The Cyberbullying of Post-Primary Teachers in Ireland

Liam P. Challenor, M.Sc., B.Sc

Doctor of Philosophy;

Supervised by Dr. James O’Higgins Norman, School of Human Development
Institute of Education, Dublin City University;

Externally Supervised by Dr. Irene Connolly, Dun Laoghaire Institute of Art, Design and Technology;

Submitted July 2018
Declaration Statement

I hereby certify that this material, which I now submit for assessment on the programme of study leading to the award of Doctor of Philosophy is entirely my own work, and that I have exercised reasonable care to ensure that the work is original, and does not to the best of my knowledge breach any law of copyright, and has not been taken from the work of others save and to the extent that such work has been cited and acknowledged within the text of my work.

Signed: _______________________________ (Liam Challenor) ID No.: 15210242
Date: ____________________________
Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge several people who were influential over the last four years of this project. I would like to begin by thanking to my supervisors; Dr. James O’Higgins Norman for his support and aid in funding the project, and Dr. Irene Connolly for her guidance, support and wealth of knowledge which helped me to refine my project. I would also like to thank Helena, my fellow PhD researcher and friend; it was a pleasure to share an office with you over these last four years and to support each other during our studies. I would also like to thank everyone in the National Anti-Bullying Research and Resource Centre for their support, brainstorming and debate. I would like to thank the Department of Education and Skills for funding this research project. I would also like to thank all the people who aided me in creating this research, sharing the survey and those who took part.

Most importantly, I would like to thank my family for their support and encouragement, my siblings Samantha, Andrew and Jonathon, and in particular my parents for their love, kindness and reassurance throughout my studies. It has been a long journey so thank you for everything; this would not have been possible without you. Finally, a special thank you to my partner Stephen, I am truly grateful to have your love, support, enthusiasm and encouragement to help me throughout this process, it has meant so much to me, thank you.
# Table of Contents

Table of Contents ........................................................................................................ iii

List of Figures .................................................................................................................. x

Abstract ............................................................................................................................ 2

1. Introduction .................................................................................................................. 3

2. The Student Cyberbullying of Teachers .................................................................... 9
   2.1 Cyberbullying .......................................................................................................... 9
   2.2 Student bullying of Teachers ................................................................................ 11
       2.2.1 Intention and Repetition ............................................................................... 14
       2.2.2 Power .............................................................................................................. 15
       2.2.2 Student Bullying of Teachers Research ....................................................... 18
   2.3 The Cyberbullying of Teachers ............................................................................. 21
       2.3.1 Cyberbullying and Bystanders ................................................................... 40
   2.4 Effects on the Teacher .......................................................................................... 42
   2.5 School Climate ...................................................................................................... 48
   2.6 Causes of bullying/cyberbullying behaviour ....................................................... 62
       2.6.1 Moral disengagement .................................................................................... 69
   2.7 Policy Frameworks and Implications .................................................................... 72
   2.8 Interventions to counter SCT .............................................................................. 79
       2.8.1 The Deontological approach and SCT ......................................................... 80
       2.8.2 The Utilitarian approach ............................................................................. 84
4.4.1 Phone Use in Class ................................................. 132
4.4.2 Internet Access Locations ........................................... 133
4.4.3 Social Media Use .................................................... 137
4.4.4 Social Media Platforms ............................................. 138
4.4.5 Online Prevention Tools ........................................... 140
4.4.6 Interaction with Pupils on Social Networking Sites .......... 143
4.4.7 Unwanted Social Media Requests ................................ 145
4.5 Teacher Stress .......................................................... 147

The Cyberbullying of Post-Primary Teachers ......................... 150
4.6.1 Cyberbullying of another Teacher ................................ 151
4.6.2 Personal Cyberbullying ............................................. 151
4.6.3 Cyberbullying by a Pupil .......................................... 159
4.6.4 Cyberbullying by a Parent .......................................... 164
4.6.5 Cyberbullying by Management ................................... 168
4.6.6 Cyberbullying by another Teacher .............................. 170
4.6.7 Cyberbullying by another Staff Member ....................... 172

School Climate .................................................................. 173
4.7.1 Physical Environment .............................................. 176
4.7.2 Teaching and Learning Capacity ................................. 177
4.7.3 Morale in the School Community ............................... 178
4.7.4 Quality of Relationships .......................................... 179
9.7 Cyberbullying Questionnaire Filter Page ........................................366
9.8 Cyberbullying Questionnaire by Pupils ........................................366
9.8 Cyberbullying Questionnaire by Parents ......................................370
9.9 Cyberbullying Questionnaire by Management ..............................372
9.10 Cyberbullying Questionnaire by Teachers ....................................376
9.11 Cyberbullying Questionnaire by Other Staff ..................................379
9.12 School Climate Questionnaire ....................................................382
9.13 Debriefing Form ........................................................................386
List of Figures

Figure 1 Matrix of Power Relations Applied to Bullying/Cyberbullying ..........16
Figure 2 Cyber-Phronesis Model .........................................................86
Figure 3 Research Design Framework ................................................100
Figure 4 Participant Recruitment Sources ..........................................101
Figure 5 Cyberbullying Questionnaire Matrix Questions .....................106
Figure 6 School Climate Matrix Questions............................................ Error! Bookmark not defined.
Figure 7 Participant Teaching Experience ............................................114
Figure 8 Participant School Type .........................................................115
Figure 9 Research Design Flow Diagram ..............................................117
Figure 10 Participant Teaching Experience ...........................................120
Figure 11 Participant School Type .......................................................121
Figure 12 Participant Responses to Training .........................................131
Figure 13 Participant Phone Use in Class ............................................133
Figure 14 Internet Access at Work .......................................................135
Figure 15 Teacher Social Media Access Locations ................................137
Figure 16 Social Media Applications - Frequency of Use .......................139
Figure 17 Online Threat Prevention Methods .......................................141
Figure 18 Privacy Settings on Social Networking Sites .........................142
Figure 19 Work Interactions with Pupils Online ....................................144
Figure 20 Social Networking Site Connect Requests .............................146
Figure 21 Reported Stress Caused by Social Networking .......................147
Figure 22 Reported Teacher Stress .....................................................148
Figure 23 Sources of Cyberbullying .....................................................152
Figure 24 Sources of Cyberbullying Organised by Participant Gender ........154
Figure 25 Gender and Group Variations for Pupils Vs Teachers ............ Error!

Bookmark not defined.

Figure 26 Support Seeking When Victimised by a Pupil ......................... 163

Figure 27 Gender and Group Variations for Parents Cyberbullying Teachers
....................................................................................................................... 166

Figure 28 Gender and Group Variations for Teachers Cyberbullied Teachers
....................................................................................................................... 171

Figure 29 ............................................................. Error! Bookmark not defined.

Figure 30 – Thematic Map – Fluidity of Cyberbullying .......... Error! Bookmark not defined.

Figure 31 Implications for Training ................................................................. 297

Figure 32 Theoretical Matrix to Reduce Cyberbullying Behaviour ............. 318
List of Tables

Table 1 Participant Gender and Comparisons to Teaching Council Register. 112
Table 2 Participant Age Comparisons to Teaching Council Register .......... 112
Table 3 Participant Qualifications by Gender ........................................ 113
Table 4 Participant Positions in School ................................................ 116
Table 5 Participant Positions in School ................................................ 122
Table 6 Internet Access at Home .......................................................... 134
Table 7 Mobile Internet Access .............................................................. 136
Table 8 Participant Social Media Use ...................................................... 138
Table 9 Ease to Alter Privacy Settings on SNS ........................................ 143
Table 11 Cyberbullying of Another Teacher .......................................... 151
Table 12 Impacts of Cyberbullying Tactics Vs Traditional Bullying .......... 157
Table 13 Methods of Cyberbullying by Pupils ....................................... 159
Table 14 – Chi Square Goodness of fit results ....................................... 161
Table 15 Duration of Cyberbullying by Pupils ....................................... 162
Table 16 Methods of Cyberbullying by Parents ..................................... 164
Table 17 Duration of Cyberbullying by Parents ..................................... 167
Table 18 Methods of Cyberbullying by Management ............................. 168
Table 19 Methods of Cyberbullying by Other Teachers ......................... 170
Table 20 Cyberbullying by another staff member ................................ 172
Table 21 School Climate Domain Results ............................................. 174
Glossary of Terms

1. DES – Department of Education and Skills
2. SBT – The Student Bullying of Teachers
3. SCT – The Student Cyberbullying of Teachers
4. NJSCS – New Jersey Staff School Climate Survey
5. TUI – Teachers Union of Ireland
6. ASTI – Association of Secondary Teachers Ireland
Abstract

The Cyberbullying of Post-Primary Teachers in Ireland.

The cyberbullying of teachers by their pupils has not been researched as widely as adolescent bullying or cyberbullying. The cyberbullying of teachers by pupils has been defined as "the creation of digital texts, images and recordings that portray the teacher in ways that are demeaning and/or ridicule the teacher, which are then transmitted electronically to others" (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2015, p.267). This research attempts to provide a diverse understanding of the online lives of teachers in post-primary schools in Ireland. Some of the variables for examination include how teachers self-regulate their profiles on social media, the security and privacy prevention tools used and their attitudes towards communicating with students online. This research investigates the types of cyberbullying that teachers experience and how this influences them in their roles as teachers within their school environment. Negative physical and mental health effects including severe stress, fear for personal safety, teacher and pupil performance has been identified as a result of pupils bullying and cyberbullying teachers, this is an additional area of examination. This research utilises a quantitative approach to provide further insight into teacher cyber victimisation to develop support structures for teachers and schools.

Name: Liam Challenor

Student ID: 15210242
1. Introduction

This research focuses on three core aspects to explore the cyberbullying of Irish post-primary teachers. The first of these aspects is the social networking of post-primary teachers, including their device use and knowledge of privacy tools. Second is the core aspect of this research, the cyberbullying of teachers by members of the school community, looking at prevalence, forms of cyberbullying, and the group and gender aspects of cyberbullying sources and how these victims seek support. The final component of this research is to examine participant perceptions of school climate and if these are affected by their victimisation compared to a non-victimised teacher.

Cyberbullying research continues to increase in Ireland and internationally due to its impacts on psychological wellbeing of adolescents and adults including, negative impacts on self-esteem, anxiety and depression (Foody, Samara & O’Higgins Norman, 2017; Cowie & Myers, 2016, 2017). These impacts will be discussed throughout this research, predominantly focusing on stress, and the impact of social media use and cyberbullying on teachers’ stress levels. Cyberbullying research has defined the phenomenon differently depending on the context or components of the definition which in turn can affect prevalence rates. These definitions often contain two key criteria, intention and an imbalance of power, while some researchers remove the repetition criteria for cyberbullying as incidents can be shared or repeated by others even if the source only posts the content once (Smith, 2012; Patchin & Hinduja, 2015; Connolly, 2017).

The peer definition which is most widely used in Ireland for cyberbullying among adolescents was defined by Professor Mona O’Moore as “…aggressive, wilful behaviour that is directed by an individual or group against another individual or
group with the help of technological devices” (O’Moore, 2014, p.17). Whereas the cyberbullying of teachers by pupils has been defined as “the creation of digital texts, images and recordings that portray the teacher in ways that are demeaning and/or ridicule the teacher, which are then transmitted electronically to others” (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2015, p.267) which excludes repetition as the cyberbullying of a teacher may be continued by cyberbullying bystanders (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2018).

In comparison to the prevalence rates of the cyberbullying among adolescents, studies on the cyberbullying of teachers are limited in Ireland as Lipsett (2009), who conducted research in Northern Ireland with the Association of Teachers and Lecturers identified that a significant portion of teachers received unwelcome emails and text messages, while a small amount had experienced cyberbullying on social media. In addition to Lipsett (2009), research in the Republic of Ireland by the Teachers Union of Ireland (2006), Association of Secondary School Teachers in Ireland (2007) and Irish National Teachers Organisation (2011) have highlighted that teacher violence occurs in Ireland. However, after these concerns were raised about teacher violence which includes bullying and cyberbullying, no action has yet been taken by Irish teaching unions to investigate the area, limiting the understanding of the phenomenon to inform policy and supports which can be provided to the victim.

The urgency to address violence in schools has been raised by researchers in the United States as McMahon et al., (2014) stated that researchers need to better understand the nature and extent of teacher-directed violence to improve students’ and teachers’ experiences and make our school systems safer and more effective. As a student’s academic and behavioural outcomes are directly influenced by the professional functioning of educators, effecting the recruitment and retention of quality teachers (Reddy et al., 2013).
While no research has taken place in Ireland that focused on the cyberbullying of teachers, even though the research above has discussed a significant gap in research on teachers as victims of cyberbullying by members of the school community, which this research will address. Indeed, apart from the research highlighted above, to this researcher’s knowledge limited research internationally has focused on either the social media use, or cyberbullying of a teacher, providing a substantial gap in knowledge as social media use continues to grow in Ireland with 72% of adults and 93% of 16-29-year-olds using social networking in 2017 (Central Statistics Office, 2017).

Following these changes in social media use, researchers have focused on the cyberbullying, bullying and safer internet use among adolescents to inform intervention strategies, provide training and aid in the development of school and government policy but have neglected the cyberbullying of adults in schools. Recent research with post-primary school principals (N=918) in Ireland has identified that schools need further supports to tackle bullying and cyberbullying among adolescents since the introduction of the Anti-Bullying Procedures for Primary and Post-Primary Schools in 2013 (Department of Education and Skills, 2013b; Foody, Challenor, Murphy & O’Higgins Norman, 2018).

These recommended supports which aim to strengthen current policy for peer bullying included further research on best practice for interventions, dedicated teachers trained to co-ordinate and implement whole school best practice and further training supports for all school staff on bullying and cyberbullying (Murphy, Downes & O’Higgins Norman, 2017). Although these resources are beneficial, not all are currently in practice which hinders prevention and intervention efforts in schools.
While these policy changes provide important insights to support pupils, new approaches must be taken to evaluate and combat bullying as it is a continuous behaviour rather than viewing bullying as a standalone issue within schools (Department of Education and Skills, 2018a). This research would expand on this statement stating that bullying and cyberbullying behaviour should be evaluated not only among peers but between all members of the school community to aid in the reduction of school violence for all stakeholders and improve school climates, which can then result in improved academic attainment and well-being (Hattie, 2003; Sun & Royal, 2017).

This research aims to address the current research gaps, investigating if the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers in Ireland by pupils is prevalent, the cyberbullying tactics, gender and group variations, impacts and help seeking behaviour to inform future policy. Drawing on the limited research in this field this research will discuss the difficulties which are present so far, current findings and how this research will examine the cyberbullying of teachers, building on existing research. In addition to this main aim, this research also follows earlier work by McGuire and O’Higgins Norman (2016) which identified gaps between a parent and their child’s use of social media, privacy tools and safe online behaviour and decreased parental supervision. Drawing on the research by McGuire and O’Higgins Norman (2016), this study will also seek to understand the social networking, device use and safe online behaviour of teachers to inform training and identify if unsafe behaviours are associated with cyber-victimisation.

Following the social media use and cyberbullying of teachers, it is important for this research to consider how these variables affect a teacher and the wider school climate. School climate is an overall measurement of a school’s social and
psychological climate, as Hinjuda & Patchin (2012) state. We can compare school climate to the weather as this can shape our attitudes, overall mood and behaviour, and that these can be influenced by generating a positive atmosphere which benefits all those within the environment. In order to measure these perceptions, teachers’ self-reported stress will be gathered in addition to the school climate perceptions of staff as cyberbullying and bullying behaviour has been found to be influenced by positive and negative school climates (Espelage, Polanin & Low, 2014). This will allow this research to identify the influence of the cyberbullying of a teacher on their wider school climate perception to aid in prevention and intervention efforts, as well as the development of supports as it is important for educators and researchers to consider the needs of the victim from a broad perspective.

This research follows a traditional research format, beginning with a review of literature which focuses on the student cyberbullying of teachers, discussing definition of the phenomenon and the existing research in the field of the bullying and cyberbullying of teachers and its effects on not only the teacher but the wider school environment. The literature chapter will then move to discuss the potential causes of bullying and cyberbullying behaviour to understand the dynamics which may contribute to the cyberbullying of teachers, particularly moral disengagement. The literature chapter will then conclude by addressing the current procedures which are in place relating to the cyberbullying of teachers and suggest some methods which can be used with pupils to address the cyberbullying of teachers and the aims of the present study.

Following this the methodology for this research will detail the research design and framework which has been devised from the review of literature providing the research aims and questions. These aims are then divided into three specific areas informed from the literature for hypothesis: social media, cyberbullying and school
climate. The chapter will continue with the sampling strategy for the research and discuss the questionnaires which will be used to carry out this research, concluding with information about the participants and procedures for the pilot and main data collection phases and the ethical considerations of this research.

The results chapter will also be organised according to these three domains. Firstly, discussing the profile of participants, their social media use results and reported stress levels, following this, the cyberbullying results are detailed and organised by the victimisation group. The results chapter concludes with the presentation of the school climate results, organised by the sub domains of the school climate scale.

The discussion chapter begins with an evaluation of the findings obtained in this research as well as some unexpected findings obtained. The main portion of the discussion section is the analysis section, which is organised according to the research questions in chapter 2, discussing, comparing and evaluating the findings obtained to existing research. The strengths and limitations of this research will then be detailed, the discussion chapter then concludes with suggestions for future research and a summary of the chapter. The penultimate chapter will discuss the theoretical and practical implications of this research for education, policy and practice. The final chapter of this research is the conclusion section which provides an evaluation of this research, its findings and implications as a whole.
2. The Student Cyberbullying of Teachers

Cyberbullying and traditional bullying are two phenomena which have gained growing attention from the media, schools, young people, their parents and policy makers. While the majority of focus is on peer bullying and cyberbullying in schools, other stakeholders who are also affected have not received the benefits and supports provided by research. These stakeholders are teachers, who have knowledge and procedures to deal with peer bullying/cyberbullying, but may experience additional difficulties when there are cyberbullied. The objectives of the current literature review are to evaluate the current research on the bullying and cyberbullying of teachers, providing a means to investigate the cyberbullying of teachers by their pupils in post primary education in Ireland.

2.1 Cyberbullying

Cyberbullying may be defined as “online bullying, which is aggressive wilful behaviour that is directed by an individual or group towards another using technological devices” (O’Moore, 2014, p. 17). As the availability of the Internet and technological devices becomes more affordable, social networking use has also grown with over 700 million daily users (Back, Stopfer, Vazire, Gaddis, Schnukle, Egloff & Gosling, 2010). Research from EU Kids online identified that an average of 1 in 6 teenagers were cyberbullied across Europe (Livingstone & Haddon, 2009).

Due to the pervasive and continuous effects cyberbullying may have it has attracted increased attention from education stakeholders, researchers and the media. The Department for Children, Schools and Families in the United Kingdom describe cyberbullying as an invasion into the home and personal space, highlighting the
difficulty in controlling material online, the size of the audience, anonymity of those involved including the bully and their target (Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2007). This lack of control may escalate the stress and anxiety experienced by cyberbullying victims.

The above definition by O’Moore (2014) focuses on the wilful and aggressive intent of the perpetrator, excluding repetition over time. Smith (2012) highlighted in response to Olweus (2012), repetition is no longer straightforward online, when compared to repetition over time in a traditional bullying incident. Smith (2012) stated that a single cyberbullying incident might be shared privately or publicly, commented on by almost anyone and therefore constituted repetition that may not always involve the creator of the original offence, but instead involve cyberbullying bystanders (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2018). Corcoran, McGuckin and Prentice (2015), also discussed the compounding components of the definitions put forward by Smith (2012) and Olweus (2012) specifically, the existence, extent and threat of cyber-based abuse and how we include and exclude occurrences, in turn, affecting the measurement of the prevalence of cyberbullying. Patchin and Hinduja (2015) state that similarly to traditional bullying, the true prevalence of cyberbullying cannot be identified until unilateral definitions and means of measurement are universal, this of course brings its own challenges such as culture, context and the semantics of language.

Cyberbullying, unlike traditional bullying, may occur in a number of methods as there are fewer boundaries to online communication (O’Moore, 2014). Focusing on cyberbullying in Ireland, Minton and O’Moore (2008) identified 20% of 12-19-year olds had experienced cyberbullying as either bully or victim. Furthering this finding Corcoran, Connolly and O’Moore (2012) identified that 6.3% of 12-16-year olds were cyber-victims with an additional 2.6% also engaged as cyber-bullies. More recent
findings in 2014 and 2015 identified that 22% and 25% of 9-16-year olds had been the victims of cyberbullying (O’Neil & Dinh, 2014, 2015).

While many researchers focus on five traditional bullying methods; (1) verbal, (2) physical, (3) gesture, (4) social exclusion and (5) indirect relational (Smith, 2014), cyberbullying methods are not as restricted as boundaries for contact between bully and victim are fluid, Cotter & McGilloway (2011) identified that the anonymity and free access to the target given to the bully places the victim in a scenario where they feel helpless, which is also reported by victims in the U.K (Sawer, 2011).

Cyberbullying does not only occur in cyberspace as 67.4% of Irish cyber bullies also bullied in the real world (O’Moore, 2012). Gleeson (2014) reiterated this trend, as 43-80% of Irish cyber-victims often know their aggressor in the real world. During the course of this research and this literature review it is important to focus on the synchronous relationship of bullying and cyberbullying. This relationship will be discussed throughout this analysis as the negative consequences which teachers experience online often begin in the classroom.

2.2 Student bullying of Teachers

Teachers are fundamental to change and play an integral role in shaping the environment for pupils attending any school, and often the first contact made by a parent when their child has a problem is the teacher (O’Moore, 2000). Whom do teachers turn to for support when they are the targets of bullying? The bullying of teachers by their pupils was acknowledged by Espelage et al., (2013) stating that the area is rarely defined and examined by academics and that there needs to be greater acknowledgement amongst students, teachers, parents, administrators and policy makers. While research focusing on the bullying of teachers is limited, the published
works in the field have yet to provide a universally definition of bullying which we see in peer bullying, however the three peer bullying criteria of power imbalance, intention and repetition are recurring in various definitions.

The bullying of teachers by their pupils was defined as ‘Pupil-teacher-bullying’ by Twemlow, Fongay, Sacco and Brethour (2006) as “a student who tends to control the classroom with disruptive behaviour that implies contempt for the teacher and who uses coercive tactics to deskill the teacher” (p.191). Other researchers have argued that the bullying of a teacher by their pupil is more than just disruption within a classroom, instead emphasising the intention to cause harm (James, Lawlor, Courtney, Flynn, Henry, & Murphy, 2008), power differentials (Galloway & Roland, 2004; Garrett, 2014) and repetition (Lynch, 2004) which are also the focus in peer bullying.

The traditional peer bullying criteria of intention, repetition and the imbalance of power (O’Moore, 2010; O’Moore & Stevens, 2013; Olweus, 1992, 2012) cannot be applied in the same manner to the student bullying of teachers. Specifically, in regard to the imbalance of power discussed in definition, as it cannot be said that the teacher is always in the position of power, however teachers who are not permanent or who are covering as a substitute may feel powerless or vulnerable due to their temporary status. The student bullying of teachers involves a distinct and unique power differential, in that a child has power over an adult. In a classroom setting if a traditional bullying incident or classroom disruption occurs by a popular student for example, it may be more difficult for a teacher to gain control of the situation occurring as the pupil may have the support of his peers (Garrett, 2014). The resulting situation creates a sense of shame and isolation amongst victimised teachers (De Wet, 2010).
Further research by De Wet (2012) which focused on the bullying of teachers by pupils identified several factors which focus on the relationship between teacher and pupil as well as the potential motives for the student bullying of teachers. Primarily De Wet (2012) discussed that teachers are often targeted by learners who have a disregard for the teacher, or more specifically the authority they hold. This can also be spurred by the pupil’s parents who may have an aggressive or negative attitude towards the particular teacher which may provide the pupil with support. This dynamic may therefore cause further difficulty if a teacher or school challenges a pupil for their behaviour, enforcing the need for further support in policy for a teacher. Insights such as this are currently still not present in teacher cyberbullying literature; although beyond the scope of this research the relationship between teacher, pupil and parent will be explored in regard to victimisation.

For the purpose of this research the term ‘Student Bullying of Teachers’ or SBT will be used. SBT was defined by Garrett (2014) after analysis of the current terminology in the field drawing on Terry’s (1998) definition of cross peer abuse. Cross peer abuse occurs “in situations where the victim cannot easily escape, when an uneven balance of power is exploited and abused by an individual or individuals who in that particular circumstance have the advantage”. Bullying is characterised by persistent repetitive acts of physical or psychological aggression. Terry’s (1998) definition includes the concept of social confinement, the abuse of an asymmetrical power imbalance, and implies that the power is ‘usable’ in that it has given the individual an advantage” (Terry, 1998, p.261). The concept of power and how it relates to SBT is discussed below.

Drawing on the definitions of Garrett (2014) and Terry (1998), this research defines the Student Bullying of Teachers (SBT) as; ‘a student who attempts to gain
power over a teacher to cause repeated acts of aggressive behaviour which cause physical, psychological, emotional or professional harm.”

To further explain how SBT coincides with the components of the definition of peer bullying of; intention, repetition and power, the individual criteria will be discussed in further detail.

### 2.2.1 Intention and Repetition

Although, it can be argued that intention is necessary for repeated bullying actions, Lynch and Lodge (2002) reasoned that the perpetrator may claim that they were unaware of the potential effects of their actions. For example, a disruptive pupil may challenge a teacher’s authority in a classroom with the intention to gain social status among their peers; the teacher may perceive this as bullying if this is continually directed towards them.

The repeated systematic behaviour that a bully must engage in to victimise a peer or teacher is fundamental to most definitions of bullying. The negative actions of an individual to another must be premeditated to be labelled as bullying behaviours (McEvoy, 2005; Garrett, 2014). Rigby (2007) states that even though most bullying definitions now concede that bullying definitions use the criterion of repetition, a serious one can induce fear and the expectation for further harassment, oppressing the victim further.

Rigby’s (2007) statement about the repetition which may come from a once off bullying incident is now more commonly addressed in cyberbullying definitions, focusing on the size of the audience and the wider effect of an incident, oppressing the victim to relive the effects of the bullying (Smith, 2012). Kyriacou and Zuin (2018) also discussed the cyberbullying behaviours of bystanders, whereby they share
cyberbullying content further making it difficult to intercept and stop further sharing of
the original post, leading to a sense of powerlessness for the victim.

2.2.2 Power

Olweus (1993) asserts that bullying involves an irregular power imbalance. This
power imbalance is a defining component used to identify bullying. Teachers are said to
be in a position of power, supported by other staff, the school and its regulations.
However, the process of the student bullying of teachers subverts the power hierarchy if
a student is conscious of staff discontent with management, inconsequential discipline
processes, and weak collegiate relationships or of a teacher’s inability to deal with
student confrontation (Galloway & Roland, 2004; James et al., 2008, Garrett, 2014).
Researchers have also identified those individuals who are perceived to be more
powerful in real life may also be targeted by cyberbullies and protected by features such
as anonymity (Vranjes, Baillien, Vanderbosch, Erreygers & De Witte, 2018). This
power dynamic is also a feature of the cyberbullying definition posed by Smith and
colleugues (2006, p.6) as “Cyberbullying therefore can be defined 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”.

Garrett (2014) discussed the power exchange between pupil and teacher
according to Tew’s (2006) Matrix of Power Relations as a conceptual framework to
distinguish between the different forms of power in social interactions. The four forms
of power are: Co-operative and Protective powers which are productive and enabling
forms, whereas Oppressive and Collusive powers which are limiting and damaging
(Tew, 2006). The Matrix of Power Relations is applied to bullying and cyberbullying in
Figure 1 below.
Co-operative power requires collective action and mutual support by those involved. Protective power is when power is used to protect vulnerable people and their potential for advancement. Oppressive power involves the exploitation of differences for personal enhancement at the expense of another and Collusive power encompasses the negative co-operation of a group to exclude or suppress others (Tew, 2006). The review of these forms of power exchange can be equated to positive bystander behaviour (co-operative and protective power) or compared to direct or indirect bullying behaviours by an individual or group (oppressive and collusive power).

It may be said that teachers are naturally imbued with both co-operative and protective power by their institutions (James et al., 2008). However, students may identify inconsistent or reduced punitive procedures for disruptive behaviours and perceive this as an opportunity to increase their oppressive power over a teacher.
Garrett (2014) rationalised the subversion of a teacher’s power to an absence of training, policy, internal/external procedures and support structures.

On this basis, it would be beneficial for further procedural implementations similar to the National Action Plan on Bullying and Primary and Post Primary Procedures which support educators to counteract peer-bullying (Department of Education and Skills, 2013a; 2013b). Terry (1998) emphasises that the teacher is under a “potent social constraint that precludes escape as a means of terminating the abusive interaction” (Terry, 1998. P.278). These constraints put a teacher in the difficult position after victimisation to directly challenge their aggressor(s), captive in their own classroom, maintaining their professionalism and resolving the scenario. It may be said that teachers who are not prepared adequately or unaware of possible solutions and tools are less likely to succeed.

Terry (1998) discussed how power as it relates to the universal definition of bullying relates to the SBT, stating that power can be theorised and separated into relative and usable power. Usable power is defined as that which is practical, convenient and individual to use while relative power refers to an individual’s power which is rendered usable due to the counter-power theory. Terry explains that usable power is drawn from a pool of potential power forming one side of the power equation.

The teacher may be perceived to be in a position of greater potential power relative to the student due to both their maturity and position as a teacher; the student may evaluate these variables when engaging in the bullying of a teacher. The teacher’s power may be undermined by a student’s contempt for authority, and ineffective disciplinary procedures. Kauppi and Pörhölä, (2012) discussed the power differential between students and teachers, theorising that SBT is perpetrated by a “party of lower
status” against a “party of higher status” who cannot easily defend him or herself. De Wet (2010) also recognised this power differential in their definition of SBT, stating “aggressive behaviour in which there is an imbalance of power between the aggressor and the educator”. Direct forms of SBT may be physical, verbal, or gesture based, while indirect forms such as exclusion, extortion and denigration intend to cause damage to social status or psychological harm (Aluede, 2006; James et al., 2008).

2.2.2 Student Bullying of Teachers Research

Twemlow et al., (2006) discussed the important role teachers play in determining a school climate, establishing a safe learning environment where the educator is the positive role model and not the adversary of the pupil. However, Murray (2013), while discussing workplace bullying of teachers in Canada, highlighted the subset of teacher bullying perpetrated by pupils (33%), predominantly verbal abuse often referring to threats of physical harm towards the teacher. Twemlow et al., (2006) stated that teachers themselves may suffer severe stress and fear for their own safety in a school which may be more dangerous when a teacher punishes a pupil that may retaliate against them. An interesting finding of the research was the types of pupil victims, in particular children who provoke teachers to induce a response, making themselves bully-victims or the provocative victims described by Olweus (1992).

Research in Ireland focusing on the bullying by and of teachers reported by students in Dublin (N=919) and Louth, Cavan and Monaghan (N=2300) was conducted by James et al (2008) using the Olweus (1993) definition of bullying. The aim of James et al., (2008) was to evaluate the roles that teachers play in the bullying behaviours in Irish secondary schools. The motivations for this work were driven by the lack of knowledge in the relationships of teacher-pupil and pupil-teacher bullying as intervention programs primarily focus on the control and alteration of pupil behaviours.
James et al., (2008) found that before examination they faced difficulty from schools in discussing the bullying of pupils by teachers as schools felt it may leave teachers exposed to allegations by students which may or may not be valid.

In relation to SBT, in Louth, Cavan and Monaghan, 28.2% (n=648) of students reported that they had bullied teachers. The variance of bullying reported in the individual schools ranged from 7.8% to 53.2%, with males (33%, n=407) significantly bullying teachers more than females (21.9%, n=231). The methods of bullying were classified as verbal bullying, physical bullying and insubordination, whereas in Dublin, 16.3% (n=150) admitted to bullying teachers, with schools ranging from 4.1% to 44.4%. Significant differences were also identified between males bullying (22.1%, n=52) and females bullying (14.4%, n=98) (James et al., 2008).

The results of James et al., (2008) represent a substantial number of students within Ireland and the variances in both formats and gender variables. Most importantly, students of this investigation openly disclosed their own bullying of teachers and were aware that this behaviour was both disruptive to other pupils and had a negative effect on the teacher. The authors discuss that there is an agreement between the pupils and teachers in the schools about what student-teacher behaviours can be classified as bullying. The results of James et al., (2008) were supported by the Teachers Union of Ireland (TUI), as they investigated student disruption in schools.

The research of TUI (2006) gathered responses from 1,121 teachers across Ireland (60% female, 40% male). Of the teachers surveyed 37% had more than 20 years’ experience, 25% had 10-19 years’ experience and 38% had less than 10 years’ experience, providing a ranging scope of experience in disruptive behaviour and bullying. Teachers identified a range of effects on both classroom management,
frequency of interruptions and difficult students, with 51% of teachers reported feeling drained by pupils. Teachers also reported being a little stressed (41.6%), quite stressed (34.7%) and completely stressed (9.1%) from the managing and disciplining of pupils.

In addition to the TUI report, the Association of Secondary School Teachers in Ireland (ASTI) identified that 9% of teachers had been victims of physical abuse by students, parents and school management, and of these, 37.5% of incidents were perpetrated by pupils (ASTI, 2007). Recent research by the National Association of Schoolmasters Union of Women Teachers (NASUWT) identified that 21% of teachers in the United Kingdom are also experiencing cyberbullying with 64% of this from pupils, 27% by parents and 9% by pupils and parents (NASUWT, 2014). Most of this behaviour took place on Facebook, 50% of comments by pupils relating to a teacher’s performance, and 26% recording videos or taking photos of the teacher without consent. The victimisation by parents and pupils found by NASUWT continues to increase as over a third of teachers in 2017 reported that they had been cyberbullied, with reasons relating to teacher performance and identity-based bullying, such as homophobia and racism (NASUWT, 2017; 2016)

In Northern Ireland the Irish National Teachers Organisation (INTO, 2011) identified that 50% of teachers witnesses incidences of school violence, while a further 57% have been subject to either physical or non-physical violence. These findings from the ASTI, NASUWT, INTO and TUI give support to the work of James et al; (2008) and highlight the effects of violence against teachers from a professional and personal level.

Another example before the work of Twemlow et al., (2006) and James et al., (2008) on teacher victimisation was conducted by Pervin and Turner (1998) surveying
84 teaching staff in an inner London school. Focusing on prevalence and teacher performance, they identified that 91% of staff indicated that they had been the victim of bullying by a pupil of which 71% was verbal and 15% physical. The results of this victimisation led to a lack of trust in management support and a reduction of reporting or help seeking from teachers to management, with some teachers dreading their working day. The findings of Pervin and Turner (1998) illustrate the consequences for teacher’s physical and mental well-being.

While it is important to understand the manifestations of the student bullying of teachers (SBT), teachers may also be targeted by their pupils using electronic forms (De Wet, 2010). As the focus of this research is on the student cyberbullying of teachers, it is important to note that elements of the student bullying of teachers may manifest or continue in digital formats such as the recording of traditional incidents which are later distributed for ridicule online (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2015).

2.3 The Cyberbullying of Teachers

Expanding on the Student Bullying of Teachers (Garrett, 2014), the cyberbullying of teachers has been defined as “the creation of digital texts, images and recordings that portray the teacher in ways that are demeaning and/or ridicule the teacher, which are then transmitted electronically to others” (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2015, p.267). This research draws on previous definitions made by this research on the Student Bullying of Teachers (SBT) to suggest the cyberbullying of teachers as the Student Cyberbullying of Teachers (SCT).

The Student Cyberbullying of Teachers (SCT) is defined by this research as a student who uses electronic devices in an attempt to gain power over a teacher causing
acts of aggressive behaviour which are intended to cause psychological, emotional or professional harm.

Similar, to the traditional bullying of a teacher whereby a pupil challenges a teacher’s authority (De Wet, 2012), the cyberbullying of teachers in school may challenge a teacher’s authority further as they may be aware of an incident but be unable to act as the material is online and subject to external control by the host, the teacher has no control unlike a school setting, where a teacher may challenge a pupil (Kauppi & Pörhölä, 2012a & 2012b). Additionally, if a pupil chooses to cyberbully a teacher outside of school hours they have no authority to challenge the instigator. The variables of the cyberbullying of teachers such as the lack of control and the struggle for power will be discussed throughout the examples used in this literature review.

The cyberbullying of teachers can be discussed according to the disinhibition effect (Suler, 2004) as many of the factors discussed in Suler’s theory may be applied to the cyberbullying experiences of teachers. The online disinhibition effect proposed by Suler (2004) discusses the interaction between people online and the effects created by smartphones and other devices on these digital communications, whereby communicators lack the cues that they would receive in face-to-face interaction altering the communication which takes place. Suler (2004) explored six factors that create the online disinhibition effect, these are: dissociative anonymity, invisibility, asynchronicity, solipsistic introjection, dissociative imagination and minimisation of authority.

The online disinhibition effect may be aligned to the cyberbullying experiences of a teacher as several of Suler’s factors may influence or impact on some teachers’ cyber-victimisation. The disinhibition effect can have two directions, a positive
interaction allowing people to share and support one another (known as benign disinhibition) or to cause harm to others including cyberbullying or cybercrime, this was defined as toxic disinhibition.

