treated in this study.

The different sections of the questionnaire well-being in Tromsø	Categories of questions	Students	Parents	Teachers
	Identity information (about the student)	X	X	X
. KINDL <sup>R</sup> Constructs	Physical well-being	X	X	
	Emotional well-being			
	Self-esteem			
	Family			
	Friends			
	School			
Traditional bullying	Bullying in general	X	X	X
Specific harassment categories Constructs	Verbal	X	X	X
	Physical			
	Social			
	By whom were you/your child/student bullied	X	X	X
Cyberbullying	Cyberbullying in general	X	X	X
Cyberbullying Constructs	Specific cyberbullying categories	X	X	X
	By whom were you/your child/student cyberbullied	X	X	X
	School environment	X	X	X
	Bullying in general	X	X	X
SDQ Constructs	Emotions	X	X	X
	Conduct problems			
	Hyper			
	Pro-social			
	Seb-total			
	Impact			
	Skills in Norwegian, English, mathematics			X
	Socio-economic status		X	
	Space to write down thoughts and feeling	X	X	X

For detailed information see appendix 1.

First we ask for gender, full name, grade and name of school. In addition parents of the student tick off who are answering; mother, father or someone else. Then, the <sup>R</sup> questionnaire follows, asking specific questions about well-being. Further the informants give information about traditional bullying in general and specific form harassment, as well as whom the perpetrators are. Then they are asked questions about cyberbullying in general and specific forms of cyberbullying, as well as whom the perpetrators are. We also ask for the school



environment and reasons for being bullied. At last there is the SDQ questionnaire, which asks for psychological issues. In addition parents are asked for socio-economics status, and teachers are asked to give information about the student's skills in main subjects.

For the items used in my thesis, there is a five-point scale. In KINDL<sup>R</sup>, the values are: "never/do not know" (1), "seldom" (2), "now and then" (3), "often" (4) and "always" (5). The 24 items in KINDL<sup>R</sup> use these scales.

For the "My Life in School Checklist+", items investigating peer-harassment there is also a five-point scale. Values are "never/do not know" (1), "only once or twice" (2), "two or three times a month" (3), "about once per week" (4) and "many times a week" (5). The 23 items on traditional harassment use these scales, so do the 16 on cyberbullying. This includes the perpetrator responses, divided on three separate items for girls, boys or a group.

### **3.2 Quantitative method**

Quantitative research is "*Explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods (in particular statistics)*" (Aliaga 2000).

The usual steps in quantitative research are as follow: 1) explaining phenomena, when researching, we want to explain something, 2) Collecting numerical data in order to explain a particular phenomenon. This we can do by designing research instruments intended at converting phenomena that do not naturally occur in quantitative form into quantitative data, which we can analyse statistically (for instance bullying and QoL), 3) Using mathematical based methods to analyse the data collected.

The purpose of a quantitative study is often to look at cause and effect, or various relations. In order to see if two variables are related to each other, one can observe whether or not they change together, and is referred to as "bivariate analysis" (Johannessen 2009).

In my thesis quantitative design is used in order to answer the two main questions: "How do the different categories of bullying distribute on gender" and "Do those who report being bullied also report poorer quality of life".

The main objective of this study is to investigate possible relations between bullying, quality of life and gender. The questionnaire formed by "Well-being in Tromsø" is used in order to increase the knowledge upon the subjects of the researched question raised. This questionnaire consists of three main sections; quality of life, bullying and psychical health, as described in table 1.

### 3.3 Samples

This study was conducted in a town in the northern part of Norway. Initially six schools with a special “university school” status were invited to join the project of “Well-being in Tromsø”. Three of the schools accepted. Three more schools were recruited from the schools outside the system of university schools. Thereby, six schools took part in the project “Well-being in Tromsø”.

The study is designed both as a prospective longitudinal and as a cross-sectional time trend study, which started in late autumn 2013. In the prospective longitudinal part of the study, there is a possibility to follow up the same students over a period of 6 years. Over the same period, in the cross-sectional part we will every second year investigate whether there are changes in the students’ reports of well-being (Rønning and Thorvaldsen:3).

A pilot project was carried out in 2012 at one of the university schools in order to establish the most effective logistics (Rønning and Thorvaldsen 2012).

In my thesis, the participants were students from 8<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade, who gave self-reports. Parents answered corresponding questions for their child in 9<sup>th</sup> grade and teachers answered corresponding questions for all their students (see table 1 for details).

The students questionnaires were answered on the Internet during one lesson, using a web based questionnaire, and identified by their names. Most of the non-responders were either absent the day when the questionnaire was answered at school, or their parents had not consented.

The parents answered the same questionnaire on paper, either during a particular parental meeting in the autumn, or later if they were absent, or did not want to do it during the meeting. These answers were transformed in to digital format by using a punching template in “Excel”.

All class-teachers answered one questionnaire, using Questback, for each of their students during one day at work. In order to increase the motivation to answer the questionnaires, all schools were paid to do this work.

I participated in the field work performed. First I attended a meeting where the project leadership introduced the project “TiT” to the teachers and the principal team at “Neptun”, then I gave information to the parents about the survey on a parental meeting in one of the classes attending, at last I administered the questionnaire in the same class. As a masters’ student associated with project “TiT”, I have been participating in data input of questionnaires as an assistant to Professor Steinar Thorvaldsen. Parents had answered on paper, these I input

into Excel data files, 10% of my typing was checked for accuracy and approved, and the file transformed into SPSS files without identification information, this was about 5 days' work.

### **3.3.1 Participants**

This thesis is based on one of the participating schools, Neptun<sup>3</sup>, which is a secondary school. At Neptun there are 402 students. The respondents made up 72.9% (N=291), 144 girls and 147 boys, from 8<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade (age 12-16).

In 8<sup>th</sup> grade 116 participated (87.9%) of a total of 132 pupils, in 9<sup>th</sup> grade 118 participated (73.8%) of a total of 160, and in 10<sup>th</sup> grade 57 (52 %) of a total of 110 pupils.

Also, approximately 30 teachers (the two lead teachers for each class) and parents answered the questionnaire. Only parents for students in 9<sup>th</sup> grade answered, these made up to 106.

At this school there is a class that consist of pupils from other countries than Norway; these had to be excluded from this study because they lacked sufficient competence in the Norwegian language.

## **3.4 Measures**

The measures in “Well-being in Tromsø” consist of three instruments of measurements; Questionnaire for Measuring “Health-Related Quality of Life in Children and adolescents” (KINDL<sup>R</sup>), developed by Ravens-Sieberer & Bullinger, “traditional- and cyberbullying” and “The Strengths and Difficulties Self-report Questionnaire” (SDQ), as described in table 1. The Strengths and Difficulties Self-report Questionnaire is not used in my study.

### **3.4.1 Quality of Life measured by the KINDL<sup>R</sup> questionnaire**

KINDL<sup>R</sup> measures experienced quality of life (QoL). There are two versions; one where the adolescents describes him- or herself, and another where you get the parents point of view on their child. Each version consist of 20 questions equally distributed on the dimensions Physical well-being, Emotional well-being, Self-esteem, Family, Friends, School and Total quality of life (TQoL). These items consist of 4 questions from each of these categories: a)

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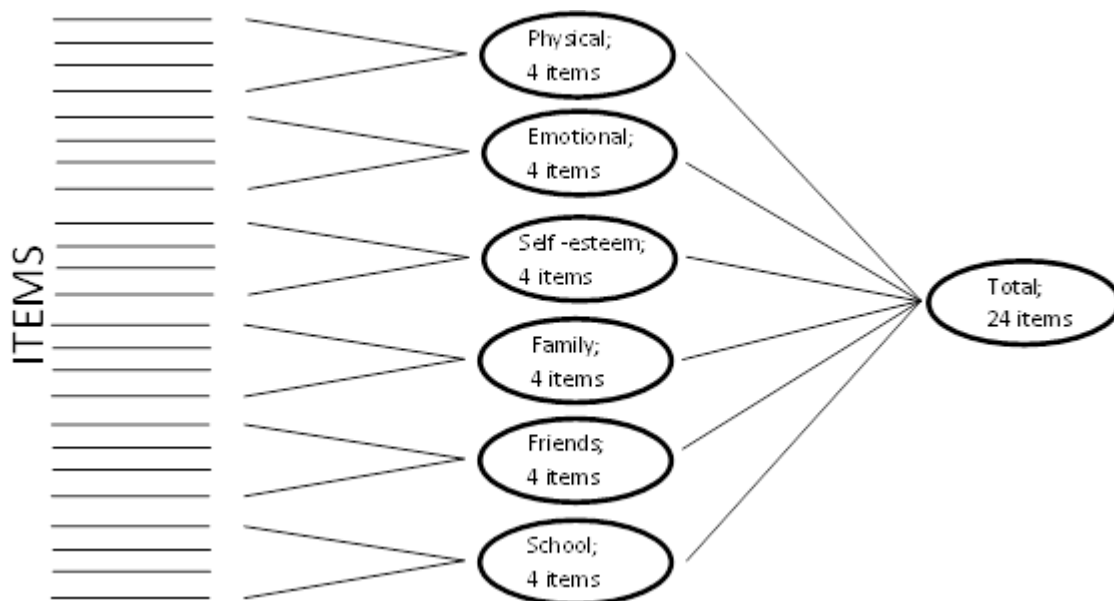
<sup>3</sup> Neptun is the cover name of the school.

*experienced physical health* (I felt ill, I was in pain, I was tired or worn out, I felt strong and full of energy), b) *emotional well-being* (I laughed and had fun, I was bored, I felt alone, I felt scared and unsure of myself), c) *self-esteem* (I was proud of myself, I felt on top of the world, I felt pleased with myself, I had lots of good ideas), d) *relationship to family* (I got on well with my parents, I felt fine at home, we quarrelled at home, I felt restricted by my parents), e) *relationship to friends* (I did things together with my friends, I was a “success” with my friends, I got along well with my friends, I felt different from other people) and f) *relationship to school* (doing the schoolwork was easy, I found school interesting, I worried about my future, I worried about getting bad marks or grades).

Every question asks for the last week experiences, and is scored on a 5 – point scale (1=“never”, 2=“rarely”, 3=“sometimes”, 4=“often” and 5=“always”). Mean item scores are calculated for all subscales and the total scale, which are transformed to a 0-100 scale, where 0 indicates very low QoL and 100 very high QoL. Correlations with comparable QoL scales have shown acceptable convergent validity as well as satisfactory discriminant validity (Jozefiak, Larsson et al. 2009).

The KINDL<sup>R</sup> questionnaire consists of 24 Likert-scaled items associated with six dimensions, listed in figure 3.1. The sub-scales of these six dimensions can be combined to produce a total score.

**Figure 3.1 Structure of the Sub-Scales in the KINDL<sup>R</sup> questionnaire**



(Ravens-Sieberer and Bullinger 2000:3)

When developing this questionnaire, there was made an effort to ensure that the questions and instructions were easy to understand, so that neither children, adolescents nor parents would need assistance when answering (Ravens-Sieberer and Bullinger 2000).

Jozefiak et al., (Jozefiak, Larsson et al. 2008) investigated the perceived QoL (KINDL<sup>R</sup>) of 1997 randomly selected students aged 8-16 in the middle of Norway (participation 71.2). The study found acceptable psychometric properties of the instrument.

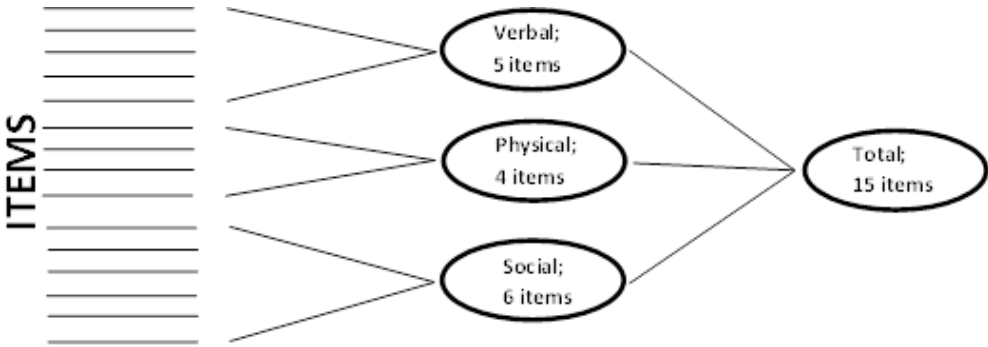
### 3.4.2 Traditional bullying

The categories and questions about traditional bullying are derived from the study “My life in school” by Rønning et al., which took place in the northern part of Norway among 4130 pupils from 6<sup>th</sup> to 10<sup>th</sup> grade inn 66 primary and secondary schools (80.1% participated).

We investigate traditional bullying from two perspectives. First, **bullying in general** on frequency of events, as reported by the victim, are split on two separate items of at/outside of school. Self-reported bystander and perpetrator status are also split accordingly. Victims also report who perpetrates, these answers are split on three separable variables; boys, girls or a group of students. In total there are 8 general variables on traditional peer harassment variables.

Secondly, **specific forms of traditional harassment**, which is operationalized by 15 items investigating 5 verbal, 6 social and 4 physical peer-harassment items. These questions are derived from Arora. The measures use descriptive events, positively and negatively perceived, and was originally based on Arora’s “My life in school” checklist (Arora 1994). Especially salient questions were selected by Rønning et al. when revising the list, after considering similarities with other victimization scales. The study by Rønning et al. demonstrated acceptable psychometric properties (Rønning, Handegaard et al. 2004).

**Figure 3.2 Structure of the Sub-Scales in the specific harassment questionnaire**



### 3.4.3 Cyberbullying

This part of the survey is based on a questionnaire by Smith et al., (Smith, Mahdavi et al. 2006) and Menesini et al. (Menesini, Nocentini et al. 2011). We investigate cyberbullying from two perspectives as described in section 3.6.2 traditional bullying: **cyberbullying in general**, which also consists of 8 general variables, and **specific forms of cyberbullying**, which consist of 8 items. A set of event descriptions are presented, and the questions ask how often the respondent has experienced these events. Using phone as device, the events are “mean text messages or unpleasant photos/videos on my phone” and “mean calls to my mobile phone”. E-mails insult description is “scary or nasty e-mails”. The three next items specify “insults online (Facebook, twitter or web)”, “teased or insulted by chat messages, as at Skype or within games” and “insults on blogs”. One separate item describe posting picture and video content: “unpleasant photos or videos of me posted on internet (Facebook, YouTube, web and so on)”. The last item has a description of social exclusion in cyberspace: “Banned me from a Facebook-group or the like where wanted to participate”.

*“The survey questions used in this study to measure cyberbullying are still in an early and temporary stage”* (Rønning and Thorvaldsen 2012:5).

For all types of bullying frequencies these alternatives for answers are used: “never/ do not know”, “only once or twice”, “two or three times a month”, “about once a week”, “many times a week”.

There are also questions about whether telling has an impact and to which extent the pupils themselves or the teacher try to stop bullying from happening. When conducting analysis the cut-off point for being bullied is set to “Two or more times a month and above.” This is in accordance with Olweus and Roland’s use of cut-off point.