The cyberbullying of a teachers seen on websites such as ‘Rate my Teacher’ allow the user to be anonymous, which is the first factors of the disinhibition effect, where the individual dissociates themselves from their own behaviour and in many cases creating negative and hurtful evaluations of teachers. However, if this was placed in a face to face situation a pupil may not have the courage to create this negative content, however the second factor of disinhibition, invisibility may heighten a user’s courage in an online setting as they and their target are both lacking the physical and emotional cues that would be present in an offline communication. This in-turn may heighten a person’s disinhibition in their behaviour and negate the potential remorse or guilt that could occur.

As Suler (2004) states the lack of immediate reaction from an individual disinhibits people and this is often a factor when communication is not instant and requires a time for users to interact such as the ‘Rate my Teacher’ message boards or on email. These are forms of asynchronous communication where users can post a negative communication and leave the platform or website and leaving their hurtful message behind for the user. In addition to asynchronicity, online disinhibition is also effected by Solipsistic Introjection, whereby an individual may interpret messages incorrectly or apply additional meaning to them, which when applied to communications between teachers and the school community may have negative consequences on relationships.
The norms and rules of everyday life such as the respectful communications between teachers and the school community may also be effected by another factor, dissociative imagination. This is where users separate their online and offline behaviour and remove their responsibility for anything that takes place in a digital space which may in turn reduce feelings of guilt for the perpetrator and a bystanders’ responsibility to act in a cyberbullying situation. As a teacher is often in a position of power and authority in a school environment the integration of technology and social media in school settings also has an effect on a teachers’ authority. An important factor in the disinhibition effect is the minimization of status and authority.

The minimization of a teacher’s status and authority through a student’s disinhibition draws on the lack of visual cues presented by a teacher, through their position within the school, reminders of this authority in their clothing, position in the classroom and interaction with the pupil. Suler (2004) argues that this authority and influence does not entirely transfer to an online environment and this allows professional boundaries to shift from a hierarchical relationship to a peer relationship where pupils may misbehave more readily. Suler also acknowledges the individual differences and factors which effects a individuals communication online, such as their needs, underlying feelings and personality style. In cyberbullying scenarios the heightened emotional state or motivation of the cyber perpetrator may also heighten their disinhibition and increase the impact on the receiver. The final factor discussed by Suler (2004) was ‘shifts among intrapsychic constellations’, arguing that disinhibition allows for an individual’s underlying personality to be expressed and bringing forth a true self. This factor provides less empirical support and may not be applicable to the understanding of the cyberbullying of a teacher, further research is still needed to explore this final factor of the online disinhibition effect.
In addition to the aspects of the disinhibition effect (Suler, 2004), the rapid increase in electronic and online communication has meant that similarly to peer bullying, the bullying of teachers is no longer confined to school grounds (Garrett, 2014). The SCT may continue at a time and location of the pupils choosing enabling it as an accessible medium for pupils to target a teacher. There are several manifestations of the SCT detailed by the U.K. Safer Internet Centre (2011). These include; the cyberbullying tactics defined by O’Moore (2014) of Impersonation, Denigration Exposure and Trickery.

Impersonation is when a perpetrator creates a social network profile intended to humiliate and degrade the victim’s social status (Sugden, 2010; O’Moore, 2014). Denigration may manifest when a pupil posts hurtful comments, rumours and gossip online such as those seen on Facebook and RateMyTeacher (ASTI, 2004; Walshe, 2005; Posnick-Goodwin, 2012; U.K Safer Internet Centre, 2011, ATL, 2007). The cyberbullying tactic of Exposure is when an individual distributes personal communications, images or videos of a person to demean the victim. When this occurs in SCT, when pupils record and distribute the SBT in an effort to further exasperate the real world situation. Several examples of Exposure that will be examined in this section occur in the research by Kyriacou and Zuin (2015).

Researchers such as Fox (2011) and the Norton Online Family Report (2011) have discussed that in addition to Exposure, students may employ the cyberbullying tactic of Trickery (cyber-baiting) taunting a teacher to induce a reaction which is then recorded and posted online. The Norton Online Family Report identified that 20% of the 2,379 teachers from 24 countries had either personally or knew a fellow teacher had
been *Cyber-baited*; examples of cyber-baiting are also present in the video case studies of Kyriacou and Zuin (2015).

Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a) conducted research in the Czech Republic focusing on the cyberbullying of teachers and its impact using Hinduja and Patchin’s (2008) cyberbullying definition. Conducting a national survey with 5,136 teachers in primary and secondary schools, 21.73% experienced a cyber-attack, which to the victim’s knowledge was not shared online further, in comparison to 3.52% of teachers who reported continuous cyberbullying.

Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a; 2017b) state that some methods of students’ cyberbullying of teachers which are similar to those stated by O’Moore (2014) may include: *Flaming, Online harassment, Cyber-stalking, Denigration, Masquerading, and Outing*. In addition to these cyberbullying tactics, Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a) state that affiliated forms of once off abuse known as cyber-attacks, may also occur which the author’s state often lack repetition. These are cyberbaiting, sharing degrading material depicting teachers, creating fake websites demeaning the teacher, creating a fake profile on a social network, threats or intimidation, extortion and accessing the teacher’s online accounts.

It is important to understand and consider the importance of cyberbullying definitions and that Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a) state that few teachers experience repeated cyberbullying and more teachers experienced once of cyber-attacks. The labels of the different forms and definitions of cyberbullying are problematic as they inturn effect the measurement of prevalence rates and responses to both bullying and cyberbullying behaviours, affecting the development of supports and policy as well as punitive action (Farley, Coyne & D’Cruz, 2018). As Rigby (2007) previously stated,
repetition may occur from a once off incident and requires greater consideration of its effects on a victim. The cyber-attacks termed by Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a) would be defined according to Smith (2012) as cyberbullying as repetition may occur online through the sharing of material by bystanders on the same platform or passed on through other social networking sites. Within workplace cyberbullying, researchers have also argued that the concept of repetition should not be a defining characteristic for defining workplace cyberbullying due to the ability to share content by bystanders (Coyne, Farley, Axtell, Sprigg, Best & Kwok, 2015).

In addition to the cyberbullying experienced by the participants of Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017b), a further 7.6% were also victims of traditional bullying. However further research is needed to identify any potential overlapping of these two behaviours as other researchers have identified higher rates among pupil cyberbullying and bullying (O’Moore, 2012). Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017b) also discussed the reasons why teachers believed they were bullied, similarly to Kauppi and Porhola (2012a). Teachers blamed student or family problems and associated their victimisation less with their own behaviour, which as a result improves help seeking from management.

Research by Posnick-Goodwin (2012), which also examined the bullying of teachers, found that 35% of teachers had experience cyberbullying, through online harassment, predominantly on Facebook and Twitter. Other participants similar to the discussion by (Walsh, 2005) experienced cyberbullying on the website ‘RateMyTeacher’ and through inappropriate videos posted onto sites such as YouTube (Psnick-Goodwin, 2012).

Earlier research by the Association of Teachers and Lecturers (as cited in Bester, du Plessis & Treurnich, 2017) identifies that 45% of teachers received upsetting
email from pupils, while 38% report unwelcomed text messages. As technology continues to develop, the prevalence of the cyberbullying of teachers by their pupils also began to change, with NASUWT (2014), who focused on teachers in the UK, finding that 21% of teachers reported cyberbullying, increasing to 48% in 2015 and 55% in 2016 (NASUWUT, 2015; 2016).

In Ireland, the website ‘Rate my teacher’ has been used by students to both victimise teachers and pupils using the tactic of denigration. As pupils have the ability to post anonymously, students are disconnected from the person they post about and therefore are more likely to be negative. This is known as the asynchronicity effect, when an individual is physically disconnected from another and unable to see the effect of their communication. When these connections result in negative outcomes this is known as toxic online disinhibition (Suler, 2004).

Students can evaluate a teacher’s performance but also provide detailed comments. At its height in 2005 in Ireland, the website attracted 550,000 hits maintaining significant visits even during the summer months (Walshe, 2005). The victimisation of pupils and teachers on the website has decreased as website users must now register, reducing the levels of anonymity and in turn toxic online disinhibition (Suler, 2004). The website caused controversy at management level with calls from both schools and unions requesting the Department of Education and Skills to take action to have the website taken down. However, the reasons why the website was not removed, or edited are unknown.

Research by Slonje, Smith and Frisen (2012), further support the application of the asynchronicity effect (Suler, 2004), in relation to their findings of why only 42% of cyberbullies in their research expressed remorse. The rationale for this was that as the
victim and bully are not in proximity to one another the cyberbully can often not see the reaction or consequences of the behaviour. Although this is focused on peer cyberbullying, the same effect may be present for pupils who cyberbully adults (Slonje et al., 2012).

Research in the field of the SCT is still in its infancy, however there is a growing frequency focusing on the cyber victimisation of teachers. The cyberbullying of teachers on YouTube in Brazil, Portugal and England was examined by Kyriacou and Zuin (2015). Unlike the ratings seen on ‘RateMyTeacher’ reported by Lipsett (2009); Walsh (2005), and Pnick-Goodwin, (2012), pupils can escalate their victimisation of teachers using secret recordings of events which take place in school for sharing directly to other pupils or posted online to the public. It may be argued that this action is a collaboration of two cyberbullying tactics described by O’Moore, (2014); 1) *denigration* and 2) *non-consensual video dissemination*.

The motivations for a teenager who is cyberbullying a teacher are similar to those when a peer is the target. Gradinger, Strohmeier and Spiel (2012) stated four common cyberbullying motives; firstly, to *display their own power* over another person, secondly to *be accepted by peers*, thirdly the *enjoyment of the action* and finally because they were *angry*. If we examine these four factors against their potential as motivators of teacher targeted bullying and cyberbullying, we may say that they are present in most pupil-teacher conflict situations. Teachers are described by Kyriacou and Zuin (2015) as the figures of authority in schools; their research examined three video incidents in which the four motivators for cyberbullying are present.

In the three videos which are analysed by the authors, a bystander is recording the incidents to later post online. The first of these focuses on a student who is wrestling
a teacher to get her phone back, after it is confiscated for using it during the lesson. The students in the scene laugh at the struggle that takes place, cheering the pupil and jeering at the teacher, providing the pupil with *collusive power* (Tew, 2006), leaving the teacher overwhelmed by the incident and leaving the classroom without the phone. It may be said that the pupil is displaying her own *oppressive power*, motivated by her anger and frustration when her phone is confiscated, and it’s further motivated through the oppressive power provided by the pupils (Tew, 2006). Kyriacou and Zuin (2015) question why the pupil reacts so forcefully when her phone is taken by the teacher attributing the loss to a part of her own identity. This may be rationalised by O’Moore (2014) and Cotter and McGilloway (2011), stating that one of the reasons why victims of cyberbullying often don’t report is the fear of double punishment of having their own device taken away, in this example the pupil may struggle with the teacher due to this connection to their device.

This provides us with an insight into the connection between teenage pupils and their phones. Flood (2016a) defined this dependency and fear of its detachment as Nomophobia. While this is currently in the fifth version of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual for Mental Disorders (DSM V), it is important to consider how adolescents view their attachment to their devices. Research by Han, Kim and Kim (2017) on Nomophobia with adolescents identified that separation anxiety increased when adolescents viewed their phone as an extension of their self, creating increased attachment, leading to Nomophobia by heightening their need to be physically close to their device. This first incident may be interpreted in a number of ways is this behaviour a challenge to a teacher’s authority? Is the pupil reacting with the intention to humiliate or overpower the teacher? This research examines the case from two perspectives; firstly, the challenge in the classroom, which is unacceptable by the student, but which
may be argued as poor classroom management which is exacerbated by the bystanders in the classroom.

The pupil receives the support and social status approval of her peers through *collusive power* (Tew, 2006), when they laugh at the situation and motivate her with cheers during the struggle. On this basis we should consider the role of bystanders further as some students attempt to separate the teacher and pupil in their struggle, however the student is successful in retrieving her phone and the teacher leaves the pupil’s in the classroom. Kyriacou and Zuin (2015) speculate that the main motivators for this altercation are the gratification at the successful challenge to the teacher’s authority in the classroom. However this research would argue that the rationale of the pupils challenge is based in nomophobia as this disconnection from her device is worth the potential risk of challenging the teacher and not an incident of the student bullying of a teacher.

However in this research, similarly to Kyriacou and Zuin (2015), the pupil is unaware of the recording at first and the teacher is unaware that she is recorded at all and therefore it may be defined as a *Trickery* (O’Moore, 2014) or *Cyber-baiting* (Fox, 2011; Norton Online Family Report, 2011). This however would certainly be defined as *Exposure* (O’Moore, 2014) as the cyberbully in this instance would be defined as the recording bystander or later referred to as the hostile cyberbullying bystander (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2018). As outlined above, the motivation for exposure is to humiliate the target and damage their reputation.

This instance of SCT occurs as the pupil attempts to expose the teachers altercation with the pupil which may leave the teacher humiliated as to their poor classroom management, which is further heightened as the teacher flees the scene.
Terry’s (1998) usable power may be applied to this scenario as the hostile bystander records the event where the teacher is socially constrained, and often unable to act. Methods of intervention may however be implemented to support the teacher which will be discussed later in this chapter.

However, the act of cyberbullying does not occur until the video is posted on by a bullying bystander, continuing the challenge of the teacher’s authority. After several unfortunate cyberbullying incidents which were resulted in the well documented suicides of American teenagers, Phoebe Prince (O’Higgins Norman & Connolly, 2011) and Amanda Todd (Penney, 2016). O’Higgins Norman and Connolly (2011) describe the cyber-harassment which ensued when Phoebe moved from Ireland to the USA, victimised by a group of girls online and in school as she befriended boys who already had girlfriends. The resulting cyber-harassment led Phoebe to take her own life (O’Moore, 2014). Amanda Todd was also the victim of cyber-harassment after flashing her breasts on a webcam which was captured in a screen shot, resulting in her family’s blackmail, her bullying and cyberbullying which led to her suicide. Amanda’s case received vast media attention due to the circumstances, blame for her actions and her YouTube video explaining her case (Penny, 2016).

The perpetrators of the cyberbullying are also potentially aware of the consequences of posting images and videos online and the fallout that continues in comments and the sharing of the original posting. However the combination of the disinhibition of the perpetrator (Suler, 2004) and the instant gratification of their sense of power and control encourages their action (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2015).

The second video examined by Kyriacou and Zuin (2015), unlike the first begins recording before any acts occur, suggesting some form of premeditation or
trickery/cyber-baiting (O’Moore, 2014) by the producer and pupil. In the scene we are in a biology lesson in Brazil, where a male teacher is interrupted and visibly frustrated by a female pupil’s phone. The scene continues and the pupil’s phone rings again, the pupil answers her phone and begins to tell the caller she cannot speak. As this is occurring the teacher approaches the pupil, telling the pupil he cannot allow a situation like this in his classroom. He takes the phone and throws it violently on the floor, smashing the student’s phone. The teacher returns to the lesson as if nothing occurred, leaving the pupils in shock at what they have witnessed. Although this second challenge to the teachers’ authority displays premeditation there are questions raised as to why it was planned by the pupils. Do the pupils involved often think that this teacher displays authority in a hostile manner? Were the pupils intending to record a hostile altercation to challenge the teacher’s authority or to stop this behaviour from continuing by showing this video to school management?

Kyriacou and Zuin (2015) speculate that the most likely rationale for recording was to get their own back on the teacher and to challenge his aggressive style of maintaining discipline or the cyberbullying motivator of anger (Gradinger, Strohmeier & Spiel, 2012), or to expose the behaviour online to the public to ridicule the teacher (Garrett, 2014). This challenge to the teacher’s authority is an example of the use of collusive power as the negative co-operation of a pupil is intended to supress and gain alternate power over the teacher (Tew, 2006).

Shariff (2009) also describes these motivations as Anti-authority Cyber Expression, in which the pupil who traditionally holds little power in a classroom environment attempts to use social network postings to balance to power differential. Students that employ this method are predominantly more technologically skilled in social networking and are aware that a teacher will be powerless to control the
comments and publicity of any posting. This occurred in Ireland on a website known as ‘Rate my Teacher’, which enabled pupils to evaluate and comment on teachers in their schools (Walshe, 2005).

These first two videos show contrast on the teacher’s style however both are posted online, showing both scenarios to the public for judgement. The rationales for posting the videos vary from humiliating the teacher for entertainment and views and to challenge the authority of both teachers. In addition to this, Zuin (2012) discussed the common motivation in denigration forms of cyberbullying, predominantly, the popularity and publicity of their posting online as a narcissistic gratification fuelled by sharing, likes and other interactions on the post.

The final video reviewed by Kyriacou and Zuin (2015) takes place in a school in England and the recording of a physical assault involving teachers and pupils. In the start of the recording two pupils are fighting before being separated by teachers; however, neither bystanders nor pupils pay much attention to the efforts of the staff laughing at their efforts. The authors raise the question, who is the victim of this video? Is it the school, staff or pupils? This video however unlike the second does not appear to be premeditated by the producer and is recorded for the entertainment of the scene but also the potential for a post to become viral described by Zuin (2012). This final recording however does provide us with an insight into the explicit attitudes held by pupils in the school towards teachers and their authority as they celebrate the struggle of the teachers to control the situation.

These videos display the struggle for power between pupils and teachers and are only one of the ways in which the war for control of the classroom is being engaged. Kyriacou and Zuin (2015) additionally discuss that unlike peer bullying, pupil/teacher
bullying is not a clear issue as the recorders of videos are often not even involved in the scenarios. Examining teachers targeted by bullying pupils and indeed cyberbullying of teachers needs further examination not only of incidents that occur but the methods of identification and intervention which may be employed. The authors recommend that further research be conducted to identify the levels of mutual respect between pupils and teachers with the aim that this may be improved as a preventative method.

The examination of Kyriacou and Zuin (2015) provided additional knowledge for the identification of five main types of cyberbullies. Firstly, the sociable cyberbully engages in cyberbullying for their own entertainment without regard for the victim’s feelings. The lonely cyberbully is isolated and spends vast time online who eventually gets attracted to abusing people who they have little contact with, otherwise known as trolling (O’Moore, 2014). The narcissistic cyberbully motivated by self-importance and the desire to display their power over their victim. Motivated by the enjoyment of causing distress, the sadistic cyberbully derives satisfaction at the suffering of their victim. Finally, the morally driven cyberbully feels that their target is receiving justice for their actions (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2016).

Before the work of Kyriacou and Zuin (2015, 2016), research by Kauppi and Pörhölä, (2012a, 2012b) focused on the traditional bullying and cyberbullying of teachers by their pupils. Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012a) defined the bullying of teachers by students as a communication of processes in which a teacher is repeatedly subjected, by one or more students, to interactions that the teacher perceives to be insulting, upsetting or intimidating. The researchers also state that it may manifest in a verbal, non-verbal or a physical form.
In the investigation of Kauppi and Pörhölä, (2012a) they discussed that the sources of the student bullying and cyberbullying of teachers are pupils, colleagues, superiors and the parents of students. The research which was carried out in Finland focused on both the student cyberbullying of teachers and the student bullying of teachers. As this research focuses on SCT this literature review will focus on these findings. In their research Kauppi Pörhölä (2012a), focuses on SCT, concentrating on the phenomenon of the exchange of power between the teacher and the pupil. Using a small online sample of 70 teachers who had been bullied online or offline by their pupils, they identified SCT by e-mail, telephone calls, and text messages or through social networking postings in either text or images of teachers. The examination of teachers in Finland found that the types of bullying experienced by teachers were similar to those students experienced. The exception that was identified was in the indirect formats, where pupils would normally be excluded, or socially targeted teachers were subjected to increased behaviours that are often described as disruptive classroom behaviours.

The research findings from Kauppi and Pörhölä, (2012a) identified that although teachers were predominantly subject to verbal (90%) or physical (26.5%) bullying, teachers also experienced cyberbullying in addition to traditional forms. Teachers reported that in addition to traditional bullying they received harassment through email, telephone calls and text messages (14.7%) and through social media or through indirect postings online (7.6%).

The work of Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012a) has several limitations, including sampling, definition and data collection the researchers gathered a small sample of teachers who had been victimised from a convenience sample. This research would suggest that not all of the examples of the student bullying of teachers as they would not
fall under the criteria of intention, repetition and the disparity of power and would be more accurately viewed as classroom disruption. In addition, the researchers provided teachers with traditional bullying criteria and did not provide information on cyberbullying, and teachers in the research identified this as a problematic area.

The research of O’Moore (2012, 2014), details how when pupils experience both traditional bullying and cyberbullying their own physical and psychosocial side effects are increased. It may therefore be inferred that teachers may also experience this side effect. Research which investigated the effects of cyberbullying on a teacher by a pupil was conducted by Bester, du Plessis and Treurnich (2017) who conducted a case study investigation with a post-primary teacher in South Africa.

Bester et al. (2017) provided a novel contribution to the literature as they aimed to identify the experience and effect on the victim, as well as how they overcame their victimisation. The participant was a victim of denigration and exposure, whereby the student attempted to damage the teacher’s reputation using images (O’Moore, 2014), which was also found by Posnick-Goodwin, (2012) and Kyriacou and Zuin (2015). The participant in Bester et al., (2017) had his face and the principal’s face digitally edited into a pornographic photo, which was then shared online. The teacher believed that the event took place because of how his pupils viewed him in the role as a teacher in the school and not as an individual attack on his person.

The victim further stated that he could understand how cyberbullying can occur so easily due to inhibition, disconnecting the bully from their behaviour, and the ease of access to technology. However the effect on the teacher related to mental health, including emotional distress, anxiety, anger, humiliation and a loss of dignity but also caused stress at home, while also damaging the victim’s professional reputation. Bester
et al., (2017) state that in this case the teacher sought support initially from management as in line with other research they believed they were not the cause of the cyberbullying. In this case the teacher took legal action to try and create a change and take a stand for other victims however this did not have a positive effect, resulting in increased stress at home and impacting negatively on their career. However, the work by Bester et al., (2017) highlights the importance of support not only in the work setting but also at home to support a teacher through their victimisation.

Following on from the research by Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012a) and Bester et al., (2017) the authors identify that the role of social support can play a central role in aiding in the coping process after victimisation. Einarsen (2000) states that victims with high social support at work or outside work are assumed to feel less vulnerable with workplace bullying, as it can reduce the emotional or psychological activation in the victim. Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012b) conducted research into the forms of bullying experienced by teachers aiming to identify the attributions made by teachers for their bullying and the forms of social support sought in bullying incidents. Kauppi and Pörhölä, (2012b) examined data from 86 schools at primary and secondary school level, retrieved 215 teacher responses. The authors sought to identify if variables such as gender, age, teaching experience and age of their pupils may be associated with the attributions for bullying.

Results identified fifty-five (25.6%) reported occasional bullying by students. Seven (3.3%), reported weekly bullying, eight (3.7%) reported daily bullying and the remaining one hundred and forty-five (67.4%) reported they had hardly ever been subject to bullying by their pupils. Teachers in Kauppi and Pörhölä, (2012b) attributed the bullying of their pupils (student attribution) to \textit{behavioural problems and poor parenting} (37.7%), a \textit{challenge against the authority} they hold (institutional attribution)
(29.5%), *their own weakness’* (teacher attribution) (13.1%) or a combination of these factors (19.7%).

However, the authors discuss that if caused by rebellious behaviour we would expect that every teacher who works with the same pupils to experience this same behaviour, however this does not occur. Therefore, on the basis of these findings, this research would suggest that a combination of school, teacher and pupil related factors may be the reasons for victimisation. This may be further supported by the work of Wei, Gerberich, Alexander, Ryan, Nachreiner and Mongin (2013) who identified that the female teachers in their study were less likely to experience physical and non-physical violence, while teachers with more experience were also less likely to be victimised. The current research will also investigate if the gender of a teacher, their age and years of teaching experience is associated with the victimisation.

Following the variables which may be associated with victimisation, Kauppi and Pörhölä’s (2012b) findings provide important recommendations for this research to investigate the attributions for SCT and how these affect a teacher’s help-seeking behaviours. The researchers identified that when teachers attributed the causes of their bullying to a student related problem or institutional problem, they sought support from the institution or a colleague. However, when they attributed blame to themselves, they sought support from a family member as they were concerned about their professional reputation. These attributions for the cyberbullying of teachers by their pupils will therefore be implemented into this research to identify if attributions affect teachers social support behaviours. This current research however will also seek to identify if teachers perceive their help seeking supports to be effective. This may be particularly important in SCT as teachers may need technological supports to resolve SCT.

Additional research focusing on the help seeking behaviours of victims and how these
attributions affect a teacher in their role will be discussed later in this chapter, however in light of the research above it is important to understand the role of bystanders in cyberbullying research and how they may be motivated to act.

### 2.3.1 Cyberbullying and Bystanders

With the various cyberbullying incidents researched by Kyriacou and Zuin (2015, 2016) or by Kauppi and Pörhölä, (2012a, 2012b) it is important to consider the role of the bystander. The role of the bystander in these investigations is important as they are crucial in the further distribution of cyberbullying postings as participatory bystanders (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2018), or in the intervention of cyberbullying incidents (Brody & Vangelisti, 2016; Madden & Loh, 2018).

Cyberbullying incidents similar to bullying incidents often occur in the presence of a bystander. Research by Brody and Vangelisti (2016) focused on bystander intervention in cyberbullying incidents. The participants were drawn from undergraduate students in the USA, to evaluate the bystander effect (Darely & Latane, 1968) in online spaces. They identified three key results, (1) that the diffusion of responsibility is a key factor in helping behaviour online. Furthermore, (2) bystanders are less likely to act if they are anonymous and have no connection to the victim which was also identified by Patterson, Allan and Cross (2015; 2017).

Brody and Vangelisti (2016) also identified that (3) bystander intervention was more likely if the bystander was friends with the victim, or if the harm to the victim is perceived to be high, they would intervene and provide support, providing further support to research on how bystanders can be promoted to act (Patterson, Allan & Cross, 2017). Research on the behaviour of bystanders in school level cyberbullying incidents is extensive (Patterson, Allan & Cross, 2015, 2017) however; research on the
behaviours of bystanders in workplace bullying is still limited. Madden and Loh (2018), focused on workplace cyberbullying and bystander helping behaviour in workplace cyberbullying incidents with white collar professionals in Australia (N=204) using a series of vignettes.

The researchers also drew upon the Bystander Effect paradigm (Darely & Latane, 1968) which poses that the process of bystander intervention requires an individual to (1) identify a situation; (2) interpret the situation to require assistance; (3) feel responsible to act/intervene; (4) decide how this will occur; and (5) act on this decision. There are however interactions which reduce the likelihood to intervene in situations, the most well-known of these is the diffusion of responsibility, whereby intervention reduces as witnesses to an act increase.

Madden and Loh (2018) applied the bystander effect paradigm to workplace cyberbullying to further identify what variables within a workplace affect bystander intervention, comparing participants who classify themselves as co-workers and work friends. Similarly, to the cyberbullying of teachers, workplace cyberbullying is not universally defined; however, intention to cause harm is one of the key characteristics. Coyne, Farley, Axtell, Sprigg, Best and Kwok (2017) define workplace cyberbullying as an enduring negative behaviour in the workplace through technology, drawing similarities to school cyberbullying definitions such as Smith (2012) where repetition is expected and not required over time.

The results of Madden and Loh (2018) identified that a bystander was more likely to intervene when the victim was more closely associated to them as a friend rather than a colleague in their workplace. They further stated that significant correlations were present between a greater responsibility to help, willingness to offer
support and being less likely to ignore the situation. Over a third of participants who were identified as colleagues, were less likely offer support to the victim, whereas 77% of participants would get actively involved for a work friend. In addition to these findings, work colleague were also less likely to speak to management directly for a victim (26%), whereas 47% of work friends would speak directly to management and help as much as they could.

The findings of Madden and Loh provide further insights into workplace cyberbullying bystander behaviours, however the depth of these findings is currently outside of the scope of this current research as initial exploration of the cyberbullying of teachers in Ireland is required. However, this research will focus on the implications of the quality of relationships between colleague and pupils perceived by the participants of this research to provide further insight into the phenomenon.

2.4 Effects on the Teacher

As the examples of cyberbullying and traditional bullying above detail, victims of cyberbullying experience negative impacts. Early research by Rigby (2002) on traditional bullying by pupils identified that of the two hundred teachers sampled, 32% indicated that bullies make them feel personally intimidated in their classrooms. More recent research by Slonje, Smith and Frisen (2017) which focused on the perceived reasons for the negative impact of cyberbullying and traditional bullying may be relevant to the context of the cyberbullying and bullying of teachers. Slonje et al., (2017), investigated the reasons why a victim may be negatively impacted by an incident and the findings indicated that the negative impact was influenced by the publicity of the victimisation, the potential threat, a lack of coping strategies, reduced social support, persistent victimisation and anonymity of the source.
As this research has highlighted above, cyberbullying incidents are often public, which may in turn increase their effect on the victim. Slonje et al., (2017) identified that the perceived impact varied across the different types of cyberbullying, public and private. Using public forms of teacher cyberbullying investigated by Kyriacou and Zuin (2015, 2016) as an example, picture and video clip bullying which will be examined in this research is perceived as having a greater negative impact compared to traditional bullying, while email bullying is seen to have less of an impact (Slonje & Smith, 2008; Slonje et al., 2017).

The potential impacts of cyberbullying on teachers has not been conducted to date by researchers, therefore this current research will ask teachers to self-report the potential impacts of their cyberbullying. To achieve this the peer bullying impacts measurements used by Smith et al., (2006), Cotter and McGilloway (2011) and Slonje et al., (2017), as recent research among school level cyberbullying has highlighted the need to further examine differences between cyberbullying forms (Brewer & Kerslake, 2015). This will be examined across the potential cyberbullying sources in a school (pupils, parents and school staff) and influence their on teacher stress.

The prevalence, sources and symptoms of teacher stress has been examined often, primarily to identify methods of reduction; one such study was conducted by Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978). Concentrating on the sources of teacher stress in England, the authors gathered responses of 257 school teachers in 16 comprehensive schools. The definition of stress used was the response of negative effects such as anger and depression resulting from the teacher’s job. One fifth of teachers (N=51) reported their job as either very or extremely stressful. The main research findings of Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978), revealed four main factors of teacher stressors; 1) pupil misbehaviour (18.6%), 2) poor working conditions (12.2%), 3) time pressures (11.9%),
4) poor school ethos (9.3%). A gender variance was also identified, female teachers found pupil misbehaviour to be greater sources of stress than their male teachers.

Following on from the work of Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978), the examples and findings described above by Twemlow et al., (2006) and James et al., (2008) describing the frequency and symptoms from which teachers may suffer such as severe stress or fear, was further examined by Kauppi and Pörhölä, (2012b) who focused on teacher experiences of bullying by students. The authors outline the various effects that may manifest such as a reduction in work performance, the considerable detrimental effect on the victims’ physical and mental health. In Ireland there is no research to date which has directly focused on the bullying or cyberbullying of teachers or the effects on the teacher in relation to peer bullying, although this is supported internationally. This research will examine the effect of personal cyberbullying victimisation and its effect on stress, it will also gather reported stress from non-victimised teachers also. Research on teacher stress was in Ireland was conducted by the Teachers Union of Ireland (TUI) (2006) relating to the stress of teachers from classroom management. Teachers reported feeling a little stressed (41.6%), quite stressed (34.7%) and completely stressed (9.1%) and the affect on their morale in either a minor (40.9%), major (34.5%) and very seriously (14.1%) affecting their morale highlights the gravity of the problem. These stress findings are supported by other workplace bullying and cyberbullying research which is associated with high stress levels, depression, mental strain and reduced job satisfaction and negative school climate (Farley, Coyne, Sprigg, Axtell & Subramanian, 2015; Saeki, Segool, Pendergast & von der Embse, 2017). These consequences do not only affect the victim but have wider ramifications influencing personal, professional and financial well-being (O’Donnell & MacIntosh, 2016). The stress results identified
by TUI (2016) will be compared to the results of this research also, to establish a base stress level for non-victimised teachers.

Teachers who do experience stress or negative consequences of bullying however may seek support from fellow staff members, family or friends as a coping process. Research by Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012b) discussed the implementation of social support by teachers, finding that teachers with high levels of social support at work, or outside work are presumed to feel less vulnerable when faced with workplace bullying. This may aid in reducing the emotional and psychological effects of victimisation (Einarsen, 2000). Additional methods of support may also be utilised, at the beginning of teaching practice. Research by Morgan (2011) discussed the implementation of strengths, social support and coping skills to facilitate resilience. Morgan argues that resilience can be taught and fostered to teachers in the beginning of their profession to enable them to counter challenges in their career to improve their teaching efficacy and drawing on their own personal strengths (Morgan, 2011). Strategies such as those posed by Morgan (2011) and Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012b) may be used to counter the negative experiences associated with victimisation, but also be used to reduce additional workplace related stress.

Following the research findings by Morgan (2011), the workplace related stress which is experienced by teachers was examined by Herman, Hickmon-Rosa and Reinke (2018), who focused on burnout, self-efficacy, coping strategies and how these in turn affected pupils. Herman et al., (2018) identified three classes of teachers in their sample in relation to coping and burnout, with the results indicating that high coping strategies were associated with low burnout, moderate coping was associated with nominal burnout and low coping skills were strongly associated with high levels of
teacher burnout. The majority of participants in this study were characterised by high levels of stress (93%), with most of these applying robust coping strategies.

In relation to the stress experienced by teachers, Kyriacou (2001) discussed the support provided by other teachers during break times or at home can help to reduce feelings of stress, and aid teachers with emotional support even if they are unable to resolve the situation. The introduction of coping strategies such as social support may provide beneficial support to a teacher who is experiencing either traditional or cyberbullying by pupils, similar to bystander or parental support sought in peer bullying (O’Moore, 2010, 2014).

Corresponding research into the sources of social support for teachers was conducted by Türküm, (2011) in Turkey. The focus of Türküm’s work was to identify the sources of support sought after victimisation by a pupil, other teachers or school management. Teachers (N=360) stated that they were exposed to verbal and physical violence, anecdotally noting that they were experiencing a reduction in physical occurrences. The findings of Türküm (2011), identified that when exposed to verbal abuse 50.6% of male teachers preferred to share their experiences with colleagues, while a further 87.2% of female teachers sought support from their spouses and families. When exposed to physical violence by pupils, 82.7% of female teachers sought support from family, whereas males 41.6% of males sought support from colleagues.

An interesting result identified was that neither male nor female teachers preferred school administrators or counsellors as a source of support when victimised. The inferences that may be drawn from the work of Türküm (2011), may be applied to cyber victimisation of teachers described above in how they seek support with either
physical or verbal incidents that may have been recorded and posted online or discussed in online forums (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2015). Further work is required to provide support to teachers who are victimised by pupils online and offline, and as with incidents amongst pupils, a designated help seeking point is required.

Furthermore teachers may be further impacted by the isolation which may occur when they are victimised by associated stigma (Pervin & Turner, 1998; Kyriacou, 2001; Türküm, 2011; Kyriacou & Zuin, 2015). A teacher may be concerned that they may be perceived as ineffective in their job; poor at classroom management etc., when they experience conflict and blame themselves they may further detach themselves from help and support sources in and outside of school. The reasoning for this may be because teachers have reduced faith in management or counsellors or reduced trust or faith in resolution of their situation. Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012b), aimed to identify the rationale teachers have when choosing their social support source to share their experiences. Firstly the authors identified that 50% of teachers sought support from a colleague, 21.4% from a superior, 11.4% from a spouse, 4.3% from a health care professional, 4.3% told no one and 8.6% sought support from outside the school community. Several associations were correlated between the cause of the bullying and the source of support chosen by the victimised teacher. When a student was viewed to have behavioural problems or challenges to authority were associated as the cause teachers sought support from colleagues (65.2%) or management (26.1%). However if the teacher felt that they were associated as the cause they sought support from outside the school community (71.4%) or from no one (28.6%).

The results of Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012b) provide an insight into the social support-seeking intentions and rationalisation for seeking particular sources of support. On the basis of these findings we may expect that when teachers are targets of
cyberbullying by their pupils that they too would follow these social support seeking trends. Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012b) hypothesise that these trends are the result of attribution theory, suggesting that attribution error and self-serving bias cause individuals to appropriate blame to another individual or characteristics of the situation when negative behaviour is directed towards them. The research above however takes a narrow focus when examining behaviour and does not look at the wider school environment.

### 2.5 School Climate

The educational and social environment of a school is often referred to as a school climate. Van Houtte (2005) explained that school climate refers to the universal beliefs and shared experiences of those in a school and is a combination of both student learning and teacher working environment. School climate was defined as the attitudes, norms, beliefs, expectations and values that reinforce the school community, the connectedness and safety (Aldridge, Fraser, Fozdar, Ala’I, Earnest & Afari, 2016). School climate has been widely researched in relation to student behaviour and academic achievement as it has been found to have a great impact on students’ behaviour and learning outcomes (Hattie, 2003; Sun & Royal, 2017).

School climate can be divided into (1) psychosocial school climate, which focuses on attitudes towards others, connection and support, while (2) physical school climate addresses feelings of physical safety in the school or classroom (Riekie, Aldridge, & Afari, 2017).

Some researchers have discussed the aspects of school climate which can increase a teachers’ psychosocial attitudes toward their school, and these included; involving teachers in decision-making, better communication and positive student-
teacher relationships (Othman & Kasuma, 2017). Research by Aldridge, McChesney and Afari, (2017) examined the relationship between school climate, bullying, resilience and delinquent behaviours with 6120 Australian high school students. The focus of the study was to identify how school climate may be affected by bullying and delinquency across the psychosocial domains of school climate. The authors note that previous international research on school climate often included the influence of teacher support, school connectedness and school safety. This was also found by Berkowitz, Moore, Astor and Benbenishty (2017) in their systematic review of school climate, socioeconomic background, inequality and academic achievement, in defining school climate.

School climate is often measured using six established domains, (1) Teacher Support, (2) Peer Connectedness, (3) School Connectedness, (4) Affirming Diversity, (5) Rule Clarity and (6) Reporting and Seeking Help (Aldridge et al., 2017; Riekie et al., 2017). Teacher support focuses on the quality of student and teacher relationships and student perceptions of how their teachers’ value and support them. Peer connectedness focuses on the quality of relationships between students; school connectedness involves the degree to which students feel attachment of connectedness to the school. Affirming diversity in the school requires promoting, acknowledgement and acceptance of differences, while rule clarity involves how rules are understood and appropriate, and finally reporting and seeking help focuses on student awareness of school procedures and a pupil’s willingness to use them (Aldridge et al., 2017). The following section will evaluate research on school climate in these various domains.

Researchers have found that teachers who support their pupils, who have increased social connectedness and clearer expectations of pupils, are associated with decreased levels of bullying (Ertesvåg, 2016; Aldrige et al., 2017). However, bullying is
a multifaceted phenomenon, affecting pupils who are targeted, the families attempting
to provide support but also the teachers who aim to reduce the prevalence of bullying in
their schools.

Choen, Espelage, Twemlow, Berkowitz and Comer (2015), state that school
climate is a continuous process of improvement which may be used for effective
bullying prevention. It is important that this process draws on all members of the school
community and does not solely rely on teachers and management, as different
stakeholders may have different needs and expectations. Research on school climate
which focused on the differences which can occur between members of the school
community was conducted by Ramsey, Spira, Parisi and Rebok (2016). Ramsey et al
(2016) gathered the perceptions of pupils, parents and school staff, in fifty-five schools
using the Baltimore City Public School System Climate Survey. The results obtained
identified that students reported negative perceptions of school safety and
connectedness which was also significantly lower than the perceptions of parents and
staff. However, the findings for school safety are not directly comparable to an Irish
post-primary school context due to cultural and social factors, and school size. Parents
also reported significantly lower perceptions of their own involvement when compared
to students and staff as they may have higher expectations of their own involvement in
the school which they are not meeting.

Finally, school staff also reported the lowest levels of academic emphasis as
similarly to parents they may have higher expectations, comparing their ideal outcome
to current academic achievements. The findings of Ramsey et al., (2016) support the
work of Bandura (2001) as the perceptions of the school community are influenced by
their own personal beliefs and perceptions and are not a true picture of the whole school
community. On the basis of these findings it is important that when assessing a whole
school community that all members views are considered to gather more robust and reliable findings.

In addition to whole school climate evaluation, whole school action is required, as Choen et al., (2015) state not all intervention programs led at peer bullying levels engage all members of the school community, resulting in only a partial intervention effort. School climate however requires a series of processes to promote a safe, supportive and engaging environment. As Berkowitz et al., (2017) state, school climate should involve transparent leadership, engaging students, parents and teachers, and measuring the social, emotional and physical situation to learn and improve the school community.

Choen et al., (2015) discuss five essential processes that are required to improve school climate; (1) Educational Leadership; (2) Engaging the Whole School Community; (3) Assessment; (4) Policies; (5) Practice. Leadership in Irish schools is driven by the school principal with the support of their board of management, following one of the suggested principles for best practice in the Anti-Bullying Procedures for Primary and Post-Primary Schools (Department of Education and Skills, 2013b). Leadership in schools has been examined within the field of bullying for some time. Låftman, Östberg and Modin (2017) focused on teacher perceptions of school leadership and how this was associated with cyberbullying among students in a Swedish secondary school. The researchers identified that strong school leadership was associated with less cyberbullying, as regression analyses showed that students who were in strong leadership schools experienced less cyberbullying as a victim or a perpetrator in comparison to weak leadership schools.
While leadership in workplace bullying or cyberbullying is limited, Woodrow and Guest (2017), identified four typologies of management style associated with workplace bullying intervention, the most effective of these being ‘Constructive Management’ whereby the response follows a policy to resolve issues informally, before carrying out an effective approach. However incomplete management is present where managers intervene in some way but do not fully resolve issues. Disengaged management styles adopt an approach where bullying and cyberbullying is ignored, and finally destructive management involves the manager as either a facilitator or participant in bullying. On the basis of these findings, researchers and policy should aim to support school leaders to be ‘Constructive Managers’, supporting and empowering staff to tackle both bullying and cyberbullying and resolving all instances which occur to encourage a zero tolerance atmosphere to reduce the acceptance of bullying behaviours (O’Higgins Norman & Sullivan, 2017; Woodrow & Guest, 2017).

The second facet outlined by Cohen et al., (2015) is engaging the whole school community this is the central principal of the whole school approach to bullying prevention and intervention discussed by O’Moore (2014) and O’Higgins Norman and Sullivan (2017), whereby all members of the school community are engaged and actively involved to counter bullying, raising awareness to prevent, identify and resolve bullying in schools. Cohen et al., (2015) states that school community members and leaders should consider the best methods to promote a positive school climate which does not allow bullying to take place.

The research by Madden and Loh (2018) discussed above, which focused on workplace cyberbullying and bystander intervention, identified that organisations should consider the significance of social relationships within their organisations as they can influence bystander intervention. Applying this within a school setting, school
leaders must account for the generation of positive relationships within their schools between all staff, and indeed their relationships with pupils, as positive relationships may foster bystander behaviours further. As Madden and Loh (2018) discuss, these personal relationships between victims and bystanders are important as they may influence bystander behaviour. For example in the cyberbullying incidents discussed by Kyriacou and Zuin (2015), pupils may not have their own Collusive and Oppressive power to disrupt the classroom, heighten the situation and post the content online but instead use of their Protective power and engaged in positive bystander behaviours (Tew, 2006).

This is further supported by earlier findings by Machackova, Dedkova and Mezulanikova (2015) who found that bystander action and supporting behaviours were increased when relationships between victims and bystanders were stronger. Research by Espelage, Paloanin and Low (2014) identified that school staff that are supported by management and pupils in the prevention of bullying behaviour was correlated to student aggression, victimisation and bystander intervention amongst pupils.

Espelage et al., (2014) initially examined school climate from the viewpoint of school staff while investigating the bullying behaviour of pupils. The research in American middle schools gathered a large sample of teachers and identified that in schools where staff take all reports seriously and promoted relationships between students and teachers were found to correlate with reductions in bullying and increased bystander intervention. The authors suggest that students who felt supported engaged in an environment which did not tolerate bullying, and they recommend that school leaders and teachers emphasise supporting everyone in the school community to reduce bullying and negative experiences within a school climate to continue to improve schools.
This finding is further supported by Gray, Wilcox and Nordstokke (2017), who stated that while teaching is a stressful occupation, school leaders can provide supports to teachers to manage workplace stressors and improve motivation, which in turn can provide a supportive and beneficial atmosphere, using a whole school approach to enhance school climate. The promotion of relationships within a school can not only promote school climate but can also influence individual responses during bullying and cyberbullying. The positive benefits of school climate promotion among teachers can have wider effects on the teacher, increasing a teacher’s commitment to their school and opportunities in their career (Van Beurden, Van Veldhoven, Nijendijk & Van De Voorde, 2017). As Madden and Loh (2018) discuss, personal relationships between victims and bystanders are also important as they may influence bystander behaviour, supporting earlier findings by Machackova, Dedkova and Mezulanikova (2015) who also identified bystander action and supporting behaviours were increased when relationships between victims and bystanders were stronger.

The third area discussed by Cohen et al., (2015) is assessment, whereby a school leader or designated care team member conducts an evaluation of the overall climate within a school. Researchers have outlined the various processes whereby this can be collected, the main focus often being the pupils perceptions, however this research would argue that school climate measures should also follow a whole school approach, whereby the perceptions of parents, pupils, teachers and other school staff are gathered to examine the relationships and differences which may occur.

The importance of a whole school climate evaluation is emphasised by the findings of Herman et al., (2018), where teacher stress levels have effects on student outcomes. Challenging working conditions, including school violence, negative school climate, and discipline problems, are directly related to teacher satisfaction and
retention (e.g., Cohen, Pickeral, & McCloskey, 2009; Ingersoll, 2001; Kersaint, Lewis, Potter, & Meisels, 2007), while positive experiences can counteract negative experiences and fortify motivation and resilience (Moran, Ludlow, Kitching, O’Leary & Clarke 2010). Teachers can be supported to mitigate stress through the use of mindfulness as a coping strategy, whereby a teacher aims to mitigate workplace stress through an awareness of their own emotions, breathing or body scan exercises (Emerson, Leylan, Hudson, Rowse, Hanley & Jones, 2017).

Emerson et al., (2017) conducted a systematic review of mindfulness strategies for teachers. Overall a positive effect of these interventions was identified including reduction of stress, improvements in depression and wellbeing and reduced burnout. As the research above highlights, the effects of bullying and cyberbullying on teachers who may already be experiencing stress cannot be disregarded, and the strategies used to overcome these experienced requires further research and implementation. However, as this research aims to identify this phenomenon in Ireland, it will only focus on teachers and their victimisation, the influence of victimisation on school climate will solely focus on the self-reported school climate of teachers.

In addition to assessment, consistent policy is not only linked to positive outcomes in school bullying (O’Moore, 2014; O’Higgins Norman and Sullivan, 2017) but also in workplace bullying (Woodrow & Guest, 2017). The implementation of consistent policy can also improve school climate, as O’Higgins Norman and Sullivan (2017) discuss that school leaders who foster and enforce positive social norms with policy can provide positive outcomes in the sociological environment of a school. Research by Garrick, Mak, Cathcart, Winwood, Bakker and Lushington (2017) focused on teachers priorities for change in policy to support school staff well-being. Garrick et
al., (2017) identified that of the main concerns for policy change, improved measures for challenging student behaviour were of importance.

In order to improve on the management of negative student behaviours, teachers requested further policy supports for sanctioning and complaints procedures. The implementation of sanctions for cyberbullying in schools should be considered, as research by Paul, Smith and Blumberg (2012) with cyberbullies and victims identified that cyberbullies believed that face to face sanctions were effective, particularly contacting parents to come into school, while victims felt this was not as effective. The request for this policy was raised through the use of focus groups where teachers stated that pupil misbehaviour contributed to teacher stress, reduced efficacy and lowered mood in and outside of school hours. Drawing on the findings of Garrick et al., (2017) school leaders may introduce further policies to counter the negative effects on school climate as the implementation of national policies such as the Anti-Bullying Procedures for Primary and Post-primary Schools may contribute to a reduction in bullying, while supporting teachers and schools to prevent and resolve bullying (Department of Education and Skills, 2013b).

The predominant focus on school climate research and bullying is peer bullying in school, or teachers bullying pupils whereby pupils have negative perceptions of school climate after victimisation (Farley, Coyne, Sprigg, Axtell & Subramanian, 2015; Saeki, Segool, Pendergast & von der Embse, 2017; Datta, Cornell & Huang, 2017. However, some research has focused on school climate and teachers. Research by Cross, Piggin, Douglas & Vonkaenel-Flatt (2012) focused on the effects of cyberbullying and how it affected a teachers perceptions of school climate. Cross et al., (2012) identified that experienced teacher’s reported spending an average of six hours each week to deal with issues connected to cyberbullying, and that these occurrences
had impacted on their perceptions of school climate. The results of this left staff feeling demoralised, with others considering changing career. This research highlighted the importance of school climate not only on pupils but its effects on teachers. Further research by Ervasti, Kivimäki, Puuaniekka, Luopa, Pentti, Suominen, Vahtera and Virtanen (2012), evaluated the effects of bullying on teacher absence with 17,033 pupils in Finland. The research identified a correlation of absence due to peer bullying and the research found that teachers tackling peer bullying also had lower evaluations of school climate which influence absenteeism of 2,346 teachers.

Ervasti et al., (2012) identified that teachers working within schools that had a 15% prevalence rate of bullying were 1.3% more likely to have short-term teacher absences than schools with a 10% prevalence rate of bullying this reduced to 0.15% when bullying decreased to 5%. On the basis of these results bullying at school was significantly associated with teachers short term absences, these findings however decreased after the inclusion of teacher variables of experience, age and gender. These results occurred even though the prevalence of pupil bullying behaviour was relatively low, below fifteen percent (Ervasti et al., 2012). The effects of the bullying and cyberbullying of teachers by their pupils does not solely affect the teacher.

Another aspect to the effect of bullying on school climate was examined by Twemlow et al., (2006) who identified that teachers who were bullied by their pupils were more likely to bully other students, creating teachers who were bully-victims but also increasing pupil victimisation from those in a position of power. Furthermore a teacher can counter these behaviours by positioning themselves as a positive role model for a pupil as opposed to an adversary. While research focusing on teachers being bullied or cyberbullied is limited, additional research focusing on this bully/victim cycle from pupils to teachers could provide novel insights into the phenomenon.
O’Moore and Stevens (2013) discussed the impact of stress on a teacher’s classroom behaviour and how it influences a student’s learning. An example of this may be if a teacher explicitly shows indifference towards school policy and displays behaviours which a student would not be allowed to conduct, it degrades the effectiveness of the policy increasing the frequency of student infractions. This example shows us the negative effect a teacher’s behaviour may have on both classroom behaviour but the wider ripple effect on the whole school climate, underpinning the importance of role model behaviours.

A positive school climate has beneficial effects on educational and psychological results for students and teachers, promoting greater well-being and belonging within a school (Meristo & Eisenschmidt, 2014) and for students and for staff (Garrick et al., 2017). In addition to this a positive school climate can promote teaching efficacy and inclusion accounting for the needs of all learners and manage challenging behaviour (Hosford & O’Sullivan, 2016).

Espelage et al. (2013) identified that SBT was correlated to school climate, finding that teachers reported victimisation less when they felt they were in a school with a low school climate. The authors also recommend that as school climates may vary according to socio-economic status, location and school size individual variances between SBT and school climate may occur. The current research will incorporate this suggestion to identify if a schools location may affect teacher victimisation rates and reported school climate.

Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012b) discuss that teachers who are victimised could be aided by a positive environment in their school, where they may reduce their own stress and resolve the situation without fear of reprisal or damage to their professional
reputation. James et al. (2008) further support the recommendations of Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012b) stating that teachers should be provided further support to deal with bullying, focusing on classroom management of difficult behaviours. The authors also suggest that schools must work more closely with parents, staff and students to implement more effective disciplinary procedures to deal with this problem.

When examining the effects of teacher-targeted cyberbullying and its potential effects on school climate, Kyriacou and Zuin (2015) state that although the recordings examined in their own research have been viewed thousands of times on YouTube there are several factors which remain unknown. If the teacher was aware of either recording or viewing the video it may be said that this would have an effect on the teacher’s instruction style and tolerance for recording devices in their classroom. In addition to this we are unaware if the recording of a particular teacher is a single event or if there are multiple recordings or pupils involved, which may also have increased detrimental effects on the well-being of the teacher as well as the school climate.

The results of bullying behaviours not only affect the school climate but also the bully themselves. The psychological effects on the bully in a peer bullying situation include higher depressive moods, suicidal ideations and more suicidal attempts (Wei, Williams, Chen & Chang, 2010). O’Moore (2000) discussed the importance of extensive teacher training to further identify bullying symptoms on both the bully and victim, focusing on the importance of intervention. However, training delivered to teachers focusing on prevention and intervention of bullying and cyberbullying in pupils also provides an opportunity for teachers to identify these potential symptoms in fellow staff. Training which focuses on the welfare of pupil and teacher in the prevention of long-term side effects, primarily depression can provide additional supports (Olweus, 1997).
While the student bullying and cyberbullying of teachers may differ in definition, most agree that when educational mentors such as teachers and other educational staff are victimised by their learners it degrades the value and effectiveness of the educational environment (Pervin & Turner, 1998; James et al., 2008; De Wet, 2010; Merisoto & Eisenschmidt, 2014).

Another integral part of school climate is Policy, aiding teachers to be supported and for behavioural and educational expectations to be consistent throughout the school community. Schneider, Smith and O’Donnell (2013) conducted a systematic review in Boston of school anti-bullying policies and intervention strategies, making recommendations for expanding school-based initiatives to counteract cyberbullying between pupils.

Schools in Schneider, Smith and O’Donnell’s (2013) research reported that student engagement with cyberbullying was prioritised, focusing on training and policy development for pupils. However, as the state of Massachusetts did not provide funding for schools to initiate policy’s and action, training to parents and school staff was limited or not provided. Consequently, school staff reported that they were unaware of the tools available to prevent cyberbullying on social networking websites and requested guidance as to how these could be incorporated into online safety training for pupils and their own social networking.

Schneider, Smith and O’Donnell (2013) interviewed school leaders during their evaluation of cyberbullying policy implementation in Massachusetts schools. School leaders stated that legislation supported their own encouragement to nurture positive school climates in which bullying, and cyberbullying are less likely to occur. This required the creation of school cultures in which students and teachers model positive
behaviours, supporting one another to promote both healthy peer relationships but importantly for this research, a positive relationship between teacher and pupil, which has been shown to increase positive bystander behaviour online (Madden & Lo, 2018). Further research by Bosworth, Garcia, Judkins and Saliba (2017) which examined the effects of leadership on school climate, identified that effective school leadership which supports positive behaviour changes while providing pupils and teachers with supports results in reductions in bullying whilst enhancing school climate.

Bosworth et al., (2017) gathered data from nineteen comprehensive high schools in Arizona, where schools implemented new policies, awareness campaigns and pupil and staff training. The researchers identified that school connectedness, student-teacher relationships and academic support were significantly associated with better bullying outcomes. In addition to this, school leadership was significantly found to correlate to a decrease in student-reported bullying. Student perceptions of school climate improved, however this was only the case when bullying decreased. However, this research is limited as it only investigated school climate at the pupil level.

As bullying is a social phenomenon and must be approached at the individual and societal level (O’Higgins Norman & Sullivan, 2017), school climate must similarly be approached and examined with all stakeholders, not only the predominant focus on students’ which is frequently found in the literature. The state of New Jersey implemented a whole school approach to examining school climate in their schools, using the New Jersey State School Climate Questionnaire (NJDOE, 2012) which focuses on pupils, parents and school staff to investigate the differences across all members of the school community. This current research will further examine the relationship of school climate and the cyberbullying of teachers by utilising the New
Jersey Staff School Climate Survey (NJDOE, 2012) to identify the school climate perceptions of participants.

2.6 Causes of bullying/cyberbullying behaviour

One of the difficulties when discussing the cyberbullying of teachers by pupils is the lack of published research in the field as it is often an overlooked topic. Therefore, to look at some of the potential causes and help seeking behaviours of teachers we must draw on the cyberbullying research in Ireland of secondary pupils. O’Moore (2000) detailed the need for a more thorough understanding of the causes of bullying behaviours, stating that teachers sometime blame victims for their own misfortune. Occasionally the reasoning for this comes from frustration of either a teacher or principal when a pupil is unable to sort out their own problems or disagreements with another pupil.

Gradinger, Strohmeier and Spiel (2012) discussed four common cyberbullying motives; firstly, to display their own power over another person, secondly to be accepted by peers, thirdly the enjoyment of the action and finally because they were angry. These motivators for cyberbullying behaviours may be present in the student cyberbullying of teachers, with a pupil attempting to gain power over their teacher, granting the second principle of acceptance when this power is obtained. However, O’Higgins Norman (2012) argues that schools can counter the motivators for prejudice-based bullying. To do so schools must promote diversity as a part of ‘normal’ life, theorising that is young people are afforded an opportunity to reflect on difference as a positive aspect of life, and that the levels of aggression and discrimination can be reduced. This recommendation may not only be applied to peer bullying but also to support the well-being of the whole school community.
This negative culture of bullying which may be perceived by victims may have enforced an ethos of silence and a reduction to seek help in schools. The reduction of help seeking is most prominent in cyberbullying at secondary school. In Ireland from 2012, only 6.6% of 564 pupils sought help from a teacher (O’Moore, 2012). The rationale for this behaviour suggests that the current policies and strategies to tackle cyberbullying do not promote disclosure of incidents as either a victim or bystander of cyberbullying in Ireland. The ways in which pupils seek support in cyberbullying has been attributed to the attitude towards reporting amongst peers, adults and their confidence to either avoid or tackle their situation as digital natives (O’Moore, 2014).

Research which focused on identifying the strategic social motivators in peer bullying behaviours was conducted by Olthof, Goossens, Vermande, Aleva and Van der Meulen (2011). The researchers state that the two prominent models to rationalise bullying focus on the bullies’ deficiencies in their social interactions which have negative outcomes, and the other is that bullies’ actions are motivated by dominance. Olthof et al., (2011) conducted an examination to identify the social strategies a bully may use to meet a goal, theorising that bullies would use coercive strategies to achieve a socially dominant position. These strategies are coercive strategies; which use direct and hostile anti-social and aggressive behaviours and prosocial strategies; which are indirect and cooperative.

Olthof et al., (2011) confirmed that ringleader bullies and their direct assistants were likely to use either coercive strategies or a combination of prosocial strategies and coercive strategies. The authors argue that bullying is a strategic behaviour that reflects a striving for dominance using bullying as a rationale means to this goal. Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012a) supported this finding in their research on SBT and SCT finding that pupils who bully teachers also bullied their fellow pupils at the school, and they
theorised that this was a model for behaviour of some pupils. The implementation of these findings in intervention programs should seek to focus on a bully’s use of dominant and coercive behaviours to reduce the available power of a bully and counteract behaviours. Espelage et al. (2013) later supported these findings stating that all bullying prevention and intervention should focus on the dominant behaviours that occur to aid in counteracting the behaviour of the individual.

Although literature focusing on the cyber victimisation of teachers is limited (Türküm, 2011), research focusing on peer bullying is not. In a secondary school evaluation of cyberbullying in Ireland O’Moore (2012) focused on the characteristics of Irish cyberbullies. The main findings in regard to cyberbullies related to gender and the methods of communication. Male pupils (N=1995), 25% were found to engage in less verbal cyberbullying than females (17%), predominantly recording and sending either photos or videos of their peers. In contrast to this, 48.2% female pupils engaged more in verbal forms such as instant messaging and texting. If we incorporate the gender factor found in cyberbullying in O’Moore (2012), it may be hypothesised that the cyberbullying of teachers by pupils will follow this gender trend. However as this was in 2012, with more popular forms of social networking such as Snapchat and Instagram in use, which focus on images and videos, this research would expect increases in images and videos in the cyberbullying of teachers.

Although there has been no examination to date about the methods of cyberbullying in which males and females engage during their victimisation of teachers, the research conducted by Kauppi and Pörhölä, (2012a) did examine the frequency of bullying by males and females (N=70). Kauppi and Pörhölä, (2012a) identified that 5.7% of teachers (n=4) were exclusively bullied by female pupils, 62.9% (n=44) exclusively by males and 31.4% (n=22) by both male and female pupils. Building on
this result, the researchers also identified that 46% were victimised by only one student, 46% by less than five students and 9% were victimised by more than five students at the one time.

A novel discovery made by Kauppi and Pörhölä, (2012a) was that of the teachers victimised by pupils, only 66% were currently teaching their bully during victimisation. A further 36% had taught their bully in the past and 24% had never taught their bully at all. The authors theorise that pupils who bully teachers either in school or online that have never been taught by them is not caused by any existing grievances or problems in communication in school. The rationale put forward by Kauppi and Pörhölä, (2012a) which is supported by the work of Garrett (2014) is that the bullies aim to gain more power and status among their peers and that the teacher’s role is just that of a tool to achieve this end.

Some of the earliest work which discussed the dynamics between children bullying adults was by Pervin and Turner (1998) who argued that we may find it difficult to believe that children have the ability to bully adults, however if they can readily bully their peers then why not adults in either a traditional classroom setting or in a detached online forum or website. In addition to this, certain teachers could be more vulnerable to the effects of bullying or classroom disruption by pupils if they don’t have necessary experience, confidence or support from other staff or management.

Wheldall and Merrett (1988) detailed classic disruptive student behaviours, such as; talking out of turn, calling out a teacher, non-verbal distraction or pupils of teachers, verbal abuse of teachers or peers and physical aggression. Pervin and Turner (1998) advanced these to say that teacher bullying behaviours by pupils may include;
persistent, intentional and vigorous abuse of the teacher, swearing or mocking the teacher. Other behaviours include knowingly ignoring the teacher, making personal comments about the teacher or damaging a teacher’s property. As technology gravitates towards the classroom as is planned by the DES (2018b) as a learning tool, it may also be a social one, fostering and promoting relationships online. Kauppi and Pörhölä, (2012a) additionally analysed the behaviours explaining that traditional bullying of teachers manifested in insulting verbal communication, damaging property, gestures and laughing at them which O’Moore (2010) would define as physical, verbal and gesture bullying tactics.

The perceptions of instructors’ (N=80) and students’ (N=96) attitudes towards using mobile phones in college classrooms was investigated by Campbell (2006). Campbell aimed to identify the variables which may influence attitudes towards phone use such as age, gender, mobile phone ownership and phone usage. Students mean age was 25 years, and 49 years for school staff varied significantly in their attitudes. Although students and instructors both held negative attitudes towards the use of phones and the distraction they cause, pupils reported significantly less support for policy and more tolerance for ringing during class than older participants, which will be considered by the Department of Education and Skills (2018b) as pupils will be a part of the consultation process in each school. This research finding by Campbell (2006) provides support for the work of Kyriacou and Zuin (2015) as most pupil-teacher conflict revolved around their devices and they display separation anxiety when their phones are removed (Cotter & McGilloway, (2011). On the basis of these findings researchers and policy makers should seek to not only look at the problems of technology and their implementation but further examine how these may be turned into educational opportunities.
Richardson (2014) described the use of phones by pupils in the classroom as part of the power struggle between pupil and teacher for the attention of the pupil. Greaney (2016) states that the use of technology during class time presents a distinct distraction from the task, identifying that 42% of applications on devices intended to promote education were not relevant to the lesson. The use of a student’s mobile phone however is indeed a distraction from the purpose. Greaney (2016) also states that these unauthorised technological breaks in which a student checks their phone decrease separation anxiety and further negatively compound the academic outcome of the learner. This distraction is evident in the second video evaluated by Kyriacou and Zuin (2015) where the pupil deviates from their own task but spreads it to the class when an altercation occurs.

Richardson (2014) sought a better understanding of the relationship between teen and device. Richardson described positive aspects of technology as “a crucial facet of the cultural struggle, formation and resistance that characterizes education at a time of neo-liberalism” (Richardson, 2014, p.369). In this Richardson is referring to the deep social processes and connections which adolescents have in their daily lives to their digital devices be it smartphones or other digital devices, which may provide further understanding of Nomophobia (Flood, 2016a). It may be argued that this is a continual process as many people interact with others, learn and conduct daily processes no longer required in a face to face format due to the advances in technology, and anxiety is created during this detachment from communication.

Although the challenge of smartphones in classrooms is difficult, teachers are provided with substantial training in classroom management and teaching practices. Richardson suggests that this invasion of the classroom may be overcome by training pupils on the norms of acceptable digital use, to better understand the appropriate
behaviour (Richardson, 2014). Richardson conducted semi-structured interviews and focus groups with the pupils in his research to identify the awareness of the issue regarding disruption using mobile phones. Pupils were aware of the potential issues relating to the power struggle with the views of authority on the use of their phones when it was not socially acceptable to adults. However, students felt that they could contest these rules and that they possessed the skill to mitigate any negative repercussions of their phone use, which may create opportunities for conflict in classrooms (Richardson, 2014).

The findings of Richardson (2014) provide support for the notion that even though teens are aware of the consequences of using their phones when it is prohibited such as it is in class, they feel that it is not fair and that they rebel against this norm as they have the skill to overcome any side effects. Corcoran and McGuckin (2014) discussed the difficulty which occurs for schools when addressing cyberbullying as it is difficult for the school management structure to implement effective policy and procedure for cyberbullying incidents. This research discussed this difficulty seen with the work of Kyriacou and Zuin (2015), when challenged pupils often react as if they are innocent of any dissident behaviour and therefore are justified in their own actions in challenging their teacher. This conflict then requires further understanding if educators seek to prevent and resolve this challenge to both their own authority but also the negative consequences for teachers from the behaviour which is occurring.

Further to the examination by Kyriacou and Zuin (2015), the authors aimed to examine the how the theory and practice of social pedagogy in schools can provide further understanding in regard to the moral disengagement presented by pupils who engage in the cyberbullying of teachers (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2016). Although this research will not directly examine the moral disengagement of pupils which may
motivate cyberbullying behaviour, it is important to consider how it occurs for the development of interventions and supports.

### 2.6.1 Moral disengagement

Research in the areas of bullying and cyberbullying is increasingly focused on the applications of moral disengagement and how it relates to bullying behaviours. Bandura (2002) defined moral disengagement as the process of dis-associating the actions perpetrated by an individual as honourable, removing blame from the perpetrator, dehumanizing and blaming the victim of the maltreatment. Smith (2014) builds on the definition by Bandura (2002) stating that it is a process by which a person bypasses their own reasoning process and justifying their change in behaviour. In the cases of cyberbullying, Smith (2014) states that moral disengagement is often associated with disinhibition online whereby a cyberbully either rationalises their behaviour or does not feel the need to if they are physically and emotionally disinhibited from their actions.

Kyriacou and Zuin (2016), hypotheses that moral disengagement, similarly to the asynchronicity effect in toxic online disinhibition (Suler, 2004) is present in cyberbullying scenarios as the cyberbully is not physically present during action. Therefore the cyberbully is often desensitized to their own actions, feeling little empathy or remorse for their own actions. This desensitization may be present particularly during the posting of videos, such as those discussed above in the analysis of Kyriacou and Zuin (2015).

The implementation of moral disengagement theory (Bandura, 2002) was incorporated in the research of Bussey, Fitzpatrick and Ramen (2015) during their investigation of how cyberbullying is associated with self-efficacy and moral
disengagement of pupils. Gathering self-report measures of Australian secondary pupils (N=942), Bussey et al., (2015) aimed to understand how pupils justified and self-regulated their moral compass whilst cyberbullying. Prior to data collection the authors identified that children and adolescents who bully often score higher on moral disengagement than their targets or the general populous who are not involved in bullying. A novel aim of the work in addition to the disengagement of pupils in cyberbullying was to evaluate if pupils who have high regard for their cyberbullying capabilities also engage in moral disengagement.

Bussey et al., (2015), gathered self-report data on cyberbullying participatory roles, cyberbullying moral standards, and cyberbullying disengagement modifying Bandura’s (2002) moral disengagement scale. The results obtained identified that moral disengagement, cyberbullying, and cyberbullying roles were all positively correlated with one another. Higher levels of cyberbullying scores were associated with higher levels of moral disengagement and more belief in the pupil’s ability to engage in cyberbullying. Similar findings were also obtained in Italy by Mazzone, Camodeca and Salmivalli (2016) who identified that moral disengagement among post-primary pupils was associated with higher levels of bullying and lower levels of defending behaviour by bystanders. The conclusions drawn by Bussey et al., (2015) show that students who were aware of the moral standards associated with cyberbullying employed moral disengagement to justify cyberbullying.

More recent research by Kyriacou and Zuin (2018) investigated the role of moral engagement as a method to counteract the cyberbullying behaviours of bystanders. In their review the authors highlight the many problems which are present in bystander behaviour, such as the diffusion of responsibility (Darley & Latane, 1968), moral disengagement (Mazzone et al., 2016) and anonymity which leads to
disinhibition (Suler, 2004). Kyriacou and Zuin state that moral engagement, which draws on empathic behaviour allowing the bystander to understand their responsibility and consequences of their actions on the victim may reduce the sharing of cyberbullying content.

Kyriacou and Zuin (2018) suggest that aiding bystanders to control their behaviour and not act impulsively along with the promotion of empathic behaviour may counteract negative bystander behaviour. Earlier research findings of Brewer and Kerslake (2015) may provide a method to counteract moral disengagement further through the fostering of empathy among cyberbullies and cyberbullying bystanders. Brewer and Kerslake (2015) investigated the role of self-esteem and empathy within cyberbullying, focusing on cyberbullies and cyberbullying victims with British adolescents.

Brewer and Kerslake (2015) identified that cyberbullying victimisation was negatively associated with self-esteem, and positively related to cyberbullying perpetration and loneliness. However cyberbullying perpetration was found to be negatively associated with empathy and self-esteem, as the authors argue that cyberbullies disengage from their victim and do not empathise with their victim, which may be heightened by moral disengagement (Bandura, 2002) or the disinhibition effect (Suler, 2004).

For the purpose of this research Bussey et al., (2015) and Kyriacou and Zuin (2016) signify the importance of studying bullying and cyberbullying behaviours by pupils, of teachers within a theoretical framework. Finally, Bussey et al., (2015) recommend that a zero-tolerance stance when pupils cyberbully, employing training and vignettes with pupils may reduce moral disengagement of bullies but also foster
moral emotions and empathy to increase bystander behaviour (Mazzone et al., 2016). In workplace cyberbullying contexts researchers have argued that in online environments, it can be harder for witnesses to empathize with victims, as they have reduced communication cue and may inhibit a bystander support (Coyne et al., 2015). However, this research would argue that empathic behaviours can be used to counteract these actions, whereby other pupils can provide support to bystander, bully and victim in cyberbullying situations.

2.7 Policy Frameworks and Implications

In recent years the emphasis on bullying and cyberbullying, its motivations, effects on mental health and prevalence continues in the wider media. The increased coverage nationally after three suicides which were connected to cyberbullying (Ó Cionnaith, 2012) and cyberbullying gained more coverage internationally (Sawer, 2011), aided in the creation of governmental policy and procedures to create a best practice strategy for prevention and intervention. Bullying and violence in schools has systematic adverse effects on students’ learning and behaviour, as well as school personnel functioning, teachers and partnerships (Daniels, Bradley, & Hays, 2007 cited in McMahon et al, 2014). In turn, parents and legislators have looked to schools to initiate their own policies to counteract peer cyberbullying because of the potential to disrupt the educational process, child development and safety. Although violence in schools affects everyone, most research has focused on student violence and victimization while little attention has been towards the bullying of teachers (Espelage et al., 2013). While at research on workplace cyberbullying which is also in its infancy has identified that in some organisations conducting workplace cyberbullying may be a cause for termination by breaching the organisations online communication policies (Farely, Coyne & D’Cruz, 2018).
This emphasis can also be seen in the majority of government policy which is only focused on peer bullying, such as the National Action Plan on Bullying (Department of Education and Skills, 2013a) and the Anti-Bullying Procedures for Primary and Post-Primary schools (Department of Education and Skills, 2013b). While these procedures are crucial to allow schools to tackle both traditional bullying and cyberbullying in and outside of school, further supports at policy level are required for effective and sustainable reductions in bullying (Foody, Challenor, Murphy & O’Higgins Norman, 2018). These policies should also include all members of the school to be truly effective, as pupils who are consulted and involved are more likely to abide by the rules they also create (O’Moore, 2014). This may not be the case in all schools as research in Northern Ireland identified that less than 40% of pupils or parents are consulted when anti-bullying policies are created (Purdy & Smith, 2014).

Policies and procedures which are introduced into schools for bullying and cyberbullying which include teachers as victims, it is important that these policies consult pupils and parents agreeing a set of rules, their resulting sanctions if breached and methods of reporting to create a shared norm that bullying will not be tolerated. This has already been advised for adolescent bullying (O’Higgins Norman & Sullivan, 2017), and may prove to be effective to counter negative behaviours towards teachers, as with adolescent cyberbullying Paul et al., (2012) have identified their effectiveness for reducing cyberbullying behaviour and also argue the need for collective participation and support in their implementation to reduce cyberbullying behaviours.

Following the procedures by the Department of Education and Skills (2013a, 2013b), professional codes of conduct are in place for teachers, which also outline the professional expectations for teachers when they interact with pupils or other staff. The Code of Professional Conduct for Teachers (The Teaching Council, 2016) outlines the
ethical practices for teachers in Ireland and is a guide to be used by the educational community to inform the expectations of the teaching profession in Ireland. It is important that teachers uphold these standards as role models within the school community but also to prevent conflict in their role. In regard to conflict, the professional integrity charter states that teachers should avoid conflict between their professional work and private interest which could impact negatively upon their students (The Teaching Council, 2016). As the literature on school climate reviewed in this research discusses, bullying can negatively impact upon pupils and school staff, the above code may be applied to conflict between teachers or other members of the school community.

In relation to the professional conduct of a teacher online and in school, The Teaching Council of Ireland states that teachers must ‘ensure that any communication with pupils/students, colleagues, parents, school management and others is appropriate, including communication via electronic media, such as email, texting and social networking sites’ (The Teaching Council, 2016, p.7). When this code is applied to a cyberbullying context, teachers who engage inappropriately or negatively with other members of the school community may be found in breach of this code of conduct. This would also apply to this research whereby a teacher may be cyberbullied by another teacher in their school, this will be evaluated later in this research.