## 3.5 Variables used in the analysis

The cut-off point for being bullied is set to “two or three times a month” and above. This is a well-known cut-off point in the bullying literature (Olweus 1993, Arora 1994, Smith, Cowie et al. 2002, Rønning, Handegaard et al. 2004, Roland 2014). See section 3.1 for details of the items.

When making dichotomy items, the five-point scale was transformed by recoding into new variables. Values “never”/”only once or twice” (1 and 2), are recoded into “**not bullied**” (1),

and values “two or three times a month”/“about once a week”/many times a week” (3, 4, 5) are recoded into “**being bullied**” (2).

In order to find those who report being bullied in either ways, a new dichotomy item was made by transforming the same five-point scale as above for both traditional and cyberbullying, into new a new variable “traditional and/or cyberbullied”.

The 4 items in bullying in general were made into 2 construct variables: **being bullied** (“how often have you been bullied at school”/ “how often have you been bullied outside of school”), **bullies** (“how often have you bullied other at school”/ “how often have you bullied other outside of school”). The last item in this part report **bystander** (“have you seen other being bullied”). The 15 items retrieved from the “My Life in School Checklist+”, were made in to 3 respective construct variables: **physical** (“tried to kick me”/“threatened me”/ “tried to trick me”/“tried to hit me”), **verbal** (“called me names”/“said something mean about my family”/“been mean to me because I am different”/“teased me”/“tried to hurt me”) and **social** (“made other be mean to me”/“made me be mean to other”/“tricked me into doing something”/“made med do something I didn’t want to do”/“threatened to tell on me”/“told a lie about me”) harassment.

The 8 items in the specific cyberbullying list were made into 1 construct variable: cyberbullying, see section 3.6.3 for more detailed information.

The 24 items in KINDL<sup>R</sup>, stating “During the last week...”, were made into 6 construct variables, as shown in figure 3.1: **physical well-being** (“I felt ill”/“I was in pain”/“I was tired and worn-out”/“I was full of energy”), **emotional well-being** (“I had fun and laughed a lot”/“I was bored”/“I felt alone”/“I felt scared or unsure of myself”), **self-esteem** (“I was proud of myself”/“I felt on top of the world”/“I felt pleased with myself”/“I had lots of good ideas”), **family** (“I got on well with my parents”/“I felt fine at home”/“We quarrelled at home”)/“I felt restricted by my parents”, **friends** (“I did things together with my friends”/“I was a “success” with my friends”/“I felt different from other people”), **school** (“Doing the schoolwork was easy”/“I found school interesting”/“I worried about my future”/“I worried about getting bad marks or grades”).

10 of the items had reverse order scaling, meaning that a higher item implies a poorer quality of life. In order to make these construct variables, it was necessary to reverse the values of the items to ensure that higher scores correspond to a higher QoL for all the KINDL<sup>R</sup> items and sub-scales. Further a **Total score** is formed for all the items. The reliability was checked by confirmatory testing, Cronbach’s alpha as a measure of internal consistency reached value of  $\alpha = .81$ .

In order to assess the quality of this study, we have to say something about the concepts reliability and validity. This will indicate whether we study what we think we are studying and whether the measures we use are consistent (Johannessen 2009, Kleven, Tveit et al. 2011).

Validity is derived from the Latin word “validus”, meaning strong, and is the extent to which the finding in a study can be generalized to others than the source population. In order to obtain a high validity, it requires that the variable used to describe the exposure is estimated with little error. Questionnaire-based studies will always be influenced by errors, which are either systematic or random. Systematic errors are often referred to as bias. The smaller the bias is, the more valid the study is.

The early research regarding construct validity, was presented in an article by Cronbach and Meehl in 1955 (Kleven, Tveit et al. 2011:23). In order to draw legitimate conclusions based on the operationalisations in a study, one need to know to which degree the theoretical constructs reflects the operationalisations they were based on and is referred to as “Construct validity” (Kleven, Tveit et al. 2011:29,86). As with external validity, construct validity is related to generalizing. But, where external validity involves generalizing from a certain study context to other people, places or times, construct validity involves generalizing from your measures to the *concept* of your program or measures (2011).

Reliability is the extent to which a measure is consistent, and does not actually imply validity. If a measure gives more or less the same value over a range of equal subjects or over time, it is regarded to be of a high reliability.

Think of a watch being very accurate but not correctly set, this represent the situation of high reliability but not valid.

According to Kleven, these terms are often used in order to define reliability; consistency, stability and accuracy (Kleven, Tveit et al. 2011:90).

In this study the data collected are treated by researchers at the University of Tromsø, the Artic University of Norway. The questionnaires, except the cyberbullying part, have been used in other studies and have, as mentioned earlier, proved acceptable quality.

The constructs were based on 3 or more questionnaire items, Cronbach Alpha for all 5 bullying variables show acceptable fit  $\alpha = 0.69$  , and in KINDL<sup>R</sup>  $\alpha = 0.81$ .



### 3.6 Statistics

Measurement is the process of assigning numerals to observation. In this study we focus on the ordinal scale. What define values on the ordinal scale is that values, in addition to being mutually exclusive, also have a logical ranking (Johannessen 2009, King, Rosopa et al. 2011). These values can be arranged in a certain order, which express level, quality or position (e.g. never, now and then and often) (Johannessen 2009).

In this study various quantitative analyses have been performed using the software “Statistical Package for Social Sciences” (SPSS), release 21.

First an inspection of histogram and box plots for general student items of traditional and cyberbullying are done, and show the expected skew distribution, as do the operationalizes variables. A test statistic confirms this. Further, items of traditional bullying at and outside of school, bullied other at and outside of school, both on victim and perpetrator self-report, and the items of victim nomination of who does the bullying (girl/boy/group), all have p-values below 0.000 of the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality ( $<0.05$ ). The same applies for cyberbullying items on the same issues, and on the items for sum score of physical, verbal, social and cyberbullying. From this, I conclude that data are skew.

The purpose of descriptive analysis is to organize and summarize observations (King, Rosopa et al. 2011:3).

**The p-value** is a measure on the probability of rejecting a correct *null hypothesis* ( $H_0$ ). The  $H_0$  refers to a general statement that there is no relationship between two measured phenomena. The P-values help us to determine the significance of the results found. A p-value of  $\leq 0.05$  (small) suggests that the null hypothesis is wrong, so you should reject it. A p-value  $> 0.05$  (large) suggest weak evidence against the null hypothesis, so you should keep it (Johannessen 2009). The threshold for significance is set to 0.05 in this thesis, in social science there is a convention that we can accept a 5 percent probability to reject a correct  $H_0$  (Johannessen 2009:131) .

The reason to use the **chi-square test** is to calculate the difference between actual and expected distribution. It is always important to keep in mind that one should not regard p-value alone as the only measure on the relations you want to investigate. The chi-square test is used to find whether there are significant differences between gender considering distinct aspects of harassment.

The purpose of using a **t-test** is to find whether there is a substantial difference between means. In my thesis I investigate differences between gender regarding bullying and well-being.

When analysing more than two independent groups, a related test, **ANOVA**, to the t-test is used (Johannessen 2009:134). The **analysis of variance**, ANOVA, allows us to compare simultaneously several means with the level of significance specified by the investigator (King, Rosopa et al. 2011). “The null hypothesis in ANOVA is often referred to as an *omnibus hypothesis* (i.e., covering many situations at once), and ANOVA itself as an *omnibus test*” (King, Rosopa et al. 2011:300). In my thesis ANOVA is used to find whether there are significant differences between QoL and being bullied for genders.

King has referred to Cohen 1988 and define **effect size** as “*an estimate of the degree to which the treatment effect is present in the population, expressed as “number... free of the original measurement unit”*”(King, Rosopa et al. 2011:217). Effect size does not tell us the same as a p-value, because highly significant p-values do not indicate that there is a large effect (King, Rosopa et al. 2011). As a rule of thumb one can say that 0.2=small effect, 0.5= medium effect and 0.8= large effect (ibid). In my thesis I have used effect size when measuring the difference between those who report not to be bullied to those who report being bullied. Since the two groups are not the same size, control group as well were inserted into the equation. I used the “Effect size calculators” and found g (Hedges’):

<http://www.polyu.edu.hk/mm/effectsizafaqs/calculator/calculator.html>

### **3.7 Correlation analyses**

Bivariate correlations analysis aim to find the degree of relationship between two variables. Pearson’s r (product moment coefficient) is a widely used measure of correlation, which is also used in this study. Pearson’s r specifies the type of covariance and the strength (Johannessen 2009, King, Rosopa et al. 2011, ch.7). Pearson’s r is used to find to which degree there is a positive or negative linear coherence between two variables. -1.0 shows a perfect negative, while +1.0 shows a perfect positive linear coherence and 0.0 shows no coherence (Øhrn 2005). According to Johannessen, in social science one can “as a rule of thumb say that Pearson’s r up to 0.20 is considered to be a weak correlation, 0.30-0.40 is moderate, and over 0.50 show strong correlation.” (Johannessen 2009:127).

In this study, **bivariate correlations** are used in order to find whether there is coherence between the answers given by students, teachers and parents concerning perceived bullying

and harassment. This is done in order to gain information about whether these three parties look upon bullying in the same way, or if there are differences between their interpretations of the term bullying.

Correlations are also used to find whether there is coherence regarding the different harassment categories between students, teachers and parents. Likewise there is conducted bivariate correlations to observe correlations between bullying and QoL. This is done to find whether these two variables, “bullying” and “quality of life” correlates.

### **3.8 Missing**

In our questionnaire we have asked students, parents and teachers similar questions. In the questionnaire used by “Well-being in Tromsø”, the respondents have to tick off an answer before they are allowed to move on. This way missing is not of great concern. On the other hand, this can increase the risk of problems with validity, due to the fact that respondents give answers which do not correspond with their real opinion. According to the project leadership subjective evaluation, there seems to be less risk for wrong answers when students have to answer by name, instead of being anonymous. Parents for students in 9<sup>th</sup> grade answered the questionnaire on paper, here the missing is low.

### **3.9 Ethics**

The study was carried out digitally using Questback, which is a commercial tool developed to use in numerous investigations. These tools have general reputation of data security. Only the project leadership employed by the University of Tromsø will have access to the filled-in questionnaires. These have signed a non-disclosure agreement, NDA. Each student will be de-identified and given an ID. The lists with real names and IDs will be stored in a fire-safe cabinet. All data-analysis will be carried out within the fire-wall of the University. For students to be part of the research project the parents must have given their signed informed consent.

Since children in Secondary schools are under 18 years old, their parents have to consent to this survey. The parents were contacted by the local school, given written and oral information about the project, and asked for their consent (appendix II). The lead teachers in the classes administered the investigation according to written instructions.

The part of the study involving students is administered by the teacher during one teaching hour. Questionnaires of students whose parents have not given their positive informed consent will be eliminated by the project leadership. Students and parents can at any time resign from the study without questions asked, and data that have not already been published will be deleted. The survey among parents will be based on a questionnaire handed out at the parent meeting and handed in on the same meeting or as soon as possible later. For contact teachers the survey time is estimated to 20 minutes per student, constituting 7 working hours per year. In agreement with the principal this is established as part of the annual working plan.

Feedback to schools will be submitted through annual dialog conferences, and each school will receive a report where it can compare itself with the mean. If wanted each school will also receive a report where data from each class is published.

The project is approved by the Regional Ethical Committee for Medical Research, REK-Nord 7.3.2012 (2011/2496) (Rønning and Thorvaldsen).

## 4 Results

This section presents results regarding the three fundamental concepts of this thesis; *quality of life*, *bullying* and *harassment*. After an overview of the analyses, these three concepts are first dealt with in general terms giving descriptive information, and then in more depth. The final part of this section deals with the relationship between *QoL*, *bullying* and *harassment*. The findings will to a large extent be presented by split on gender throughout this section.

### 4.1 Overview of operationalized items in the harassment analyses

Table 4.1 gives a presentation of the items used when asking about the different categories of traditional harassment and cyberbullying, providing an insight to which answers are given. The question asked is; “how often have you been bullied in the following way”. The alternative categories are ranged from 1 to 5; “never/do not know”, “only once or twice”, “two or three times a month”, “about once per week”, and “many times per week”.

In table 4.1, the variables “never/do not know” and “only once or twice” are not included, because student who report these are not considered to be harassed systematically and over time. The three categories, “two or three times a month”, “about once per week”, and “many times per week” are represented in one category “two or three times a month or more often”.

Table 4.1 **Harassment**

Shows the results of which types of harassment student reported to be exposed to, distributed on gender and frequency, ranged from most to least used form of harassment on respectively traditional and cyberbullying. The column shows the actual number (the percentage in brackets) of those who report being harassed two or three times a month or more often. Chi-square calculations are used as a test for significance.

Categories	Two or three times a month or more often		p-value	
	Girls	Boys		
Traditional harassment	1. Called me names	28 (19.4%)	20 (13.6%)	-
	2. Teased me	20 (13.9%)	25 (17.0%)	-
	3. Told a lie about me	29 (20.1%)	12 (8.2%)	0.003
	4. Tried to trip me	10 (6.9%)	21 (14.3%)	0.04
	5. Tried to hurt me	16 (11.1%)	9 (6.1%)	-
	6. Made the other be mean to me	10 (6.9%)	8 (5.4%)	-
	7. Said something nasty about my family	8 (5.5 %)	7 (4.8%)	-
	8. Tried to kick me	8 (5.5 %)	7 (4.8%)	-
	9. Threatened to tell on me	10 (6.9%)	5 (3.4%)	-
	10. Tried to hit me	9 (6.2%)	6 (4.0%)	-
	11. Been mean to me because I am different	9 (6.2%)	4 (2.7%)	-
	12. Tried to make me be mean to other	6 (4.2%)	6 (4.0%)	-
	13. Made me do something I didn't want to do	2 (1.4%)	6 (4.0%)	-
	14. Tried to trick me into doing something	4 (2.8%)	6 (3.4%)	-
	15. Threatened me	1 (0.7%)	5 (3.4%)	-
Cyberbullying	16. Teased or insulted me via chat	4 (2.8%)	7 (4.8%)	-
	17. Teased or insulted me online	7 (4.9 %)	2 (1.4%)	-
	18. Mean calls	1 (0.7%)	3 (2.0%)	-
	19. Unpleasant photos/videos online	5 (2.1%)	1 (0.7%)	-
	20. Sent me mean SMS or unpleasant photos/videos on my cell-phone	1 (0.7%)	3 (2.0%)	-
	21. Scary or nasty e-mails	2 (1.4%)	1 (0.7%)	-
	22. Teased or insulted me via blogs	1 (0.7%)	1 (0.7%)	-
	23. Banned me from a Facebook-group or the like where wanted to participate	1 (0.7%)	1 (0.7%)	-

N=291 (girls (g): 144, boys (b): 147)

Here the most used form of traditional harassment is “called me names” followed by “teased me” and “told a lie about me”. There is no significant differences between gender except for

“told a lie about me”, here girls report to be significantly more harassed than boys ( $p=0.003$ ), and “tried to trip me”, where boys report to be more harassed than girls ( $p=0.04$ ). There are other differences between genders concerning harassment, without reaching the levels of significant, such as “called me names” (g:19.4%/b:13.6%), “teased me” (g: 13.9%/b: 17%) and “tried to hurt me” (g:11.1%/b:6.1%). Table 1 also shows that the least used form of traditional harassment is “threatened me”.

We observe that less students report to be cyberbullied by different means than by traditional means. The most common forms of cyber-harassment are “teased or insulted me via chat” (g:2.8%/b:4.8%) and “teased or insulted me online” (g:4.9%/b:1.4%), while the least common form are “banned me from a Facebook-group...” and “teased or insulted me via blogs”.

## 4.2 Quality of life

Quality of life is measured through 24 questions about students’ self-perceived QoL, as shown in table 3.1 and figure 3.1. The 24 items are organized into 6 sub-concepts, each consisting of 4 items. The six sub-concepts are: ”physical well-being”, “emotional well-being”, “self-esteem”, “family well-being”, “friend well-being” and “school well-being”.

Each item is scored from 1-5, where value 1 correspond to student response “never/do not know” and the value 5 to “always”. A low score indicate less feeling of content and a high score a higher level of content. Furthermore, all the six factors are combined in a construct, “Total quality of life” (TQoL).

To find whether the different variables measuring QoL correspond, a bivariate correlation is done. The figures are presented in table 4.2.

Table 4.2 **Correlations between the construct variables in KINDL<sup>R</sup>**

Correlations, measured by using Pearson's r, between the construct variables measuring "QoL" in the KINDL<sup>R</sup> questionnaire, as well as "TQoL"

	<b>Total Quality of life</b>	Physical well-being	Emotional well-being	Self-esteem	Family	Friend	School
<b>Total Quality of life</b>	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Physical well-being	0.755**	1	-	-	-	-	-
Emotional well-being	0.775**	0.549**	1	-	-	-	-
Self-esteem	0.736**	0.491**	0.460**	1	-	-	-
Family	0.616**	0.397**	0.344**	0.262**	1	-	-
Friend	0.732**	0.443**	0.597**	0.434**	0.295**	1	-
School	0.728**	0.451**	0.481**	0.448**	0.382**	0.412**	1

N=291. \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 4.2 shows that QoL is a holistic concept, which not easily can be split into independent dimensions. Thus, there are strong correlations between TQoL and the other items; "physical well-being" (r=0.755), "emotional well-being" (r=0.775), "self-esteem" (r=0.736), "family" (r=0.616), "friends" (r=0.732) and "school" (r=0.728).

Besides, the strongest correlation is between "emotional well-being" and "friend" (r=0.597). And the weakest correlation is between "family" and "self-esteem" (r=0.262).

Table 4.3 presents the mean score and standard deviations for the six sub-construct of quality of life, as well as for the aggregated variable of quality of life, "TQoL". The table shows the score reported by all students in grade 8<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup>.

Table 4.3 **Constructs measuring QoL**

The construct of QoL (six factors), as well as TQoL, the mean score (m) and standard deviation (SD) for all factors. Score range from 1-5

	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. deviation</b>
<b>Physical</b>	3.7	0.6
<b>Emotional</b>	3.9	0.6
<b>Self-esteem</b>	3.2	0.8
<b>Family</b>	4.0	0.7
<b>Friends</b>	3.9	0.7
<b>School</b>	3.4	0.7
<b>Total quality of life</b>	3.7	0.5

N=291

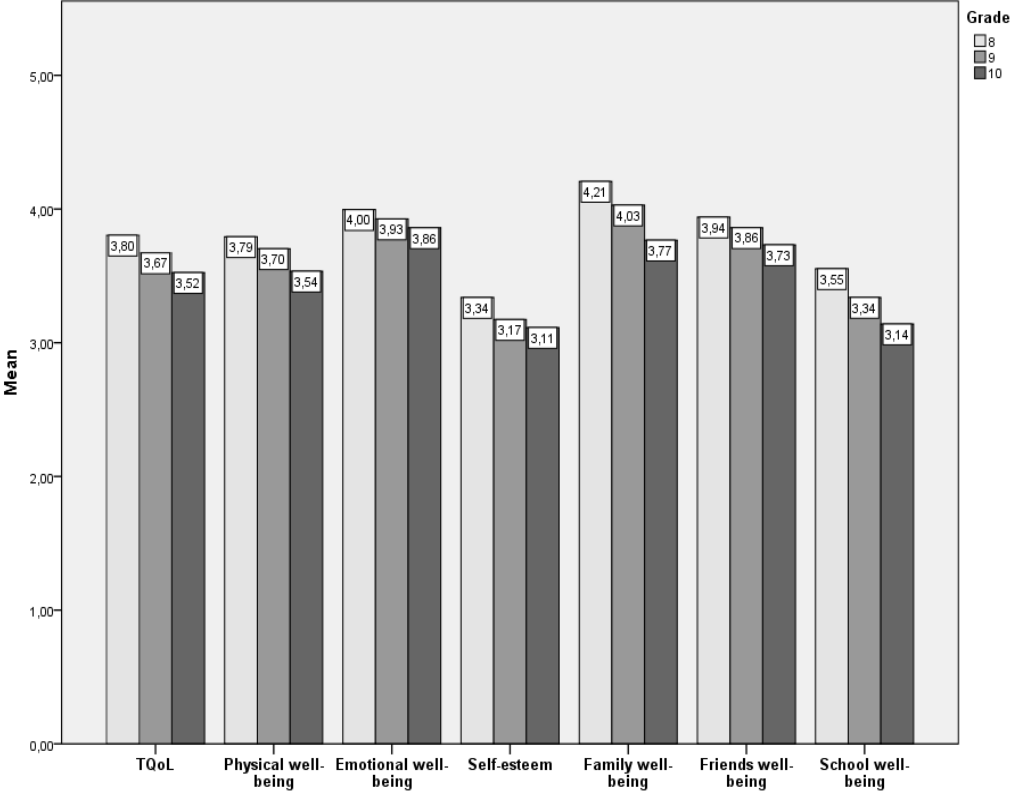
The mean scores on the six factors indicate that students in general seem content across all factors. They report to be most content with family (m=4.0), friends (m=3.9) and emotional well-being (m=3.9), and least content with school (m=3.4) and self-esteem (m=3.2). The standard deviations (SD) indicate that there is substantial difference among the students. Note that the SD is biggest for the sub-concept self-esteem, which also yields the lowest mean score.



The data was split in order to do some more detailed analysis, and analysed with respect to grades (figure 4.1) and gender (figure 4.2).

Figure 4.1 QoL across grades

QoL figure for each of the six areas in KINDL<sup>R</sup>, as well as TQoL, showing mean values for grade 8<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup>.



Splitting the population into grades reveals a clear picture over decreasing tendencies for the mean values of various categories of QoL. Across all six factors of well-being students report falling level of content with age. 8<sup>th</sup> grade students report higher scores on well-being than students of 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade. They report to be most satisfied with “family well-being”, and less content with “school well-being”, and “self-esteem”. There seem to be greater differences across grades for “family” and “school”, and accordance concerning “emotional well-being” “self-esteem” and “friend”.

In order to find whether there is a significant difference regarding self-perceived QoL across grades, an ANOVA analysis was conducted. The figures are presented in table 4.4.

Table 4.4 **QoL across grades**

The ANOVA analysis of QoL across grades, showing mean scores and std. deviation (SD) in brackets

	<b>Grade (N)</b>	<b>Mean (SD)</b>	<b>p-value</b>
<b>Total quality of life</b>	8	3.8 (.45)	.002
	9	3.7 (.51)	
	10	3.5 (.50)	
<b>Physical well-being</b>	8	3.8 (.56)	.035
	9	3.7 (.65)	
	10	3.5 (.64)	
<b>Emotional well-being</b>	8	4.0 (.55)	.351
	9	3.9 (.61)	
	10	3.9 (.66)	
<b>Self-esteem</b>	8	3.3 (.80)	.152
	9	3.2 (.86)	
	10	3.1 (.74)	
<b>Family well-being</b>	8	4.2 (.61)	.000
	9	4.0 (.67)	
	10	3.8 (.81)	
<b>Friend well-being</b>	8	3.9 (.67)	.188
	9	3.9 (.72)	
	10	3.7 (.72)	
<b>School well-being</b>	8	3.5 (.64)	.000
	9	3.3 (.65)	
	10	3.1 (.69)	

N=8<sup>th</sup>: 116, 9<sup>th</sup>: 118 and 10<sup>th</sup>: 57.

Table 4.4 indicates that there are significant differences between grades on these constructs; “TQoL” (p=.002), “physical well-being” (p=.035), “family well-being” (p=.000), and “school well-being” (p=.000). The mean-scores indicate that students report to feel less content the older they get. The construct “TQoL”, shows that while students in 8<sup>th</sup> grade have a mean value of 3.8, students in 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade have a mean value of 3.7 and 3.5 respectively.

Students report to feel almost equally content regarding “Emotional”, where they report 4.0 in 8<sup>th</sup> grade, and 3.9 in 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grades. The most considerable difference regarding grade QoL is reported concerning “family”, where the means-values are 4.2 in 8<sup>th</sup>, 4.0 in 9<sup>th</sup>, and 3.8 in 10<sup>th</sup> grade, which is a significant difference.

Regarding boys, there are non-significant differences concerning QoL across grades (not shown). As for girls, the differences are significant for the variables shown in table 4.5.

**Table 4.5 Analysis of self-perceived QoL for girls**

ANOVA analysis of self-perceived QoL for girls in 8<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade. Showing mean values and standard deviation in brackets for all grades, and the overall significant values for “TQoL”, “family” and “school”

	Grade (N)	Mean (SD)	p-value
<b>Total quality of life</b>	8	3.7 (.44)	.006
	9	3.5 (.53)	
	10	3.4 (.55)	
<b>Family well-being</b>	8	4.3 (.55)	.002
	9	3.9 (.76)	
	10	3.7 (.55)	
<b>School well-being</b>	8	3.6 (.61)	.000
	9	3.2 (.72)	
	10	2.9 (.73)	

8<sup>th</sup> N=60, 9<sup>th</sup> N=59, 10<sup>th</sup> N=25.

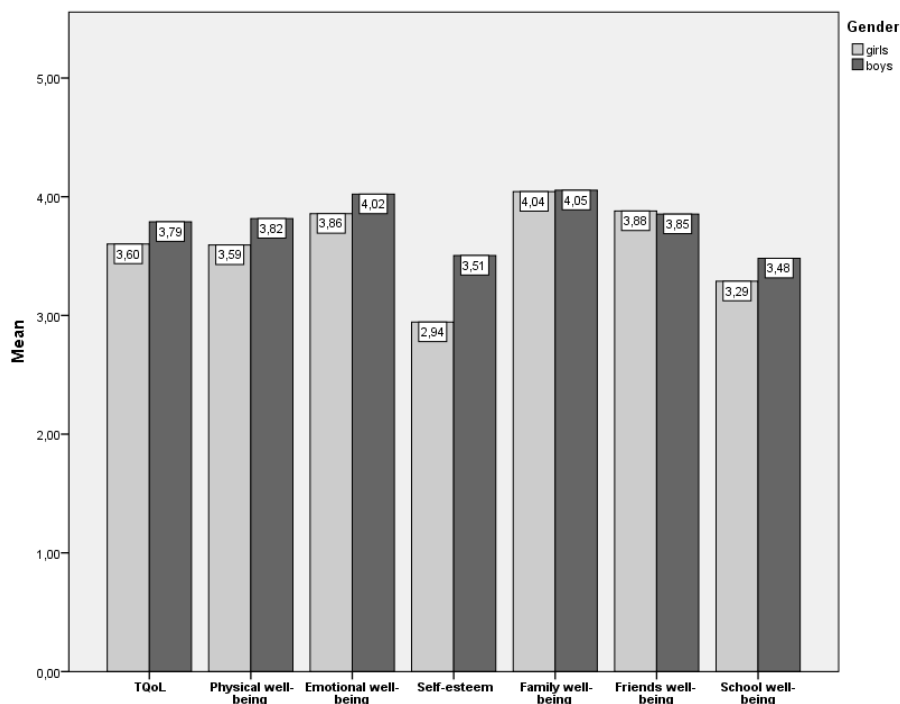
Table 4.5 suggests that there are significant differences for girls concerning “TQoL” (p=.006), “family” (p=.002) and “school” (p=.000). For girls, the mean-values vary more than for boys on the two sub-constructs “family” and “school”.

Regarding “school”, the difference is largest between 8<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade, namely 0.7. Here 8<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grades score 3.6, 3.2 and 2.9 respectively. Concerning “family” the scores are 4.3 for 8<sup>th</sup> grade, 3.9 for 9<sup>th</sup>, and 3.7 for 10<sup>th</sup> grade, this give a 0.6 difference between 8<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade.

There seem to be a difference across grades concerning self-perceived QoL, and girls report to score lower on “TQoL”, “family”, and “school” than boys. When we did an analysis on QoL by gender, we found the results presented in figure 2 and table 4.6.

**Figure 4.2 Self-perceived QoL by gender**

Self-perceived QoL figures for each of the six areas in KINDL<sup>R</sup>, as well as “TQoL, by mean values for gender



There is a significant difference between boys and girls concerning “TQoL”. Boys report to be significantly more content than girls on these sub-constructs: “TQoL” ( $p=.001$ ), “physical” ( $p=.002$ ), “emotional” ( $p=.019$ ), “self-esteem” ( $p=.000$ ) and “school” ( $p=.014$ ). Concerning “family” ( $p=.893$ ) and “friends” ( $p=.748$ ) non-significant results were found, and the gender report to be almost equally satisfied. In table 4.6, only the significant figures are presented.

**Table 4.6 Self-perceived QoL by gender**

ANOVA-analysis of the significant values for QoL by gender, showing the mean values, standard deviation (SD) in brackets, as well as the overall p-values

	Gender	Mean (SD)	ANOVA p-value
<b>TQoL</b>	Girls	3.6 (.51)	.001
	Boys	3.8 (.46)	
<b>Physical</b>	Girls	3.6 (.65)	.002
	Boys	3.8 (.57)	
<b>Emotional</b>	Girls	3.9 (.67)	.019
	Boys	4.0 (.51)	
<b>Self-esteem</b>	Girls	2.9 (.75)	.000
	Boys	3.5 (.79)	
<b>School</b>	Girls	3.3 (.72)	.014
	Boys	3.5 (.61)	

N=144

Table 4.6 indicates that there are significant differences between gender and self-perceived QoL. The largest difference between genders is found in the construct “self-esteem”, where the mean for girls is 2.9, while 3.5 for boys. There are minor differences regarding “emotional” where the mean for girls is 3.9, and for boys 4.0, the same we observe for the items “TQoL” and “physical”.

### 4.3 Bullying

One of the factors that might influence student’s reports of well-being is bullying. In the following we outline the questions asked regarding traditional- and cyber-harassment and traditional- and cyberbullying.

This section shows the result of being bullied which is conducted using 4 questions of bullying in general; “How often have you been bullied at school”, “how often have you been bullied outside of school”, “how often have you been cyberbullied at school”, and “how often have you been cyberbullied outside of school”. Each item is scored from 1-5, and correspond to the answer “never/do not know”, “only once or twice”, “two or three times a month”,

“about once a week” and “many times per week”. As mentioned in before, the cut-off point for being bullied is set to 3 or above.