In Ireland the predominant method to address bullying and cyberbullying behaviours in the context of a workplace is addressed by the Safety, Health and Welfare Act (SHWA) (2005). The SHWA Act was implemented to replace the 1989 version of the act, implementing further provisions and responsibilities of the employer, self-employed and employees in relation to their health and safety. In the second part of the
act, section 8(2) part b, makes provision for bullying and cyberbullying behaviours by staff members, the act states that the employer’s duty extends to:

‘managing and conducting work activities in such a way as to prevent, so far as is reasonably practicable, any improper conduct or behaviour likely to put the safety, health or welfare at work of his or her employees at risk’ (Safety, Health and Welfare Act, 2005, p.18).

The Act further continues later in sections 19 and 20 to state that if incidents occur in their organisation that they should carry out a risk assessment and introduce control measures to prevent future cases. In a case such as workplace bullying or cyberbullying, these may include staff training, information about reporting procedures and effective communication strategies to reduce conflict between members of the school community. The importance of policy to support this behaviour was also discussed by the head of NASUWT in the United Kingdom, stating that the mental health implications on teachers who are bullied by pupils or colleagues should be addressed, and where appropriate legal action be in place if conducted by a member of management (NASUWT, 2018).

Earlier research by Foulger, Ewbank, Kay, Popp and Carter (2009) on the dynamics of a teachers use of social media and their communication with pupils, found that a teacher’s concept of privacy and conduct online was not fully understood. The conclusions of the research which was conducted in the United States found that further training and guidelines are needed for teachers who use social networking sites. Staff training could draw on existing bullying research to provide information on the phenomenon, the participatory roles and how to promote the safer internet use of teachers. Safer internet use for teachers was highlighted by Carter, Foulger, Teresa,
Ewbank and Dutton (2008) as an important consideration as teachers continue to use more social media in personal and professional contexts. The Health and Safety Authority can assist employers to act reasonably to minimise workplace risks, assessment and controls. Organisations, including schools, who are found by inspectors to be in breach after an inspection notice has been served, may be tried in the District Court where a maximum penalty may be €5,000 per charge and/or up to twelve months imprisonment or on indictment in the Circuit Court where the maximum penalty is €300,000 and/or imprisonment for a term not exceeding two years. This legislation has been and is applied to workplace bullying cases and due to the deliberate wording of the Safety, Health and Welfare Act (2005), allows it to be utilised in workplace cyberbullying cases also. In addition to the financial costs associated with workplace cyberbullying and the impacts on the victim, the employer’s reputation can also be affected where it is not appropriately resolved (Coyne et al., 2015).

Although the Safety, Health and Welfare at Work Act (2005) provides a legal framework of responsibility for employers and employees which can be applied to both bullying and cyberbullying behaviour, it must be acknowledged that legal frameworks are often not the most effective approach. Legal interventions may take considerable time to develop and implement and as technology continues to develop non-legal interventions to foster the ethical use of digital communications technology similar to the cyber-phronesis approach described by Harrison (2016) to counter cyberbullying behaviours need to be developed. The majority of these interventions are also recommended in the National Action Plan on Bullying (Department of Education and Skills, 2013a) and the whole school community approach associated with O’Moore (2010) focusing on prevention and intervention with training for pupils, parents, teachers and the wider community.
The recent Department of Education and Skills Circular 0038/2018 (2018b) aims to provide supports and suggests role model behaviours for the safe use of smartphones and tablets in schools. The circular results from the ‘Digital Strategy for Schools 2015-2020, which aims to aid students to promote engagement and enhance the educational experience for pupils and staff. The use of smartphones and tablets in schools is further supported by the Irish National Teachers’ Organisation (INTO, 2017) finding that 90% of teachers believe that ICT should be further integrated into the classroom.

The importance of this circular is that it states that schools, teachers and parents must foster children and young people to become good digital citizens. Schools are now advised that they should have a policy for the use of phones in and outside of class in school, and develop rules and expectations in regard to recording videos and taking videos. This may expand the scope of responsibility for pupils and their parents in relation to the cyberbullying of teachers. While the Irish National Teachers’ Organisation (2017) also identified that only 67% of school currently have an acceptable use policy for devices, with a further 67% of schools having some form of online safety training for pupils. Principals also stated that cyberbullying and social media interactions are currently being brought into schools with teachers addressing the problem which requires further training in ICT for teachers. However, the implementation of this may prove difficult and future examination of phone use may evaluate the effectiveness of this policy.

Henry and Powell (2016) state that training which incorporates the impacts of digital abuse and clear usage guidelines and consequences are essential. When this preventative approach occurs, Henry and Powell (2016) state that website providers should ensure their users’ safety and agree on a procedure and timeframe to collect
evidence. It is important that when this occurs there is a procedure to remove the offensive comment prior to investigation, and consider potential impacts to the victim’s digital identity, career and long-term effects. While these intervention strategies and procedures take place, attention needs to shift to the actions of the perpetrator and their behaviours and motivation for action to understand and counteract future incidents.

Research by Henry and Powell (2016) examined digital violence and the limitations of legal interventions. The authors argued that stake holders’ should also consider time needed to implement legal interventions responding to the emergence of new technologies or digital trends when responding to cyberbullying behaviour.. As new digital trends or technologies are continuously evolving and changing, it is difficult to enact a law to counter an issue which is focused online and not in a dual setting of online and offline.

Legalities of the distribution of digital violence images according to Henry and Powell (2016) raises four key issues: firstly the content of the image and the intention of the perpetrator, the harm caused and finally the platform of distribution which may affect the publicity of an event. This definition by Henry and Powell (2016) shares one of the main criteria for cyberbullying behaviour, primarily the intention by the cyberbully to cause harm (Smith, 2012; O’Moore, 2014). However in cyberbullying situations which involve a teacher, the content, intention of the cyberbully, the potential harm which may be caused, and the prospect of publicity due to the platform and other pupils may be considered when creating laws to counteract cyberbullying images.

Negative, embarrassing or hurtful images or messages when posted online can cause serious consequences, however due to the expansive nature of the internet it can sometimes be difficult to remove posted content. When a pupil posts an embarrassing
photo of a teacher, it can be re-blogged or reposted by another pupil in the class or school and hosted in another country. This presents complications if a teacher was to take a legal case against the hosting website as they may be outside the jurisdiction of the country of the victim. While cyberbullying by staff members in organisations may be a rationale for terminating employment it is important that education and personnel relationships are enhanced to prevent occurrences (Farley, Coyne & D’Cruz, 2018). Henry and Powell (2016) argue that this is why it is important to look beyond the law and focus on the primary interventions, i.e. providing training supports, and developing codes of corporate and user responsibility.

While the existing policies in education by The Teaching Council of Ireland (2016) and Irish National Teachers’ Organisation (INTO), (2017) support the Safety, Health and Welfare at Work Act (2005), the recent action plan for education outlines the continuous efforts needed by anti-bullying stakeholders in education: ‘we need to consider bullying as part of a continuum of behaviour rather than a standalone issue’ (Department of Education and Skills, 2018a p.9). The aims of the action plan for education iterates that research must create a greater focus on what is required to counteract cyberbullying behaviours and contributing factors (such as moral disengagement) which will be discussed in the following sections.

2.8 Interventions to counter SCT

In the section above, the theories of toxic online disinhibition (Suler, 2004) and moral disengagement (Bandura, 2002; Mazzone et al., 2016; Kyriacou & Zuin, 2016) are connected to the intentions to cyber-bully another person but also inhibit bystander intervention (Coyne et al., 2015). It may be argued that additional approaches may be required to prevent pupils engaging in cyberbullying as the occurrences of
cyberbullying behaviour continue to occur internationally (Smith, 2014; O’Neil & Dinh, 2014, 2015; Patchin & Hinduja, 2015).

Research focusing on cyberbullying often approaches the creation of prevention and intervention tools from two educational standpoints: the Deontological approach (Kant, 1964 as cited in Harrison, 2016), and the Utilitarian approach (Bentham, 1907 as cited in Harrison, 2016), which Harrison (2016) states require the adoption of Virtue ethics (Vallor, 2010 as cited in Harrison, 2016). This following section will discuss how these existing approaches and the adoption of a third approach can instil Cyber-phronesis which is the ability for a person to do the right thing whilst online, in a moment when they may engage in a negative behaviour, rationalising their actions and in turn preventing the behaviour. Harrison (2016) argues that cyber-phronesis which may be used to change the ways pupils behave online and prevent cyberbullying occurrences.

2.8.1 The Deontological approach and SCT

Harrison (2016) argues that for educators to counter the cyberbullying behaviours a multifaceted approach adopting several intervention strategies is required. The deontological approach is commonly associated with the work of Immanuel Kant. His theory of moral duties focuses on a person’s self-validating reasoning, drawing on a individuals sense of duty to make morally rational choices. This is may be used to counteract the moral disengagement (Mazzone et al., 2016), when a pupil chooses to cyberbully a teacher or peer. The applications of the deontological approach may be seen in several educational programs aimed at counteracting cyberbullying, emphasising e-safety and rules to follow in digital spaces, however to these approaches have not been widely implemented as there are no national cyberbullying program in schools, thereby limiting their ability to counter the cyberbullying conducted by pupils.
(Foody, Challenor, Murphy & O’Higgins Norman, 2018). The most recognisable initiative in Ireland which promotes safe internet use and addresses cyberbullying is Safer Internet Day which began in 2004 in the EU and is now celebrated in more than 100 countries worldwide (Safer Internet Day, n.d).

Other examples of the deontological approach to counter cyberbullying may be seen in Kyriacou and Zuin’s (2016) five dimensions of social pedagogy for pastoral care that may be used in schools to promote school climate and reduce pupil disengagement. These five dimensions are; 1) Care and Welfare, 2) Inclusion, 3) Socialization, 4) Academic Support, and 5) Social Education.

The first dimension of Care and Welfare relates to the duty of care for schools to care for their pupil’s physical and mental well-being of both bully and victim. Kyriacou and Zuin (2016) suggest that teachers may achieve this through the use of mentoring programs with pupils to understand the appropriate use of social networking and communication online to prevent and reduce negative occurrences and improve teacher authority. The second dimension of Inclusion aims to ensure that pupils feel included within the school and wider community to reduce the isolation of victimisation and prevent potential victims from being singled out as a target. The main task for the educator is to promote self-esteem, inclusion and the pupil’s sense of self-worth. Self-esteem has been identified as an aid in the prevention of cyberbullying as research by Brewer and Kerslake (2015) previously identified reductions in cyberbullying victimisation when pupils had increased levels of self-esteem. In contrast to this participants who had low self-esteem were more likely to experience cyberbullying as a victim. Brewer and Kerslake (2015) argue that their findings support the need for fostering self-esteem to reduce victimisation, while promoting empathic behaviour in pupils was identified to reduce cyberbullying perpetration. Inclusion may also be
further implemented through the development of pupils’ social and holistic education. This approach may also aid in the promotion of the relationship between teacher and pupil, to reduce the potential for moral disengagement online in order to prevent cyberbullying behaviour against their teacher.

Socialization, the third dimension, may be used to enable students to behave according to society’s norms, attitudes, and values. O’Higgins Norman’s (2008) work on homophobic bullying states that the absence of sexual orientation discussion within schools contributes towards homophobic bullying. O’Higgins Norman (2008) surveyed 705 SPHE coordinators/teachers in Ireland, of the 52% responded, 79% identified they were aware of verbal homophobic peer bullying and 16% were aware of physical homophobic peer bullying. Learning from this, programmes such as the ‘All Together Now’ project may also help to increase the inclusion of pupils who are LGBT but also teachers who are in the LGBT community (Collins, Keating & Morgan, 2016).

The socialization of pupils is paramount for the promotion of a positive social climate (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2016), but can also enhance the relationship between a teacher and their pupil (Othman & Kasuma, 2017), and also increase bystander intervention in cyberbullying incidents (Madden & Loh, 2018). Kyriacou and Zuin (2016) recommend an increase in the socialisation of pupils in relation to cyberbullying. An open discussion of what cyberbullying is, how it may manifest and why it causes distress may increase the understanding and empathy of pupils, reduce antisocial bullying behaviour while increasing positive bystander intervention (Kyriacou, 2009; Mazzone et al., 2016), which may aid in the reduction of cyberbullying by pupils. The fourth pillar, Academic support, refers to the responsibilities of teachers to support, promote and enhance the academic learning of pupils as it may encourage critical thinking of pupils and their actions.
The final dimension of social education focuses upon the enhancement of moral engagement of pupils. This enhancement may be seen through the Social, Personal and Heath Education (SPHE) curriculum. O’Higgins-Norman’s (2008) recommendation to include sexual orientation diversity in the SPHE curriculum and education programs was further supported by Minton (2013) to assist teachers to take action against homophobia and transphobia in their classrooms. The continuous mentoring of pupils in critical thinking process about social, personal and health issues allows for engagement to promote pro-social behaviour. Therefore the implementation of these suggestions may aid in reducing the negative aspects that may manifest outside of school but also between peers and teachers who may be targeted by bullying and cyberbullying (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2016).

Research by Slonje, Smith and Frisen (2012), which examined the feelings of remorse by bullies in traditional bullying and cyberbullying may provide further support to the five dimensions highlighted by Kyriacou and Zuin (2016). Similarly to the disinhibition effect (Suler, 2004) and moral disengagement (Mazzone, 2016), Kyriacou and Zuin (2016) suggest that the low levels of remorse shown by cyberbullies in their research may be accounted for by the physical distance from their victims and lack of visual cues which would be present in traditional bullying. In addition to this the bystander reactions to cyberbullying included forwarding on material to others, which increased the negative impact on the victim. Researchers and educators should aim to combat these behaviours by cyberbullies and bystanders, to foster understanding of the negative effects of their behaviour on the victim, drawing on affective and cognitive empathy to prevent and reduce occurrences (Hinduja & Patchin, 2012).

In addition to these five recommendations, it would be beneficial for a complementary focus on supporting teachers to deal with social prejudices which are
directed against their person. Research by O’Higgins Norman (2008) reported that 64% of teachers surveyed state that their school does not have an equal opportunities policy. This measure would further support LGBT teachers to feel accepted in the school community. While these approaches may be effective in supporting the overall reduction of cyberbullying rates, Harrison (2016) argues that these strategies which often rely on regulation require support from a utilitarian approach to encourage behavioural change.

2.8.2 The Utilitarian approach

Harrison (2016) describes utilitarianism as a method by which an individual forms decisions on the basis of the consequential actions. The application of the utilitarian approach may be seen in schools when resolving both bullying and cyberbullying behaviours when the primary concern is warning pupils of the potential outcomes of negative behaviour online, the potential consequences of sexting and the punitive actions following bullying and cyberbullying incidents.

Training delivery to prevent both cyberbullying and peer bullying in schools aims to provide identification, prevention and resolution tools to those affected. This often includes some form of digital case study in the form of preventive videos, such as “Facebook Stories: We Are All Daniel Cui” (Facebook, 2012). In this video the audience is provided with a person’s cyberbullying story, Daniel Cui, who experiences cyberbullying through the tactic of exposure (O’Moore. 2012; 2014). Through the narrative pupils may identify symptoms and methods for how they can support another person online. This method provides both the consequential actions which affect the victim to inspire the users to alter their behaviour from a potentially negative action to a positive one. However, these forms of intervention are not always effective if they are not personalised or relevant to the context of the viewer (Harrison, 2014).
The utilitarian approach however relies on a pupil’s ability to identify the consequences of their actions against their teacher. This is subjective but often stated when referring to the physical divide which may be present in cyberbullying. This may be seen through the asynchronicity effect associated with Suler’s (2004) theory of toxic online disinhibition. Patterson, Allan & Cross (2015; 2017) also identified that the asynchronicity effect must be addressed in cyberbullying interventions as supportive bystander behaviour may also be reduced as a result. Harrison (2016) argues that the utilitarian principles of self-regulation may be decreased as users are unaware or unconcerned with the results of their actions.

2.8.3 Virtue Ethics

As the moral, social and consequential self-validating principles of the deontological and utilitarian approaches are currently unable to reduce cyberbullying sufficiently, Harrison (2016) argues for the addition of virtue ethics. Although the two current educational approaches do indeed aid in the reduction of bullying and cyberbullying behaviours, such as the 17-23% reductions seen in the KiVa program (Yang & Salmivalli, 2015) it may be argued that a multifaceted approach is required.

Virtue ethics may also be known as character education, grounded in Aristotelianism are defined by Harrison as ‘any moral theory that foregrounds the concepts of character and virtue. A virtue ethics-based educational approach would prioritise the creation of wise and virtuous online citizens” (Harrison, 2016, p237). If virtue ethics are applied to educate young people about cyberbullying, they become a human-centred approach to cultivate virtue where the actions an individual takes online reflect on their individual identity and not just focus on their actions or resulting consequences. Harrison describes the application of these principles as *phronesis* in which actions are reasoned by an individual using practical or moral wisdom to make
the right judgement regardless of the situation (Harrison, 2016). The principles of virtue ethics and phronesis may be applied to cyberbullying to aid an individual to make the rational choice before engaging in negative action, which Harrison (2016) defines as Cyber-phronesis.

### 2.8.4 Applying Cyber-phronesis

Cyber-phronesis was defined by Harrison (2016) as the ability for a person to do the right thing whilst online, in a moment when they may engage in a negative behaviour, by rationalising their actions and in turn preventing the behaviour. The applications of cyber-phronesis when applied on their own as an intervention method for cyberbullying need further examination to identify their effectiveness as a preventive tool. Harrison (2016) argues that they may be used as a singular prevention method, however this research would recommend a triad approach adopting the utilitarian, deontological and virtue ethics perspectives (Figure 2).

![Cyber-Phronesis Model](image)

*Figure 2*

*Cyber-Phronesis Model*
In doing so these approaches may have an enhanced effect to both reduce the cyberbullying of peers and the student cyberbullying of teachers, to reduce the moral disengagement (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2015), cyberbullying bystanders (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2018) and asynchronous and Moral Disengagement effects which occur due to anonymity and physical distance from the victim (Suler, 2004; Mazzone et al., 2016; Kyriacou and Zuin, 2018).

As this research describes in the sections above the difficulties which occur in the student cyberbullying of teachers such as the pupils motivations to seek power (Kauppi & Pörhölä, 2012; Garrett, 2014). While others attempt to reduce its occurrences such as social education (O’Higgins Norman, 2008; Kyriacou & Zuin, 2016) may also help to prevent the student cyberbullying of teachers by adopting these principles and implementing them in a similar fashion in the curriculum may encourage self-reflective digital citizens who engage in prosocial online behaviour (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2018).

The Department of Education and Skills support the need for digital citizens to be fostered stating that ‘there must be a shared approach regarding the appropriate use of digital technologies in school and at home’ (Department of Education and Skills, 2018b, p.3). This research recommends that this implementation may also occur within the curriculum, educating pupils about the use of technological devices for their purpose as a method to counteract pupil distractibility implementing Greaney’s (2016) technological breaks to reduced classroom conflict surrounding mobile phones (Richardson, 2014).
Strategies to reduce bullying behaviours are currently present within the curriculum, where SPHE is used as a platform for teaching and learning with pupils to discuss issues which include the value and promotion of diversity, fostering empathy and inclusion. One of the programs used with children in primary schools to tackle this issue is the ‘All Together Now!’ project which addresses homophobic and transphobic bullying in schools using lesson plans on human rights, bullying, and empathy (Collins, Keating & Morgan, 2016). Following these examples similar approaches may be taken to enhance student digital citizenship and safer online behaviours, of which cyberbullying and consent should be central themes.

2.9 Conclusion

As the findings of the above research have shown there are indeed implications of the cyberbullying of teachers by their pupils regardless of their motivations. Literature to date has provided information about the methods (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2015, 2016), motivations (Bussey et al., 2015; Richardson, 2014) and narratives of teacher victimisation (Ervasti et al., 2012). In particular the incorporation of attribution theory (Kauppi & Pörhölä, 2012b) and how it may be used to rationalise the help seeking behaviours of teachers and the rational for why they may be targeted by their pupils. Further investigation into what kind of conversations teachers have when seeking support should be investigated to examine if support and advice varies based on the severity of the incident occurring. In addition to help-seeking behaviours the disassociation of cyberbullying pupils and the perceptions of both the pupil and teacher roles in a cyberbullying situation may further understanding to prevent and intervene.

This moral disengagement (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2015) may be countered using a triad approach to reduce a pupil’s motivation to victimise a teacher by increasing their
moral awareness, responsibility and empathic behaviour (Olthof et al., 2011; Kyriacou & Zuin, 2018). As Harrison (2016) discusses, prosocial online behaviour can be fostered by those in education, similarly to the programmes which already exist in schools to prevent traditional bullying behaviour. Further to this Kyriacou and Zuin (2018) highlight that drawing on empathic approaches where cyberbullying pupils understand that their behaviour has physical and mental health impacts may discourage behaviour, creating a climate where bullying behaviour is not tolerated, eventually changing the social norm (O’Higgins Norman & O’Sullivan, 2017). However, before this approach can be implemented, to continue to support teachers in their educational environment this research would provide further insight into the cyberbullying of teachers, and as Flood (2016b) states, what supports and policy may be implemented into a workplace to prevent, intervene and support employees.

As this review has discussed, there needs to be greater acknowledgement amongst students, teachers, parents, administrators, policy-makers and the general public that student bullying of teachers is “everyone’s problem and responsibility” (Espelage et al., 2013, p.11). The importance for educators and governments to act was enforced by the general secretary of NASUWT UK stating that online abuse is a traumatic experience for teachers, affecting their mental health and their careers (NASUWT, 2017). Policy-makers should on this basis consider the supports provided to teachers in and outside of the classroom to ensure that they remain safe from any forms of abuse. The work of James et al., (2008) recommends that to tackle the issues of classroom disruption, which are the focus of the videos investigated by Kyriacou and Zuin (2015), further examination into the relationship between student-teacher bullying must be conducted to examine its impact on school climate.
Therefore, based on the recommendations and findings from the perspective of pupil, teacher and school hierarchy this research aims to investigate the student cyberbullying of teachers. To achieve this end, this research will investigate the occurrence of the phenomenon, sampling the online presence of teachers, and the preventative methods teachers engage. In addition to these, variables such as effects on school climate, teaching experience and help-seeking behaviours when situations arise will be collected.

2.10 The Present Study

Research in the field of cyberbullying is increasing among adolescents, however research which focuses on workplace cyberbullying is not as frequent (Herman et al., 2018). The workplace cyberbullying of teachers is still in its infancy (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2015), with some research focusing on the cyberbullying of teachers by their pupils or other members of the school community mainly focusing on prevalence (Kauppi & Pörhölä, 2012b), relationships and stakeholders (Kopecky & Szotkowski, 2017a).

No research to date has examined the first-hand experiences of Irish post-primary teachers, examining their victimisation, frequency and time period, cyberbullying tactics used, their impacts and source and its wider effects in the school community. This research will draw on existing methods used in cyberbullying research using the Cyberbullying Questionnaire (Smith, Mahdavi, Carvalho & Tippett, 2006) and gather primary data from teachers as well as awareness of other teachers’ cyber victimisation using an online survey method.

In addition to the cyberbullying experiences of teachers, it is important to understand the initial social media behaviours of participants, as McGuire & O’Higgins Norman (2016) highlighted that pupils and their parents share different spaces online.
This research will address the current gap as no research has examined the social networking of teachers in Ireland. Furthermore, as the Department of Education and Skills (2013b) states that teachers should be digital mentors to their pupils, it is important to ascertain the current skill level of teachers to protect themselves online, while assessing their current training on the prevention and intervention of bullying and cyberbullying behaviours.

Finally, as the review of literature has discussed above there has been substantial research conducted on the effects of bullying and cyberbullying on the wider school community. As Hinduja and Patchin (2012) discussed, bullying and cyberbullying behaviour have a correlational relationship with school climate, as the negative behaviours can produce negative school climates, while positive school climates aid in bullying reductions. This research will further examine this relationship to identify if teachers who are cyberbullied have similar perceptions of their school climate and if these are significantly lower than their non-victimised peers.

2.10.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses

As this research has three main areas of investigation, the research questions and hypothesis for this research will be organised accordingly. Focusing on social media use, cyberbullying and school climate.

2.10.1.1 Social Media Use Research Questions

The social media use questions and hypothesis for this study (shown below) will seek to understand a teachers’ social media use in and outside of school, preventative behaviour as well as the interactions they have online and the effects on a teachers’ life.

1. What methods of self-regulation or tools do teachers employ online?
2. Do teachers use self-regulation to avoid members of the school community?

3. Have teachers received unwelcomed requests on social media?

4. Do teachers report stress from their personal social networking and is there an association between stress from social networking and stress as a teacher?

2.10.1.2 Social Media Use Hypotheses

H1: Participants will use their phone in class for personal and professional reasons.

H2: Participants will use social media to interact with their pupils for professional reasons.

H3: Participants will use privacy settings on personal social media to prevent contact with their pupils.

H4: There will be a positive relationship between stress from social networking and stress as a teacher.

H5: Participants who attempt to avoid pupils on social media and have difficulty increasing these settings will report higher overall stress.

2.10.1.3 Cyberbullying Research Questions

5. Is the cyberbullying of teachers by their pupils prevalent in Irish post-primary schools?

6. Are teachers who are victimised by their pupils victimised by any other members of the school community?

7. Are teachers victimised more by male or female pupils?

8. Is teacher cyber victimisation effected by age or years of teaching experience?

9. Does the use of self-regulation tools reduce cyber victimisation?
10. Are teachers who alter their online privacy and avoid pupils on social networking less likely to be victimised?

11. Do teachers who are victimised believe that methods of cyberbullying have more of an impact than traditional forms of bullying?

12. Is the perceived impact of cyberbullying influenced by who they are victimised by?

13. Do teachers who are victimised believe being victimised in one platform is more damaging than another? (IM, Picture/Video, Social media etc.).

14. Who do teachers seek support from when victimised?

15. Are help seeking behaviours of participants altered by the source of victimisation?

16. Are the social networking behaviours of teachers and phone use in school linked to a teacher’s victimisation?

2.10.1.4 Cyberbullying Hypotheses

H6: Post-primary teachers will be victimised more by pupils than parents.

H7: Participants will be victimised more by pupils than other members of the school community.

H8: Participants who are cyberbullied by pupils will also be cyberbullied by parents.

H9: Participants who are cyberbullied by teachers will also be cyberbullied by management.
H10: There will be a difference in gender among teachers who are victimised by pupils.

H11: There will be a positive relationship between personal cyberbullying, age and teaching experience.

H12: There will be an increase in victimisation of teachers who use their phone in class.

2.10.1.5 School Climate Research Questions

17. Do teachers who are victimised have lower school climate perceptions than non-victimised teachers?

18. Do teachers who are victimised have lower scores in physical environment and safety situation?

19. Do teachers who are victimised have lower perceptions of their teaching and learning capacity?

20. Will teachers who are victimised by parents have reduced scores on parental support and engagement?

21. Do teachers who are victimised have reduced scores on school community morale?

22. Do teachers who are victimised have lower perceptions of internal support in their school?

2.10.1.6 School Climate Hypotheses

H13: Participants who are cyberbullied will have significantly lower scores for school climate than teachers who are not victimised.
H14: Participants who are cyberbullied will have significantly lower scores in physical environment and safety in school than non-victims.

H15: Participants who are victimised will have significantly lower perceptions of teaching and learning capacity than non-victims.

H16: Participants who are victimised by parents will have significantly lower school climate scores in the parental support domain than non-victims.

H17: Participants who are victimised will have significantly lower scores on school community morale than non-victims.

H18: Participants who are victimised will have lower perceptions of internal support than non-victims.

These research questions and hypotheses will be examined using the online survey, which will be distributed throughout post-primary schools in Ireland through networks in the National Anti-Bullying Research and Resource Centre, ASTI, TUI, Education Centres and using the post-primary schools’ contact lists. The participants in this present research will complete all sections of the survey with the exception of teachers who have not been cyberbullied; they will only complete the online behaviour and school climate sections of the survey and will be used as a comparison group to measure the impacts of cyberbullying.

In addition to this, the social networking, mobile phone use and knowledge of online safety will be gathered to build on the research by McGuire and O’Higgins Norman (2016) in relation to a teacher’s online safety behaviour. Finally, this research will examine all participant perceptions of school climate, using an adapted scale which focuses on a teacher’s perception of school climate, to allow for the comparison of
victimised and non-victimised teachers. The research aims and methods by which this research will be conducted will be discussed in the next chapter in greater detail.
3. Methodology

In this chapter, the methods that which were used to collect data with post-primary teachers in this research are discussed. These are organised into individual sections: the overall research design, information about the participants, materials used, and the procedures followed, before concluding with the ethical practices required for this research.

3.1 Research Design

This study employed a quantitative research design, using a combination of quantitative measures. These measures which were used are detailed in the materials section in this chapter are a survey collecting demographic and teaching experience information, a social networking behaviour questionnaire, a Cyberbullying Questionnaire (Smith, Mahdavi, Carvalho & Tippet, 2006) and the New Jersey Staff School Climate Survey (NJDOE, 2012).

Robson and McCartan (2016) highlight the importance of using theoretical frameworks to dictate and drive a research methodology. Fixed designs are underpinned by theory and allow researchers to expect both trends in data collected but allow for the measurement of other variables.

This research chose an online survey method for several reasons. Online data collection provides convenience to both the researcher and participant, easing the analysis of data collection through electronic means, while providing time for the participants to conduct the survey on their own schedule. This was deemed to be particularly important for the participants of this research due to their own time commitments in post-primary schools. Zhang, Kuchinke, Woud, Velten and Margraf
(2017) discussed several benefits which an online survey can provide when compared to traditional research methods for this research, and social desirability is particularly important. Zhang et al., (2017) identified that in accordance with previous research that socially desirable answers are reduced with online surveys when compared to offline questionnaires and are also lower than interview methods by phone or face-to-face interviews. The use of an online survey may aid in reducing the frequency of socially desirable answers as teachers are not pressured to produce a desirable answer.

In addition to a reduction in socially desirable answers, online surveys can also aid researchers to discuss and investigate sensitive topics which can affect a participants’ reputation, such as questions about drug or alcohol use (Szolnoki & Hoffmann, 2013), where online methods are preferable than face-to-face or phone surveys. Research on the cyberbullying of teachers has shown that teachers often did not seek support as they felt it would reflect poorly on their own professional ability (Kauppi & Pörhölä, 2012b). The online survey method may aid this research in collecting information anonymously from teachers, reducing fear of reprisal or damage to professional and personal reputations of participants. A final strength of online surveys is their ability to overcome geographical difficulties (Cantrell & Lupinacci, 2007). To ensure that this research collects a representative sample of teachers across Ireland, online data collection allows this research to gather a nationwide sample of teachers in rural and urban areas.

3.1.1 Research Framework

In order to ensure that this research addressed the aims of the project a research framework was created. This framework, which may be seen in Figure 3, has five main components these are: Purpose, Theory, Research Questions, Methods and Sampling strategy.
The purpose of this research is to examine the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers in Ireland, focusing on the potential prevalence rates, impact on the teacher and school climate, and if these variables are influenced by a teacher’s social media use and teaching experience in order to provide supports and investigate the phenomenon. To date, research on the cyberbullying of teachers has focused on secondary examinations of content online to identify methods or narratives of incidents and the help seeking behaviours of teachers. The current research aims to examine the methods and forms of teacher victimisation but also a teacher’s perception of school climate and their intention to seek support.

The conceptual framework for this research utilises the constructivist approach focusing on the theories of toxic online disinhibition (Suler, 2004) and moral disengagement (Bandura, 2002, Mazzone et al., 2016) which may encourage bullying behaviours. While power relations theory (Tew, 2006) and attribution theory (Kauppi & Pörhölä, 2012b) may rationalise why teachers feel powerless to defend themselves in an online situation and may not seek support during victimisation. Therefore the methods used to examine the presence of these theories will be an online self-report questionnaire, which includes open ended responses, focusing on school climate, social networking behaviours and for those who are victimised, the forms of victimisation and the source, gender and variables of the cyberbully or cyberbullies. The methods chosen will enable the exploration of the phenomenon of the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers by their pupils and the factors that may influence or affect their victimisation.
The research questions for this are driven by the purpose of this research, to identify the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers, its’ prevalence and impact on the teacher and how this in turn effects a teacher’s perception of school climate. In addition to this goal, this research will examine if these variables are influenced by a teacher’s social media use and teaching experience in order to provide supports and investigate the phenomenon.

3.2 Sampling Strategy

As this research focuses on the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers in Ireland this research used a purposive sample of post-primary teachers. Firstly, ethical approval was obtained by the Dublin City University Ethics Committee (See appendix 9.1). To conduct the sampling every post-primary school in Ireland the researcher contacted each school principal by email to gather initial participants (See appendix 9.3). In
addition to this snowball sampling was used, asking teachers to share the link in their own networks. The researcher then contacted the director of each of the Association of Teachers’ Education Centres in Ireland to send the survey to their mailing lists to reach teachers directly. In addition to these centres, the two unions for Post-primary teachers were also contacted: the Association of Secondary Teachers in Ireland and the Teachers Union of Ireland (See appendix 9.2).

In addition to the above the researcher also contacted: the Association of Home Economics Teachers, the Institute of Guidance Counsellors and student teachers on placement in post-primary schools from DCU St. Patricks Campus and University of Limerick. A research call was also posted on the National Anti-Bullying Research and Resource Centre Facebook and Twitter pages and through Education posts.ie, an online forum and notice board for teachers. An overview of the participant involvement can be seen in the figure below.

![Participant Recruitment Sources](image)

Figure 4

*Participant Recruitment Sources*
3.5 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire for this research was composed of a plain language statement, consent form (appendix 9.4 & 9.5), a series of demographic questions followed by social media use questions, expanding on the work of McGuire and O’Higgins Norman (2016). This research also used the Cyberbullying Questionnaire developed by Smith, Mahdavi, Carvalho and Tippet (2006) as well as the New Jersey School Climate Staff Questionnaire designed by the New Jersey Department of Education.

3.5.1 Demographic Section

This research sought to gather a teacher’s gender, age, teaching experience, educational attainment, and the type of post-primary school they teach in, along with their role within the school. In addition to these demographic variables, teachers were also asked if they had undertaken any forms of anti-bullying training. This is shown in Appendix 9.6.

3.5.2 Social media use

Following research by McGuire and O’Higgins Norman (2016) examining parents’ internet usage and knowledge of cyberbullying in Ireland, this research adapted the questions to investigate the social networking behaviour of teachers. Questions for this section focus on where teachers access their social networks and their frequency of access. This research also added questions focusing on their interaction with pupils on social media, their knowledge of preventative tools, and privacy knowledge. Teachers were then asked if and how they altered their social networks to avoid contact with pupils. This section concluded by asking if they had received unwanted requests to access their social networks and if their social media use causes them personal stress in their occupation. See Appendix 9.6.
3.5.3 Cyberbullying Questionnaire

The Cyberbullying Questionnaire was developed by Smith, Mahdavi, Carvalho and Tippett (2006) to investigate cyberbullying, its forms and impact. The questionnaire focuses on incidences of cyberbullying in and outside of school across seven areas: Text message bullying; Picture/Video Clip bullying; Phone call bullying; Email bullying; Chat-room bullying; Instant message bullying; and bullying via websites. Administration of the survey has so far identified that victims of cyberbullying perceive video clip bullying to have more of a negative impact when compared to traditional bullying (Smith, Mahdavi, Carvalho, Fisher, Russell & Tippett, 2008). Later research by Slonje and Smith (2008) altered the administration of the scale as rates for chat room, instant messaging and website cyberbullying were reduced in peer bullying and they were removed to reduce the completion time of the survey. These however will be included in this study to identify if these methods are prevalent among Irish teachers.

Social media use and platforms has altered the places in which peer cyberbullying occurs (Foody, Samara & O’Higgins Norman, 2017), requiring a broad examination of the spaces where the cyberbullying of teachers may occur, as research by NASUWT (2014) identified that teachers experienced cyberbullying by pupils on Facebook and websites. However as social media continues to adapt it is important to evaluate new platforms where cyberbullying may take place.

The Cyberbullying Questionnaire also examines the participants perception of the impact of these different spaces where cyberbullying may occur, allowing this research to compare the impact of peer cyberbullying methods such as those gathered by Smith, Mahdavi, Carvalhio, Fisher, Russell and Tippett (2008). The cyberbullying questionnaire is unique in this regard as the majority of Cyberbullying Questionnaires do not gather self-reported impacts, requiring the use of external mental health
measures, while these are beneficial, they also increase the withdrawal rate of
participants. An additional advantage of the questionnaire is that it allows participants
to expand on their responses using open-ended questions to provide reasons for the
impacts as well as the other areas of the questionnaire. The Cyberbullying
Questionnaire is based upon the Revised Bully/Victim Questionnaire (Olweus, 1996)
which has well established reliability and validity (see Olweus, 2002). Slonje, Smith &
Frisen (2012) state that the Cyberbullying Questionnaire follows the Olweus
Bully/Victim questionnaire, which has displayed discriminant and construct validity,
using a standard definition and logical order of questions. In this research the
Cyberbullying Questionnaire reported good internal consistency, with a Cronbach alpha
coefficient of 0.87.

The Cyberbullying Questionnaire was adapted by Cotter and McGilloway
(2011), increasing the period of victimisation from two to six months. This research
increased this recall period further, asking teachers to recall across a period of over a
year, six months, 3 months, within the last month and few weeks. This change was
made to allow for teachers who had experienced cyberbullying in the current and
previous academic year. In addition to extending the time options in the Cyberbullying
Questionnaire, two new sections were also added. These sections focused on social
media cyberbullying and online gaming cyberbullying. Social media cyberbullying was
defined as ‘receiving or seeing hurtful communications on a social networking website
about you’, while online gaming cyberbullying was defined as ‘receiving hurtful
messages via online gaming or continuous reporting by other users’. These two
definitions followed the same format as those posed by Smith et al. (2006). Social
media cyberbullying was added to the survey as social networking has increased
dramatically in Ireland, with 70% of Irish households accessing social networking, a figure that increases to 91% for 16-29-year olds (Central Statistics Office, 2016).