The aim is to find how many students report to be bullied overall. These findings are presented in table 4.7.

**Table 4.7 Self-reported bullying**

Results of the descriptive analysis of self-perceived bullying for boys and girls, actual numbers and percentage shown in brackets

<b>Type of bullying</b>	<b>Girls</b>	<b>Boys</b>	<b>Both genders</b>
<b>Traditional bullying</b>	17 (11.8%)	11 (7.5%)	28 (9.6%)
<b>Cyberbullying</b>	5 (3.5%)	4 (2.8%)	9 (3.1%)
<b>Both traditional and cyberbullying</b>	3 (2.1 %)	2 (1.4 %)	5 (1.7 %)
<b>Sum traditional- cyberbullying</b>	19 (13.2 %)	13 (8.8 %)	32 (11.0 %)

N= 291 (girls N= 144, boys N=147)

In table 4.7 we find that 28 (9.6 %) students in our study report being traditional bullied. The figures also show that 9 (3.1 %) report being cyberbullied, while 5 (1.7 %) report to be both traditional and cyberbullied. Those who reported to be both traditional- and/or cyberbullied adds up to 32 (11.0 %).

More girls 17 (11.8%) than boys 11 (7.5%) report being traditional bullied, while the figures for being cyberbullied or both traditional and cyberbullied showed almost no difference between genders, respectively 5 and 3 for girls, and 4 and 2 for boys. More girls, 19 (13.2%), than boys, 13 (8.8%), report being bullied by different means, but this is non-significant.

We have established how many students reported to be bullied in various forms. Further there would be of interest to find what specific forms of bullying those who reported to be traditional- and/or cyberbullied were exposed to (N=32). In table 4.8 we present the number of girls and boys who report to have been bullied in different ways. The same constructs are used as in the previous table.

**Table 4.8 Number of individuals reported being bullied by gender**

The distribution of being bullied at school and outside of school for girls and boys. The actual numbers of girls and boys, the percentage for genders shown in brackets

	<b>Girls</b>	<b>Boys</b>	<b>Both genders</b>
<b>Cyberbullying only</b>	2 (10.5 %)	2 (15.4 %)	4 (12.5 %)
<b>Traditional bullying only</b>	14 (73.7 %)	9 (69.2 %)	23 (71.8 %)
<b>Both traditional and cyberbullying</b>	3 (15.8 %)	2 (15.4 %)	5 (15.6 %)
<b>Sum traditional – cyberbullying</b>	19 (59.4 %)	13 (40.6 %)	32 (100%)

N=32

In table 4.8 we see that 4 students report to be only cyberbullied, while 23 report to be only bullied by traditional means. 5 students report to be both traditional and cyber bullied. There is no significant difference between sexes regarding these issues ( $p=0.24$ ) (data not shown).

There are different arenas for bullying, and we asked students whether they were bullied at- and outside of school and whether they bullied other at- and outside of school. As mentioned earlier, the answers are divided into 5 categories with a score from 1-5, where value 1 correspond to the answer “never/do not know” and the value 5 to “many times per week”.

Table 4.9 shows the correlations between the arenas of bullying.

Table 4.9 **Bullying arenas**

Correlation, showing Pearson's  $r$ , between the different arenas; being bullied at- and outside of school and bullied others at- and outside of school

	Being bullied at school	Being bullied outside of school	Bullied other at school	Bullied other outside of school
<b>Being bullied at school</b>	1	-	-	-
<b>Being bullied outside of school</b>	.681**	1	-	-
<b>Bullied others at school</b>	.305**	.290**	1	-
<b>Bullied others outside of school</b>	.165**	.190**	.584**	1

N=291 \*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.9 indicates that there is a correlation between the different “bullying arenas”. The correlations are strongest between “being bullied at school” and “being bullied outside of school” ( $r=.681$ ), and “bullied other at school” and “bullied other outside of school” ( $r=.584$ ). Overall, there are weak correlations between those reported being bullied and those reported to bully other.

28 students report to be traditionally bullied two or three times a month or more often (some of them also report to be cyberbullied, the overall number of victims add up to 32).

In table 4.10 students, parents, teachers and the items “how often have you/the student/your child been bullied at school” and “how often have you/the student/your child been bullied outside of school” are correlated.

**Table 4.10 How students, parents and teachers view bullying**

The correlation between students, parents and teachers in the area of self-perceived bullying at school and outside of school

		Students N=291		Teachers N= 287		#Parents N= 106	
		At school	Outside school	At school	Outside school	At school	Outside school
<b>Students</b>	At school	1	-	-	-	-	-
	Outside school	0.681**	1	-	-	-	-
<b>Teachers</b>	At school	0.305**	0.256**	1	-	-	-
	Outside school	0.173**	0.248**	0.595**	1	-	-
<b>#Parents</b>	At school	0.392**	<b>0.419**</b>	<b>0.509**</b>	<b>0.482**</b>	1	-
	Outside school	0.325**	0.276**	<b>0.427**</b>	0.262**	0.717**	1

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed).

# only data for 9<sup>th</sup> grade.

Table 4.10 indicates that there is a strong correlation between reported bullying at school and outside of school. Students who report being bullied at school also report being bullied outside of school ( $r=0.681$ ). An even stronger correlation is reported by parents concerning the same issue ( $r=0.717$ ), while the correlation is a little weaker (but strong) for teachers ( $r=0.595$ ). There is also a strong correlation between what teachers and parents report regarding bullying at school (0.509), but a weak correlation concerning bullying outside of school ( $r=0.262$ ). When considering bullying at school, there are moderate to weak correlations between the respondents.

The same analysis was done with a sub-set of data for students in the 9<sup>th</sup> grade (N=118), this was done to check if the results were comparable, since only parents for students in 9<sup>th</sup> grade participated in the survey, the results show similar results as in table 4.10. There was only a slightly stronger correlation between students and teachers regarding bullying outside of school (.323), (data not shown).

## 4.4 Harassment

This section treats the different harassment categories; *verbal*, *physical*, *social* and *cyber*, which include 23 questions, derived in figure 3.2 and table 4.1.

In our study we have asked students whether they are harassed by different means. Here students are asked to answer 15 questions concerning different aspects of harassment. As mentioned before, each item has a score from 1-5, where value 1 correspond to the answer “never/do not know” and value 5 to “many times per week”.

Table 4.11 gives an overview of the most used forms of harassment reported by students in this survey, some of the central information is presented here; some is also mentioned in table 4.1 and 4.12.

**Table 4.11 Overview of harassment**

The construct variables “verbal”, “social”, “physical” and “cyber”, as well as the most reported forms of harassment (items) in all construct, shown by gender. Actual numbers of cases reported, percentage shown in brackets.

Constructs	Girls	Boys	Items	Girls	Boys
<b>Verbal</b>	38 (26.4%)	32 (21.8 %)	“called me names”	28 (19.4%)	20 (13.6%)
			“teased me”	20 (13.9%)	25 (17.0%)
			“tried to hurt me”	16 (11.1%)	9 (6.1%)
<b>Social</b>	15 (10.4%)	20 (13.6 %)	“told a lie about me”	29 (20.1%)	12 (8.2%)
			“made the other be mean to me”	10 (6.9%)	8 (5.4%)
<b>Physical</b>	33(22.9 %)	27 (18.4%)	“tried to trip me”	10 (6.9%)	21 (14.3%)
			“tried to kick me”	8 (5.5 %)	7 (4.8%)
<b>Cyber</b>	15 (10.4 %)	11 (7.5 %)	“teased or insulted me via chat”	4 (2.8%)	7 (4.8%)
			“teased or insulted me online”	7 (4.9 %)	2 (1.4%)

N=291 (girls: 144, boys: 147)

In table 4.11 we see that for *Verbal* harassment the reports are 26.4% for girls and 21.8% for boys, *social* girls: 10.4% and boys: 13.6%, *physical* girls: 22.9% and boys 18.4% and *cyber* 10.4% and 7.5% respectively. Further it tells us that the most used form of harassment is reported to be *verbal*, while the least used form is *cyber*. The most used way of harassing is reported to be “called me names”.

As mentioned earlier and shown in figure 3.2, verbal harassment consists of 5 questions, social of 5, and physical of 4. At last cyberbullying contains 8 questions.

Table 4.12 shows the different forms of harassment reported by all students as well as split for girls and boys, with the corresponding p-values.

**Table 4.12 Self-perceived harassment**

Self-perceived harassment by gender, the p-values are computed by the chi-square test for girls versus boys

Harassment category	Girls	Boys	Both genders	p-value
<b>Verbal harassment</b>	38 (26.4%)	32 (21.8 %)	70 (24%)	0.35
<b>Social harassment</b>	33(22.9 %)	20 (13.6 %)	53 (18.2%)	0.04
<b>Physical harassment</b>	15 (10.4%)	27 (18.4%)	42 (14.4%)	0.05
<b>Cyberbullying</b>	15 (10.4 %)	11 (7.5 %)	26 (8.9 %)	0.38

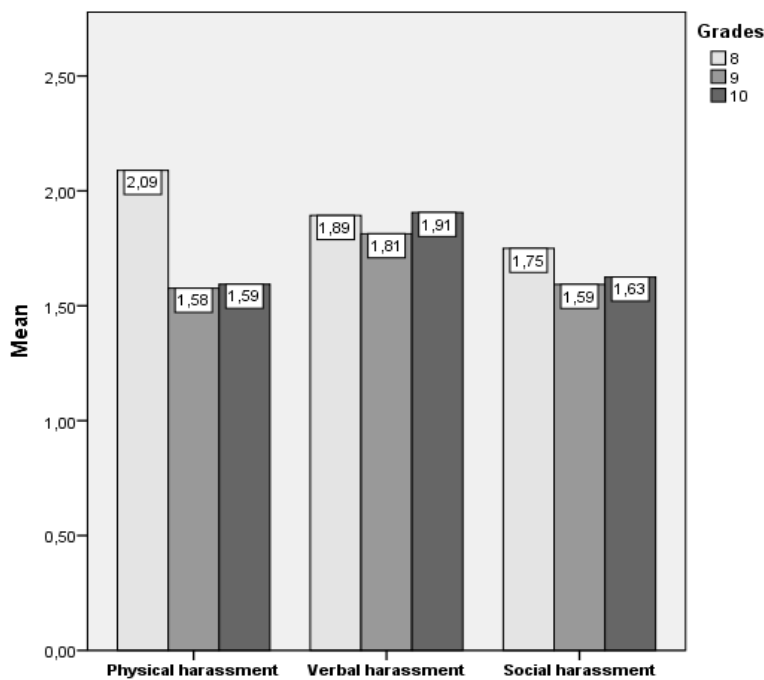
N=291

Here we observe that boys score higher than girls on physical harassment, with a significant result ( $p=0.05$ ). Girls score significantly higher ( $p=0.04$ ) than boys on social harassment, while there are no significant differences found regarding verbal ( $p=0.35$ ) and cyberbullying ( $p=0.38$ ). Thus, we do an analysis which suggests whether there are differences across grades by gender on the significant constructs. The results are presented in figure 4.3.



Figure 4.3 **Harassment constructs for boys**

Physical, verbal and social harassment constructs for boys by mean values.



There is a significant difference across grades for boys on the construct “physical” ( $p=.04$ ), here we find that boys seem to perform more “physical violence” in 8<sup>th</sup> grade than in 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade. There were non-significant findings on “verbal” and “social” harassment. And, boys report to be least social harassed. There are small differences across grades, but boys report to be little less harassed in 9<sup>th</sup> grade than in 8<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade.

For girls there were non-significant findings on all these constructs (data not shown).

In order to find whether students, teachers and parents had the same view concerning physical, verbal and social harassment a bivariate correlation was done. The results are presented in table 4.13.

**Table 4.13 physical, verbal and social harassment correlations**

Correlations between students, teachers and parents concerning the constructs physical, verbal and social harassment

		Students N= 291			Teachers N= 287			Parents N= 106		
		Physical	Verbal	Social	Physical	Verbal	Social	Physical	Verbal	Social
Students	Physical harassment	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Verbal harassment	0.574**	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Social harassment	0.544**	0.650**	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Teachers	Physical harassment	0.128*	0.164**	0.065	1	-	-	-	-	-
	Verbal harassment	0.140*	0.267**	0.167**	0.510**	1	-	-	-	-
	Social harassment	0.171**	0.268**	0.167**	0.389**	0.712**	1	-	-	-
Parents	Physical harassment	0.249**	0.308**	0.215*	<b>0.408**</b>	<b>0.449**</b>	0.173	1	-	-
	Verbal harassment	<b>0.445**</b>	<b>0.443**</b>	0.349**	0.373**	<b>0.486**</b>	0.381**	0.625**	1	-
	Social harassment	0.087	0.117	0.216*	0.053	0.173	0.055	0.365**	0.413**	1

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

In table 4.13 we find strong correlations between students report on “physical harassment” and “verbal” (0.574) and “social” (0.544) harassment.

There are moderate correlations between students and parents concerning verbal and physical harassment, as well as between parents and teachers regarding physical and verbal harassment.

There are weak correlations between students and teachers concerning physical, verbal and social harassment.

## 4.5 Quality of life in light of bullying and harassment

This part shed a light upon self-perceived QoL, bullying and harassment. Here we also show how students report regarding TQoL.

The results from the six areas in the KINDL<sup>R</sup> questionnaire, is reported, as described in table 3.1 and figure 3.1.

All questions start with stating; “During the last week...”, and are answered by “never/do not know”, “seldom”, “now and then”, “often” and “always”.

As pointed out in the theoretical framework, bullying might be associated with poorer QoL. In order to find whether there are associations between bullying and well-being, bivariate correlations were run for the six factors of QoL and the construct of bullying. Due to the fact

that bullying is a negative term, in our study given the values 1 (never been bullied) to 5 (bullied many times a week), and QoL is a positive term, there is expected to be a negative correlation between bullying and well-being.

It would be of interest to find how bullying and QoL correlates for all students. The results are presented in table 4.14. The construct bullying is implemented in the correlation we find in table 4.2.

#### 4.14 Correlation between QoL and bullying

Correlations between constructs measuring QoL and bullying

	Bullying	TQoL	Physical well-being	Emotional well-being	Self-esteem	Family	Friends	School
Bullying	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TQoL	-0.325**	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Physical well-being	-0.274**	0.755**	1	-	-	-	-	-
Emotional well-being	-0.266**	0.775**	0.549**	1	-	-	-	-
Self-esteem	-0.208**	0.736**	0.491**	0.460**	1	-	-	-
Family	-0.186**	0.616**	0.397**	0.344**	0.262**	1	-	-
Friends	-0.265**	0.732**	0.443**	0.597**	0.434**	0.295**	1	-
School	-0.223**	0.728**	0.451**	0.481**	0.448**	0.382**	0.412**	1

N= 291 \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.14 indicates that there is negative significant correlation between bullying (traditional and/or cyber) and QoL. We find moderate negative correlation between “TQoL” and “bullying”, and moderate to weak negative correlations between the other constructs measuring QoL and “bullying”.

Table 4.15 is conducted by mean scores of self-perceived quality of life; where 1 indicate low level of well-being and 5 indicate a high level of well-being.