Cyberbullying via online gaming was included due to the rise in online games on smartphones and consoles, as research by Qing (2015) found that while online gaming does not cause cyberbullying behaviour, Cotler, Fryling and Rivituso (2016) identified that cyberbullying through online gaming with adults does occur and often contains the same features seen in cyberbullying: anonymity; moral disengagement through disinhibition; and no fear of punishment. This research also separated social media cyberbullying and cyberbullying through websites as cases of cyberbullying through static websites such as rate my teacher (See Lipsett, 2009; Walsh, 2005; Psnick-Goodwin, 2012) may affect a prevalence rate for either method.

The final component of the Cyberbullying Questionnaire is that it provides further information about the source of cyberbullying, focusing further on the gender of the cyberbully or cyberbullies and the group variations. This may provide unique insights into the cyberbullying of teachers, in order to understand if they are victimised by one or several members of the school community (Smith et al., 2008). One of the main factors with online research is the time it takes to complete, with more items increasing the rate at which participants dropout before the survey is completed. Research by Hoerger (2010) investigating online survey dropout rates identified an average dropout rate, stating that 10% of participants drop out within the first 12 items, increasing significantly until a survey reaches over 100 items. Further research by Slonje and Smith (2008) also recommended that shorter version of the Cyberbullying Questionnaire be used to reduce competition time and aid the data collection process. To aid the participants in completing the survey, the questions were formatted to ease
completion of the survey into matrix questions, amalgamating eight questions into one matrix (See Fig 5 Below).

**Figure 5**

*Cyberbullying Questionnaire Matrix Questions*

The Cyberbullying Questionnaire is a detailed measure which Smith et al., (2006) found to be difficult to administer in schools due to its length and sensitive content, while Smith et al., (2008) chose to administer the questionnaire anonymously to increase participation. The researchers also chose to include an overall definition of cyberbullying as well as the specific explanations of the forms of bullying, which will also be used in this research (Appendix 9.6).
3.5.4 New Jersey School Climate Questionnaire

The New Jersey School Climate Questionnaire (NJSCS) is a 57-item scale which was created and revised in 2014 by the Bloustein Centre for Survey Research in the State University of New Jersey and the New Jersey Department of Education. The survey was created for schools to maintain and improve positive school climates and cultures. The survey has several forms for individual populations, students, staff and parents. This research used an adapted version of the Staff School Climate questionnaire to reduce the time required for teachers to complete the online survey (Appendix 9.12). The school climate questionnaire is divided into several sub-sections to examine the different elements of school climate. These are: (1) Physical Environment; (2) Teaching and Learning Capacity; (3) Morale in the School Community; (4) Quality of Relationships; (5) Level of Parental Support and Engagement; (6) Safety Situation; (7) Emotional Environment; and (8) Perception of Administration Support. In addition to this, these questions were also adapted into matrix questions according to their sub-section to aid the participant to complete the survey (Fig. 6 below).

![School Climate Matrix Questions](image)

*Figure 6*

*School Climate Matrix Questions*
NJSCS was examined for validity using a three-index approach using goodness-of-fit measures for *explanatory validity* using the Coefficient of Determination, *predictive validity* using the Standardised Root Mean Squared Residual and *comparative model fit* using the Tucker-Lewis Index. The Tucker-Lewis Index for comparative model fit on the NJSCS ranges from 0.74 to 0.99, with one being the perfect fit. While the Coefficient of Determination also identifies one as the perfect fit, the coefficient for the NJSCS ranges from 0.81 to 0.95. Finally, the Standardised Root Mean Squared Residual Scores for the NJSCS range from 0.02 to 0.10 with zero being the perfect fit. As the subsections of the NJSCS have all reported high levels of ‘good fit’ supporting the measures ability to accurately report teachers’ perceptions of school climate. The reliability of the NJSCS Cronbach’s Alpha values range from 0.72 to 0.95 for the NJSCS subsections. These values fall within the range of acceptable from 0.70 to preferable from 0.80. In this research the New Jersey School Climate Scale has good internal consistency, with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.83.
3.5.1 Pilot Study

Fixed design research methodologies require a pilot study: piloting allows researchers to trial technical aspects of data collection but also ensures that the concepts and desired outcomes are achieved. Robson and McCartan (2016) refer to this examination as confirmatory tasks, and while these are important, they are supported by exploratory data analysis.

3.5.2 Participants

The participants for the pilot study for this research (N=13) were recruited from the Professional Master of Education Post-Primary on the DCU St. Patricks Campus. These participants were recruited through email lists and were all first-and-second-year students on the course.

3.5.3 Pilot Study outcomes

The pilot study allowed this research to adapt the methodology before the main data collection took place. The changes which were made to the scale were to reduce the time required by the participant to complete the survey. The NJCSS was adapted for this research after pilot testing, reducing the 57 item questionnaire to 31 items as participants stated questions were repetitive or not relevant to the Irish Post-Primary Context and to reduce the time required to complete the survey. The pilot study also identified changes to presentation of the survey. These questions were altered into matrix questions to allow the participant to answer several questions together. After pilot reduction the NJCSS maintained good internal consistency, with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.83.
3.6 Quantitative Study

3.6.1 Participants

The participants for this research consisted of five hundred and seventy-seven teachers working in Post-Primary Schools in Ireland, which include currently practicing teachers and teachers who are on placement during their third level course. To further support the reliability of this research to refer to the general population of post-primary teachers in Ireland, the researcher contacted the Teaching Council of Ireland to gather information about the currently registered teachers in Ireland. In the first quarter of 2017 there were 42,485 post-primary teachers registered with the Teaching Council of Ireland. The gender distribution for these teachers was 13,272 (31.23%) male and 29,213 (68.76%) female.

Participant recruitment

Teachers were recruited for the online survey through the sampling strategy described above on social media, emails to schools and education centres, subject associations and specialists groups. Social media recruitment took place through teacher interest groups on Facebook such as teacher union Facebook pages and using the National Anti-Bullying Research and Resource Centre Facebook and Twitter pages.

Principals in post-primary schools in Ireland were contacted by email and phone which were obtained from the National Anti-Bullying Research and Resource Centre and DES, databases, to discuss the research and participant recruitment. These principals were asked to share the research invitation with teachers with their teachers by email. Social media posts followed the plain language statement guideline posed by the Dublin City University Ethics committee. Teachers were not under any obligation
to inform principals of participation and no identifiable data about the schools was recorded.

3.6.2 Participants

The participants were recruited through online survey across Ireland. It was therefore important to gather data on the background of these teachers from The Teaching Council register, in order to understand variables which may affect the data they provided but also to evaluate the representativeness of this sample to the wider population of post-primary teachers in the country.

To further validate the consistency of the sample of post-primary teachers in this research, the age and gender distributions gathered in the sample are compared directly to the post-primary teaching register which provides data on the demographic profile of practicing post-primary teachers in Ireland.

After recruitment, 577 participants completed the online survey, the majority of participants were Female (n = 452) making up 78.3% of participants, while 21.5% of participants were Male (n = 124), with one participant (.2%) not identifying as either male or female, see Table 1 below for further information. The gender distributions for the participants of this research are representative to the wider population as they are within 9% of the national current gender distribution of registered post-primary teachers in Ireland, were 68.8% are female and 31.2% were male.

The increased participation by females may be because there are more female teachers on the register but also because females who have undertaken university education have previously been identified to be more likely to participate in online social research than their male counterparts (Smith, 2008).
Table 1

Participant Gender and Comparisons to Teaching Council Register

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Teaching Council Register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>452</td>
<td>78.3%</td>
<td>68.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
<td>31.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.2%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>577</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The age of participants was also gathered in this research, which ranged from 19 to 70 years old \( (M = 41 \text{ years}) \) with a deviation of 10 years from this mean. The mean age of female participants was 40.20 years and 42.44 years for males. The age ranges for this research correlate with the age bands gathered by the Teaching Council register as the largest deviation identified in the survey was 6.2% from the age brackets of the register (for 41-50-year olds). These ages are grouped according to the age distributions on the teaching register shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2

Participant Age Comparisons to Teaching Council Register

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Teaching Council Register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19-20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>19.9%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>29.6%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61-70</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.6.3 Education and Teaching Experience

The Teaching Council however does not require the educational attainment of teachers when applying for the register but allows teachers to disclose this data: unfortunately, not all of this was made available. However, in the council’s charter for conduct they recommend that all teachers increase their own education to aid their professional development, and this was apparent amongst the participants. The highest qualification obtained by participants was a ‘PhD.’, of which more were held by Females (n = 8), than by Males (n = 2) and ‘other’ (n = 1). The majority of participants held a ‘Higher Diploma in Education’ or ‘Professional Masters in Education’ (n = 259, 44.9%), followed by a ‘Masters’ degree (n = 226), finally participants with an ‘Undergraduate’ degree (n = 81), male and female results are shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3
Participant Qualifications by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Degree Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Undergraduate Degree</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Master’s Degree</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>HDipEd/PME</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>45.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>452</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Undergraduate Degree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Master’s Degree</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>42.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>HDipEd/PME</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>41.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The differences among teachers’ in relation to their years of teaching practice was also of interest in this research, therefore the years of teaching experience of participants was gathered. Participants ranged from student teachers to those with 16 years or more teaching experience. The majority of the sample gathered in this research (n = 275, 47.7%) had 16 years of experience or more. This was followed by teachers with 11-15 years (n = 94, 16.3%) and 6-10 years of experience (n = 91, 15.8%). These results outline that the majority of the participants were experienced post-primary teachers and able to provide the benefit of their experience to this research. The distribution of this experience is displayed in Figure 5 below.

![Teaching Experience](Image)

*Figure 5*

*Participant Teaching Experience*
3.6.4 School Type and Role

The participants in this research were also asked to identify the type of school in which they work to better understand the school environment of participants. This also allows for the data collected to be examined according to the schools which participants originate from for difference between school types.

The most prominent school type was a Secondary school (n = 234) making up 40.6% of the sample, followed by Education Training Board (ETB) schools (n = 187, 32.4%) with 18.7% working in Community or Comprehensive schools (n = 108). The remaining teachers worked in Fee Paying schools (n = 43, 7.5%), Further Education (n = 3, .5%) and a Special Needs Schools (n = 1, .2%). Further information about the school types may be seen in Figure 6 below.
Participants disclosed various teaching roles in their schools, and these included; subject teacher \((n = 310)\) making up 53.7% of participants, 250 females, 59 males and 1 undisclosed. Other roles included Class Tutor \((n = 42)\), Behaviour for Learning \((n = 2)\), Librarian \((n = 2)\), Year Head \((n = 13)\), Chaplain \((n = 5)\), Guidance Counsellor \((n = 58)\), Assistant Principal \((n = 58)\), Deputy Principal \((n = 30)\), Principal \((n = 35)\), Special Educational Needs teacher \((n = 16)\) and TY Coordinator \((n = 6)\) see Table four below.

### Table 4

**Participant Positions in School**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject Teacher</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>53.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Tutor</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour for Learning (NBSS)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Librarian</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year Head</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chaplain</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guidance Counsellor</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Principal Role</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy Principal</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEN Teacher</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TY Coordinator</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>577</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.6.5 Procedure

The participants of the online survey accessed the questionnaire on Survey Monkey (Appendix 9.7 to 9.11). The participants first viewed a plain language statement and informed consent form, outlining the goals and objectives of the research along with the contact information of the researcher and supervisors so that participants
may address any concerns before participation. Participants then followed the procedure of the main survey (Fig. 7), creating five victim groups and one non-victim group.

![Research Design Flow Diagram](image)

**Figure 7**

*Research Design Flow Diagram*

Participants then completed the demographic information section, gathering further information about teaching experience, training which participants have taken on anti-bullying, and their role in their school. Teachers then continued to before discussing their own social networking use in and outside of school. The survey then filtered participants based on whether they had or had not been cyberbullied by a pupil, parent, another teacher, management or another member of the school community. Participants who responded and indicated one of these groups completed the
cyberbullying questionnaire relating to that group. After completing the cyberbullying questionnaire teachers completed the school climate questionnaire before viewing the debrief form (Appendix 9.13) and exiting the survey. Participants who were not cyberbullied were directed straight to the school climate questionnaire and were debriefed before they completed and exited the survey.

3.7 Qualitative Study

3.7.1 Participant Demographics

Participants for the qualitative study in this research were gathered through the quantitative survey, leaving open ended feedback throughout the survey. This was an important feature of the survey to thoroughly examine the aims of this research and gain further insights from participants. A total of 93 participant’s responses were gathered, following the gender trends of the quantitative study with 79 Females (85%) and 14 Males (15%%) (See Figure 8 below). The age of participants ranged from 22 to 63 years old ($M = 40$ years).

![Participant Gender Distribution](image)

Figure 8 – Qualitative Participant Gender Distribution
3.7.2 Education and Teaching Experience

The education and teaching experience were also varied, the highest qualification obtained by participants was a ‘PhD.’ (n=3), ‘Higher Diploma in Education’ or ‘Professional Master in Education’ (n = 44), followed by a ‘Masters’ degree (n = 35), finally participants with an ‘Undergraduate’ degree (n = 11)

Table 5 - Participant Qualifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate Degree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s Degree</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>37.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HDipEd/PME</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>47.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The teaching experience of participants also ranged from those who were still a student teacher to those with 16 years or more teaching experience. The majority of the qualitative sample (n = 43, 46.2%) had 16 years of experience or more. This was followed by teachers with 11-15 years (n = 16, 17.2%) and 6-10 years of experience (n = 15, 16.1%). Following this teachers had 4-5 years (n=8, 8.6%), 1-3 years’ experience (n=8, 8.6%), with a further three student teachers (3.2%)

![Participant Teaching Experience](image)

**Figure 9**

*Participant Teaching Experience*
3.7.3 School Type and Role

Participants’ school types for the qualitative sample also varied.

The most prominent school types were a Secondary school (n = 36) making up 39.7% of the sample, and Education Training Board (ETB) schools (n = 36, 39.7%) with 19.3% working in Community or Comprehensive schools (n = 18). The remaining teachers worked in Fee Paying schools (n = 3, 3.2%), No participants in the qualitative sample were from Further Education or Special Needs Schools. A visual breakdown of these schools is shown in Figure X below.

![School Type Pie Chart]

Figure 10

Participant School Type

The participant teaching roles also varied in the qualitative sample, these included; subject teacher (n = 61) making up 65.5% of participants, Class Tutor (n = 7, 7.5%), Year Head (n = 1, 1%), Guidance Counsellor (n = 8, 8.6%), Assistant Principal (n = 10, 10.7%), Deputy Principal (n = 2, 2.1%), Principal (n = 2, 2.1%), Special
Educational Needs teacher (n = 1, 1%), and TY Coordinator (n = 1, 1%) see Table four below.

Table 6

*Participant Positions in School*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject Teacher</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>65.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Tutor</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year Head</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guidance Counsellor</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Principal Role</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy Principal</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TY Coordinator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.6.5 Procedure

Qualitative responses from the survey were extracted from the original raw data of this research and grouped by their survey section to provide structure, linked with their participant number. The responses were then prepared for thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis is the process of identifying, analysing and reporting qualitative data. The six stages discussed by Braun and Clarke (2006) were followed. These six stages are: familiarization of data, coding, assigning themes from codes created, refinement of these themes, defining and naming themes before writing up the findings of these themes in accordance with existing research in the field.

An example of the thematic analysis stages outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006) began with familiarization of the data. The researcher organised the initial data obtained
from a series of open-ended questions. As this data was already organised in text format and not transcribed through an interview process the researcher was unable to apply memos to the initial codes, however existing questions and research can be used to apply a thematic structure.

The researcher then assigned coding to the data provided by participants, as Braun and Clarke (2006) state the researcher should read participant responses several times. An example of the above processes can be seen in Table X below. To address the reliability of these codes the researcher employed a second reviewer to evaluate the codes derived by researcher, the second coder displayed agreement or disagreement with codes and added additional codes for the to the researcher for further evaluation.

Table 7 Social media use analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant Number</th>
<th>Data Extract</th>
<th>Researcher Code</th>
<th>Second Reviewer Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>458</td>
<td>I have an Instagram page for my subject area. Students sometimes comment or like the picture. Generally, pictures of the work they did in class (all students have to sign consent forms for pictures to be taken).</td>
<td>Educational Tool, Appropriate Use of Technology</td>
<td>Agreement with researcher codes, Additional code – Ethical issues</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Following the assignment of codes to individual participant data extracts the next stage of Braun and Clarkes (2006) process, searching for and reviewing themes was applied. This phase began by re-reading the entire data set, firstly as Braun and Clarke (2006, p.91) discuss to “ascertain if the themes ‘work’ in relation to the data set.” This involved using the codes agreed by both researchers to create themes for discussion, followed by re-reading the data set to identify if any further themes could be identified from the existing codes by the researcher and second coder. Four major themes were derived from the codes obtained which will be discussed further in the results section as part of the final stage discussed by Braun and Clarkes (2006) thematic analysis process. The themes were Educational Challenges, Fluidity of Cyberbullying, Technology Attitudes and Attribution. In addition to these main themes, eight minor themes were applied to structure the codes obtained further for analysis. An example of the collation of the Technology attitudes theme is shown in Table X below.

Table 8 - Technology Use analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Minor Theme</th>
<th>Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technology Attitudes</td>
<td>Positive attitudes</td>
<td>Stress Relief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Educational Tools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Technological Efficacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative attitudes</td>
<td>Classroom Challenges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Cyberbullying Impacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Personal Intrusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Privacy Concerns</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.8 Ethics

This research received ethical approval from the Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee in December 2016 (See Appendix 9.1).

3.8.1 Ethical aims and justification

The cyberbullying of teachers by pupils is “the creation of digital texts, images and recordings that portray the teacher in ways that are demeaning and/or ridicule the teacher, which are then transmitted electronically to others” (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2015, p.267). This research aimed to investigate the scope of the cyberbullying of teacher. focusing on the preventative steps taken by teachers to self-regulate their visibility online and contact with pupils, intervention methods when teachers encounter cyberbulllying as a victim and how this affected their school climate and their experiences directly or indirectly of teacher victimisation. Twemlow et al., (2006) investigated the role of teachers in determining a school climate, establishing a safe learning environment where the educator is the positive role model and not the adversary of the pupil. The aim of conducting this investigation was to gather knowledge of the cyberbullying of teachers, design further support and training for teachers to prevent, reduce and stop incidents of student(s) cyberbulllying of teachers.

James et al., (2008) identified 16.3% of pupils in Dublin and 28.2% of pupils in Louth, Cavan and Monaghan who reported traditionally bullying their teachers. Since the work of James et al., (2008), increased technology use has provided more focus on cyberbulllying such as O’Moore (2012) who identified that 67.4% of teen cyberbullies were also traditionally bullying their victims, identifying the dual bullying which now occurs in both traditional and cyber formats. Research by TUI, (2006) identified that
teachers felt stressed, and physically and emotionally drained from disciplining pupils in class.

Negative physical and mental health effects including severe stress, fear for personal safety, teacher and pupil performance have been identified as a result from pupils bullying and cyberbullying teachers (Twemlow et al., 2006, James et al., 2008). Therefore, promoting, restoring and maintaining the relationship between instructor and pupil are important to prevent these side effects. In addition to examining the methods used by student’s cyberbullying teachers and self-regulation used by teachers, this research also examined help-seeking behaviours. Kauppi and Porhola (2012) enforced the positive role of social support to counteract the detrimental effects of teacher victimisation such as reduced mental health described by James et al., (2008). Increased teacher support has been shown to reduce victimisation and the physical and mental health effects (Einarsen, 2000; Kyriacou, 2001).

3.8.2 Ethical considerations

Robson and McCartan (2016) stated that when researchers collect online data with potentially vulnerable participants the researcher must ensure their safety and follow protocols to reduce risk. In the case of the cyberbullying of teachers the participants in this research are adults, the researcher must therefore not breach confidentiality unless there is a threat of harm disclosed by the participant or illegal activity. If there was a situation of concern, the researcher and supervisors would meet to discuss the situation before taking action to protect the participant. If the researcher and supervisors agree about the seriousness of the situation, they would decide the appropriate action. This was not necessary during the course of this research.
Bullying and cyberbullying are sensitive subjects to research and as such must be approached with consideration for the well-being of the participant. As the researcher is a registered psychologist with the Psychological Society of Ireland, to ensure the needs of the participant were adhered to this research, the Psychological Society of Ireland (PSI) code of ethics was followed when conducting research. These codes are: (1) Respect for the rights and dignity of the person; providing confidentiality in all communications and data collection; respecting the participants dignity and providing clarity in the purpose of the research obtaining informed consent. (2) Competence; by being aware of the required skills to conduct this research with ethical awareness for the topic. (3) Responsibility; providing reputable and professional standards of practice during all stages of this research and (4) Integrity; by treating research participants fairly and openly putting the wellbeing of the participant before the objectives of the research.

This research focused on the way teachers self-regulate and behave online. It is therefore pragmatic to conduct the research using the same methods under investigation. Teachers were recruited through electronic methods, predominantly through Email, Facebook groups and advertisements aimed at teachers. The advantage of this form of recruitment is that it allows a comfortable atmosphere for teachers to complete the research confidentially, at a time of their own choosing.

Participant Vulnerability

The participants of this research are not part of a specific vulnerable group. Teachers who may have more experiences of bullying personally or in their working roles may feel more sensitive about the subject. This was considered at all times during the research and participants were provided with support details. During the course of
this research the researcher informed all participants during the online survey that they could withdraw from the survey at any point and were provided with information to contact the National Anti-Bullying Research and Resource Centre for support.

**Ethical risks for participants**

The risks to research participants during this research were low as the participants were provided with several levels of anonymity and support during data collection. As cyberbullying is a sensitive subject matter for research, it was important that participants were provided with as many supports as possible. The justifications for this research are to provide insight into this research field and aid teachers and pupils with increased levels of support across a number of areas. The indirect data collection conducted online allowed for teachers to participate only if they felt comfortable to do so.

The participants were also provided with information about the Psychological Society of Ireland for localised counselling support services and yourmentalhealth.ie which provides more information on mental health.

**Data storage**

The survey for this research was conducted using Survey Monkey and the results for the survey were only stored on the researchers’ computer and on the password protected survey account.
4. Results

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will examine the data collected in this research. To aid the reader and focus on the subcategories of data, this chapter will be divided into four sections addressing the research questions of this research.

Firstly, the main aim of this research to identify if the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers is prevalent in Ireland, which was expanded as other research has identified that teachers may be cyberbullied by other members of the school community (Kauppi & Porhola, 2012a; Kyriacou & Zuin, 2015; Kopecky & Szotkowski, 2017a). The second focus is to identify the forms of social networking used by participants and what methods of self-regulation teachers use to protect themselves online, specifically their preventative behaviours on their profiles and their awareness and implementation of privacy tools.

The third research focus was to identify the effects of victimisation on a teacher examining the perceived impact of forms of cyberbullying and the differences in school climate between teachers who have and have not experienced cyber victimisation. Finally, the fourth research focus was to explore the help seeking behaviours of teachers and how these may be affected by either the type of cyberbullying they experience or the person which they are cyberbullied by.

In the first section of these results, the profile of the participants of this research, focusing on the gender and age of participants, educational attainment and teaching experience, concluding with distributions of school types and the roles which
participants hold in their schools. The second section focuses on the social networking behaviours of teachers will be discussed, focusing on the platforms used by teachers along with the frequency of use and access locations used by teachers. The third section in these results will discuss the cyberbullying questionnaire results, discussing the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers by their pupils, parents, management, other teachers and other school staff. The fourth section of these results will focus on the school climate perceptions by teachers who have and have not been cyberbullied. The fifth and final section of this chapter will examine these three sections together.

A number of statistical analyses were performed on the Social Media Use questionnaire which incorporates questions used in McGuire & O'Higgins Normans’ (2016) research with parents, the Cyberbullying Questionnaire (Smith et al., 2006) and the amended New Jersey School Climate Staff Questionnaire (State of New Jersey Department of Education, 2014) using the Statistics Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 23, (2015).
4.3 Anti-Bullying Training

Continuous professional development is recommended for teachers on an annual basis by The Teaching Council (2016) and specifically on bullying by the Department of Education and Skills (2013a) in the principles for best practice in the Primary and Post Primary Procedures (Department of Education and Skills, 2013b). On this basis all participants were asked if they had received any form of anti-bullying training (Fig. 11), of which 25.8% received training from their school (n = 149) and 20.3% received training which was not provided by their school (n = 117).

![Anti-Bullying Training Chart]

**Figure 11**

*Participant Responses to Training*
Over half of participants (54.3%) have not received any form of anti-bullying training \((n = 311)\), with 27.7% of this group wanting to take part in an anti-bullying training \((n = 160)\). However, 26.1% of these teachers \((n = 151)\) did not want to undertake any anti-bullying training, in direct contrast to the requirements of the Anti-Bullying Procedures for Primary and Post-Primary Schools (Department of Education and Skills, 2013a). Findings from Foody, Challenor, Murphy and O’Higgins Norman, (2018) on the implementation of the anti-bullying procedures (2013b) identified that principals sought further training and professional development for the teachers in their schools to prevent and intervene in bullying behaviours.

4.4 The Social Media use of Post-Primary Teachers

In this section the results from the social networking behaviours of teachers’ survey data will be discussed. This initially focuses on a teacher’s phone use in class and where they typically access the internet and if they have access to social media sites in their school. The focus will then move to the social networking sites used by teachers and how frequently they use them. The online prevention tools which are used by participants and their knowledge of using these tools will then be discussed. This section will then conclude with the interaction’s participants have with their students online, the steps they take to avoid online communication and the stress which social media use causes in a teacher’s professional life.

4.4.1 Phone Use in Class

Before examining a teacher’s social media use, following the first hypothesis of this research participants were asked if they used their phone in class, and these results are shown in Figure twelve below. Focusing on device use, 52.5% of teachers \((n = 303)\) said yes, while 47.5% said that they do not use their phone in class \((n = 274)\). Teachers
who do use their phone in class stated that it was often for a functional purpose, i.e. contacting other teachers, as a calculator, checking the time or taking roll in class. However, participants stated other reasons for phone use included personal calls, texting, emails and accessing their own social media. This hypothesis was supported as teachers did use their phone for personal and professional reasons.

![Phone Use in Class](image)

Figure 12

Participant Phone Use in Class

4.4.2 Internet Access Locations

Participants were also asked about their own availability to access the Internet at home, in school and on their smartphone, as this can aid with insights to design safe internet use workshops and training for all members of the school community. As this research expected, the majority of the sample have internet access in their home (Table 5 below) with 97.6% \((n = 563)\), while 0.5% \((n = 3)\) do not have access and 1.2% \((n = 7)\) did not provide a response.
Table 9

Internet Access at Home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Don’t Have Access</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have Access</td>
<td>563</td>
<td>97.6%</td>
<td>98.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>577</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teachers highlighted that 57.2% of participants (n = 330) have internet access in work. The use of filtering software was used by 42.3% (n = 244) of participants’ schools; therefore, these teachers had access to the internet but could not access their own social networking sites using the school’s internet service provider. However, a restriction on internet service providers does not restrict mobile operator access, as participants also disclose their phones for internet use. A small portion of teachers, 0.5% (n = 3) stated they did not have access to the Internet in work (See Figure 13 below).
Figure 13

Internet Access at Work
The final internet access point was through the participants’ smartphone. As expected, the majority of participants (80.8%, n = 466) had access to the Internet on their device. The remaining 19.2% of the participants (n = 111) also had access to the Internet but did not accessing social networking on their smartphone. All smartphones are capable of access social networking either through a browser or social network application. Therefore, these participants may either not use social networking on their phones and use other devices or do not own a smartphone. This distribution is shown in Table six below.

Table 10

*Mobile Internet Access*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have Access</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>80.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have Access but not social networking</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>19.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>577</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4.3 Social Media Use

To better understand the social media access of post-primary teachers the participants were asked a series of questions relating to where they access their social media during the day and the frequency with which they use each of these platforms.

Participants’ access to their own social media during their working day can be seen in Figure 14 below. The participants could select multiple locations for where they accessed their social media regularly. Most participants accessed their social networking in more than one location. These included to/from work each day (n = 98, 17%), with the most frequent access being at home (n = 477, 82.7%) and access in their school (n = 124, 21.5%). Teachers were then asked if they used their own social media in class with or without their pupil’s present, and of these 2.6% did with their pupil’s present (n = 15) and 8.3% did in class with no pupils present (n = 48).

![Social Media Access Diagram]

**Teacher Social Media Access Locations**

Figure 14
4.4.4 Social Media Platforms

The participants in this research were asked to indicate which social media platforms they often used along with their frequency of use. The platforms included the most frequently accessed social networks in Ireland for adults according to the CSO (2017) which identified 72% of adults access social networking daily for personal or professional purposes.

These platforms include Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, Snapchat and WhatsApp, further distributions of this use can be seen in Table 7 below. Participants could also indicate any additional social networks they used. The most prominently used platform by post-primary teachers was WhatsApp with 86.82% of participants using the application (n = 501), followed by Facebook at 69.8% (n = 403) and Twitter with 44.8% (n = 259). Other Social Media use identified included Instagram with 32.40% of participants (n = 187), while 22.53% used the professional social network LinkedIn (n = 130). Finally, Snapchat users accounted for 20.27% of participants (n = 117).

Table 11

Participant Social Media Use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Media Platform</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WhatsApp</td>
<td>501</td>
<td>86.82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facebook</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>69.84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twitter</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>44.88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instagram</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>32.40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LinkedIn</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>22.53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snapchat</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>20.27%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The frequency of use by participants, shown in Figure fourteen below, ranged across all the social media platforms. The most frequently used platform was also WhatsApp with 80.2% of participants (n = 465) accessing the application on a daily basis. Facebook was also used daily by 49.3% of the participants of this study (n = 286). Twitter and Instagram were used equally on a daily basis by 20.3% of participants (n = 118). While Snapchat was used daily by 19.7% of participants (n = 114), LinkedIn however was only used daily by 1.4% (n = 8), with participants using LinkedIn once a month (4.8%, n = 23) or less often than one month (12.2%, n = 71).

Figure 15
Social Media Applications - Frequency of Use

The social media platforms and the frequency they were accessed by participants is supported by research on social media platform use in Ireland. IPOS (2017) identified that of the Irish social networking users, 65% have a Facebook account of which 69% use it daily and 32% use Instagram (51% daily use), while 27%
use LinkedIn (18% daily) and 29% use Twitter of which 37% use it daily. Snapchat users in Ireland were recorded at 31%, with 66% of these using the app daily, while WhatsApp use is at 61% and used daily by 63% of users (IPOS, 2017).

4.4.5 Online Prevention Tools

In order to further understand the participants’ knowledge of online threat prevention such as phishing or cyberbullying, participants were asked to choose the main tool which they currently use to protect themselves online; these results are displayed in Figure sixteen below.

Participants highlighted four main methods by which they aim to prevent threats while they are online and using their social networking. These were: increasing their privacy settings on websites (17.1%, n = 99); using anti-virus software on their computer (14.1%, n = 82); reporting content and blocking (6.9%, n = 40); and changing their name into the Irish language on their social networking profiles (13.6%, n = 79). However, 7.4% of participants (n = 43) reported that they did not know any tools they could use to protect themselves when online, 40.9% of participants (n=237) skipped this question.
However, despite the small number of participants who did not know what tools they could use to protect themselves online, 71.9% had increased their privacy settings on their social networking sites from the default settings (n = 417). Some participants did not alter their settings from the default (10.2%, n = 59), with a further 6% (n = 35), not knowing how to do so. These results are displayed in Figure 17 below.
Participants were asked to identify how easy it was to use the privacy settings on their own social networking sites. Overall most participants found it easy to modify these settings: 11.9% (n = 69) found it ‘Extremely Easy’ to use; 23.4% (n = 136) found their privacy ‘Very Easy’ to use; and 37.9% (n = 220) found it ‘Moderately Easy’ to alter their settings. The remaining participants found altering their privacy to be ‘Slightly Easy’ at 6.7% (n = 39); and 7.6% (n = 44) found it ‘Not at all easy’ to alter their settings on their social networking sites (SNS). Further to this a Mann-Whitney test was conducted to identify differences between victimised and non-victimised teachers for their ability to modify their privacy, interestingly Cyberbullying victims ($Mdn = 2.00$) find it easier to modify privacy than non-victims ($Mdn = 2.00$), $U = 10505.000$, $z = -1.669$, $p < .05$, $r = -0.07$ the descriptive results shown in Table 8.
### Table 12

*Ease to Alter Privacy Settings on SNS*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ease to Alter Privacy Settings</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extremely Easy</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Easy</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>23.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately Easy</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>37.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Easy</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all Easy</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>7.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 4.4.6 Interaction with Pupils on Social Networking Sites

The concluding questions of the social networking of teachers focused on teacher and pupil interactions on social networking sites and the use of social networking for professional and private purposes. These questions were used to assess the degree to which teachers interact with their pupils and other members of the school community for professional and personal purposes through social media.

The first of these questions focused on the social networking sites used by teachers to interact with their pupils shown in Figure 17. When teachers were asked about their interaction with pupils, the most common interaction method was through email with 64% of participants (n = 371) using this method. Twitter was the second most common method with 6.7% of teachers (n = 39), followed by 4.1% of teachers (n = 24) using WhatsApp to interact with pupils for work. Some of the other methods of interaction with pupils for work included Facebook, with 3.1% of participants (n = 18) using it and 1% (n = 6) using Skype to communicate with their pupils.
In contrast to those post-primary teachers who communicate with their students for professional purposes above, some teachers (n = 12, 2.1%) disclosed that they have interacted with pupils for non-professional reasons which breaches the Teaching Councils code of professional conduct. The participants who disclose that they communicate in this way with students however is low and requires further investigation to understand the purpose for communication and whether it is indeed inappropriate or simply for a non-school purpose in the school community.

However, participants do take steps to prevent interactions with students on their personal social networking sites as 89.3% of the participants of this study use Facebook, Twitter, Instagram and Snapchat daily. The most frequent method taken by 17.6% of participants (n = 102) was to alter and increase their privacy settings so their
profiles were not public and visible to their pupils. In addition to this, 13.6% (n = 79) of participants stated that they alter their name on social media changing their name or part of their name to Irish language.

However, 69.8% of participants (n = 369) don’t take any additional steps to increase their social media privacy settings or employ any prevention tools. This may increase the risk of their accounts, images or posts being viewed by pupils or to be contacted by other members of the school community on any of the social media they use.

4.4.7 Unwanted Social Media Requests

Despite the methods used by participants to increase their own privacy on their social media accounts, 42.2% (n = 245) received unwanted friend requests from their pupils. In addition to these requests from pupils, 14.5% (n = 84) of the teachers also received requests from parents. However, more participants received unwanted requests from other staff members in their school (20.5%, n = 119).

Finally, 35.5% of participants in this research (n = 206) stated that the friend requests that they received on social media relating to their role as a teacher were welcomed. The results identify that 68% of requests participants received were associated negatively and may either impact on their role in the classroom or in the school community and may cause stress on teachers in their role. These results are displayed in Figure 19 below.
Figure 19

Social Networking Site Connect Requests
4.5 Teacher Stress

Following the requests that teachers received, the participants in this research were also asked to state whether their own use of social networking sites caused them personal stress in their role as a teacher. This was the third research question of this study, to identify ‘Do teachers associate social networking with stress in their role as a teacher?’ The majority of the sample at 80.7% (n = 468), reported that they did not feel stress due to social networking, with 10.5% (n = 61) stating that they did feel stress from using social media as a post-primary teacher. These results are displayed in Figure 20 below.

Figure 20
Reported Stress from Social Networking

The fourth research question also focused on teacher stress but sought to explore the overall reported stress levels of participants in order to identify what factors in this research may increase or influence teacher stress levels. Therefore, the post-primary teachers in this research were also asked to indicate how stressful they find the role of
post-primary teaching to be on a five-point scale, ranging from ‘Not at all stressful’ to ‘Extremely Stressful’, displayed in Figure 21.

Overall, 467 teachers answered the question with 113 not providing a response. Of these responses shown in figure 20, 6% responded, ‘Not at all Stressful’, 33.4% reported ‘Mild Stress’, 39.6% reported ‘Moderate Stress’, 17.1% reported that they were ‘Very Stressed’ and 3.9% of participants stating that they found their job to be ‘Extremely Stressful’.

**Figure 21**

*Reported Teacher Stress*

Following research question four, this research sought to examine how the reported stress from social networking and overall stress were related. As the mean reported levels of stress by teachers was moderately stressed, further analysis was conducted to see what variables recorded by this research may influence the stress reported in the sample. A Chi-square was conducted to examine the relationship between victimised and non-victimised teachers and their stress from social networking and the overall reported stress teachers, as hypothesis five stated that teachers who report increased
stress levels from social networking will also report increased stress in their job. There was a significant difference between victimised and non-victimised in experiencing stress, $\chi^2(1) = 14.767, p < .001$. Based on the odds ratio, cyberbullying victims experience stress 3.607 times greater than non-victims.

This hypothesis was supported as teachers who reported higher stress in their job did not report stress in their job from social networking. This was identified using a Pearson correlation which found a small negative correlation between the two variables with increased stress in their job not being associated with stress from social networking in the overall sample ($r = -.122, n = 465, p < .001$).

Furthermore, a Mann-Whitney test was used to compare stress across groups further, as teachers who do not have social networking stress ($Mdn = 2.00$) feel less stressful in their role as teachers than teachers who also have social networking stress ($Mdn = 2.00$), $U = 8381.500, z = -2.395, p < .05, r = -0.15$.

In addition to the relationship between social networking stress and overall reported stress levels in hypothesis five this research examined the associated variables of teacher stress. A standard multiple regression was used to examine the social networking variables which may affect stress levels. These included personal cyberbullying, modifying social networking privacy and avoiding pupils on social networking sites. The results identified that 5% of variance in teacher stress was accounted for by the model which was found to be significant $F(3, 458) = 8.910, p < .001, R^2 = .055$. All three variables added statistically significantly to the prediction, $p < .01$. These results support the hypothesis above that the stress levels reported by teachers were increased when they found it difficult to increase their privacy on social networking sites, avoided pupils online and as expected were cyberbullied.
The Cyberbullying of Post-Primary Teachers

In this section of the results the survey findings from the cyberbullying section of the questionnaire will be presented. These questions focus on the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers by their own pupils, parents in the school, another teacher, a member of management or another member of school staff. The participants in this research were first asked about their awareness before discussing their own experiences. Teachers who were not cyberbullied moved forward to discuss school climate if they were not victimised directly by one of the groups above.

The main research questions for this section sought to identify the following:

1. Is the cyberbullying of teachers by their pupils prevalent in Irish post-primary schools?
2. Are teachers who are victimised by their pupils victimised by any other members of the school community?
3. Are teachers victimised more by male or female pupils?
4. Is teacher cyber victimisation effected by age or years of teaching experience?
5. Does the use of self-regulation tools reduce cyber victimisation?
6. Are teachers who alter their online privacy and avoid pupils on social networking less likely to be victimised?
7. Do teachers who are victimised believe that methods of cyberbullying have more of an impact than traditional forms of bullying?
8. Is the perceived impact of cyberbullying influenced by who they are victimised by?
9. Do teachers who are victimised believe being victimised in one platform is more damaging than another? (IM, Picture/Video, Social media etc.).
10. Who do teachers seek support from when victimised?
11. Are help-seeking behaviours of participants altered by the source of victimisation?

12. Are the social networking behaviours of teachers and phone use in school linked to a teacher’s victimisation?

### 4.6.1 Cyberbullying of another Teacher

The first aim was to identify an overall awareness of the prevalence of the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers, and to do so by examining awareness. The participants in this research identified that 14.8% \((n = 86)\) were aware of the cyberbullying of another teacher in post-primary education. In contrast, 72.1% \((n = 418)\) of participants stated that they did not know any teachers who were experiencing cyberbullying. Finally, 13.1% \((n = 73)\) of participants skipped this question. These results are shown in Table ten below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>418</td>
<td>72.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skipped</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>13.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.6.2 Personal Cyberbullying

The first research question of this research aimed to identify if the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers by pupils was present in the sample. In order to examine this several questions focused on teachers’ own cyberbullying experiences. Overall, the cyberbullying prevalence is low as 90% of participants in this research reported that
they had either not experienced cyberbullying (77.9%, \( n = 452 \)) or declined to answer (12.1%, \( n = 70 \)). While this prevalence is low, 9.5% of the participants \( (n = 55) \) in this research experienced cyberbullying as a post-primary teacher which is shown in Figure twenty-one below. The largest portion of this behaviour was perpetrated by their own pupils, with 5.5% of teachers \( (n = 32) \) reporting their own pupils were the source of this behaviour. To focus on individual groups and due to limited participant victimisation numbers participant sources were categorised by the main source of their victimisation, participants who were victimised by multiple sources are not represented.

![Sources of Cyberbullying](image)

**Figure 22**

*Sources of Cyberbullying*

The post-primary teachers in this research were also victimised by other members of the school community supporting the second aim of this research. The second largest source of cyberbullying reported by 1.2% \( (n = 7) \) of participants was parents in their school with seven teachers reporting cyberbullying by parents.
Following this, 0.9% of participants \((n = 5)\) reported cyberbullying by both pupils and parents, 0.9% \((n = 5)\) of teachers also reported that they were cyberbullied by another teacher in their school. Participants also reported workplace cyberbullying by school management and other staff members, with 0.3% \((n = 2)\) of teachers stating they had been cyberbullied by management while 0.6% \((n = 3)\) reported that they had been cyberbullied by another staff member in their school.

The gender of participants who experienced cyberbullying was also of interest in this research. As more than the 25% of the cells have expected count less than 5, the “Personal Cyberbullying” variable was recoded and the new variable has two values (Not cyberbullied, Cyberbullied). A Chi square was conducted to examine gender and personal cyberbullying experiences, there was not significant association between the cyberbullying victimisation and the participants’ gender \((p > .05)\).

Descriptive analysis of gender according to the source of victimisation may be seen in Figure 23 below.
4.6.2.1 Correlates of Personal Cyberbullying

As reported stress levels in the previous section correlated with social networking behaviours, the relationship between personal cyberbullying reported stress was examined. As this research expected, personal cyberbullying was correlated significantly with increased stress levels. A an independent sample t-test that teachers who were cyberbullied \( (M = 2.81, SE = 0.91) \) did report significantly higher levels of stress than teachers who were not victimised \( (M=1.57, SE=.76) \), \( t(176) = 6.088, p= .005 \). The eleventh hypothesis of this research focused on the potential correlates of teachers being cyberbullied, primarily if the age of a teacher or their years of teaching experience is associated with victimisation. In order to test this, a standard multiple regression was used to predict the relationship between these variables. Hypothesis
eleven was not supported as cyberbullying was not predicted by age or experience $F(5, 501) = 1.223$, $p=.297$, $R^2=0.012$.

A second standard multiple regression was used to assess the influence of age, gender, a teacher’s phone use in class with pupils, teaching experience and role held by the teacher in the school to identify if these variables could predict a teacher’s victimisation. When analysing these variables, no significance was identified as $F(5, 501) = 1.223$, $p=.297$, $R^2=0.012$.

To investigate the third hypothesis of this research, it was found that 71.9% of participants modified their privacy on social networking, with 31.2% of participants also altering their social networks further to avoid pupils. The eleventh research question aimed to identify whether if a teacher uses self-regulation tools such as increasing privacy and taking steps to avoid pupils on their personal social networking this will reduce their own likelihood to experience cyberbullying. To analyse this a logistical regression was conducted. When altering SNS to avoid pupils, stress from social media and increasing privacy on social media were tested the model was not statistically significant ($p = .284$). As when these combined variables could not predict the cyberbullying victimisation, each variable was tested separately.

However, all three models can predict victimisation separately, namely “Altered SNS to avoid pupils” ($p < .05$), “SNS cause stress” ($p < .001$) and “Increasing privacy on social networks” ($p < .001$).

According to the first model (Altered SNS to avoid pupils), someone who alters SNS to avoid pupils is 13.2% more likely to be experience cyberbullying. While teachers who stated that SNS caused them stress were 26.4% more likely to be cyberbullied than those who did not report stress from social networking. While teachers who increased
their privacy on social networking sides were 39.47% less likely to experience cyber-victimisation.

### 4.6.2.2 Reported Impacts of Cyberbullying Methods

All the participants who reported that they were cyberbullied in this research were asked to evaluate whether they felt the various methods of cyberbullying in Cyberbullying Questionnaire (Smith et al., 2006) had more or less of an impact on the victim. This addresses research questions twelve and thirteen; ‘Do teachers who are victimised believe being victimised in one platform is more damaging than traditional bullying?; Is the perceived impact of cyberbullying influenced by who they are victimised by?

Following the work of both Smith et al., (2006), Cotter and McGilloway (2011) and Slonje et al., (2017) an ‘impact factor’ was calculated to identify the perceived impact of each type of cyberbullying on its victim when compared to traditional bullying. Participants’ responses were either, ‘more of an effect’, ‘the same effect’ and ‘less of an effect’. These ratings were -1 for less of an effect, 0 = the same effect and +1 for more of an effect. These values for each form of cyberbullying are summed and divided by the total number of victimised participants (excluding the ‘don’t know’ responses). The perceived impacts of all the different forms of cyberbullying tactics reported by the various victim groups were rated to have more of an impact on the victim than traditional forms of bullying. These are displayed in Table 11 below and organised according to the source of the cyberbullying. The highest ratings were identified by teachers who were cyberbullied by their own pupils and those who were victimised by management in their schools.
Table 14

*Impacts of Cyberbullying Tactics Vs Traditional Bullying*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of CB</th>
<th>Pupils</th>
<th>Parents</th>
<th>Management</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Other Staff</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture/Video</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone call</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant Message</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Networking</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaming</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Output is organised by source of Cyberbullying. Positive Value = more effect than TB, negative value = less of an effect than TB.*
Expanding on the research by Smith et al., (2006) and Cotter and McGilloway (2011) this research asked participants to provide a rationale for their impact responses. These reasons included that the content posted online can be permanent or difficult to remove, their creator may be anonymous, and the victim does not know who has seen it, or have an opportunity to defend him or herself. All of these rationales fit under the key criteria of cyberbullying, following an imbalance of power provided through digital means, where repetition occurs through the viral ability of online mediums and where the victim cannot easily defend themselves. Some of these may be seen in the quotes below:

“It is very upsetting; it is also very embarrassing to read nasty comments written about you, with no chance to defend yourself and no means of finding out who is responsible.” – Participant 1.

“Since it is in writing, it can be viewed again and again. The deliberate and underhand nature is intimidating and it’s hard to prevent further bullying. Social media providers are not helpful when contacted about bullying.” – Participant 2.

“Picture and video bullying can be accessed by more people online and has the potential to become viral. Wondering who else is there/involved/has seen it with no limit to how far it reaches/has reached.” – Participant 3.
4.6.3 Cyberbullying by a Pupil

4.6.3.1 Methods

Participants who were victimised by a pupil were asked to identify the methods by which they were victimised using the Cyberbullying Questionnaire (Smith et al., 2006). These methods include; Text Messages, Pictures and Video Clips, Phone calls, Emails, Instant Messaging, Websites, Social Media and Online Gaming (See Table 12 below). These will be discussed according to the method below.

Table 15
Methods of Cyberbullying by Pupils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text Messages</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture/Video Clips</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone Calls</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emails</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant Messaging</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Websites</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaming</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.6.3.2 Frequency of Cyberbullying by Pupils

Text message cyberbullying was experienced by one participant (0.2%, \(n = 1\)), who stated that their victimisation occurred over a year before data collection. Teachers who were cyberbullied by their pupils using pictures or videos ranged from ‘over a year ago’ (0.3%, \(n = 2\)), ‘within the last 6 months’ (0.3%, \(n = 2\)) and ‘within the last 3 months’ (0.2%, \(n = 1\)). Overall, cyberbullying by phone calls was experienced by 0.2% of teachers (\(n = 1\)) ‘within the last 6 months’, whereas cyberbullying by email was experienced by 0.8% of participants (\(n = 5\)), with 0.3% ‘Over a year ago’ (\(n = 2\)), 0.3% ‘Within the last 6 months’ (\(n = 2\)) and 0.2% ‘Within the last few weeks’ (\(n = 1\)).

The cyberbullying of teachers through Instant Messaging (IM) by their pupils was experienced by 0.7% (\(n = 4\)), with 0.7% (\(n = 4\)) being targeted through IM ‘Over a year ago’. The cyberbullying of teachers through websites was experienced by seven teachers (1.2%, \(n = 7\)), of which 1% (\(n = 6\)) was ‘Over a year ago’ and 0.2% (\(n = 1\)) was ‘Within the last 3 months’. Teachers who were cyberbullied through social networking reached 3.3% of participants (\(n = 19\)), with 2.4% (\(n = 14\)) ‘Over a year ago’, 0.7% (\(n = 4\)) ‘within the last 6 months’, and 0.2% (\(n = 1\)) ‘within the last three months.

4.6.3.3 Gender and Group Variations

Hypothesis eight aimed to identify if teachers were cyberbullied more by male or female pupils. Teachers who were victimised in this research were cyberbullied more by female pupils than male pupils. Figure 23 on the following page, shows a distribution of the genders and groups according to the cyberbullying tactic used. Teachers were victimised more by female pupils \(n = 10\) and groups of female pupils \(n = 4\), than male pupils \(n = 7\) or groups of males \(n = 5\). A series of Chi-square goodness of fit tests were conducted to examine the method of victimisation experienced by teachers and the gender of the source of the material. There were a significant differences across the different
methods of victimisation and gender of the source of the victimisation, however in all
groups the majority of participants did not know the gender of who they were victimised
by, the group results are presented in the table below.

Table 16 – Chi Square Goodness of fit results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Statistical result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SMS</td>
<td>$\chi^2(2) = 46.621, p &lt; .001$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pic/Vid</td>
<td>$\chi^2(3) = 51.966, p &lt; .001$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone calls</td>
<td>$\chi^2(2) = 39.500, p &lt; .001$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email</td>
<td>$\chi^2(4) = 60.667, p &lt; .001$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant Message</td>
<td>$\chi^2(3) = 45.897, p &lt; .001$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website</td>
<td>$\chi^2(3) = 35.640, p &lt; .001$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Networking</td>
<td>Assumption not met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaming</td>
<td>Assumption not met</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6.3.4 Duration of Cyberbullying by pupils

The duration of cyberbullying by pupils was also recorded to identify the
differences in duration between the various methods of cyberbullying (See Table 13).
These responses which are shown in Table twelve below ranged from ‘1-2 weeks’, ‘1
month’, ‘6 months’, ‘1 year’ or ‘1 year+’. The Table below displays the distribution of
these time periods, with twenty-one teachers experiencing bullying for 1-2 weeks, six
for a month, three for six months, two victimised for a year and eight lasting over a
year. Out of all victimisation, most occurred on social media, which provided teachers
with the tools to either prevent or stop victimisation using the features of the platforms.
Table 17

*Duration of Cyberbullying by Pupils*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1-2 Weeks</th>
<th>1 Month</th>
<th>6 Months</th>
<th>1 Year</th>
<th>1 Year +</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SMS</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture/Video</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone call</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant Messaging</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Websites</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.6.3.5 Support seeking when victimised by pupil

To examine research question fifteen, ‘Who do teachers seek support from when victimised?’, participants were asked to identify the methods of help seeking sought when victimised by a pupil shown in Figure 24, overall \( n = 28 \) sought support with four not seeking support. The different sources of support included 28.5\% \( (n = 8) \) speaking to management, 3.5\% \( (n = 1) \) speaking to another teacher, 3.5\% \( (n = 1) \) seeking support online and 64.2\% \( (n = 18) \) not disclosing their source of support.

![Support Seeking](image)

**Figure 24**

*Support Seeking When Victimised by a Pupil*
4.6.4 Cyberbullying by a Parent

4.6.4.1 Methods

Research question seven sought to identify if teachers who are victimised by their pupils are victimised by any other members of the school community. Teachers were also victimised by parents, management, teachers and other school staff.

Participants who were victimised by a parent were also asked to identify the methods by which they were victimised using the Cyberbullying Questionnaire (Smith et al., 2006). These methods include; Text Messages, Pictures and Video Clips, Phone calls, Emails, Instant Messaging, Websites, Social Media and Online Gaming (See Table 14 below).

Table 18
Methods of Cyberbullying by Parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text Messages</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone Calls</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emails</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant Messaging</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Websites</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>16</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.7%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Cyberbullying through Gaming and Picture/Video Clips was removed as due to no responses.*
4.6.4.2 Frequency of Cyberbullying by Parents

Text message cyberbullying was experienced by two participants (0.3%, \( n = 1 \)), stating that their victimisation occurred over a year before data collection. No teachers were cyberbullied by parents using pictures or videos. However, four (0.7%) teachers stated they were cyberbullied by parents using phone calls: two ‘over a year ago’, one ‘within the last 6 months’ and one ‘within the last 3 months’.

Email cyberbullying was experienced by 0.6% of teachers \((n = 3)\), one ‘within the last 3 months’, one ‘Over a year ago’ and one ‘Within the last few weeks’. While cyberbullying of teachers through Instant Messaging (IM) by parents was experienced by 0.3% \((n = 2)\) both occurring ‘Over a year ago’. The cyberbullying of teachers through websites was also experienced by two teachers (0.3%) ‘Within the last few weeks’. Finally, three teachers were cyberbullied through social networking by parents \((n = 3, 0.6\%)\), one ‘Over a year ago’, one ‘within the last 3 months’, and one ‘within the last few weeks’.
4.6.4.3 Gender and Group Variations

Research question eight aimed to examine the gender difference for teachers who are cyberbullied by parents. Similarly, to the cyberbullying of teachers by their pupils, the sample size for teachers victimised by parents was not large. The gender breakdowns for teachers who were victimised are displayed below in Figure 25. In contrast to teachers who were victimised by their pupils, participants in this group were victimised by six male parents, six female parents or by one group of female parents.

*Cyberbullying through Gaming and Picture/Video Clips was removed due to no responses.*
4.6.4.4 Duration of Cyberbullying by Parents

The duration of cyberbullying by parents was also recorded to identify if the differences in duration between the various methods of cyberbullying. These responses also ranged from ‘1-2 weeks’, ‘1 month’, ‘6 months’, ‘1 year’ or ‘1 year+'. Table 15 displays the distribution of these time periods, with two teachers experiencing bullying for 1-2 weeks, one for six months and the remaining eight being victimised for over a year. These results indicate that the cyberbullying of teachers by parents lasted for longer periods of time than cyberbullying by pupils. This may be due to the methods as most cyberbullying by pupils took place through social media while cyberbullying by parents across a number of platforms which may affect duration.

Table 19

*Duration of Cyberbullying by Parents*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1-2 Weeks</th>
<th>6 Months</th>
<th>1 Year +</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SMS</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone call</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant Messaging</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Websites</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>2</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Cyberbullying through Gaming and Picture/Video Clips was removed due to no responses.*
4.6.4.5 Support seeking when victimised by Parent

To examine research question fifteen, ‘Who do teachers seek support from when victimised?’ teachers who were victimised by parents were asked about their help seeking behaviours. Out of the sixteen teachers who stated they were cyberbullied by parents, only five sought some form of support (31.2%). One participant stated they sought support from management, the remaining four did not disclose who they sought support from.

4.6.5 Cyberbullying by Management

4.6.5.1 Methods

In contrast to the other victimised groups, only two participants stated they were victimised by school management (n = 2, 0.4%). This low number restricts the generalisability of the findings. The Table below displays the distribution of this victimisation, highlighting that these two teachers reported victimisation in multiple methods by management.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methods of Cyberbullying by Management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Frequency</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text Messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone Calls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emails</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant Messaging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Websites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.6.5.2 Frequency of Cyberbullying by Management

Text message cyberbullying was experienced by one participant (0.2%, n = 1), who stated that their victimisation occurred over a year before data collection. No teachers were cyberbullied by management using pictures or videos. One teacher stated they were cyberbullied by management using phone calls ‘over a year ago’. Similarly, one teacher was victimised by email over a year before this research. Instant Messaging (IM) by management also occurred ‘Over a year ago’ for one teacher. Finally, one teacher was victimised by management through a website over a year before the data was collected.

4.6.5.3 Gender and Group Variations

The teachers in this research were only victimised by one male member of management in their respective schools, throughout the various methods of cyberbullying they experienced. These two teachers did not experience the same forms of cyberbullying, however, the sample size for teachers who were cyberbullied by management is deemed not representative as it cannot be generalised to the wider population of teachers. This therefore makes the interpretation of this group limited. Teacher cyberbullying was also found to last over a year for the two participants.

4.6.5.4 Support seeking when victimised by Management

Unlike the other participant victim groups who sought support from management when they were victimised, teachers who were victimised by management did not seek support from other members of management in their schools. Instead of seeking management support, one of these participants sought support from their Education and Training Board while the other did not disclose who they sought support from.
4.6.6 Cyberbullying by another Teacher

4.6.6.1 Methods

The teachers in this research who reported cyberbullying by another teacher are displayed in Table 17 below. Overall five reported that they had been cyberbullied by another teacher through text message, phone calls, and emails, on websites and through social media sites.

Table 21

Methods of Cyberbullying by Other Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text Messages</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone Calls</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emails</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Websites</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.5%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6.6.2 Frequency of Cyberbullying by another Teacher

Text message cyberbullying was experienced by one participant (0.2%, \(n = 1\)), who stated that their victimisation occurred ‘within the last month’. One teacher stated that they were cyberbullied by another teacher by phone also ‘within the last month’. Email cyberbullying was experienced by 0.2% of teachers \((n = 1)\), one ‘within the last month’, and one cyberbullied through websites over a year before data collection. Finally, four teachers were cyberbullied through social networking by other teachers \((n = 4)\).
= 4, 0.7%), two ‘Over a year ago’, one ‘within the last 6 months’ and one ‘within the last month’.

### 4.6.6.3 Gender and Group Variations

Similar to the cyberbullying of teacher’s groups, the sample size for teachers victimised by other teachers was not large enough to determine significance when compared to other participant groups or methods. The gender breakdown for teachers who were victimised is displayed in Figure 26.

![Figure 26: Gender and Group Variations for Teachers Cyberbullied Teachers](image)

*Cyberbullying through Gaming and Picture/Video Clips was removed due to no responses.*

### 4.6.6.4 Duration of Cyberbullying by another Teacher

The duration of cyberbullying by another teacher was also recorded to identify if the differences in duration occur between groups. These responses also ranged from ‘1-2 weeks’, ‘1 month’, ‘6 months’, ‘1 year’ or ‘1 year+’. The Table below displays the distribution of these time periods. However, some participants did not disclose their
time periods, only providing data on SMS, website and Social Media cyberbullying by another teacher.

4.6.6.4 Support-seeking when victimised by another Teacher

Three teachers who were cyberbullied by another teacher sought support from when victimised but did not disclose the source of their support, while the remaining two teachers did not seek any support when victimised.

4.6.7 Cyberbullying by another Staff Member

Three teachers in this research reported cyberbullying by another staff member, through email, instant messaging and social media. Email cyberbullying was experienced over a year ago, while instant message cyberbullying was experienced ‘within the last month’ and social media cyberbullying ‘within the last 6 months’. Email cyberbullying was conducted by a female member of staff and lasted for one year, while instant message cyberbullying was conducted by male and female staff members and lasted ‘1 or 2 weeks’. The cyberbullying by another staff member was conducted by one female staff member and lasted for one month. The help-seeking behaviours by the teachers who were cyberbullied by other staff was different to previous groups as one sought support from a spouse and the other two did not disclose their support.

Table 22
Cyberbullying by another staff member

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emails</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant Messaging</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
School Climate

The final section of this chapter focuses on the school climate evaluations made by teachers who had been victimised by the various groups described in the section above and those who had not experienced cyberbullying. This section will focus on three main research questions: firstly ‘Do teachers who are victimised have lower school climate perceptions than non-victimised teachers?’; secondly ‘Are there differences between the groups in the school climate scores of teachers who are victimised?’; and finally, ‘does the school type effect a teacher’s perception of school climate in the sample?’

The New Jersey School Climate Questionnaire is made up of eight sub sections; this section will address the three research questions above according to these eight sub scales. These are: (1) Physical Environment; (2) Teaching and Learning Capacity; (3) Morale in the School Community; (4) Quality of Relationships; (5) Level of Parental Support and Engagement; (6) Safety Situation; (7) Emotional Environment; and (8) Perception of Administration Support.

In order to analyse school climate results, mean ratings are used to display the overall response to individual questions in each of the eight sub sections. These questions are then rated overall to provide a score for each section, shown in Table 19. Positive school climate scores range from four to five, while three is neutral and scores below three indicate a negative school climate. Overall results for school climate indicate generally positive results for all domains. Teachers who were cyberbullied reported negative results for physical environment, relationships, teaching and learning capacity and perception of administration support. Teachers who were cyberbullied reported neutral results for all other domains of school climate. Teachers who were not
cyberbullied also reported a negative teaching and learning capacity, positive climate for school safety, with the remaining domains scoring neutral results. The school climate scores for the entire sample range from neutral to positive with teaching and learning capacity rated negatively.

Table 23
School Climate Domain Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domains</th>
<th>Cyber-Victim Mean</th>
<th>Non-Victim Mean</th>
<th>Overall Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical Environment</td>
<td>n=46 2.77</td>
<td>n=447 3.21</td>
<td>n=494 3.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching and Learning</td>
<td>n=46 2.21</td>
<td>n=440 1.94</td>
<td>n=487 1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Community Morale</td>
<td>n=46 3.12</td>
<td>n=440 3.02</td>
<td>n=487 3.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Relationships</td>
<td>n=44 3.50</td>
<td>n=422 3.73</td>
<td>n=467 3.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Support and Engagement</td>
<td>n=45 3.10</td>
<td>n=431 3.61</td>
<td>n=477 3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety Situation</td>
<td>n=46 3.66</td>
<td>n=447 4.33</td>
<td>n=494 4.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Environment</td>
<td>n=45 3.30</td>
<td>n=422 3.78</td>
<td>n=467 3.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration Support</td>
<td>n=44 2.96</td>
<td>n=44 3.61</td>
<td>n=467 3.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To further examine the difference identified in the domains, further analysis which are detailed below were conducted across the school climate questionnaire and also examine differences between teachers who were and not victimised. School types did vary across the school climate questionnaire; these results will be discussed where relevant with the data relating to overall participants, victimised and non-victimised teachers. Further examinations were conducted to examine if there were differences between victimised and non-victimised teachers across school types using Two-way ANOVA’s, no significant differences were identified across school climate for these groups and school types and as such are not reported below. Further examination for school climate perceptions and participants who sought support as the number of participants who sought support across the victim groups needed to run analysis was not met. The significant results will be discussed for the 18 relevant questions.
4.7.1 Physical Environment

Physical environment addresses scheduling, the use of the school building and attitudes towards it. The questions which related to the physical environment of the school are displayed below.

‘The schools schedule allows adequate time for teacher preparation and planning’ is displayed below. The majority of participants agreed with this statement (n = 146). The mean score for this question is 2.73, with a standard deviation of 1.2 from the mean. Victim and non-victimised teachers were compared using a Mann-whitney test, Cyberbullying victims (Mdn = 6.00) were significantly less comfortable with their physical environment than non-victims (Mdn = 6.00), U = 7929.500, z = -2.585, p < .01, r = -0.12.

‘The school environment is clean and in good condition’. More participants agreed with this statement (n = 188). Producing the mean score for this question is 3.61, with a standard deviation of 1.2 from the mean. Overall this indicates a positive reflection on the school environment. A one-way between groups ANOVA identified significant differences between school types for this question. There was a statistically significant difference at the P < .05, in mean scores across the three groups F (4, 487) = 2.628, p=.05. However, despite reaching significance, the difference in mean scores was small.

The effect size, calculated using eta squared was .02. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for ETB Schools (M = 3.42, SD = 1.231) was lower than the mean for Fee Paying schools (0.663) (M =4.08, SD = 0.906).
4.7.2 Teaching and Learning Capacity

Teaching and learning capacity assesses teacher perceptions of their student’s interest in education. The first question is; ‘Students at this school don’t care about learning’ is reverse marked, with 66.9% (n = 386) of teachers disagreeing, stating that their students do care about learning.

The mean rating for this question was 1.97, with a deviation of 0.88, indicating that overall teachers believe their students engage at school and take pride in progressing their own education. Victim and non-victimised teachers were compared using a Mann-Whitney test, Non cyberbullying victims ($Mdn = 2.00$) have less capacity for teaching and learning than cyberbullying victims ($Mdn = 2.00$), $U = 8249.000$, $z = -2.231$, $p < .05$, $r = -0.1$.

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to further examine teachers capacity for teaching and learning across school types which identified that there is significant difference in the teachers’ capacity for teaching and learning among school types, $H(4) = 39.015$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .07$. Pairwise comparisons with adjusted p-values showed that Fee School teachers have better capacity for teaching and learning than ETB and Community/Comprehensive schools ($p < .01$, $r = \ldots$) and Secondary school teachers have worse capacity for teaching and learning than ETB and Community/Comprehensive schools ($p < .001$, $r = \ldots$).
4.7.3 Morale in the School Community

School Morale is examined through teachers’ perceptions of student attitude and their own assessments of their teaching time and teaching environment. To reduce the opportunity for type 1 error as two independent samples t-test was conducted on this domain to compare victimised and non-victimised teachers. Results identified that there was no significant difference between non-cyberbullying victims ($M = 30.26, SE = 0.21$) and cyberbullying victims ($M = 30.26, SE = 0.21$) as for their perceptions of student pride and their own assessments of their time and teaching environment, $t(484) = -1.533, p = .126, d = 0.22$. The descriptive overview of this domain is presented below for the individual items.

The first question focuses on teachers’ assessments of student pride, with 313 teachers (54.2%) with a mean of 3.63, and deviation of 0.88, agreeing that students do have pride in their school. Teachers were then asked to rate how they felt about their teacher to student teaching ratio. ‘My class enrolments are too large’ was stated by 21.5% of participants with a mean rating 2.72, with a deviation of 1.12, indicating that overall teachers believe this is not the case.

The third question asked teachers to assess their own access to the tools they need to do their job. Overall this was rated positively by teachers, with 56.6% agreeing with the statement ($n = 327$). The overall mean for this question was 3.62, deviating by 1.01.

The fourth question focused on job progression and growth. Teachers’ responses to ‘I am dissatisfied with my opportunities for personal growth’ was reverse marked and had a mean of 2.67, as 132 (22.9%) of teachers were not happy with their progression opportunities. There was a deviation of 1.2, as 43.7% of participants were
satisfied with their opportunities for growth. Participants were also asked to evaluate how much of their teaching time they spend disciplining their students. Overall 18.7 agreed that they do spend too much time on discipline, however more disagreed with the statement (51.8%). The mean for this question was 2.51, with a deviation of 1.09. A Kruiskal-Wallis test was conducted to further examine teachers’ perceptions of school morale across school types which identified that there is significant difference in the teachers’ perceptions of school morale among school types, $H(4) = 12.055, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$. Pairwise comparisons with adjusted p-values showed that Fee School teachers have better perceptions school morale than Secondary school teachers ($p < .05, r = \ldots$).

4.7.4 Quality of Relationships

This domain of the school climate scale is concerned with the relationships between pupils, parents and teachers, and teachers and their pupils. This is important for the functioning of a school, particularly in emotional or behavioural instances such as bullying or when students need support to improve in their academic studies. A Mann-Whitney test was conducted to examine the quality of relationships between victim and non-victim groups, there are significantly worse perceptions of relationships between staff, students and parents for cyberbullying victims ($Mdn = 22.00$) than non-victims ($Mdn = 22.00$), $U = 6750.000, z = -3.014, p < .001, r = -0.14$. An overview of some of the individual descriptive data is presented below.

The first of these questions which relates to bullying or pupil misbehaviour was: ‘At this school, it is common for students to tease and insult one another’. The overall mean for this question was 3, with a deviation of 1 as 30.8% of ($n = 178$) participants
agreed that it was common for students to tease each other, while 33.1% of teachers disagreed with the statement ($n = 191$). Following this, teachers were asked to rate:

‘Parents respect their children’s teachers’. Overall, 43.9% ($n = 253$) agreed that their students’ parents do treat them with respect, while 13.7% ($n = 79$) disagreed with the statement. The overall mean was 3.38% indicating positive attitudes by teachers towards parents, with a standard deviation of 0.86.

In relation to students being treated with respect, teachers rated this question positively providing a mean rating of 4.22 with a deviation of 0.66 as 75.4% of teachers ($n = 435$) agreed that: ‘Adults who work in this school treat students with respect’, while 1.2% of teachers disagreed ($n = 7$). Teachers were also asked to evaluate their own perceptions of students’ respect towards teachers in the school. Overall this was positive with 49.2% agreeing ($n = 284$), 8.5% strongly agreeing ($n = 49$) while 5.4% ($n = 31$) disagreed and 0.9% strongly disagreed ($n = 5$). This resulted in an overall mean of 3.79 with a deviation of 0.77 from this mean.

Participants then rated students respect for diversity in their school, for example, gender, race, culture. Overall participants rated the diversity in their school highly with a mean of 4.13 and deviation of 0.77 as 48.9% ($n = 282$) of teachers agreed and 10.9% ($n = 63$) strongly agreed that their students embraced diversity. Victim and non-victimised teachers were compared using an independent sample t-test identify differences. Teachers were then asked to rate their peers for diversity and respect, overall these ratings were positive with a mean rating of 4.13 and a deviation of .77. Results showed that 44.2% agreed ($n = 225$) and 25.6% strongly agreed ($n = 148$) which produced these positive results.
In addition to the above analysis a One-way ANOVA was conducted compare the quality of relationships across school type. The results identified that there are worse relationships between staff, students and parents for Secondary school teachers and Community/Comprehensive school teachers than Fee Paying school teachers, $F(4, 460) = 2.138, p < .05, f = .14$. 
4.7.5 Level of Parental Support and Engagement

Parental engagement and support with the school focuses on parental engagement with school activities and how the parent supports their child in school, with an awareness of what is expected of them. A two independent samples t-test was conducted to examine this domain, with teachers who were not cyberbullied ($M = 7.22$, $SE = 0.08$) reporting that they have a greater parental engagement with the school than cyberbullying victims ($M = 6.2$, $SE = 0.23$), $t(474) = 4.188$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.66$. The individual descriptive overview of these results is below.

The first of these questions was to evaluate parent activity with the school. Participants stated that overall 41.9% ($n = 242$) agreed that parents are active in the school while 17.2% ($n = 99$) of teachers disagreed that parents were not actively involved. The mean for parental involvement was 3.37, with a deviation of 0.99. Teachers were then asked to rate how aware parents are of what is expected of their child in the school. Overall participant ratings were positive with 58.4% ($n = 337$) agreed that parents were aware of the schools expectations, while 7.8% ($n = 45$) disagreed. This created an overall mean of 3.76 with a deviation of 0.86 from this mean.

A One-Way ANOVA was also conducted to compare school types identifying that parents are more engaged with the school in the Fee Paying schools than in Secondary, ETB and Community/Comprehensive schools, $F(4, 470) = 5.574$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .24$. 

182
4.7.6 Safety Situation

The attitudes of teachers towards their own physical safety in school was shown to be positive, specifically questions relating to safety in the school and their own classrooms reflected positive attitudes. A Mann-Whitney test was conducted to examine school safety perceptions across the participant groups, the results of which identified that cyberbullying victims (Mdn = 9.00) feel less safe than non-victims (Mdn = 8.00), $U = 6174.000$, $z = -4.676$, $p < .001$, $r = -0.21$. The descript overview of the individual items are presented below.

The first question: ‘I feel safe outside on the school grounds’ was rated highly by staff with an overall mean of 4.24 as 72.6% of participants responded agree or higher (n = 419). The standard deviation was also lower at 0.94. The second question focused on a teacher’s perception of their own safety in their classroom. Following the positive perceptions of safety on the school grounds, teachers rated this question positively. The mean for this question was 4.29, with deviations of 0.86 from this mean.

A Kruiskal-Wallis test was conducted to further examine teachers’ perceptions of safety across school types which identified that there is significant difference in the safety that teachers feel among school types, $H(4) = 12.825$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .02$. Pairwise comparisons with adjusted p-values showed that ETB school teachers feel safer than Secondary school teachers ($p < .05$, $r = \ldots$).
4.7.7 Emotional Environment

Emotional environment questions in the school climate scale focus on staff perceptions of managing and maintaining a positive emotional climate in the school for pupils and staff, which provides context and support for how a teacher and school manage conflict. A two independent samples t-test was conducted to identify differences between teachers who were and were not victimised with non-cyberbullying victims ($M = 30.26, SE = 0.21$) reporting a better emotional environment than cyberbullying victims ($M = 26.6, SE = 0.78$), $t(474) = 5.345, p < .001, d = 0.77$. The individual item descriptive are displayed below.

The first of these questions: ‘In this school, we teach ways to resolve disagreements so that everyone can be satisfied with the outcomes’ was rated positively by 49.4% of participants ($n = 285$), with a mean response of 3.51, deviating from this mean by 1.09. Teacher perceptions of student behaviour were also rated positively by most of the sample, as 60.8% ($n = 351$) agreed that: ‘Students at this school are well-behaved’. This created a positive mean rating for student behaviour at 3.81 with a deviation of 1 from this mean. Teachers are also asked to report their attitude to how much of their time is spent managing behavioural issues. ‘I spend a great deal of time dealing with students’ social and emotional challenges’ was rated highly by 258 (44.7%) of participants, with a mean rating of 3.4 and a deviation of 1.1. Teachers were then asked to evaluate how they felt about coming to work, overall this was rated positively by 58% of the participants ($n = 335$) with a mean rating of 3.78 and deviation of 0.9. This indicates that overall, teachers are happy within their teaching role.

Participant attitudes to their fellow colleagues was also rated positively overall, with 60.7% ($n = 350$) believing they had a close working relationship with their peers. The mean rating for this domain was 3.76, with a deviation of 0.92.
Teachers were also asked to evaluate how they and other teachers in their school support students to understand and control their own emotions. Results identified that 50.2% \((n = 330)\) of teachers stated that they do provide students with this support, with 9.9% \((n = 57)\) stating that they do not do this. The overall rating for this question was positive at 3.68, with a deviation of 0.87.