#### Table 4.15 Self-perceived quality of life vs. bullying

Self-perceived QoL versus bullying for students, showing mean and SD. The construct TQoL is also shown. The p-values are computed by the t-test comparing two groups (Not bullied vs. Bullied). The effect size (Hedge’s g) is also shown

	All students		Not bullied		Bullied (N=32)		*p-value	Effect size
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Bullied/ not bullied	Bullied/ not bullied
<b>TQoL</b>	3.7	0.49	3.7	0.48	3.3	0.50	0.000	0.8
Physical	3.7	0.62	3.7	0.59	3.4	0.76	0.015	0.6
Emotional	3.9	0.60	4.0	0.58	3.6	0.66	0.001	0.7
Self-esteem	3.2	0.81	3.3	0.77	2.8	1.02	0.009	0.6
Family	4.0	0.70	4.1	0.65	3.6	0.90	0.010	0.7
Friends	3.9	0.70	3.9	0.67	3.6	0.89	0.033	0.4
School	3.4	0.67	3.4	0.67	3.0	0.60	0.022	0.6

N=291 \*bullied vs. non-bullied

Table 4.15 indicates that students in general report that they are content, with quite large variations in the standard deviations, and consequently largest differences for “self-esteem”.

Students report to be most content with their family and somewhat less satisfied with school and their self-esteem.

Students who report not being bullied also report better overall QoL than those who report being bullied. This is significant on all constructs.

The construct having the largest effect size is “TQoL” (0.8), while “friends” have the lowest effect size (0.4).

We further wanted to find whether the same tendencies were found when analysing QoL to physical, verbal and social harassment. The results are presented in table 4.17.

**Table 4.16 self-perceived quality of life vs. specific forms of harassment**

Self-perceived QoL versus harassment for students, showing mean and SD. The construct TQoL is also shown. The p-values are computed by the t-test comparing two groups (Not harassed vs. harassed). The effect size (Hedge’s g) is also shown

	Not physically harassed N=249		Physically harassed N=42		* p-value	Effect size
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
<b>TQoL</b>	3.7	0.49	3.5	0.47	0.043	0.2
Physical	3.7	0.62	3.4	0.59	0.019	0.3
Emotional	4.0	0.59	3.8	0.60	-	-
Self-esteem	3.2	0.81	3.2	0.83	-	-
Family	4.1	0.70	3.9	0.67	-	-
Friends	3.9	0.69	3.7	0.77	-	-
School	3.4	0.69	3.3	0.53	-	-

	Not verbally harassed N=221		Verbally Harassed N=70		* p-value	Effect size
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
<b>TQoL</b>	3.8	0.48	3.4	0.44	0.000	0.8
Physical	3.8	0.58	3.4	0.63	0.000	0.7
Emotional	4.0	0.56	3.7	0.65	0.000	0.5
Self-esteem	3.3	0.78	3.0	0.87	0.000	0.4
Family	4.1	0.63	3.8	0.81	0.001	0.4
Friends	3.9	0.68	3.6	0.72	0.002	0.4
School	3.5	0.69	3.2	0.56	0.000	0.5

	Not socially harassed N=238		Socially Harassed N=53		* p-value	Effect size
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
<b>TQoL</b>	3.8	0.46	3.3	0.47	0.000	1.1
Physical	3.8	0.58	3.3	0.68	0.000	0.8
Emotional	4.0	0.55	3.6	0.70	0.000	0.7
Self-esteem	3.3	0.80	2.9	0.82	0.002	0.5
Family	4.2	0.62	3.6	0.83	0.000	0.9
Friends	4.0	0.66	3.5	0.76	0.000	0.7
School	3.5	0.65	3.0	0.64	0.000	0.8

N=291

In table 4.16 we find that the same tendencies for harassment as for bullying, namely that those reporting to be harassed also report poorer QoL. This is significant for all constructs regarding *verbal* and *social* harassment, and for “TQoL” and “physical” concerning *physical harassment*. We further find that the effect sizes are largest regarding “TQoL” on both *verbal* and *social harassment*, and “physical”, “family” and “school” on *social harassment*, while the lowest effect sizes are found in “TQoL” and “physical” on *physical harassment*.

As shown in table 4.15, those who report being bullied report lower satisfaction than those who report not being bullied. In light of this, we wanted to find whether girls and boys had the same response to these questions. The results are shown in table 4.18.

**Table 4.17 Quality of life, being bullied and gender**  
 Self-perceived QoL for gender of those reported being bullied. The p-values are computed by the t-test comparing two groups, girls versus boys

<b>Bullied</b>	<b>Girls</b>		<b>Boys</b>		<b>Significance</b>
	Mean	Std. deviation	Mean	Std. deviation	
<b>Total quality of life</b>	3.2	0.54	3.5	0.41	0.101
Physical	3.2	0.81	3.7	0.61	0.081
Emotional	3.4	0.72	3.9	0.46	0.050
Self-esteem	2.3	0.91	3.4	0.86	0.003
Family	3.8	0.93	3.4	0.84	0.213
Friends	3.6	0.93	3.7	0.88	0.851
School	3.0	0.70	3.1	0.45	0.470

N=32

In table 4.17 we see that there is a difference in reported QoL between girls and boys who report being bullied. Boys report better overall level on well-being than girls. The difference is significant regarding emotional well-being (.050) and self-esteem (.003). Girls, who report being bullied, also report lower scores on self-esteem in particular.

In table 4.18, we present the results for the same analysis as in table 4.17, the only difference is that instead of bullying, physically, verbally and socially harassment is rendered.

Table 4.18 **Quality of life, being harassed and gender**

Self-perceived QoL for gender of those reported being harassed ( $= < 3$ ). The p-values are computed by the t-test comparing two groups, girls versus boys

<b>Physically harassed</b>	<b>Girls (N=15)</b>		<b>Boys (N=27)</b>		<b>Significance</b>
<b>Well-being</b>	Mean	Std. deviation	Mean	Std. deviation	
<b>Total quality of life</b>	3.3	0.52	3.7	0.38	0.008
Physical	3.2	0.65	3.6	0.52	0.039
Emotional	3.4	0.72	4.0	0.41	0.001
Self-esteem	2.6	0.74	3.5	0.70	0.000
Family	4.0	0.53	3.8	0.72	0.167
Friends	3.5	0.97	3.9	0.62	0.131
School	3.0	0.60	3.4	0.44	0.021

<b>Verbally harassed</b>	<b>Girls (N=38)</b>		<b>Boys (N=32)</b>		<b>Significance</b>
<b>Well-being</b>	Mean	Std. deviation	Mean	Std. deviation	
<b>Total quality of life</b>	3.3	0.45	3.6	0.35	0.001
Physical	3.2	0.67	3.6	0.44	0.001
Emotional	3.5	0.69	3.9	0.52	0.010
Self-esteem	2.6	0.80	3.5	0.67	0.000
Family	3.8	0.81	3.7	0.84	0.806
Friends	3.6	0.76	3.6	0.69	0.964
School	3.0	0.58	3.3	0.51	0.063

<b>Socially harassed</b>	<b>Girls (N=33)</b>		<b>Boys (N=20)</b>		<b>Significance</b>
<b>Well-being</b>	Mean	Std. deviation	Mean	Std. deviation	
<b>Total quality of life</b>	3.2	0.50	3.5	0.36	0.038
Physical	3.2	0.76	3.6	0.45	0.045
Emotional	3.4	0.74	3.8	0.57	0.096
Self-esteem	2.7	0.86	3.3	0.59	0.007
Family	3.7	0.84	3.5	0.81	0.439
Friends	3.4	0.79	3.6	0.72	0.503
School	2.9	0.66	3.3	0.52	0.027

In table 4.16 we first observe that both girls and boys report to be most verbally harassed. Girls report to be least physically harassed, as for boys they report to be least socially harassed. We also find that girls who report being harassed, report a lower QoL than boys do. The largest differences are reported on the constructs “TQoL” “emotional” and “self-esteem”, and these findings are significant. Girls and boys are almost equally content regarding “family” and “friends”, and these are non-significant.

In order to find whether there are significant differences regarding being bullied and QoL, and between boys and girls concerning the same issue, we performed an ANOVA-analysis which is presented in table 4.19. The scores range, as mentioned earlier, from 1 (never/do not know) to 5 (many times a week), where the cut-off point is set to 3 and above for being bullied.

**Table 4.19 TQoL versus degree of being bullied (BB)**

ANOVA-analysis of TQoL versus the 5 degrees of being bullied. Showing means, and the standard deviations (SD) in brackets.

Degree of BB		1	2	3	4	5	ANOVA p-value
TQoL	Both gender	N=182	N=77	N=15	N=10	N=7	
	Mean (SD)	3.8 (.48)	3.5 (.40)	3.3 (.43)	3.3 (.60)	3.5 (.58)	.000
	Girls	N=84	N=41	N=10	N=5	N=4	
	Mean (SD)	3.8 (.48)	3.4 (.43)	3.3 (.47)	3.1 (.71)	3.2 (.59)	.000
	Boys	N= 98	N=36	N=5	N=5	N=3	
	Mean (SD)	3.9 (.47)	3.6 (.36)	3.4 (.36)	3.5 (.48)	3.8 (.46)	.007

N= 291, for girls (N= 144), and boys (N= 147).

Table 4.19 shows that most students are not bullied, we find, as mentioned before, 259 individuals in category 1 & 2 (not bullied), and 32 in category 3, 4 & 5 (regarded as victims). Further there are significant differences between those being bullied and TQoL for both genders ( $p=.000$ ), for girls ( $p=.000$ ), and boys ( $p=.007$ ). The table indicates that there seems to be an association between lower feeling of satisfaction in TQoL and being bullied. Students who report BB “twice or three times a month” and “about once per month”, also report lower TQoL ( $m=3.3$ ) than those not bullied, respectively ( $m=3.8$ ) and ( $m=3.5$ ). Although, those BB “many times a week” report somewhat higher score of content ( $m=3.5$ ) than those in level 3 and 4, and the same score as those in level 2 ( $m=3.5$ ). Girls report overall lower “TQoL” than boys, the largest difference we find in the group reported to be bullied “many times per week”, while the least difference is found between the genders reporting “never”.

When performing an ANOVA analysis for the specific forms of harassment, non-significant results were found regarding physical harassment, the results for verbal and social harassment are presented in table 4.20.

**Table 4.20 TQoL versus degree of being harassed**

ANOVA-analysis of TQoL versus the 5 degrees of being harassed. Showing means, and the standard deviations (SD) in brackets.

Degree of verbal harassment		1	2	3	4	5	ANOVA p-value
TQoL	Both gender	N=119	N=102	N=35	N=22	N=13	.000
	Mean (SD)	3.9 (.46)	3.6 (.47)	3.5 (.39)	3.4 (.40)	3.4 (.62)	
	Girls	N=52	N=54	N=15	N=13	N=10	
	Mean (SD)	3.8 (.45)	3.6 (.49)	3.3 (.38)	3.3 (.38)	3.3 (.63)	.000
	Boys	N= 67	N=48	N=20	N=9	N=3	.009
	Mean (SD)	3.9 (.46)	3.7 (.45)	3.6 (.34)	3.6 (.38)	3.8 (.46)	

Degree of social harassment		1	2	3	4	5	ANOVA p-value
TQoL	Both gender	N=156	N=82	N=29	N=16	N=8	.000
	Mean (SD)	3.8 (.48)	3.7 (.41)	3.4 (.39)	3.2 (.48)	3.5 (.65)	
	Girls	N=74	N=37	N=19	N=8	N=6	
	Mean (SD)	3.8 (.50)	3.6 (.35)	3.3 (.39)	2.9 (.47)	3.4 (.51)	.000
	Boys	N= 82	N=45	N=10	N=8	N=2	.016
	Mean (SD)	3.8 (.47)	3.8 (.43)	3.4 (.40)	3.5 (.24)	3.9 (.47)	

In table 4.20 we find the same tendencies as in table 4.19, namely that those reporting being harassed “two or three times a month” or “about once per week” also report to be less content than those not harassed. Those who report being harassed “many times a week” report better feeling of content than those harassed somewhat less. This is apart from girls who report being verbally harassed (means 3.3), and the two boys reporting to be socially harassed, they report better feeling of content than all.

As pointed out in the theoretical framework bullying is associated with poorer QoL. In order to find whether there are associations between bullying and well-being, bivariate correlations were run for the six factors of well-being and the construct of being bullied. Due to the fact that bullying is a negative term, in our study given the values 1 (never been bullied) to 5 (bullied many times a week), and well-being is a positive term, there is expected to be a negative correlation between bullying and well-being.



# 5 Discussions

## 5.1 Introduction

In the “theoretical framework”, I paid attention to the term *bullying*. As mentioned, bullying is described as negative, unfriendly and/or aggressive actions, and there may be an understanding that bullying is when someone intentionally hurt another person who is unable to defend him- or herself and when the action is repeated over time. Whereas harassment is understood as acts of systematic and/or continued unwanted and annoying actions, hereunder we for instance find sexual and racial harassment. In this thesis harassment is referred to as the operationalized items to measure negative actions.

Some researchers, for instance Arora (1994) have pointed to the fact that while bullying is an abstract term and maybe difficult to grasp, harassment is easier understood due to the more specific incidents. In this thesis referred to as physical, verbal, social and cyberbullying.

As I interpret the term bullying, it refers to 3 main aspects; intent, difference in power and repetition. When asking students whether they are bullied, they need to have these aspects in mind when answering the questionnaire. In the following, I will focus on differences between students and teachers regarding repetition, impact and approaches to harassment.

Being a teacher in secondary school, I experience adolescents referring to bullying in everyday language, for instance “he bullied me”, when only referring to one actual incident. Some students also tell that one incident can do as much harms as many incidents. For instance if you are threatened only once this can lead to fear of being insulted for a long period of time. Students also tell that being called names does not need to be so severe; this is by many adolescents regarded as common language, whereas many teachers find this appalling. Regarding difference in power, sometimes it can be difficult to observe whether the “victim” is weaker than the “bully”. If some or all aspects such as age, size, status (social/economic/cultural), and skills in subjects/on computers etc. should be taken into account, there is not always an obvious answer. Concerning intent, there is not always easy to find if the act was done intentionally.

As mentioned above, Arora view bullying as an abstract term, further she states that in order to draw attention away from the bullying perspective, the questionnaire would benefit from neutral items (some positive or neutral and some more unpleasant). It is also my opinion that a questionnaire would benefit from asking neutral questions, because this might draw the attention to all spectre of happenings, and not only negative. When respondents answer

questions only asking for unpleasant incidents, they might in the end start feeling sorry for them, which could introduce a kind of bias. An example of questions asked could be “During the last week”; “how often did someone try to hurt you”, which is negative, while a positive question could be; “how often did someone smile at you”.

As shown in table 4.10, there are weak to moderate correlations between students, teachers and parents concerning bullying in general and there are also moderate to weak correlations between students, teachers and parents when reporting physical, verbal and social harassment (table 4.13). This could indicate that these three groups view bullying and harassment in different ways. What occurs as severe to students might not appear the same to teachers and parents, and vice versa. On the other hand, teachers and parents are less likely to observe situations where bullying and harassment occurs. Thus, there might be a need to discuss how students, teachers and parents view bullying.