Participant teachers were then asked to rate the strength of the relationships between teaching staff and students in their school. Overall this was rated positively with 435 (75.4%) of teachers agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statement while few teachers disagreed \((n = 6, 1\%)\). This created an overall mean for teacher student relationships was positive at 4.24, with a deviation of 0.6.

Teachers are also asked about how the school enforces school policy, specifically the enforcement of the student code of conduct. Overall teachers rated this question positively, with 57.2% \((n = 330)\) agreeing, 12.3% \((n = 71)\) disagreeing with consistent enforcement, the resulting mean was 3.73 with a deviation of 1.05.

Further to this a One way ANOVA was conducted to compare school types which identified that there was no significant difference among school types as for the emotional environment, \(F(4, 470) = 1.768, p = .134, f = .12\).

### 4.7.8 Perception of Administration Support

The closing questions of the school climate survey focused on teacher perceptions of the interaction and support they receive from school administrators (management). These perceptions by teachers provide insights into the whole school approach to counter bullying behaviours through leadership which is one of the key
principles for best practice to combat bullying in the Primary and Post-Primary
Procedures to combat bullying (DES, 2013).

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare victimised and non-
victimised teachers, with non-cyberbullying victims ($M = 18.09$, $SE = 0.2$) reporting
better interaction and support from school administrators than cyberbullying victims ($M$
$=14.82$, $SE = 0.85$), $t(48.072) = 3.749$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.66$. The individual descriptive
results for these items is reported below.

The first question focused on the commitments made by school management
and whether these are completed. Overall 39.3% of teachers agreed and 15.4% strongly
agreed that school management followed through on their commitments in the school,
while 8.1% disagree and 2.4% strongly disagree. This produced an overall positive
mean value of 3.71, with a deviation of 0.98.

Teachers were then asked to rate their inclusion by management in the decision-
making and problem-solving processes within the school. Overall this was rated as 3.31
with a deviation of 1.1 as 31.4% ($n = 181$) agreed or strongly agreed ($n = 57$, 9.9%) that
they felt involved, while 15.4% ($n = 89$) did not feel involved in the process while 5.2%
($n = 30$) strongly disagreed that management involved them in decision-making.

Participants were then asked to rate their perception of communication between
management and staff in the school. Communication was rated at 3.37 out of five with a
deviation of 1.06 as the majority of participants agreed ($n = 229$, 29.7%) and strongly
agreed ($n = 53$, 9.2%) that school staff communicated effectively with management.
Only 13.5% disagreed (13.5%) or strongly disagreed ($n = 26$, 4.5%).
Teachers were also asked to evaluate whether: ‘school administrators hold themselves to the same high expectations as others’. The overall mean for this question was 3.68, with a deviation of 1.01. This was reflected by participant responses as most 39.7% \( (n = 229) \) agreed or strongly agreed \( (n = 87, 15.1\%) \).

The final school climate question which related to school management focused on support when it was needed. Teachers were asked to rate their own perception of support from school administrators when they need it. Overall the mean for this group was 3.72, indicating positive perceptions with a standard deviation of 1.1 from this mean as the majority of participants reported feeling supported by school management if required.

Further to the analysis above a One-way ANOVA was conducted to compare school types for perceptions of administrative support. There was no significant difference among school types as for the teachers’ interaction and support they receive from school administrators, \( F(4, 460) = .998, p = .408, f = .1 \).
4.8 Qualitative Analysis

As this research discussed in the methodology chapter, this research gathered qualitative responses using open ended responses from participants (N= 93). Employing a thematic analysis on the responses provided by participants according to Braun and Clarkes (2006) six stages for analysis to derive four major themes and eight minor themes from the 161 responses.

The four major themes agreed by the researcher and second coder were; (1) Educational Challenges, (2) Fluidity of Cyberbullying, (3) Technology Attitudes and (4) Attribution of Blame. Each of these individual themes will now be discussed with their corresponding minor themes according to the final stage of Braun and Clarkes (2006) process, producing the reports to provide a “concise, coherent, logical, non-repetitive and interesting account of the data within and across the themes.

4.8.1 Educational Challenges

The first theme identified by the researcher was educational challenges, this theme was created as participants made references to the challenges, they face within the school climate and how it affects them as an individual. These were divided into two minor themes, (1) self-esteem and (2) resources. These two minor themes were derived from twelve agreed codes. Participants codes for self-esteem included; positive self-esteem and respect for one’s self, defencelessness relating to the comment’s participants make in their situations and love for teaching represented by positive affirmations made by participants.

Participant codes for resources included: training needs, classroom management, relationships, awareness of policy and negative perceptions of the working environment due to a lack of these resources.
The final minor theme for self-efficacy was composed of three codes: inexperience, experience and a need for confidence and training. The major theme and corresponding minor themes can be seen in the figure below.

Figure 27 – Educational Challenges Thematic Map

The first theme for educational challenges which is visualised above was derived from the three minor themes and their corresponding codes as participants discussed the various challenges and issues which they experience within the school climate. The responses focused on the participant and their individual needs and experiences (love for teaching) and impacts on the individual (positive and negative self-esteem and respect).
self-esteem) in addition to their external needs (training) and their external effects (classroom management and negative perceptions of the working environment).

The minor theme for self-esteem was derived from participant quotes such as those which related to the impact of cyberbullying on the victim. Some participant extracts which related to negative self-esteem can be seen below.

“*It's all fairly harsh and inappropriate, but pictures and videos taken surreptitiously are quite hurtful to many people.*” – Male Teacher, 39 Years.

“They are ways of getting at you personally, in your private life.” – Female Teacher, 41 Years.

Furthering these extracts self-esteem was also connected to the second code of defenceless situation participants discussed in relation to the impact of cyberbullying.

“It is very upsetting, it is also very embarrassing to read nasty comments written about you, with no chance to defend yourself and no means of finding out who is responsible” – Female Teacher, 48 Years.

“The deliberate and underhand nature is intimidating. Hard to prevent further bullying. Social media providers are not helpful when contacted about bullying” – Female Teacher, 33 Years.

“You can't defend yourself and others can see it” – Female Teacher, 22 Years.

“A faceless/anonymous bully is more frightening. It has a deeper psychological effect on someone when they don't know who is bullying them.” – Female Teacher, 35 Years.
The extracts above highlight the negative impacts that participants on a participant’s self-esteem, relating to their personal and professional reputations, this reflected well by the definition by the Department for Children, Schools and Families in the United Kingdom, as an invasion into the home and personal space, highlighting the difficulty in controlling material online, the size of the audience, anonymity of those involved including the bully and their target (Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2007).

This further highlights the intrusion and reflects the impacts of cyberbullying on the individual reflected by participants in this research such as “Since it is in writing, it can viewed again and again.” – Female Teacher, 34 Years. Highlighting the lack of power, the participant has due the imbalance of power presented by the nature of cyberbullying where the cyberbully may be anonymous. These trends in the qualitative data can be seen due to their connection to the core aspects of bullying and cyberbullying definitions whereby the victim is in a position of less power with a intentional negative behaviour causing harm.

“It is very upsetting, it is also very embarrassing to read nasty comments written about you, with no chance to defend yourself and no means of finding out who is responsible” – Female Teacher, 48 Years. Participants repeatedly discussed the impacts of cyberbullying and the main sources of these impacts such as repetition due to the viral nature of cyberbullying on the victim such as this Female teacher (42 years), “People can revisit the hurtful messages and might finding it harder to delete or move on from the incidents”.

However, there were positive responses derived for the theme of self-esteem, due to a apparent vocational aspect of teaching in connecting to pupils and its resulting
positive impacts on the teacher. This were coded by the research to be connected to a love for teaching and can be seen in the extracts below.

“I still love teaching because I have adapted to change” – Female Teacher, 63 Years.

“The climate can be a protective factor for teachers or can destroy their love of teaching” – Female Teacher, 45 Years.

In contrast, sometimes the negative impacts of cyberbullying also had negative impacts on a teacher’s love and connection to their job. “Teaching 21 years. I used to Love going to work & loved teaching. I have to say times have changed & I don't enjoy teaching as much as I used to.” – Female Teacher, 40 Years.

“Some of my answers may seem paradoxical but such is the nature of school life. Despite the negatives, I love my job” – Female Teacher, 45 Years.

The challenges which may impact on teaching are not only due to cyberbullying and victimisation but also the wider education climate whereby the pressures outside of teaching impact on a teachers role and those in management positions, such as this teaching principal – “I'm in school management, I love teaching but my job as a manager is very difficult” – Male Principal – 50 Years.

Several extracts reflect on the negative implications on teaching and reflect on a teacher’s capacity and enjoyment of teaching. “All the extra administration work and form filling is detracting from teaching and learning in the classroom” – Female Teacher, 44 Years.
The second minor theme derived from participant responses was resources, this was derived from codes relating to time, training, classroom management and relationships and their management.

The first discussion of resources related to time as a major educational challenge – “Time is the issue.... finding time to be creative and redesign classes to use active learning methodologies and other new ideas and resources. Time to correct and give feedback. Time for extra-curricular and supervision. Time to plan for new courses.” – Female Teacher – 47 Years. Furthermore, in addition to time, teachers’ resources for teaching in general which were reflected by the negative perceptions of school climate identified earlier in the quantitative findings.

An example of this strain can be seen by “The amount of time spent preparing for class is not recognised (planning, schemes, correcting, displays etc). In a small school funding is tight and often teachers subsidise from their own pocket for ink, paper, class resources etc. Practical subjects - H.Ec. needs lots of time spent cleaning and keeping rooms up to standard preparing ingredients, fabrics, shopping for items.”- Female Teacher, 50 Years.

Several other participants discuss their views on their limited resources not only teachers but also pastoral school staff, “As a Guidance Counsellor I would wish for greater no. of hours to do my job properly. The cuts have impacted on the ability to implement pastoral care.” – Female Guidance Counsellor, 39 Years.

The lack of resources discussed by teachers is not only a challenge but appears to at time be a source of frustration for participants. “All the extra administration work and form filling is detracting from teaching and learning in the classroom” Female Teacher, 44 Years. The challenge of resources is not only focused on a teacher’s time
and work within the school community but at the role parents play in supporting schools to prevent and intervene in bullying. “Schools need huge resources to teach about preventing cyber bullying, but parents need even more help. Parents are oblivious to what their children are actually doing online.” – Male Assistant Principal, 34 Years.

Further support and resources for teachers, principals and guidance counsellors is needed to facilitate teachers to improve relationships within the school climate between pupils, parents and staff and in doing so reduce the stress levels, frustration and strain on school staff. “As a Guidance Counsellor I have 11 hours to cater for 465 students with the other 11 hours being learning support. This means 6 classes per week for individual student appts so when I am not called for supervision, I am seeing students. Any admin/contacting parents is done after school. Consequently, my job ranges from moderately to extremely stressful depending on the time of year.” – Female Guidance Counsellor, 55 Years.

Further resources to aid teachers in classroom management of pupils’ behaviour through training not only in this management but also in bullying and cyberbullying behaviours. Several participants discussed their time spent on behaviour management and their need for more support “As a year head I spend most of my time discipling students, however I don’t have to discipline much in the classroom as a subject teacher” – Female Year Head – 41 Years.

Training needs for behaviour management not only relates to managing pupil behaviour but aiding teachers to increase their own knowledge and skills to effectively manage behaviour and prevent it negatively effecting pupils and but also their relationships with pupils and other staff members as discussed by this female guidance
counsellor “In general my working environment is positive but I would consider some of the staff to be bullies towards the students, exerting too much power over them through totally outdated teaching practices that are no longer acceptable.” – Female Teacher, 40 Years.

However, despite the negative aspects of behaviour management and the need to support school staff with further resources participants show balance in responses highlighting both the positive and negative aspects of their school climate despite issues relating to classroom management and its impact on relationships. “Some classes are amazing with exemplary behaviour, but most classes have a cohort of consistently disruptive students which makes it difficult to cover material and teach/learn. This happens daily and is very stressful. The well-behaved classes are a joy to teach and have strong parental support and show respect to teachers and commitment to work.” – Female Teacher, 35 Years.

The quote above reflects the impact a positive school climate goal whereby a teacher feels supported by the pupils and parents within their school, reflecting not only positive relationships but the positive outcome for teaching and learning and motivation, contrasting the negative outcomes for school climate which may result from poor classroom behaviours and bullying and cause negative effects on the school climate. This is reflected in the work of Gray et al., (2017) highlighting the need for further resources for teachers from school leadership to create a positive school climate and promoted relationships within the school community and as a result increase students’ academic outcome.
4.8.2 Fluidity of Cyberbullying

The second theme which was derived from participant responses was termed the fluidity of cyberbullying. This theme considers the pervasive nature of cyberbullying within the school climate, but also its wider impact outside of the school context. Therefore, this research divided the theme into two minor themes to address the impacts of cyberbullying further.

These two themes are (1) Personal Boundaries and (2) Professional boundaries, these themes originated from several codes. Personal boundary codes focused on a participant’s prevention and intervention approaches including avoidance, resilience, privacy, as well as other attitudes such as security concerns. Professional boundary codes also included altitudinal responses including appropriate use of technology, ethical issues, and practical steps to implement boundaries, restricting access to technology and work/life balance. An additional overlapping minor code was identified for both personal and professional boundaries, this was coded as reputation as participants show concerns for their personal and professional reputations throughout their responses. The first theme for fluidity of cyberbullying was personal boundaries which is shown in Figure 28 below was formed from four minor themes and their corresponding codes as participants discussed the various actions taken and responding impacts from cyberbullying.
The first minor theme derived was avoidance, this theme was composed of participant responses to how they attempted to not be found by their own pupils online as a preventative strategy. The actions by these teachers ranged from not using social media websites to avoid pupils but also taking steps to cut contact but also others for complete avoidance shown below in three participant quotes. The first of these avoiding pupils after they attempt to interact with him on Facebook, choosing instead to close his account on the platform rather than ignoring the request and increasing the publicity of his profile, “closed a Facebook a/c when two students wanted to friend me” – Male Teacher, 61 Years.

Figure 28 – Thematic Map – Fluidity of Cyberbullying
Applying this scenario to the power criterion for bullying and cyberbullying behaviour, Smith et al., (2006) emphasised the power differential which can occur in cyberbullying whereby a victim cannot easily defend him or herself. This teacher while they did not experience a cyberbullying, immediately takes preventative steps to avoid these pupils, harnessing the protective power method discussed by Tew (2006), provided by the platform to prevent any interactions, however in this case this teacher may have not had the knowledge and skills to block and cut contact with these pupils and still use social media.

The knowledge of some of these preventative steps is shown by the following participant, drawing on the cooperative power that can be provided by staff with mutual support from staff accepting and cooperative power, supporting the participants norms and rules for social media use. “No picture. I don't post and generally avoid having photos in social situations. I have asked friends not to tag or to use a photo I'm not in.” – Male Teacher, 37 Years. This practice is a preventative measure, avoiding and limiting the teacher’s exposure online.

However, avoidant strategies are not always implemented straight away, as the following quote supports, some teachers may show a resilience to pupil connections through social media due to a sense of their own protective and cooperative power transferring from the physical space in the classroom to the digital space. “Suspended my Facebook account when a pupil tried to friend me for 6 months.” – Female Teacher, 31 Years.

The above responses highlight the concerns of teachers while using social media, taking steps to limit their interactions with pupils in their own personal spaces online, moving on from Terry’s (1998) concerns that teachers would not be able to
remove themselves from the social constrains which are presented by the school context.

However, these personal and professional boundaries may overlap, limiting the ability to implement avoidance, positive school communities are those which are accepting of difference and promote healthy relationships to reduce bullying behaviour and affect the overall functioning of a school (Cohen et al., 2015; Berkowitz et al., 2017). As such the personal and professional relationships of staff within this community may also be limited as highlighted by the quote below. “My daughter plays sport with some of my students. The sport uses Facebook. They can look at my page and I can look at theirs, but I don't access them. It's a bit awkward” – Female Teacher, 55 Years.

This teacher is not only aware of the constraints of the community but accepts that there will be an overlap of as her own child is a part of the school community, and that in this case the participant is not only a teacher in the community but also a parent which further overlaps the professional and personal life of the participant. In this case accepting that this overlap exists, may enable the teacher to be more resilient to communication but still highlights the social awkwardness of the interaction.

In contrast to the teacher above there is still not a consistent method employed by teachers in their use of social media and how to create professional boundaries so school staff can also prevent negative experiences. The quote below highlights that some teachers employ a clear preventative method, in this case to avoid being identified by pupils this teacher removed them self from Facebook entirely, “I don’t have any social media accounts. I deleted my Facebook when I started teaching as I did not want students accessing it” – Female Teacher, 46 Years. While these methods may be effective for some teachers more guidance and support may be needed to aid teachers,
particularly to improve their resilience to negative experiences and interactions, moving to our second minor theme for resilience, which appeared throughout participant data, specifically teachers’ responses and attitudes.

Similarly, to pupils who have negative experiences online, teachers may also not view once of incidents which can be shared to be cyberbullying behaviour. Such as the quote below, which shows the mild impact the experience had and the teacher’s resilient method of coping and disassociation from the incident. “A once off incident that caused distress, I wouldn't classify it as cyberbullying, but I stopped looking after that!” – Female Teacher, 32 Years. It may be inferred that this participant’s own confidence and coping with their experience may be due to their own experience, personal attributes or additional supports, further exploration is needed as these individuals and their experiences may vary depending on the situation.

Furthering the insight above, teachers also blurred their own personal and professional boundaries on social media, similarly to quantitative data which showed participants interaction with pupils on social media for personal reasons. Qualitative responses also supported these findings as some participants justified interacting with their pupils on social media while also rationalising these connections seen in the following quote - “The don’t accept student Facebook requests until left school and then only accept those I know well” – Female Teacher, 50 Years.

While other participants take an oppositional approach to maintain their personal and professional boundaries, including regulating their professional regulation, “By deleting staff members who are connected to those students and parents. By blocking suggested friends as they appear and by making everything on my profile private so that even if they look for me, the most they'll see is my profile picture and
that's it.” – Female Teacher, 32 Years. In this example we see a participant who’s coping extends to regulation of their professional connections on personal networks if it reduces the risks their own exposure to either their pupils or parents.

In contrast to the above, other participant teachers showed their lack of concern with personal and professional boundaries due to social media as some participants highlighted their disinterest in other pupils believing they will not be interested in interacting with them due to the content of their social media. In addition to this believing that students will similarly not have an interest in them due to the content of their social media. “My social media activities wouldn't interest them unless they are interested in debating educational topics or random pics of trees” – Female Teacher – 45 Years.

Furthermore, participant resilience was also shown through their responses to negative experiences with other school staff, consistent with the responses used with pupils, the following avoidant strategies and pressure may impact on their personal and professional reputations in individual and group conversations with staff. “I recently deleted Viber as a member of a group chat implied something negative about some staff members who were not in our group. I see this as bullying behaviour and do not wish to be a part of it.

Also, the school has no decent policy on social media but was using Viber as a means of formal communication which they were told was wrong and a breach of data protection (naming students) but people, including me were pressured to join it even though we expressly said that we would stick to the staff email” – Female Teacher – 32 Years. Further to this teacher’s regulation of their online connections they also highlighting their own concerns for personal and professional boundaries, through
breaches in data protection as well as work pressures seen through work based social media interactions, rather than the more accepted formal method of communication through email.

The concerns raised by participants in relation to their personal reputations and boundaries was also identified through the third minor theme, privacy and security concerns. The initial privacy concerns displayed by teachers also supported quantitative findings as teachers discussed using their maiden or married names for social media showing these initial concerns for privacy. “using my married name, they are unaware of” – Female Teacher – 38 Years.

While other participants also highlighted their awareness and concerns for their own privacy evaluating that they may be connected to their own pupils through their children. “would not befriend my own teenagers on Facebook as they would be friends with my students.” – Female Teacher – 46 Years. This participant shows their own knowledge about the potential connections that may be made between their social media and their pupils through others. Further to this some teachers devise their own personal and professional boundaries further setting criteria for acceptable interaction, “don’t accept student Facebook requests until they left the school” – Female Teacher, 50 Years.

While other teachers display more concerns for their privacy, which may be seen to connect to the participants’ knowledge and confidence in technological tools. “I don’t use my own picture so as to avoid students recognising it. I don’t specify where I work on my profile. You can only see my profile if you are a friend of mine. My profile is not public.” – Female Teacher, 41 Years. The privacy concerns shown by participants also extended into their own networks, considering the privacy of those that they are
connected to. In particular regulating the contacts if they believe they increase their potential to have their personal and professional life impacted by another’s social media usage. “By deleting staff members who are connected to those students and parents. By blocking suggested friends as they appear and by making everything on my profile private so that even if they look for me, the most they'll see is my profile picture and that's it.” – Female Teacher, 32 Years.

While other participant reactions to their privacy concerns are focused on their own personal regulation when their pupils attempt to interact with them on social media, “I use a different name on ig and I went private when I noticed students had attempted to follow me. On Facebook I have no information re my workplace.” – Female Teacher – 48 Years. While other teachers take a more preventative approach implementing their own personal regulation methods, through confidence in their own knowledge and skills.

In addition to this preventative approach the participant regulates the potential for interaction with others who they are not directly connected to using the features of social media sites aimed to connect users with one another, “Everything is for friends only and only friends of friends can send a friend request now. Any student who comes up in "people you may know" or who sends me a friend request gets blocked.” – Female Teacher, 35 Years.

Further participants also discussed their privacy concerns displaying their truest and use of regulation tools, altering the publicity of their profiles, altering their name and limiting search capabilities. “Make my profile totally private, make sure when my name is googled that no photos of me come up. Change my name on all accounts so I cannot be found.” – Male Teacher, 57 Years. All of these tools enable participants to
take a more preventative approach to their social media use and potential for negative experiences online.

The overlapping theme for personal and professional boundaries identified was reputation. The personal and professional reputation of participants can be seen throughout this theme so far, as the majority of actions taken by participants in relation to their personal and professional boundaries appear to originate in their concerns for their reputation from a personal or professional perspective.

The concerns for a teacher’s reputation may be seen in their use of social media and concerns for what is posted “I always have to think twice before submitting a post or check in status, regarding my privacy settings on such posts.” – Female Teacher, 34 Years, or from a more ethical personal perspective in their specific conduct online “You must remember to conduct yourself online as you would professionally- takes the personal element away from sites like Facebook” – Female Teacher, 31 Years. While other participant concerns included the fear of what may happen through their own or others social media use “Fear of incriminating pictures” – Male Teacher, 33 Years.

Furthermore, participants’ general concerns for their reputation in their everyday use of social media and the potential interactions with pupils or their parents may also be a concern for their own reputation. “As even though I don't often post anything on social media I am always conscious that students or parents may gain access to see it through other people they are friends with and I feel that I am very limited in what I can do on social media.” – Female Teacher, 38 Years. These participant concerns for their reputation may also be linked to a lack of knowledge or skills in the platforms they use an uncertainty appears to originate in a lack of technological skill.
However other participants who display an understanding of the platforms they are using also highlight concerns for their own personal and professional reputation which may be due to the overlap between online platforms and daily life. “As a teacher that does not live too far from my school there is a crossover of me knowing friends or family members of students. I am conscious that any material posted could be seen by student who know people who I have approved to follow me etc. I am also very cautious that many follow requests on Instagram are fake profiles made by students that pose as people who I could possibly know. Vigilance is essential.” – Female Teacher, 42 Years.

These concerns for some teachers are warranted as others highlight the impact and damage which can be caused to either a personal or professional reputation as a teacher who is the target of a cyberbullying image, comment, or other material can often not respond or react to the incident as they may not know who is the source of the posting, feeding into the aspects of the disinhibition effect (Suler, 2004), were the potential to be anonymous may increase the frequency of negative communications as seen by this teachers response – “It is very upsetting, it is also very embarrassing to read nasty comments written about you, with no chance to defend yourself and no means of finding out who is responsible.” – Female Teacher, 48 Years.

While other teachers discuss the impact, which responding may have on a teachers personal or professional reputation as “You can't respond ... and many may make assumptions that negative and false statements have grounds” – Female Teacher, 32 Years. This response also supports the need to create procedures which can provide teachers with support to investigate and resolve allegations. However, as this comment also highlights, assumptions which are made have an impact on an individual’s reputation even if they have now factual basis.
The second aspect of the fluidity of cyberbullying presented by participants were their own considerations of professional boundaries, these were also deemed to stem from attitudinal responses such as ethical issues, appropriate use of the mediums, work/life balance of the participants due to their technology use and the actions which they take to maintain these professional boundaries, mainly restricting access.

While some participants above may have used technology to interact with pupils for personal reasons, many participants displayed clear boundaries for the appropriate use of technology for interacting with pupils. These teachers also varied from using professional traditional methods of communication “Only my school email and students school email, never personal email.” – Female Teacher, 35 Years.

Other participants did use other methods such as Instagram as an educational tool to engage with pupils “Instagram – I have a separate ID account where students can access French material. Phrases, vocabulary, marking schemes etc.” – Female Teacher, 28 Years. The new engagement methods presented by social media, may allow teachers such as the above to discuss not only the curriculum but as Gleeson (2014) states, make digital technology use more amalgamated in the curriculum and through a collaborative approach discuss its appropriate use.

While participant’s similarly use social media as an instructional tool, “I have an Instagram page for my subject area. Students sometimes comment or like the picture. Generally, pictures of the work they did in class (all students have to sign consent form for picture to be taken. - Female Teacher, 32 Years. Furthering the use of social media shown by the teacher who uses it for their French lessons, this teacher uses it to disseminate class content further and promotes interaction with pupils. This teacher appears to understand the application of using social media as a positive tool in the
classroom however instigates clear professional boundaries for appropriate use, requiring consent forms for photos to be shared. This is a positive approach taken by this teacher as it not only ensures the teacher and school are protected from a procedural perspective, but also role models the positive role of consent when taking photos of others in the school community following Harrisons (2016) approach to foster technological norms for pupils and prevent negative behaviours online.

In contrast to this, a 42-Year-old Female Teacher, who actively choose to avoid using social media for educational instruction in addition to personal interactions. “I do not interact with pupils; I don’t teach through any form of social media”. This teacher emphasises her own concerns for the use of social media in the classroom including the risk to her own personal interactions. In this statement the participant displays their own negative attitude towards interacting with their pupils and its potential impact on their professional reputation.

While the participants above display either positive or negative approaches to use social media within education, others chose to actively avoid their pupils online even though they are aware of their own potential publicity “I will only use my school email address (however this includes my first name and surname).” – Male Teacher – 57 Years.

This participant conveys their own potential exposure online, understanding that their identifiable data is present in email. Many participants are in a similar circumstance as their own personal and professional email may be included in email communications, increasing their potential online exposure not only to pupils but other members of the school community.
In addition to participant attitudes towards the appropriate use of technology and social media in the classroom, may participants raised issues from an ethical perspective, deriving the next area of focus as ethical issues. Some participants raised the concerns to the general use of social media and technology “I do not use any more as I think technology is too prevalent in our lives. – Female Assistant Principal, 63 Years. This participant raises clear concerns about her own use on social media and her own active choice to reduce its impact on her personal and professional life.

Ethical issues raised by participants also included the potential impact of social media interactions with members of the school community, such as “There is a danger that your personal views could be exposed e.g. pro-choice, pro-LGBT rights” – Female Teacher, 29 Years. The overlap shown here, between the participants concerns that their own personal views which may be shared through social media by others in the school community can have a negative impact on a teachers’ professional life.

Further to the instructional advantages that social media can add to the classroom, participants are still concerned for their own ethical use of these technologies for instruction. “I have an Instagram page for my subject area. Students sometimes comment or like the picture. Generally, pictures of the work they did in class (all students have to sign consent form for picture to be taken. - Female Teacher, 32 Years. While the quote above highlights the advantages, this teacher is particularly concerned to not only protect their personal reputation for social media use but also to ensure there is an ethical boundary between pupils. In some cases, the ethical issues which are presented by participants to maintain their personal and professional boundary result in an avoidance of using social media entirely “closed a Facebook a/c when two students wanted to friend me” – Male Teacher, 61 Years.
In other cases, participants highlight their own ethical boundary which extends from their school community to their own family as in this case the participant avoids connecting with their own children as this may leave them exposed or connected to their own pupils also “Would not befriend my own teenagers on Facebook as they would be friends with my students.” – Female Teacher, 42 Years.

While other participants have their own guidelines for when they interact with pupils, for this Female Teacher not accepting any pupils until they have left the school, setting their own guideline for interacting with current pupils while allowing interaction after they have moved from the school community “don’t accept student Facebook requests until left school and then only accept those” – Female Teacher - 48 Years.

The two examples above illustrate that while some teachers choose to internally regulate their own connections and interactions with pupils on social media, others have more rigid approaches to their social media regulation. In this case choosing to not only establish their own norms for social media use but also imposing these on other school staff “By deleting staff members who are connected to those students and parents” – Female Teacher – 32 Years. The use of this preventative approach to regulate their own social media is also seen in other participant data, as some teachers actively aim to avoid pupils as they do not wish to have any interaction or to be found by their pupils “Any student who comes up in "people you may know" or who sends me a friend request gets blocked.” Female Teacher – 35 Years.

Many participants’ personal ethical values result in some form of regulation to their personal and professional connections on social media, many participant responses were also identified and coded for restricting access as either a prevention or intervention method. Participants discussed the various means which they would use to
restrict access to their profiles such as altering their privacy to limit their publicity to others “Changed my privacy settings so only my friends could see my content” – Female Assistant Principal – 41 Years. While others altered their profile information in an attempt to prevent their pupils from identifying them from their name, altering it Irish or using a married name. “Changed my username to make it more difficult to find me on Facebook” – Female Teacher, 34 Years, and “using married name, they (pupils) are unaware of.” – Female Teacher, 38 Years.

Furthering the methods above other teachers highlight their use of technological tools to choosing in some cases to leave social media for a period, “Suspended my Facebook account when a pupil tried to friend me for 6 months” – Female Teacher, 24 Years. While similar actions were taken by this participant as a preventative method to restrict access to their social media before teaching “I don’t have any social media accounts. I deleted my Facebook when I started teaching as I did not want students accessing it’” – Female Teacher, 46 Years. While other teachers prevent pupils from being to sending friend requests entirely such as this 55-year-old Teacher “Changes my name on social media and made it so that pupils cannot send me friend requests. While other participants employed a preventative approach to avoid interacting with pupils online to maintain their professional and personal boundaries through the regulation of friends and friend requests – “As a teacher that does not live too far from my school there is a crossover of me knowing friends or family members of students. I am conscious that any material posted could be seen by student who know people who I have approved to follow me etc. I am also very cautious that many follow requests on Instagram are fake profiles made by students that pose as people who I could possibly know. Vigilance is essential.” – Female Teacher – 42 Years. This teacher highlights her own personal and professional boundaries with social media, showing her own concerns
as her own community is a small one, and as a result of this her online community is also interconnected. The teacher however follows the same ethical values discussed above by regulating and avoiding posing content that her pupils may see, not only through direct connection but through shared or mutual connections. Further to this the teacher highlights the potential risks or barriers to this avoidance with fake profiles being created, potentially by students to gain access to the teacher’s personal social media account. Although this teachers profile restrictions, awareness and vigilance are important to protect themselves online, it does highlight the concerns and issues created by the integration of social media within the school community.

All of the issues and concerns raised by teachers above impose on a teachers’ ability to separate their professional and personal spaces online and offline as may raise their own concerns and voice these pressures on their work/life balance – “Because you know the students look you up and you can’t be yourself” – Female Teacher – 53 Years. These issues however do not only occur between a pupil and teacher, social media was also identified to impact on the social relationships between school staff working and social lives. “If a group of teachers go out and don't invite our table (different groups of friends, no major overlap, some are asked, some aren't, who cares... we also go out from time to time and do not invite others, so I see it as normal, some people are friends and some aren't, we don't hate each other or anything. BUT SOME of those at my table will screenshot a tagged photo of an individual or group of those out for the night and comment on our not being invited.)” Female Teacher, 32 Years.

In the excerpt above we can see the social pressures which occur within any working environment, whereby a group of colleagues socialise together after their working day. The participant highlights that in all workplaces, some colleagues socialise due to personal connections, similar interests etc. However, the introduction of
social media in these interactions creates issues for this teachers personal and professional boundaries as her attempts to socialise with certain colleagues is viewed on social media and commented on negatively by those who may not have been invited to attend, resulting in this particular teacher potentially feeling as if she has deliberately excluded other staff.

While other staff members experience negative situations online which then impact on their personal and professional lives, resulting in a negative impact on their working life “A pupil sent me a very inappropriate private message through Facebook. It was a pupil I was teaching but they used a fake account. I told my school vice principal and the year head at the time. They did nothing as it was outside school hours. I contacted the Gardaí. They said they would look into it. I heard nothing back from them.” – Female Teacher, 41 Years.

This teachers’ experiences in the classroom while they occurred in an online format have a significant impact, showing a lack of trust in school management but also in the Gardaí as after they reported it the participants is surprised by the lack of support and communication by the school.

Other school staffs working life balance are also effected by the cyberbullying of teachers, as this participant is effected not only by the impact of their victimisation but also seeks support from their principal and union due to its impact on their health. “Headteacher and union as it was effecting my work and health” – Female Teacher, 32 Years. This however does also show the positive impact which can be made by participants who experience victimisation, seeking support from those who can provide it.
The above theme discussed for the fluidity of cyberbullying above displays the personal and professional issues which are raised by teachers, and also their potential response to this intrusion and overlap in the working lives. Often teachers choose to avoid or ignore pupil attempts at communication, instigating their own privacy and security interventions for their own networks and the networks of others in some cases to limit their exposure to pupils.

Tall of the above may impact a teachers personal and professional reputation, creating further ethical issues for discussion by teachers on the appropriate use of technology in the classroom, restricting access in some cases to ensure that a positive work/life balance is maintained. Many of these aspects relate to the next major themes derived from participant responses, influencing their actions and behaviour, this theme is technology attitudes.
4.8.3 Technology Attitudes

The third theme which was derived from participant responses was termed the technology attitudes. This theme considers the participants’ attitudes towards technology and the two minor themes of positive or negative attitudes towards technology. These two minor themes were grounded in several codes. Positive codes included: stress relief and the use of technology as an educational tool. While negative codes included classroom challenges, associated pressure, cyberbullying, personal intrusion, worry and concerns and a lack of trust in technology. See figure 29 below.

![Technology Attitudes Diagram](image-url)

**Figure 29 – Technology Attitudes**
Participant attitudes towards technology use was divided into the two categories above (positive and negative), beginning with positive attitudes, participants discussed how social media and technology could be implemented for stress relief. While discussing if social media causes stress, this Female Teacher (45 Years) stated “It does the opposite, being able to easily keep up to date, form PLN, share my opinion decreases teacher stress” this was also supported by another Female Teacher (24 Years) who in relation to her own social media use stated “its [social media] a stress reliever for me”. These two responses provide interesting insights into the perspective of teachers using social media as we can see the differing ages and responses by the two. The first participant highlights that she uses social media to keep up to date with connections, make plans with others and voice her opinion, providing this teacher with a social support network to share with other likeminded individuals. The second participants’ response while not descriptive supports the first’s response stating that it also provides her with a source of stress relief. While research on the use of social media and stress relief is still being conducted, Rideout and Fox (2018) discussed the connections between social media use and wellbeing of teens and young adults, identifying that social media neither increased or decreased participants stress levels. Further work specifically with teachers in this area is needed.

Further positive attitudes discussed by teachers included the use of technology as an educational tool in their classes. The first of these which was discussed previously in relation to the ethical use of social media in the classroom was raised by a 32-Year-old Female Teacher, “I have an Instagram page for my subject area. Students sometimes comment or like the picture. Generally, pictures of the work they did in class…” This was also seen by another participant who uses Instagram to engage with pupils, “..I have a separate IG account where students can access French material.
Phrases, vocabulary, marking schemes etc” - Female Teacher, 28 Years. These two participants view the use of social media not as a challenge in the classroom but understand that it can be implemented positively in their instruction as an educational too. These two applications of social media use as instructional tools provide a novel insight into how popular social media applications can be used in the classroom.

Many participants identified concerns for their privacy in both positive and negative contexts mainly being derived from a fear of intrusion or cyberbullying for those who were concerned. The negative attitudes towards technology included issues within the classroom ranging from pupils recording teachers during instruction, or where cyberbullying which happens outside of school permeates into the classroom. The first of this issues noted by a Female Teacher (54 Years) “A lot if the bullying, particularly between girls occurs on social media. This then overflows into school life and has to be dealt with. Parents often ignore their children's internet use and we have to deal with the consequences.” Identifying the overlapping nature of cyberbullying behaviour, as when negative experiences occur online for pupils this in turn has an impact on the teacher and wider school climate to resolve the relationships between pupils which is time consuming for school staff.

Several participants in this research also identified that they experienced the cyberbullying tactic of exposure, whereby students record or take photos of their teachers during class, with some stating “Photo of me taking without my consent during class time and subsequently posted on Facebook” –Male Teacher, 61 Years.