As mentioned in the theoretical framework there has been conducted many studies in order to find which gender is more likely to bully and be bullied. There seem to be a certain level of understanding among researchers that boys are more engaged in bullying than girls (Olweus 1993, Pellegrini and Long 2002, Kowalski, Limber et al. 2012, Roland 2014), but that there may be an shift today (in Norway) (Wendelborg 2014). For a period there has also been a focus on different means of bullying, studies show that girls and boys bully, and are bullied in various ways (Mynard and Joseph 2000, Lødding and Vibe 2010, Wendelborg 2014).

As it occurs, there has been less a focus on bullying and quality of life, this seems to be a relatively new field for researchers, additionally concerning QoL for adolescents. Due to this, there are few studies to relate to. Regardless of this, in this project, I have done what may be considered as a pre-study on bullying compared to QoL.

The high number of participants, 72.9 %, makes the results of this study relatively representative for the school investigated, as far as perceived- bullying, harassment and quality of life is concerned. The questionnaire has been carefully constructed, and each part is tested in an international context. Nevertheless bias can occur. In our study the participation rate varied between grades, in 8<sup>th</sup> grade we find 32.8 % of the selection, in 9<sup>th</sup> grade 39.8 % and in 10<sup>th</sup> grade 27.4 %. Interestingly the highest participation rate is found in 9<sup>th</sup> grade, this could be due to the fact that parents to these students also answered the questionnaire. If this is the reason, one could assume when parents are engaged in concerns regarding school, pupils also show more enthusiasm in these matters. Another reason could be that more students in 9<sup>th</sup> grade had more to report, and regarded this as a channel to give their opinion.

Finally, this study could also have been followed up in a more persistent way by teachers in 9<sup>th</sup> grade. Regarding the relatively low participation rate in 10<sup>th</sup> grade, it is hard to pinpoint explanations. There could be that pupils do not feel the urge to contribute to school, maybe because they are in their final year, or they think they do not have anything to report. Additionally, they could be more concerned with subjects, grades etc.

The main purpose of this study is to find how bullying in general and physical, verbal and social harassment distribute on gender. Another aspect is to find whether they who report being bullied and/ or harassed also report poorer quality of life.

The main findings are that students overall report to be content. Those who are bullied and/or harassed report to be less content, this is significant. Girls overall report lower QoL, and girls who are bullied or harassed report significant lower QoL than boys who are bullied/harassed (table 4.15, 4.16, 4.17, 4.18, 4.19 and 4.20).

Further, the findings in this study are that girls are bullied as much as boys, maybe even a little more (table 4.8), even though this is non-significant. There are significant differences in how they are bullied; girls tend being bullied by social means, while boys by physical means. There are non-significant differences regarding verbal and cyberbullying (table 4.12). Compared to traditional bullying we find that cyberbullying is less extended (table 4.7).

## **5.2 Methodical assessment**

In order to conduct a study, there are several choices to be made, these choices are essential to the quality of a study. In this study quantitative method is used to answer the main topic. A questionnaire which consists of three sections, KINDL<sup>R</sup> (well-being), bullying and SDQ (mental health) was answered by students, teachers and parents in a secondary school. The validity in this questionnaire is found to be acceptable, all the time this is well-documented by other studies and have acceptable  $\alpha$  for bullying in general (0.69), and in KINDL<sup>R</sup> (0.81), as reported in the method and material section, the exception is the cyberbullying-questionnaire which is temporarily.

The construct “how often have you been bullied at school/how often have you been bullied outside of school” were correlated to the items asking for specific forms of harassment, this show medium correlations for most items (~0.500) at a 0.01 level (the weak correlations (~0.300) were on the items “tried to make me be mean to other”, “tried to trick me into doing

something”, “tried to trip me”), this indicates that there is an acceptable fit regarding the operationalized harassment items to the general bullying items.

The questionnaire consist of given answers and mutually exclusive questions, there is one section where the respondent can write his/her thoughts and feelings concerning the questions asked. As the informants responded to given answers, the process afterwards was less complicated, and we also made sure that the questions were answered at same level of precision, as advised in Kleven (2011). Also, students and teachers answered mandatory by using Questback, which reduces the problem with missing, since the respondents have to answer before they are allowed to move on in the questionnaire. On the other hand, this can increase problems with validity due to the fact that respondents do not necessarily answer according to their assumptions. In discussions and interviews with researchers and respondents, done by other in the project, problems with not giving correct information do not seem to be a problem.

Regarding the fact that we have asked three informants (students, parents and teachers) the same questions, we have been able to investigate the answers given by two additional informants. Thus, we have three different point of views on especially the bullying questionnaire, this strengthens our study (Kleven, Tveit et al. 2011).

The study was conducted during the autumn in 2013 for students, teachers and parents. The participants did not answer the questionnaire during the same week, so incidents could occur which could influence the answers given by each party.

### **5.3 Aspects on Quality of life**

Quality of life (QoL) and well-being were new fields for me when I started this study. In school we pay attention to bullying, in addition to many other social and subject-related concerns. To my knowledge, there has not been a specific focus on quality of life, although we work with, and talk to students about well-being, as teachers we want them to feel good at school and achieve.

Regardless of this, when studying bullying I found it interesting to relate this to how students report quality of life. When I searched for articles concerning QoL and teenagers, I became aware of that there had not been paid a great deal of attention to this matter, which became a challenge in order to gain knowledge upon this topic. I started by reading articles by Jozefiak and Bullinger, and later my attention was drawn to Frisé working from Swedish context,

here I found some interesting research on bullying and adolescents' quality of life. Frisé et al (2010), have used other questionnaires, but to some extent they are comparable. While they used Medical Outcomes study, short-form, we use KINDL<sup>R</sup>, both measures QoL.

When studying QoL (table 4.3), we found that students overall report good "total quality of life". They report to be most satisfied with their "family", followed by "friends" and "emotional well-being", while they report less satisfaction with "school" and "self-esteem". The standard deviations indicate that there is greater dispersion for some of the constructs, especially "self-esteem", which also yields the lowest mean score. The lowest dispersion is found in the construct "TQoL". As one would assume, this shows that there are variations within the answers given by students.

The survey also indicates (figure 4.1/table 4.4) that students in general are more content in 8<sup>th</sup> grade than in 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade, this is significant on these constructs: "TQoL", "physical well-being", "family" and "school". In other studies they find that children report less well-being when they reach adolescent (Jozefiak, Larsson et al. 2009, Frisé and Bjarnelind 2010). This could be because as children grow older, they become more aware of their surroundings. They are involved with more people, and later they learn to observe themselves from the outside world, they also compare themselves to other. Due to this they find what is acceptable and what is not. In adolescent they seem to be exposed to pressure from their surroundings, which could affect how they understand life.

Regarding differences according to QoL and gender, the results shows no significant differences across grades for boys. For girls on the other hand (table 4.5), there are significant differences across grades on the following constructs: "TQoL", "family" and "school», indicating that for girls the feeling of satisfaction seems to drop the older they get. Similar results are reported by Frisé (2010). The mean values and SD also vary more for girls than for boys on "family" and "school", indicating that there is greater dispersion within the group of girls on these constructs.

As presented in figure 4.2 and table 4.6, we find that boys overall report to be significantly more satisfied with life than girls, except for the constructs "family" and "friends", where the genders are almost equally content, this is non-significant. Girls report to be significantly less content than boys on the constructs "TQoL", "physical", "emotional", "self-esteem" and "school". These results are in accordance with those of previous research (Jozefiak, Larsson et al. 2008, Jozefiak, Larsson et al. 2009, Frisé and Bjarnelind 2010). For example, Frisé and Bjarnelind found Swedish girls to experience their daily activities and social life to be

interrupted by both physical and emotional difficulties, they also reported more bodily pain and ranged their general health as worse than boys (Frisén and Bjarnelind 2010).

The question to why girls report to be less content with QoL is complex, and therefore not easy to answer. In a study done by Ravens-Sieberer et al. they disclose that “*with growing age, developmental tasks become increasingly gender-specific, and are linked to different burdens and resources thereby leading to gender-related differences in subjective health in adolescence*” (2009:157). According to Michel, Bisegger et al., girls tend to be more concerned about themselves and their well-being in addition to their appearance and bodies, compared with boys (Michel, Bisegger et al. 2009).

## **5.4 Aspects on bullying and harassment**

In our study 32 (11 %) students report being traditionally- and/or cyberbullied. Of these, 28 (9.6 %) report being traditional bullied, 9 (3.1 %) cyberbullied, while 5 (1.7 %) report being both traditional and cyberbullied (table 4.8).

11 % is a high percentage compared to other studies; even 9.6 % (those reported being traditional bullied) is a relatively high rate. Olweus and Roland estimates that 5 % of children in Norway are bullied (Olweus 2013, Roland 2014). In The Student Survey, performed in 2013, they found that 4.2 % reported being bullied at school; this is substantial lower than previous years (6.8 % in 2012) (Wendelborg 2014). The student survey was conducted in the autumn in 2013, while the previous studies were done in spring. This could be one, among other reasons why there is a drop in bullying-numbers.

Our study was conducted in the autumn for all participants, so this is similar to the student survey in 2013. Wendelborg (2014) state that approximately 400.000 students took part in the study, while our data are based on the answers given by app. 300 students, thus the figures in our material may vary more.

The reason for our figures are for the time being unknown. The fact that our study is solemnly an urban study cannot be the explanation for the relatively high percentage of reported bullying. As mentioned in the theory chapter, Olweus established that there is no reason to believe that bullying differs between urban and rural districts (Olweus 1993). When I found that 11 % of the students report being bullied, I also have to emphasize that this include both traditional and cyberbullying, at school and outside of school and that the actual numbers of

victims are 32. Maybe this could indicate that cyberbullying comes in addition to traditional bullying.

As mentioned above, there could be various reasons why 11 % of these students report being bullied; maybe students today interpret bullying the way it is intended, thus answer the questions regarding bullying more adequate than earlier, therefore the relatively high percentage of reported bullying. This could also be due to the fact that some give unreliable answers. In the student survey they estimate that approximately 0.3-0.8 % of the students give unreliable answers, this seems to be a distinct challenge in 10<sup>th</sup> grade. The reason why more students in 10<sup>th</sup> grade, and especially boys, give untrustworthy answer could be several, and here I will not present the suggestions, since only 5 students in 10<sup>th</sup> grade reported to be bullied. Why one do not find the same effect for girls is not obvious, one reason could be that more girls than boys feel they have something to report or they might be more obedient.

In our study the main findings of bullying are in 8<sup>th</sup> and 9<sup>th</sup> grade, where 14 persons in 8<sup>th</sup> grade reported being bullied and 13 in 9<sup>th</sup> grade. This could indicate that students in this study gave reliable answers. This could be because they answered by stating their name, something that could prevent untrustworthy answers. On the other hand the fact that they had to state their name could prevent someone from answering reliable as well, thus some do not want to be denoted as victims or bullies.

Another reason could be that there has been a focus on bullying at school, at home or in the media, thus a relatively high number (11 %) report being bullied. Nevertheless, there can be other reason such as something happened at school, a fight between pupils, a quarrel or something similar which resulted in these answers. In order to find if these figure are stable over time one have to conduct a longitudinal study, as “TiT” intends to do.

A cross-national study by Craig and colleagues, showed that the exposure to bullying two or more times a month varied across countries, with estimates ranging from 5 % (girls in Sweden) to 45 % (boys in Lithuania) (Craig, Harel-Fisch et al. 2009). Here the variation in numbers will not be discussed, but what I find relatively alarming is that in Norway we have had focus on bullying the last forty years, and still the figures are relatively stable.

In different studies, there are about 5 percent who report being bullied and 3-4 percent who report to bully others two or three times a month or more often, in our study 1.7 % report to bully other. Due to the low number in this study, I did not do further studies on those who report to bully others.

Bullying is reported to be a “school-problem”, thus more students report being bullied at school than outside of school, this is also reported by Agaston et al. (2007) . In our study 8.2

% report to be traditional bullied at school while 4.5 % report being bullied outside of school (data not shown). There is also a strong correlation between those who report being bullied at school and outside of school, suggesting that many students are bullied in several places. This could cause problems later in life, since studies show that children and adolescents who experience various forms of bullying also seem to have more problems than those who do not have to relate to this (Smith, Mahdavi et al. 2008, Frisé and Bjarnelind 2010, Wang, Iannotti et al. 2010).

In table 4.8, the numbers of girls and boys who report to be both traditional- and/ or cyberbullied at school and outside of school, shows that more girls than boys report being bullied. Even though the p-value shows a non-significant result, there are reasons to look into these figures. In our material 32 students in 8<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade report being bullied in one way or the other, 19 girls and 13 boys. Further the figures illustrate that 23 students tell that they are solely traditional bullied, whereas 4 report to be only cyberbullied, this is similar to other studies which find that children are more bullied in traditional ways than cyberbullied (Wang, Iannotti et al. 2009, Wang, Iannotti et al. 2010, Olweus 2013). The fact that 4 students (12.5 %) who are bullied, two of each gender, report to be exclusively cyberbullied, indicates that there is a group of students who would not be victimized if there were no “digital equipment”. Wang et al. (2010), state that recent studies have indicated that being a traditional victim increases the risk of cyberbullying. They also found that the more types of victimization the adolescents experienced, the poorer quality of life they experienced. Also, this finding was more evident for girls. In addition, there are 5 students who report to be both traditional and cyberbullied, which could indicate that some are bullied by different means. I have to stress that the 11 % who report being bullied in this study, is a relatively small selection in total (n=32), which restrict what may be studied statistically, due to reduced statistical power.

When looking at the figures in table 4.7 and 4.12, we see that more students report to be harassed than bullied. Maybe this is because it is easier to report being for instance hit or kicked than bullied, thus, being bullied you could be regarded a victim, whereas if you are kicked occasionally this might be regarded as incidents.

For girls and boys, the most common type of harassment is “being called names” Rønning also found this in his study 2004 (2004), in our survey this is followed by “teased me”. The greatest gender differences occurred on items within “social” and “physical” harassment where there are significant differences between girls and boys.



More boys (25) than girls (20) report *to be teased*, while more girls (28) than boys (20) report *to be called names*. If we first look at “teased me”, there is not a major difference between genders, this is similar to other studies regarding verbal harassment (Mynard and Joseph 2000, Wendelborg 2014). As boys grow up and enter secondary school, there might happen that they find other means than physical to be adequate such as verbal harassment, thus boys and girls report to be harassed by verbal means. The largest difference between genders concerning harassment is reported concerning *to be told a lie about*. 29 girls have answered that they have experienced this two or three times a month or more often, while 12 boys have encountered this issue. The same tendency is reported by Wendelborg (2014). In the student survey there is a peak in 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade, which are the grades studied here (and 8<sup>th</sup> grade). This could be due to the fact that girls are mostly bullied by girls and they know that if one tell a lie about someone else, this harm. Due to Björkqvist this could be a way for girl to harm without the use of physical strength. To be telling a lie/ or have a lie told could do great harm, and this could even be done without the victims knowledge.

In table 4.12, we find that there is a significant difference between girls and boys regarding *social harassment*, more girls report to be social harassed than boys. Then again, boys report to be more *physical harassed* than girls. This is similar to other studies (Björkqvist 1994, Mynard and Joseph 2000, Wang, Iannotti et al. 2009), but differs from the study conducted by Rønning et al. in 2001 in the northern part of Norway which concluded that boys scored higher on all items of harassment (Rønning, Handegaard et al. 2004). Due to this, one can assume that more girls in the northern part of Norway report being bullied today than earlier. Another explanation is that today, girls are more aware of social bullying, thus more report this. On the other hand, boys might bully less today, but then again the number of victims would decrease, which is not the case.

Other studies also report that more girls are exposed to social harassment (some refer to this as relational bullying) and boys to physical harassment, while there are different findings concerning verbal harassment (Pellegrini and Long 2002, Smith, Cowie et al. 2002, Monks and Smith 2006). Wang et al. find, that more boys than girls are involved in verbal harassment, while Mynard et al. find no differences between genders (Mynard and Joseph 2000, Wang, Iannotti et al. 2009). Our finding is similar to Mynard’s, which shows that there is no significant difference regarding verbal harassment between girls and boys. First of all it is important to establish that concerning harassment, we do not know for certain that those who report to be harassed “three times a month or more often”, is bullied. There could be various reasons for these findings. Those who report to be harassed could have had a quarrel

which led to the feeling of being harassed, or someone could report to be kicked several times, but this could have happened on the football field and might not have anything in common with being bullied.

There could be different reasons why girls are harassed by social manners and boys by physical. Björkqvist et al.(1994:185) state that because *females are physically weaker than males, they may early in life learn to avoid physical aggression, and instead develop other means*, this could be verbal and/or social skills. From this one can assume that girls might need to find other means than physical to bully other. Since girls, in our study also are slightly more bullied by girls (data not shown), this could indicate that girls look upon social harassment or bullying as adequate means to hurt other girls. As mentioned earlier, girls want to be part of a group. Thus, if you intend to hurt a girl, a way to do it is by excluding from/ or not including her in relationships. It may even be that girls find social harassment to be more serious than other means and therefore report this more often, even though they might experience other forms of harassment as well.

There could be various reasons why boys report to be more physical harassed than girls. I have mentioned earlier that boys use more physical means than girls, and as boys, in our study report to be more bullied by other boys this is plausible. Some studies suggest that boys are more proactive than girls (Roland and Idsøe 2001, Pellegrini and Long 2002), they tend to bully other in order to attain resources. As stated earlier, boys also seem to be more concerned about hierarchy and activity than girls, thus they might use physical means such as hitting, tripping and kicking to gain control, show their strength or to harm another person. This could also be looked upon as victimizing for those attacked in regard of feeling weaker and unable to protect oneself.

Even though we have paid attention to bullying for decades, we still have students who suffer from this. The Norwegian government has put a great deal of resources into programs in order to reduce bullying, but still students report roughly the same figures, and yet we do not observe a reduction over time concerning bullying. In the student survey from 2014, we observe a reduction, but it is too early to tell whether this is a trend or not. This study's aim is not to discuss these matters, but I think this would be of interest for further studies. In our project "Well-being in Tromsø", we will have an opportunity to investigate trends over time and to find out more about intervention.

Regarding cyberbullying there has been a debate amongst researchers how to classify cyberbullying. As mentioned earlier some consider cyberbullying to be (1) a type of bullying, equivalent to social bullying, while other classify it as (2) an environment equivalent to

school (Ybarra, Boyd et al. 2012). In our study we treat it similar to the first perspective, namely a type of bullying. Since this is a relatively new field, the debate is understandable and necessary. It is not in the scope of this study to debate this, as I think this is for further investigation.

The figures for cyberbullying overall in our study shows that 3.1 % report to be cyberbullied, 0.7 % report being cyberbullied at school, and 3 % outside of school. This shows that students report to be more cyberbullied in their spare-time than at school, this is similar to other studies (Kowalski, Limber et al. 2012, Olweus 2013). This could be because students know they are not allowed to have mobile-phones during class, therefore they do not report this, or that they actually are more cyberbullied outside of school hours.

In several studies the figures differs, some studies report being cyberbullied when it happens at least once in the last month, while others use the definition derived from Olweus'. The figures of being a target of cyberbullying differ from 4 % - 40 % (Agatston, Kowalski et al. 2007, Hinduja and Patchin 2012, Kowalski, Limber et al. 2012, Olweus 2013). Olweus found that 4.5 % of students, in a study conducted in a large US sample, reported being bullied, and the numbers were even lower in Norway (Olweus 2013).

When we ask students how often they are cyberbullied, most of them answer that they are never/only once or twice bullied, due to the definition of bullying, this is not regarded as being bullied. The most frequent answers, from those who report being cyberbullied in one way or another are “teased or insulted me via chat messages etc.” followed by “teased or insulted me online” and “mean calls to me on my mobile phone”, this is similar to what Kowalski et al. found (2012). As mentioned, the actual numbers of those who report to be cyberbullied are for the time being low; therefore there were not done further analysis of this topic.

When one look at the questions asking for cyberbullying in our questionnaire, one can discuss whether or not they are up to date. The rapid changes regarding digital devices are a challenge as to make updated questions. When talking to students and teachers, many tell that students do not use e-mails and SMS as much as earlier, so maybe one could consider revising these questions. When I ask my students, they tell that they hardly use their mobile phone to make calls and send SMS, they use chat on Facebook (Messenger), Instagram and snap-chat to keep in touch.

## 5.5 Aspects on quality of life, bullying and harassment

First a correlation analysis is done in order to find if there are relations between the constructs within KINDL<sup>R</sup> as well as to bullying in general.

Table 4.14 shows that that there are strong correlations between “TQoL” and the other constructs in KINDL<sup>R</sup>, indicating (as expected) that if you fell content with “TQoL”, you are content with all the other aspects of life measured here. As expected, bullying correlate negative to QoL, suggesting that if you are bullied this has a slightly negative impact of your perceived well-being.

Table 4.15 shows that that those *being bullied* (victims) report poorer QoL overall than those not bullied and there are significant differences for all measures of QoL. We find that those being bullied to a larger extent report lower scores on “self-esteem” and “school” than the group not bullied. The standard deviations show that there are larger variations within the group being bullied than those not bullied, except for the construct “school”. The effect sizes are also medium to strong on all constructs, except for “friends”, which is low. Due to the strong effect sizes there are reasons to assume that bullying to some extent affect QoL, while bullying might not affect friendships to the same extent. This could be because whether or not you are bullied, you might have friends who support you. It is important to stress that this table is only indicative of trends due to low sample, and can suffer from this.

In the study by Frisé (2010), they report similar findings regarding QoL, although they use some other measures. Since 32 students reported being bullied in this study, it is too little material to draw conclusions, so this should be further investigated.

In table 4.16, we found the same tendencies for those reporting to be harassed as for those being bullied. For *physical harassment* there were 2 significant findings; on “TQoL” and “physical”, while as for *verbal* and *social harassment* the findings were significant on all constructs. Here those reporting to be harassed also reported lower QoL than those not harassed. Here the SD also suggest that there are greater variation within the group reporting to be harassed concerning QoL, except for “school”, which could be due to that those who report being harassed might agree more on issues related to school environment in general. There might be a reason to suspect that students experience a variety of family surroundings, physical well-being and so on, but that they overall experience more or less the same school environment.

A main finding is that bullied boys report to be more satisfied than bullied girls (table 4.17); this is significant on the constructs: “self-esteem” (.003), which yield the lowest score for

girls, and “emotional well-being” (.050). The SD indicates that there are larger variations for girls than for boys. This is concurrent to other studies referred to in this thesis.

The same findings are reported by those being harassed in table 4.18; the reports are significant on the constructs “TQoL”, “physical”, “emotional”, “self-esteem”, and “school” (exception is “school” on those who report verbally harassed). Here also “self-esteem” yields the lowest score for girls, followed by school. The SD also indicates larger variation for girls than for boys.

The findings are similar to other studies (Jozefiak, Larsson et al. 2008, Frisé and Bjarnelind 2010). In the study by Frisé et al. (2010), they found that there were significant gender differences on seven of the eight health measures; social functioning, role limitation due to physical problems- and emotional problems, mental health, energy and vitality, pain and also the general perception of health. The one non-significant finding was physical functioning. According to Frisé et al. (2010:601) an assumption why girls report to be less satisfied with QoL is that girls *often are more concerned about themselves and their wellbeing as well as their appearance and bodies, compared with boys*, this is also supported by Michel et al. (2009). This could also be an explanation to the findings in my study.

When studying whether there are differences regarding being bullied and QoL and between girls and boys, an ANOVA analysis was done (table 4.19). This indicates that those being bullied feel somewhat less content with TQoL than those not bullied. One should notice that those reporting being bullied many times a week report better TQoL than those bullied once a week or less. This was not expected and there could be reason to assume that this is due to few individuals. When looking into those reporting being bullied many times a week and reporting good QoL, there were no obvious errors or answers that seemed to be unreliable. But further studies have to be done if trying to find whether this is a tendency or not. There are reasons to suspect that QoL would decrease due to bullying, as found in other studies. The ANOVA analysis should be regarded as indicative due to low sample, but do suggest that there might be a connection between bullying and the difference in gender.

We find the same results in table 4.20 as in table 4.19, verbally and socially harassed girls report to be significantly less content with QoL than boys. As mentioned earlier, more students report to be harassed than bullied. In table 4.20 we see that girls who report to be social harassed also report the lowest mean (those harassed about once a week). Why girls who report to be socially harassed many times a week, report better feeling of content than those harassed less frequently is hard to tell. This is most likely due to coincident because of

few individuals. Boys who report to be harassed, either verbally or socially report to be rather content with QoL; here also the variations within the group are rather small.

When I talk to my students, many of them tell, as reported by some researchers referred in this thesis, that girls are exposed to more pressure than boys; this could be from peers, the media, parents and significant others. Both boys and girls tell that girls, more than boys, have to be nice, behave, do well at school, look good etc. At the same time they express that there is quite a lot pressure on boys as well.

During my years in secondary schools, to me it appears that today adolescents are exposed to more pressure than they were ten to twenty years ago. Teenagers have to do well on many arenas, such as school, in sport, in their spare time and so on. Previously, I have mentioned that girls report to be slightly more bullied than boys and they also report poorer quality of life. Is there a common relation between being bullied and quality of life, or are there other dominant factors? This is reported in several studies (Jozefiak, Larsson et al. 2009), and has to be studied further.

In this study I have had a focus on bullying and gender, and here I have looked at those who have been bullied, the victims. One of the main questions when studying bullying is to find how we can help the victims, and this is of course the main focus, those who are bullied should not have to experience this. Thus, there have been many suggestions regarding how to intervene and stop bullying. Some find prevention programs to work, while other does not, some talk about removing those who bully from school, while some seems to think that it is important to empower<sup>4</sup> those bullied. I see why it is important to strengthen those bullied, and I think it is important make human robust. Nevertheless, when doing so, will children being empowered, also be defined as weak, in addition to being defined as victims?

It is my opinion that we have to learn even more about those who bully, and give them help to escape this “habit” of bullying. Due to this, the research on proactive and reactive children is interesting. Can we gain even more knowledge on those who bully? I think so. When asking children and adolescents questions about bullying, I think it is interesting to look at mixing questionnaire, like we have done in “TiT”. This way we might gain more awareness of those participating in the survey, thus be more capable of suggesting solutions.

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<sup>4</sup> Empowerment: could be defined as a multi-dimensional social process that helps people gain control over their own lives. Page, N. and C. E. Czuba (1999). "Empowerment: What is it." Journal of extension 37(5): 1-5.

For future perspectives there could be of interest to look at the operationalized items on harassment, and consider making neutral questions. In addition, an interesting investigation would be look at the operationalized harassment items to QoL, which items seem to have most impact on self-perceived QoL. Further, one could investigate why the feeling of content decrease with age, and why do girls report to be less content with QoL than boys? There could also be interesting to investigate whether, or to which extent QoL and bullying affect student's skills in main subjects, here one could compare results in our questionnaire to the national tests. Another interesting (and important) approach would be to investigate where and how to put in effort in order to reduce bullying, especially for those who report to feel less content with QoL, this could be done in cooperation with researchers and the schools involved, as intended in the project "TiT".

## **5.6 Conclusions**

When addressing bullying and self-perceived QoL, there seem to be a difference regarding gender. In my study girls report to be to be significantly more socially harassed than boys, while boys report to be more physically harassed. There seem not to be any differences regarding gender when dealing with verbal and cyberbullying, and for the time being, not many report to be cyberbullied. Concerning how girls and boys are harassed, more girls report "told a lie about me" the result is significant, whereas boys report "tried to trip me", which result also is significant. There are other differences which results are non-significant; "called me names" and "tried to hurt me" where girls report to be more harassed than boys.

Regarding those who report to be bullied and/or harassed and their self-perceived TQoL, there seem to be a relatively small reduction in self-perceived TQoL for those bullied and/or harassed compared to the other students. The results also show a negative correlation between bullying and QoL, as expected.

Those not bullied or harassed report a mean between 3.9 – 3.5, those who report to be bullied report a mean between 3.5 – 3.3, while those who report to be harassed, report a mean between 3.9 (boys, socially harassed many times per week) to 2.9 (girls socially harassed many times per week). The results also show that there are larger variations within the group being bullied as well as for girls compared to boys.





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## Appendix I



### Trivsel i Tromsø

Spørreskjema for skoler i samarbeid med Universitetet i Tromsø. Foreldreversjon.  
© Kid-Kind/ Foreldreversjon / 8-16 År / Norsk oversettelse ved T. Jozefiak & S. Helseth 2004.  
© SDQ/Robert Goodman 2005. © Trivsel i Tromsø 2013, [www.uil.no/til](http://www.uil.no/til)

Kjære foreldre/foresatte,

Takk for at du har sagt ja til å fylle ut dette spørreskjema om ditt barns trivsel og helsemessige livskvalitet.

Vær vennlig å ta hensyn til følgende når du svarer:

- Les nøye gjennom hvert spørsmål,
- tenk over hvordan barnet hadde det siste uka (eller de siste 2-3 månedene hvis det spørres om det), og
- kryss av det svaret som passer best for barnet ditt.
- Svarene behandles konfidensielt og kun av forskere ved Universitetet.

Unntatt offentlighet

<b>Merk av eller fyll ut !</b>	
Barnet mitt er: <input type="checkbox"/> en jente <input type="checkbox"/> en gutt.	Barnets for- og etternavn er _____
Barnet går i _____ klasse	Barnet går på _____ skole.
Du er: Mor <input type="checkbox"/> Far <input type="checkbox"/> Annet <input type="checkbox"/>	

1. Fysisk velvære					
I den siste uka...	Aldri/vet ikke	Sjelden	Av og til	Ofta	Alltid
1 ... følte barnet mitt seg syk	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2 ... har barnet mitt hatt vondt i hodet eller magen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3 ... var barnet mitt trett og slapp	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4 ... følte barnet mitt seg sterk og full av energi	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Psykisk velvære					
I den siste uka...	Aldri/vet ikke	Sjelden	Av og til	Ofta	Alltid
1 ... lo barnet mitt mye og hadde det moro	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2 ... hadde barnet mitt ikke lyst til noe	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3 ... følte barnet mitt seg alene	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4 ... følte barnet mitt seg engstelig eller usikker	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

### 3. Selvbildet

	<i>I den siste uke...</i>	Aldri/vet ikke	Sjelden	Av og til	Ofta	Alltid
1	... var barnet mitt stolt av seg selv	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	... følte barnet mitt seg helt på topp	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	... likte barnet mitt seg selv	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	... hadde barnet mitt mange gode ideer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

### 4. Familie

	<i>I den siste uke...</i>	Aldri/vet ikke	Sjelden	Av og til	Ofta	Alltid
1	... kom barnet mitt godt overens med oss foreldre	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	... hadde barnet mitt det hyggelig hjemme	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	... kranglet vi hjemme	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	... følte barnet mitt seg dominert av meg	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

### 5. Venner.

	<i>I den siste uke...</i>	Aldri/vet ikke	Sjelden	Av og til	Ofta	Alltid
1	... gjorde barnet mitt noe sammen med venner	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	... ble barnet mitt godt likt av de andre	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	... kom barnet mitt godt overens med vennene sine	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	... hadde barnet mitt følelsen av å være annerledes enn de andre	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

### 6. Skole

	<i>I den siste uke da barnet mitt var på skolen...</i>	Aldri/vet ikke	Sjelden	Av og til	Ofta	Alltid
1	... klarte barnet mitt oppgavene på skolen godt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	... syntes barnet mitt at undervisningen var god og interessant	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	... bekymret barnet mitt seg for fremtiden	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	... var barnet mitt redd for å gjøre det dårlig på skolen eller å få dårlige karakterer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## 7. OPPLEVELSER AV KLASSISK MOBBING

En elev kan bli utsatt for negative eller sårende handlinger ofte eller av og til. Denne plagingen kan være verbal (f. eks. navnekalling, trusler), fysisk (f.eks. slag) eller psykologisk (f.eks. rykter, å fryse utelukkende noen). Svar på grunnlag av det du selv kjenner til for barnet ditt de siste 2-3 månedene.

Generell mobbing		Aldri/ vet ikke	Bare en eller to ganger	To eller tre ganger i måneden	Omtrent en gang i uken	Mange ganger per uke
A	Hvor ofte har barnet ditt blitt mobbet i skoletiden?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B	Hvor ofte har barnet ditt blitt mobbet utenom skoletiden?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C	Har barnet ditt vært med på å mobbe andre i skoletiden?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D	Har barnet ditt vært med på å mobbe andre utenom skoletiden?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
E	Forteller barnet ditt at det har sett andre elever bli mobbet?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>Spesielle former for trakassering</b>						
F	Hvor ofte har noen mobbet barnet ditt på følgende måter:	Aldri/ vet ikke	Bare en eller to ganger	To eller tre ganger i måneden	Omtrent en gang i uken	Mange ganger per uke
1	Kallt barnet ditt stygge ting	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Sagt noe stygt om barnets familie	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Provd å sparke barnet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Vært ekkel med barnet fordi det er annerledes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Truet barnet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Ertet barnet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Fått de andre elevene til å være slem mot barnet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	Provd å få barnet ditt til å være slem mot andre	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	Provd å lure barnet ditt til å gjøre noe galt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	Provd å såre barnet ditt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	Fått barnet ditt til å gjøre noe det ikke hadde lyst til	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	Provd å sparke krockfot på barnet ditt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	Truet med å sladre på barnet ditt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	Fortalt en løgn om barnet ditt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	Provd å slå barnet ditt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
G	Hvem har mobbet barnet ditt?					
1	Jenter	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Gutter	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	En gruppe (f.eks. en gruppe venner, en skoleklasse, osv.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



## 8. DIGITAL MOBBING

Digital mobbing skjer via mobiltelefoner eller Internett når personer blir ertet, eller hvis noen legger ut noe på nettet som personen ikke liker. Svar på grunnlag av det du selv kjenner til for din datter/dønn de siste 2-3 månedene.

		Aldri/ vet ikke	Bare en eller to ganger	To eller tre ganger i måneden	Omtrent en gang i uken	Mange ganger per uke
A	Hvor ofte har barnet ditt blitt digital mobbet i skoletiden?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B	Hvor ofte har barnet ditt blitt digital mobbet utenom skoletiden?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C	Har barnet ditt vært med på å mobbe andre digitalt i skoletiden?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D	Har barnet ditt vært med på å mobbe andre digitalt utenom skoletiden?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
E	Forteller barnet ditt at det har sett andre elever bli digitalt mobbet?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
F	Hvor ofte har noen mobbet barnet ditt digitalt på følgende måter:					
1	Ekke tekstmeldinger (SMS) eller ubehagelige bilder/videoer på mobilen til barnet ditt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Ekke oppringinger på mobilen til barnet ditt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Skremmende eller stygg epost til barnet ditt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Ertet eller fornærmert barnet ditt på Internett (Facebook, Twitter, web osv.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Ertet eller fornærmert barnet ditt ved hjelp av chat-meldinger i f.eks. Skype eller spill	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Ertet eller fornærmert barnet ditt ved innlegg/kommentar på blog	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Ubehagelige bilder/videoer om barnet ditt på Internett (Facebook, YouTube, web osv.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	Utestengt barnet ditt fra Facebook-gruppe eller liknende der hun/han ønsket å være med	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
G	Hvem har barnet ditt blitt digitalt mobbet av?					
1	Jenter	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Gutter	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	En gruppe (f.eks. en gruppe venner, en skoleklasse, osv)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## 9. Om skolens miljø

		Nesten aldri	Noen ganger	Ofta	Nesten alltid
A	Jeg føler at lærerne på skolen bryr seg om barnet mitt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B	Hvor ofte prøver lærere eller andre voksne å stoppe det som foregår når en elev blir mobbet?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C	Hvor ofte prøver andre elever ved skolen å stoppe det som foregår når en elev blir mobbet?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D	Blir det ordnet opp i mobbeproblemet hvis det blir fortalt om det til andre?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

10.

## 11. GENERELT OM MOBBING (på skolen eller utenom skolen)

		Blir ikke mobbet	Stemmer ikke	Stemmer delvis	Stemmer heft
A	Føler du at barnet ditt blir mobbet fordi det er noe med han eller henne som gir grunn til mobbingen?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B	Føler du at barnet ditt blir mobbet av noen fordi det er noe med mobberen som får vedkommende til å gjøre det?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

12. STERKE OG SVAKE SIDER (SDQ-Nor)				
Vennligst kryss av for hvert utsagn: Stemmer ikke, Stemmer delvis eller Stemmer helt. Prøv å svare på alt selv om du ikke er helt sikker eller synes utsagnet virker rart. Svar på grunnlag av barnets oppførsel de siste 2-3 månedene.		Stemmer ikke	Stemmer delvis	Stemmer helt
A	Omtenkssom, tar hensyn til andre menneskers følelser	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B	Rastløs, overaktiv, kan ikke være lenge i ro	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C	Klager ofte over hodepine, vondt i magen eller kvalme	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D	Deler gjerne med andre barn (godter, leker, andre ting)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
E	Har ofte raserianfall eller dårlig humør	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
F	Ganske ensom, leker ofte alene	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
G	Som regel tydlig, gjør vanligvis det voksne ber om	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
H	Mange bekymringer, virker ofte bekymret	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I	Hjelpsom hvis noen er såret, lei seg eller føler seg dårlig	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
J	Stadig urolig eller i bevegelse	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
K	Har minst en god venn	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
L	Glås ofte med andre barn eller mobber dem	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
M	Ofte lei seg, nedfor eller på gråten	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
N	Vanligvis likt av andre barn	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
O	Lett avledet, mister lett konsentrasjonen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
P	Nervøs eller klengende i nye situasjoner, lett utrygg	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Q	Snill mot yngre barn	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
R	Lyver eller jukser ofte	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
S	Plaget eller mobbet av andre barn	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
T	Tilbyr seg ofte å hjelpe andre (foreldre, lærere, andre barn)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
U	Tenker seg om før hun / han handler (gjør noe)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
V	Stjeler hjemme, på skolen eller andre steder	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
W	Kommer bedre overens med voksne enn med barn	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
X	Redd for mye, lett skremt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Y	Fullfører oppgaver, god konsentrasjonsevne	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

13. Foreldre	
A	Hva er høyeste utdanning for barnets foreldre? <input type="checkbox"/> Grunnskole <input type="checkbox"/> Videregående skole <input type="checkbox"/> Fagskole <input type="checkbox"/> Universitet/høgskole
B	Hvor mange bøker er det hjemme hos dere? <input type="checkbox"/> 0-10 <input type="checkbox"/> 11-25 <input type="checkbox"/> 26-100 <input type="checkbox"/> 101-250 <input type="checkbox"/> over 250

**VÆR SNILL OG SJEKK AT DU HAR SVART PÅ ALLE SPØRSMÅLENE!**

Her kan du skrive ned dine tanker og følelser (hvis, for eksempel, et av spørsmålene eller områdene/temaene vakte spørsmål eller tanker). Hvordan opplevde du dette spørreskjemaet?

## Appendix II



### Forespørsel om deltakelse i forskningsprosjektet

#### *”Trivsel i Tromsø”*

Til foreldre/foresatte

*Svarfrist: raskest mulig*

#### Bakgrunn og hensikt

Dere mottar denne henvendelsen som foresatte til en elev ved en av universitets samarbeidsskoler i Tromsø. En slik form for direkte samarbeid mellom skole og universitet er nytt. Hensiktene er å knytte forskeren, studenten og skolen sammen, og slik fremme forsknings- og utviklingsarbeidet i lærerutdanningen, og bidra til at forskningsbasert kunnskap utvikles og tas i bruk. Som alle vet er skolen en viktig livsarena for barn og unge. Barnas opplevelser i skolehverdagen har stor betydning for deres sosiale utvikling. Mer spesifikk kunnskap om hvordan ulike trivselsfaktorer faktisk spiller inn vil, ved siden av å være av interesse i seg selv, være av grunnleggende betydning for eventuelle forandringer. Det foreliggende forskningsprosjektet fokuserer generelt på elevenes sosiale relasjoner i barne- og ungdomsskolen. Mer spesifikt vil studiet undersøke nærmere mønstre i sosiale atferd mellom elevene, inklusive mobbing og digital mobbing. De digitale relasjoner er nye fenomener, og digital mobbing kommer antagelig i kjølvannet av den tradisjonelle mobbingen. Vi vil undersøke forekomst av de ulike typer mobbing og hvordan dette virker inn på elevenes trivsel. Institutt for lærerutdanning og pedagogikk ved Universitetet i Tromsø er ansvarlig for studien.

#### Hva innebærer studien?

Skolen har sagt ja til å delta i prosjektet. Hvis dere som foreldre/foresatte også bestemmer dere for å medvirke, vil foreldre og skoleelev bli bedt om å fylle ut hvert sitt spørreskjema («Trivsel i Tromsø») om elevens trivsel, atferd, mentale helse og sterke og svake sider. Det er viktig at både elev og foreldre fyller ut skjemaene selvstendig. Elevene vil gjøre dette på skolen via nettet, mens foreldre besvarer papirversjon av spørreskjemaet når eleven går i klasse 4, 7 og 9.

Vi ber dere samtidig gi tillatelse til at også elevens kontaktlærer kan fylle ut en lærerverisjon av spørreskjemaet. Dette er viktig fordi barn og unge oppfattes forskjellig ut i fra hvem som ser dem, og i hvilken situasjon de befinner seg.

Da trivselsproblemer erfaringsmessig kan komme og gå, vil vi be om at de samme skjemaene fylles ut på nytt ca. en gang i året så lenge studien pågår. Alle opplysninger som gis via skjema og pc vil bli behandlet konfidensielt.

#### Hva skjer med informasjonen om dere og barnet?

Informasjonen som registreres om dere og barnet skal kun brukes som beskrevet ovenfor under avsnittet ”Bakgrunn og hensikt”. Alle opplysningene vil bli behandlet konfidensielt. **Ingen lærere eller andre i klassen vil kunne finne ut hva du har svart.** Svarene vil bare bli lest i forskningsøyemed, av forskere. Skolen som deltar i prosjektet vil regelmessig motta samlerapporter som kan brukes for utvikling av læringsmiljøet.



Forskerne som skal arbeide med studien vil få utlevert opplysningene i **avidentifisert** form. En kode knytter eleven til opplysningene gjennom en navneliste. Det er kun autorisert personell knyttet til prosjektet som har adgang til navnelisten og kan finne tilbake til dere i databasen. Navneliste med kode som er registrert i forskningsstudien vil bli slettet ved prosjektslutt. Det vil ikke være mulig å identifisere deg/dere i studieresultatene når disse publiseres.

### Frivillig deltakelse

Det er frivillig å delta i studien. Du/dere kan når som helst, og uten å oppgi noen grunn, trekke tilbake samtykket. Dersom du/dere ønsker å delta i studien, undertegnes samtykkeerklæringen på siste side.

Dersom du/dere senere ønsker å trekke deg/dere eller har spørsmål til studien, kan prosjektleder, førsteamanuensis Steinar Thorvaldsen ved UIT kontaktes (telefon 77 66 04 76), eller professor John Rønning ved UIT (telefon 77 64 58 55).

### Personvern

Sporreskjemaene via pc og senere intervju lagres i en database.

Bare visse forskere ved institusjonene som driver studien har tilgang til data i avidentifisert form. Institutt for lærerutdanning og pedagogikk, ved Steinar Thorvaldsen er databehandlingsansvarlig.

### Forsikring

Deltakerne trenger ingen spesiell forsikring for å delta i prosjektet.

### Retten til innsyn og sletting av opplysninger

Hvis du/dere deltar i studien, har du/dere rett til å få innsyn i hvilke data som er registrert om deg/dere. Du/dere har rett til å få korrigert eventuelle feil i de opplysningene vi har registrert. Dersom du/dere senere trekker deg/dere fra studien, kan du/dere kreve å få slettet innsamlede opplysninger, med mindre opplysningene allerede er inngått i analyser eller brukt i vitenskapelige publikasjoner.

Med vennlig hilsen

Steinar Thorvaldsen, førsteam. dr. scient  
Prosjektleder

John A. Rønning, prof. dr. philos.  
Psykologspesialist og Faglig leder

Elevens navn og klasse (husk å fylle ut)

\_\_\_\_\_

Navn

\_\_\_\_\_

Klasse

## Samtykke til deltakelse i studien «Trivsel i Tromsø»

Jeg/vi er villig til å delta i studien

E-post adresse til foreldre: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
(Signert av én av foreldrene/foresatte, dato)

(Hvis eleven er 16 år eller eldre er det eleven selv som signerer)

*Dette svararket leveres til elevens kontaktlærer. Lukket konvolutt kan brukes (la klasse og navn være synlig i konvoluttens vindu, eller skriv navnet utepå). De som ikke vil delta kan krysse av under og levere svarark uten signatur. Kontaktlærer leverer svararkene samlet for klassen til rektor.*

Nei, vi ønsker ikke å delta i studien, dato: \_\_\_\_\_