“Uploading snapchat videos and photos taken behind your back in class” – Female Teacher, 53 Years. These forms of cyberbullying behaviour create further challenges within the classroom, pressuring the teacher during the course of their work in addition to their impact as cyberbullying behaviours.
Further negative attitudes towards technology use was also discussed by participants in relation to the pressures which may create for them, the first of these in relation to expectations for communication as some stated they “sometimes feel stressed, too many WhatsApp messages” – Female Teacher, 26 Years. While other teachers hold negative attitudes towards social networking from the pressure to accept friend requests “When I get verbal abuse for not accepting friend requests” – Female Teacher, 40 Years. In contrast to this, others showing their unhappiness when others don’t accept requests they have sent to others, “other staff members not accepting friend requests” Female Teacher, 31 Years, who may be unhappy by a lack of interaction or acceptance of her peers online. Furthering these comments, other participants highlighted their own unhappiness due to a pressure to interact on social media by their schools “the school has no decent policy on social media but was using Viber as a means of formal communication which they were told was wrong and a breach of data protection (naming students) but people, including me were pressured to join it even though we expressly said that we would stick to the staff email” – Female Teacher, 32 Years. This was also raised as a negative attitude towards the pressures place by another teachers’ school to interact on Twitter more “Expectation of linking everything with twitter. We’re a very social media driven school.” - Female Teacher, 43 Years.

The teachers above highlighted the general pressures they face to interact on social media on behalf of the school but also in their individual personal interactions to connect and communicate with other teachers. Other participants conveyed the pressures they feel due to the potential exposure of their online profiles to parents and pupils due to unsecure accounts of other teachers that they are connected too “Worried about privacy and if students can find me mainly through another teacher whose
privacy settings aren't high and students can find the rest of the staff through 1 or 2 weak privacy profiles” discussed by a 57-year-old Male Teacher.

Further negative attitudes were also conveyed by teachers who experienced cyberbullying such as “Students sending vile messages or creating fake accounts to access other teachers’ accounts” – Female Teacher, 31 Years. However as quantitative finds identified these are however not always conducted by one of their own pupils as “A teacher/teachers from within my own union have used fake and/or faceless accounts to say horrible things to me and call me names.” - Female Teacher, 35 Years. These experiences portrayed by teachers highlight the impacts on a teachers personal life but also their attitude towards technology, while other participants negative attitudes originate in the intrusions into their personal lives and often result in avoidance. Such as this 57-year-old Male Teacher who when he realised pupils began to add him removed himself from the platform entirely “Suspended my Facebook account when a pupil tried to friend me for 6 months.” As another teacher also discusses the impact of this behaviours intrusion as “They have ways of getting at you personally, in your private life.” – Female Teacher, 42 Years, showing that even though these professional and personal boundaries should be present pupils will still aim to effect a teachers’ private life if it is possible to do so electronically. As another Female Teacher (32 Years) discussed the impact which anonymity can heighten, “Wondering who else is there/involved/has seen- no limit to how far it reaches/has reached.”

The negative attitudes towards social media and cyberbullying was also highlighted in the worries and concerns raised by participants in data. Firstly, participants alter their social media on a continuous basis, and with this participant being generally concerned with what data they post online and its accessibility by students “I don't use my own picture in my profile so as to avoid students recognising it.
I don't specify where I work on my profile. You can only see my profile if you are a friend of mine. My profile is not public” – Female Teacher, 41 Years. While other teachers show concerns for their real world behaviour being shared online with others “No picture. I don't post and generally avoid having photos in social situations. I have asked friends not to tag or to use a photo I'm not in.” – Female Teacher, 54 Years.

The participants above show their general concerns for their own privacy acknowledging that their social media activity may be public and avoiding student interaction through limiting the publicity of their profiles and the profiles in which they are tagged in to limit the attention drawn to their own social media profiles. Many of these negative attitudes may stem from a general lack of trust in either social media companies and platforms or technology, some of these participant responses included negatively evaluated responses by teachers “Reported it to Google buy it was not deemed ‘bullying’ by them” Female Teacher – 32 Years. In some cases, this lack of trust in social media is exacerbated by a lack of power and knowledge by the participant in their situation also “The deliberate and underhand nature is intimidating, hard to prevent further bullying. social media providers are not helpful when contacted about bullying” - Female Teacher, 26 Years.

Overall participant attitudes towards technology are generally positive as highlighted above some use social media for stress relief or as engaging educational tools. While participants held more negative attitudes towards technology use overall raising concerns over the challenges they pose in the classroom during instruction, the pressure to use social media to engage and of course participants cyberbullying experiences. Additional negative concerns include the teacher’s attitudes towards technology intruding on their personal lives while others voice their concerns and worries, and in some cases a general mistrust in the platforms and providers.
4.8.4 Attribution

The fourth theme which was derived from participant responses was termed attribution, relating to the attribution of blame for their own cyberbullying experiences. This theme considers the participant’s considerations for victimisation as pupil and parental causes and their associated help-seeking behaviour. These two minor themes were grounded in several codes. Pupil and Parental codes included: trust and confidence in management and a lack of general support. While help-seeking codes included engagement and support and job-related help-seeking. These themes and codes can be seen in Figure 30 below.

![Figure 30 – Attribution of Blame](image-url)
The first of the themes for the attribution of blame identified from participant data was the pupil and parental cause of a teacher victimisation. Such as the first example where the participant blames the pupils for their behaviour, disassociating themselves from their victimisation “Alerted principal…these students were already troublesome and the lead student was a daughter of the chairperson of the BOM” – Female Teacher, 47 Years.

In this example the participant already highlights the potential negative attitude held towards the pupils, terming them as troublesome, further stating that the lead student was the daughter of the chairperson of the school’s board of management. In this scenario however the teacher was victimised online by these pupils, the teacher may have sought support from the principal in the first instance because of these pupil’s previous reputation. This teacher may have also sought support from management as they had trust and faith in their principal to address the situation or a positive relationship with management (O’Donnell & MacIntosh, 2016; Berkowitz et al., 2017).

Further support in management was shown by other participants who also sought support from their school principal and the Gardai, in one instance the management of a school identifying an incident before a teacher was aware. “The management of the school were the ones who found out about the post and altered me, it was about me but not sent to me. As such I did not need to tell anyone as the matter was in hand.” – Female Teacher – 30 Years. In this case the teacher shows their trust and confidence in management and similarly to the participant above, their faith that the school could investigate and resolve the incident. Other incidents were teachers may also have attributed blame to the pupil’s behaviour include “Informed management as comments also mentioned other staff” – Female Teacher – 29 Years, in this case dissociating themselves as the sole target by this pupil requiring management to act.
Some teachers did not solely hold students responsible for their negative behaviours commenting on the role of the parent “Most students are grand. Some students can cause huge problems for their teachers. Often poor parenting exacerbates problems. This makes life very difficult and stressful for their teachers.” – Female Teacher, 41 Years. In this excerpt the teacher focuses in on how it is not all pupils who misbehave in the school climate but a small cohort, in this case the teacher blames what they define as poor parenting for some of these problems and viewing this as then a responsibility for the teacher to fix. Other parents were also viewed to view parents as a source of stress for not only teachers but also their own children “Parents are the biggest cause of stress both to teachers and their children.” – Female Teacher, 47 Years.

However, some participants also highlighted their own dissatisfaction with the support they receive such as this 47-year-old female teacher who stated “School Management do not deal with bullying effectively” who is unhappy with the support received by their school in relation to their own victimisation. Further to this, participants blamed pupils for their behaviour focusing in on their lack of resources to deal with the situation. “Students have huge issues regulating their emotions towards staff and fellow students. I, even as a GC [guidance counsellor], don’t always feel equipped to tackle such an enormous undertaking.” Female Guidance Counsellor, 32 Years.

This lack of support also extended beyond the school community to the Department of Education and Skills as this 44-year-old Guidance Counsellor stated “it would be good practise if DES recommendations were followed in the allocation and provision of resources” in this statement the teacher appears to be critical of the lack of support received to deal with bullying recommending more resources and training are needed to provide teachers with more ability to reduce bullying. While other
Participants focus in on the need for schools to receive more resources to aid them to support parents to teach parents about their child’s online behaviour. “Schools need huge resources to teach about preventing cyber bullying, but parents need even more help. Parents are oblivious to what their children are actually doing online” – Male Teacher, 33 Years. In this response the teacher is further supporting the findings of McGuire and O’Higgins Norman (2016), as they identified that the majority of parents in their research did not monitor the social networking behaviours or device use of their adolescent children.

Participants frustrations due to the lack of resources is echoed by school management participants and in this case believing they receive less support in their own role than teachers in their school do “The role of principal is very different to that of a teacher and there is less support for the principal than the teacher” – Male Principal, 39 Years. While some participants felt the need for more supports for them and their schools’ other participants recommended the need for further guidelines to increase the support for teachers if they are victimised. In the exert below the teacher details the need not only for policy but the impact which a lack of policy had on their experience.

“I do think a set of guidelines needs to be created for management to follow when an incident of a student bullying a staff member online occurs. When it happened to me, I wasn't taken seriously, and they made it appear that it was my problem not a school problem for having a Facebook in which a student could contact me. At the time my principal contacted ETB and there was no guideline for him to follow. I could only myself refer him onto a document titled ACCS, ASTI and TUI Code of Practice for Processing Complaints made by Parents / Guardians of Students (who have reached the age of 18 years) against a Teacher in Community and Comprehensive Schools. I felt
that it wasn't my role to have to refer my management onto that document. The complaint was only taken seriously when another member of my staff was contacted by the same student through the same medium. This time the messages were even cruder and more lewd. It was an extremely distressing time for me in my teaching career. I didn't feel safe at the time as I didn't know which student it was (they set up a fake profile using a different students name in the school). I still do not think I am 100% the same teacher since the event and neither is the other female teacher in which this happened to.” – Female Teacher, 25 Years.

The unfortunate case above highlights the lack of initial support received by the teacher, and lack of action taken by the school due to this. The incident not only effected the teacher’s role within the school but their perceptions of the school climate and their relationships with management as a result. The lack of support highlighted by participants to resolve incidents was also directed towards external supports stating a lack of support from external agencies as well as the Gardai “I had two very serious incidents of harassment of teachers on social media and had no support whatsoever from any agency. The matter was not resolved despite huge concerns. The school did the best we could. The Gardai were contacted but were unhelpful to say the least.” – Female Principal, 50 Years.

These cases which lack clear policy and support from internal and external agencies illustrate the difficult situations that some teachers experience as they are not only victimised by a pupil or other member of the school community but then face a lack of support to resolve their victimisation. However, in addition to the help seeking behaviour discussed through-out this section many participants sought support from spouses, friends and school management to resolve the issues that they encountered.
4.9 Conclusion

The findings of this research present some unique findings into the social networking behaviour of teachers. According to this research twelve participants interacted with their pupils on social media using their own personal social networking profiles, in contrast to other teachers who used school social media accounts or those who didn’t interact with their students through social networking. It may be said that the teachers who do interact with their pupils through their own social media are engaging in a level of risk, allowing pupils or other members of the school community to be aware of their personal information outside of school. These behaviours are in contrast to the Code of Professional Conduct for Teachers (The Teaching Council, 2016), which states that teachers should seek to be ethical in their role as a teacher. In doing so, the must take all reasonable steps in relation to care of pupils under their supervision in regard to their safety and welfare while working within a framework of legislation and complying with school and national policy to ensure child protection.

This finding was also echoed through the qualitative findings of this research as participants portrayed a sense of helplessness due to the viral nature of cyberbullying, their lack of control in incidents and concerns for their own privacy. Further teachers, guidance counsellors and principals also advocated for further legislation to support teachers in their role and prevent their victimisation.

However, while teachers are required to ensure that any communication with their pupils is appropriate by email, texting and social networking, current procedures do not provide a guideline for what is and is not acceptable between pupils and their teachers. The implications of these social media findings will be discussed in the following chapter along with the cyberbullying findings which identified that post-primary teachers in Ireland are cyberbullied predominantly by their pupils, followed by
parents and other members of the school community. However, it is also important to acknowledge the limited generalisation which can be made due to small levels of cyberbullying in some groups. Participants who were cyberbullied also stated that the cyberbullying tactic of exposure was seen as the most harmful when compared to traditional bullying, with slight variations occurring with other cyberbullying tactics. In addition to this several teachers sought support in or outside of school, unexpectedly in contrast to other research the predominant method was to speak to management, while several sought no support at all.

Significant differences were also identified for the school climate perceptions of victimised and non-victimised teachers. This study hypothesised, based on previous school climate and cyberbullying research, that teachers who were victimised would report significantly lower scores than non-victimised teachers. This was supported across the majority of school climate domains. In the next chapter, the implications of these results will be discussed and compared to the existing research on the cyberbullying of teachers to provide further comparisons internationally. The merits of this research will be addressed and drawing recommendations for not only future research but also what steps are needed in education and workplace policy to support Irish teachers will be outlined.
5. Discussion

In this chapter, the research findings gathered from five hundred and seventy seven post-primary teachers will be discussed and evaluated, in relation to teachers’ social networking behaviours, cyberbullying by members of the school community and how this affected their attitudes towards school climate when compared to non-cyberbullied teachers from the quantitative and qualitative findings. The first section will focus on the research questions and hypotheses of this research, after which the main research findings will be discussed, evaluated according to the aims of this research and to existing research in the field.

The third section of this discussion chapter focuses on the strengths of the current research and the limitations evident during the course of the study. Following the discussion of the strengths and limitations, this chapter will conclude with two sections focusing on how this study may inform future research to be conducted, closing with a final discussion of the research conclusions.
5.1 Summary of findings

5.1.1 Phone Use

This research firstly examined the phone use of teachers in and outside of school, along with the social networks and participants’ awareness and use of privacy tools. This aim followed the initial social media use questions, focusing on how participants use their social media, the platforms they use, who they interact with but also what awareness of privacy tools they currently have.

Phone use in and outside of school presented unexpected findings as over half of participants used their phone in class. This was often for a functional reason either relating to work (i.e. contacting another teacher or to take the attendance). However a minority of participants also stated that they would use their phone for personal reasons, including contacting family and social media use. While there are occasions where it is acceptable to use a phone in class for personal reasons we should also focus on the role model behaviour that teachers are expected to provide to their pupils (Department of Education and Skills, 2013b).

Research by Cross et al., (2015) and Twemlow et al., (2006), supports the application of Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1986) to this situation, as learning is influenced by environmental factors of the individual, in this case pupils observing their teacher using their device in class which may be contrary to their current task. However policy is changing, and the Department of Education and Skills (2018b), has called for a new digital strategy for schools, whereby management must now consult with parents, teachers and pupils on acceptable uses of phones and tablets to support their education. Unfortunately this strategy has not yet been implemented, however research with post-primary and university students has highlighted that while benefits for education and
engagement using these devices exists, educators must address challenges such as
distraction and use mutually agreed rules (Anshari, Almunawar, Shahrill, Wicaksono &
Huda, 2017).

Research focusing on the introduction of smartphones and tablets in higher
education by Sundgren (2017) has also identified that while there are advantages to the
introduction of these devices, the second most common use was to communicate on
social media, of which Facebook was the most prominent. Facebook was the second
most frequently used social networking site by participants in this research, which is
supported by national usage statistics (IPOS, 2017). While teachers in this research use
Facebook frequently, more research is needed with pupils to identify the social
networking they use and if they use these platforms to contact teachers. The
current research would advise that in addition to the new digital strategy for education,
clear boundaries between social and educational internet use are established between
teachers and their pupils. As more than half of participants in this research were
cyberbullied through social media, these rules would support a reduction in both the
unwanted intrusion on a teachers’ private life by others and any potential risk of
cyberbullying.

While these new policies for the use of technology in the classroom may not
reduce adolescent cyberbullying or the cyberbullying of teachers on their own they
support the promotion of a positive school culture and climate, as outlined in the Anti-
Bullying Procedures for Primary and Post-Primary Schools (Department of Education
and Skills, 2013b). Recommendations for digital training will be discussed later in the
implications section of this chapter.
5.1.2 Online Prevention Tools

As more than half of victimised teachers in this research were victimised on social media, it is important to consider the tools which participants use to increase their privacy and prevent threats online. Supporting this research, online prevention awareness may be consistent across cultures as Chou and Chou (2016) also identified that teachers who are aware of potential risks online are more likely to engage in preventative measures online. Advancing the work of Chou and Chou (2016), this current research focused firstly on participants’ knowledge of these tools, their implementation and ease of use. Two main methods emerged from the survey: (1) increasing their privacy settings on social networking sites; and (2) using anti-virus software on their computers. An unexpected finding for online prevention tools was a significant number of participants stating they altered their name to Irish on their profiles, this provides and interesting insight which may be specific to Irish post-primary teachers.

While the qualitative analysis of this research also identified that teachers interacted with their pupils on social media for educational purposes others highlighted the impact which intrusions on their privacy had, blurring the lines between personal and professional lives in the school community. However, further qualitative analysis into why teachers alter their profiles in this way would be beneficial to this area to understand the motives behind these changes. Is it to avoid contact, previous negative experiences or are other motives present. The final tool used by teachers was the reporting and blocking features which are available on all social media sites, however it should be noted that more research participants were not aware of any tools that they could use to protect themselves online than those who were aware, which is a concern as these teachers were also currently using social media. Further to this teachers also
highlighted their needs for further training and support in their use of social media for educational and personal purposes to prevent any negative consequences for its use.

In addition to the findings above, the majority of participants did increase their privacy settings from the default position, with the remainder not altering these settings or unaware of how to do so. Research by Hanus and Wu (2016) supports the awareness identified in this research and that teachers do have an understanding of the potential risks which occur online and the need to protect their privacy when interacting with pupils.

5.1.3 Privacy and Online Student Interaction

As the findings relating to online prevention tools above show, participants in this study displayed an awareness of the tools they could use to increase their safety online. The majority of participants did increased their privacy, as Carter, Foulger, Ewbank and Dutton (2008) discussed that with the increase of millennial generation teachers entering education, an increased awareness in privacy online is required. These measures ensure that while teachers are concerned for their personal privacy online, that they are also conscious of their own digital footprint, and how this can affect both their working life from a professional perspective with their employer and colleagues but also the potential effect on the relationships with their pupils.

Student interaction online was also identified by the qualitative participants in this research as pupils attempted to interact with their teachers online, sending requests to connect, recording their teachers during instruction and creating fake profiles for interaction. However qualitative participants demonstrated their knowledge and skills and similarly to their own pupils either ignored these interactions, blocked their pupils or ignored advances for communication to prevent any conflict or privacy intrusion.
These findings are similar to the research findings of Mullen and Fox-Hamilton (2016), where Irish adolescents are also in control of their social networking privacy, managing who can interact with them online.

Further to the support by Chou and Chen (2016), the privacy concerns shown by the participants of this research are also supported by Sumuer, Esfer and Yildirim (2014) research on teachers’ Facebook use which also identified that the majority of participants adjusted their privacy settings, in addition to restricting their profile to be viewable to friends only. Furthermore qualitative findings furthered the insights into these concerns as participants also regulated their connections to not only limit their accessibility to pupils in their school community but regulated their connections with peers they believed exposed the social media unnecessarily to pupils. The similarities between this research and Sumuer et al., (2014) will be discussed in the social media analysis below.

As research with principals in Irish post-primary schools by Murphy, Downes and O’Higgins Norman (2017) highlighted the need for further training for children on bullying and cyberbullying. This research wished to gauge the comfort level of participants to alter and increase their privacy settings on social networking sites to indicate the skill of participants when attempting to protect themselves or to teach others to be safe online. In doing so understanding not only a teachers training needs but also their ability to support pupils to stay safe online. This is also one of the recommendations for schools to foster a positive school climate (Department of Education and Skills, 2013b), which unfortunately as of yet unimplemented by schools (Foody, Challenor, Murphy & O’Higgins Norman, 2018).
The quantitative and qualitative results indicated that a large proportion of participants were comfortable to alter their privacy settings. However, over a third scored at the midpoint on the scale, with other participants expressing some level of difficulty. However, qualitative participants reported a comfort with modifying their privacy levels, and further to this, restricting who could tag them in photos and actively avoiding pupils being able to see these features. Interestingly some of these participants pre-emptively blocking pupils who appeared in recommended friends or pupils who they knew were connected to either their own children or adults in the school community. As it is important that the various skill levels of currently practicing teachers be accounted for when developing digital training, future programmes to support teachers must account for the various abilities of teachers who are online (Chou & Chen 2016).

As a significant portion of participants expressed difficulty when altering their privacy settings, further support for teacher training to include social media use, and digital safety is needed. This can also be seen for teachers who deal with peer bullying as research has shown requests by principals to receive more in-service courses for teachers on bullying and cyberbullying (Foody, Challenor, Murphy & O'Higgins Norman, 2018).
5.1.4 Reported Stress

Following the results of teachers’ use of privacy settings online, it was important for this research to identify any potential negative aspects of social networking reported by participants. This was examined through self-reported stress firstly if teachers associate stress in their role as a teacher resulting from social networking and overall the reported stress level in their role as a teacher. Furthermore, analysis support that teachers who experienced stress from social networking as a teacher, had higher stress levels overall when compared with teachers who reported low stress from social networking. However, the majority of the sample reported they did not feel stress from social networking, with few reporting stress in their role as a post-primary teacher as a result of using social networking. However, these results support the need for more support for teachers in their use of social networking to not only reduce their stress from social networking but their overall stress levels. These findings support those obtained in the United Kingdom by NASUWT (2017) who identified that one in three teachers feel that they should stop using social media for personal use due to concerns over their privacy or potential abuse by others, however the demographics and social media use of these participants is unknown and limits comparison.

In addition to social networking stress, this research evaluated reported stress to further examine what may increase stress levels in this research. Over a third of participants in this research reported mild stress, while the majority reported moderate levels and less than a third reported severe stress, with a small sample reporting extreme stress levels. Similarly qualitative responses provide some anecdotal reports for stress level and its impact on their overall role as a teacher, “I used to Love going to work & loved teaching. I have to say times have changed & I don't enjoy teaching as much as I used to.” – Female Teacher, 42 Years.
As these preliminary findings indicated associations between stress and social networking further quantitative analysis was conducted. The stress results of this research support and expand on the results identified by the Teachers Union of Ireland (2006) where most of participants reported mild to severe stress levels as a result of their role as a teacher. While the reported stress data obtained in this research is beneficial, comparisons to existing stress data are descriptive indicators only as more robust measures for stress measurement including causal and correlational factors are required. The reported stress levels in this research provide further justification for additional mental health and social support networks for teachers as it not only affects teacher retention, but also reduces school climate and student achievement (Herman et al., 2018; Saeki et al., 2017).

5.1.5 Cyberbullying by gender and groups

One of the features of the Cyberbullying Questionnaire (Smith et al., 2006; Slonje & Smith, 2008) is its examination of the group behaviour, specifically recording the gender and the number of people involved as cyberbullies. The participants in this research reported cyberbullying by all groups, pupils, parents, with smaller and ungeneralizable numbers for other teachers, management and other staff members. The highest cyberbullying reported by teachers who were victimised by pupils.

The gender and group variations were in in contrast to the existing peer bullying (James et al., 2008) and teacher bullying research conducted by Kauppi and Pörhölä, (2012a). Teachers in this research who were victimised by pupils were targeted more by female pupils, or groups of female pupils, while fewer were cyberbullied by male pupils, and groups of male pupils. Cyberbullying which was conducted by parents was evenly divided between male and female cyberbullies and only one group of female parents’ victimised teachers. The findings for cyberbullying by management, teachers
and other staff were deemed to be not representative due to low numbers; however this was conducted mainly by males in this current research.

While there is limited research on the gender of adolescent cyberbullies in research on the cyberbullying of teachers, other research which also gathered the gender of adolescent cyberbullies in Ireland was undertaken by Cotter & McGilloway (2011). The findings obtained by Cotter & McGilloway (2011) supports the group and gender sources identified by this current research as the majority of students who reported being cyberbullied by female pupils and groups of female pupils, while less cyberbullying was conducted by males and groups of males. In contrast to this research and the research by Cotter & McGilloway (2011), Slonje and Smith (2008) identified more cyberbullying perpetration by one male, followed by one female and groups of female and male pupils. While these relate to cyberbullying among pupils, the group and gender variations for cyberbullying behaviour are often not supported or representative due to small sample numbers or due to the cultural and school contexts. Further research is needed at both adolescent and workplace cyberbullying sites in Ireland accounting for the types of school, allowing for variations in gender, in single sex or mixed schools.
5.1.6 Reporting and Help Seeking

The detrimental effects of bullying have been widely reported in research on bullying, cyberbullying and workplace bullying (Kauppi & Pörhölä, 2012b; Herman et al., 2018). It is important that researchers and schools encourage and promote help seeking behaviours. Previous researchers have identified a lack of workplace support to address bullying (O’Donnell & MacIntosh, 2016), while others don’t seek support if their relationships with management is not positive (Berkowitz et al., 2017).

The participants in this research who were victimised by pupils sought a number of support methods. Over a quarter sought supports from management, while less than ten percent sought support from another teacher or found support online. Furthermore over two-thirds did not disclose their source of support, with no victims reporting seeking help from a family member or spouse. Support-seeking from management also occurred in the other victim groups, with the exception of teachers who were cyberbullied by management in their school. Teachers who were cyberbullied by management sourced support from their Education and Training Board (ETB) or did not disclose their support method. Only teachers who were victimised by other staff members explicitly stated that they sought support from a spouse.

The help-seeking findings of this research provide insight into the trust and relationships teachers have with management in Irish post-primary schools. Previous research by Perven and Turner (1998), which is in contrast to this study, identified that the bullying of teachers by pupils led to a lack of trust in management support and a reduction of reporting or help-seeking from teachers to management, with some teachers dreading their working day.
These findings may be further compared to Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012b) who identified that teachers’ who were victimised and that attributed the causes of their bullying to a student-related problem or institutional problem sought support from the institution or a colleague. On this basis the participants in this research may not attribute blame to themselves but to their pupils’ behaviour or factors at home. The help seeking from management may have also been supported by positive relationships within the school to positive school climates. Furthermore, in contrast to this research, McMahon et al., (2014) found that teachers did not report to management as they felt they would not be supported. The participants in this research may report to management as they already feel supported.

In addition, the help-seeking rationales in the existing cyberbullying of teachers’ research (Kopecky & Szotkowski, 2017a; 2017b), state that many teachers believe that the problem will go away or not stay online, while other participants did not seek help as they believed it was a failure within their own teaching and the resulting victimisation was a consequence of this. However, as this research did not directly investigate the rationale for help-seeking behaviour comparisons are limited and further research is needed to understand help-seeking behaviour.

Further qualitative analysis provided more insights into participants help seeking behaviours. Overall these results are mixed as some participants in this research reported a lack of support from their school principal, school management and external agencies such as the Gardai. However many participants do highlight that they seek support from school management, in some of the examples presented when they viewed the pupil to be the source of this issue, similar to the research by Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a; 2017b), further examination is needed to explore this area.
These findings do illustrate that while some teachers do receive support in the school community this is not universal across post-primary education and that many environments still require the supports to provide teachers with resources, training and policy to protect themselves from negative experiences online that originate within the school community.
5.1.7 School Climate

This research investigated school climate with all participants, those who were cyberbullied and those who were not, to examine the differences between participant groups and effect of victimisation using a quantitative approach. The importance of school climate should not be overlooked in relation to the cyberbullying of teachers as this 37-year-old teacher discussed “Your part on school climate is so important. The climate can be a protective factor for teachers or can destroy their love of teaching”. Unions in the UK have highlighted the importance of school climate where respectful relationships should be fostered and supported to create a successful school which is free from a bullying culture (NASWUT, 2018). The overall results for school climate indicate positive results for all of the domains, however teachers who were cyberbullied reported significantly lower and more negative results for their physical environment, teaching and learning capacity and perception of administration support, while reporting neutral results for the other domains. Interestingly teachers who were not cyberbullied also reported negative results for teaching and learning capacity and as expected positive results for their physical environment.

School climate was also examined across the difference school types selected by participants. Overall there were several differences between school types, and the socio-economic background of the school was found to have a positive effect across school climate with Fee Paying schools reporting higher and more positive results for school climate than others.

In the ‘Quality of Relationships’ domain, teachers who were victimised reported significant differences for their perception of parental respect for teachers, with the overall mean of participants indicating positive results, however victimised teachers reported significantly lower scores than their non-victimised peers, indicating that
cyberbullying may affect a teacher’s perception of their pupils parents negatively. These findings support the work by Hong, Espelage and Lee (2018) who state that pupils who experience bullying may to not seek support and have negative perceptions of their relationships with others, increasing their disengagement with the school. This was also the case for teachers’ perceptions of student respect for teachers, as victims reported significantly lower scores than non-victimised teachers.

In addition to this, teachers reported positively in regard to their own respect for pupils in the school, with a high overall mean, and while victimised teacher’s scores were significantly lower than other participants, student respect by teachers was still rated positively. Further research is needed to determine causality, i.e. whether these negative results are as a result of victimisation or if they are associated with it, or if they are present ahead of victimisation. As Hinduja and Patchin (2012) have queried in relation to self-esteem and school climate, does victimisation cause these lower scores and self-esteem or are they present before and individuals are seen as better targets by their bullies.

The whole school approach advocates that strong and positive relationships are needed to foster a positive culture of respect and diversity to prevent bullying (O’Moore, 2014; O’Higgins Norman & Sullivan, 2017). It is important that school leaders account for the generation of positive relationships within their schools between all staff, and indeed with pupils, as positive relationships may support bystander behaviours(Department of Education and Skills, 2013b; Madden & Loh, 2018).

Parental support and engagement with the school was also evaluated, with overall participant results showing a neutral result. Further comparisons show that victimised teachers had significantly lower scores than the entire sample, which
increased further when compared to teachers who were not cyberbullied. School safety perceptions of the school in and outside of class were also evaluated, as Hong, Espelage and Lee (2018) discussed that victimisation can undermine a pupil’s perception of school safety. The cyberbullied participants also had significantly lower scores than other participants for safety on school grounds, with greater mean differences between groups when focused on their feelings of safety in their own classrooms.

Emotional environment results also followed the negative trend for teachers who were cyberbullied, with these participants reporting dissatisfaction with student behaviour management and pupil behaviour. Overall teachers reported a neutral result for time taken to deal with students’ social and emotional challenges, however although victimised and non-victimised teachers differed slightly this was not identified to be significant. This finding may indicate that overall teachers approach the management of pupils’ social and emotional development as a positive part of their role as a teacher, however further research is required.

The findings of this research support earlier recommendations for further supports for teachers who experienced traditional bullying by pupils (Perven & Turner, 1998). As similarly to teachers who experienced traditional bullying by their pupils, participants who were cyberbullied also did not look forward to coming to work each day when compared to the rest of the sample. The cyberbullying of teachers was also found to impact on their relationships with other staff members. Overall participants indicated positive relationships with colleagues; however cyber-victims reported significantly lower perceptions of these relationships.

These findings may indicate a lack of support or intention to seek help from peers, however in contrast to this, both victimised and non-victimised teachers reported
positive relationships with school administrators, although victimised teachers were significantly lower. Research by Martinez, McMahon, Espelage, Anderman, Reddy and Sanchez (2016) which focused on teachers’ experiences of violence in schools also gathered data on school climate, finding that teachers who reported less support from school leaders and support staff were more likely to report multiple forms of violence by students, including cyberbullying.

The relationships between staff and school leaders as a preventative measure is supported by Låftman, Östberg and Modin (2017), as positive perceptions of school leadership are shown to be associated with reduced cyberbullying, however although these relationships are affected they are not reduced significantly when teachers feel supported. The researchers identified that strong school leadership was associated with less cyberbullying, as regression analyses showed that students who were in strong leadership schools experienced less cyberbullying as a victim or a perpetrator in comparison to weak leadership schools.

This positive relationship with school management was also identified within the qualitative findings of this research as many participants who reported their victimisation and support indicated a positive relationship and trust in school management. While these findings are only indicative and require further exploration to measure school climate perceptions further within the Irish context in bullying and non-bullying contexts to further understand the relationship between management and school staff.

A positive school climate can be beneficial for the whole school community, resulting in educational advantages and positive psychological results for students and teachers, and promoting greater well-being and belonging for students and for staff.
(Meristo & Eisenschmidt, 2014; Garrick et al., 2017). Espelage et al. (2013) identified that the student bullying of teachers was correlated to school climate, finding that teachers reported victimisation less when they felt they were in a school with a negative school climate, more positive school climates results may have an affect on the prevalence of cyberbullying in this research.

Although these findings add to the understanding of interpersonal relationships and support within schools, further qualitative research is needed to explore these relationships and influencing factors in greater depth. Further emphasis on the effects of bullying and cyberbullying on school climate is needed, as Choen et al., (2015) stated that school climate is a continuous process of improvement needed to reduce victimisation.
5.1.8 Additional Findings

5.1.8.1 Training

This research also gathered some unexpected findings in the preliminary sections of the survey from participants. The first of these findings relates to training taken by participants. The Teaching Council (2016) recommends that teachers endeavour to engage in continuous professional development and training throughout their career, while the Department of Education and Skills (2013b) states in the Anti-Bullying Procedures for Primary and Post Primary Schools that schools should provide access to training to staff on the best practices for bullying while also investigating a whole school intervention programme. However, this research found that only a quarter of participants received training from their school, a further 20% had training that was not supported by their school, with the remaining participants not receiving any training on anti-bullying practices.

Further investigation of the teachers who had not received any training highlights that more than a quarter of participants want to increase their knowledge and skills in the area while another quarter do not want to receive training, in contrast with the Department of Education and Skills (2013b). Research in this area with post-primary principals has identified that need for further supports, predominantly training and resources on programmes were requested (Foody, Challenor, Murphy & O’Higgins Norman, 2018). School principals have also highlighted the need for school training for staff with the further introduction of ICT in the classroom, as research by the Irish National Teachers’ Organisation (INTO) (2017) identified that only two-thirds of schools have an acceptable use policy for devices or training on safe internet use. The gaps identified by the INTO (2017) not only support the suggestions for more training made by this research but also that teachers are often dealing with cyberbullying.
behaviours with minimal training or supports currently. This research also identified a
need for further training and supports from the qualitative findings in this research as
participants highlighted the need for more training and support for protecting
themselves online as well as managing pupils challenging behaviours. Further to this
participants highlighted how they attempted to protect and regulate their social
networks to create a personal and professional boundary due to the overlap created by
social media. Training on the ethical use of social media and how pupils should interact
not only with each other but also with other members of the school community is
needed to prevent and reduce negative behaviour online, supporting earlier suggestions
by Harrison (2016). This suggestion for further supports for teachers using technology
was also discussed by Chou and Chou (2017), who stated that teachers must be
educated about their own use of technology but also educate students about how to
address their online use considering privacy and their online reputation. This regulation
was identified also with qualitative findings as some teachers considered how they
would regulate not only their own networks online but also regulate this based on the
interactions and connections with others. In some cases blocking pupils connected to
other staff, removing staff they viewed to be leave them exposed to pupil interactions
and by only accepting pupil requests after they had left the school community.

As this research has already discussed, pupils are less likely to seek support and
report bullying if they are not confident in the ability of school staff (Bosworth et al.,
2017), while pupils are more likely to engage in bullying and cyberbullying if they feel
there will be no negative consequences for them (O’Higgins Norman & Sullivan, 2017).
School leaders and teachers must ensure that they receive the appropriate training to
enable them to not only tackle traditional bullying and cyberbullying among their pupils
but also to increase their own personal safety online and offline.
5.1.8.2 Phone Use in Class and Pupil Contact

As this research describes in the beginning of this chapter, over half of participants used their phone in class for a functional and professional purpose, however participants also stated that they would use their phone for personal reasons (contacting family and social media use). It is important to consider how this may affect a pupil, both in terms of the role model behaviour outlined above (Cross et al, 2015; Twemlow et al., 2006) but also the information which teachers disclose to pupils. Similar to the findings of Chou and Chen (2016) in relation to privacy issues in e-learning environments; educators should consider the date which they disclose to their pupils which they may be unaware of.

This research would suggest that teachers do not disclose any data or information which does not relate to the education of their pupils, including sensitive or personal information. Furthermore teachers should also consider their own social networking behaviours outside of school. Focusing on their own privacy as most participants used social media sites and applications which are also popular with their own pupils. Suggestions include: not disclosing which social media sites they use; their usernames or any data which could enable a student to encroach on their personal life.

However this research identified that some teachers do breach this line with their pupils, communicating with them directly over social media, which may leave teachers open to victimisation or allow pupils to invade a teacher’s privacy. Teachers used Twitter, WhatsApp, Facebook and Skype to contact pupils for what they describe as professional reasons using personal profiles. While a teacher could increase their security and privacy on these apps, the majority may not do so, and there are a significant portion of participants who either do not increase their privacy settings as they do not have the skill or know they can do so.
In addition to this communication for work, a minority of teachers stated that they had contacted pupils for non-professional reasons. This is a breach of the Teaching Councils Code of Professional Conduct. ‘Teachers need to ensure that any communication with pupils/students, colleagues, parents, school management and others is appropriate, including communication via electronic media, such as email, texting and social networking sites’ (The Teaching Council, 2016, p.7).

Teacher phone use for personal reasons contrasts to the intentions of the recent Department of Education and Skills circular (2018b) for the implementation and mentoring of smartphone and tablet use in class, as the mentor role to guide pupils outlined in the circular is not being met by some participants.

However, the teachers who stated they communicate with pupils for non-professional reasons is a small portion of the sample and not generalizable to the wider population of post-primary teachers without further investigation as to the rationale and context of these interactions. On the basis of the findings above teachers should consider their own social networking and phone use in greater detail as Carter et al., (2008) highlighted that the boundaries between professional and personal communication may become ambiguous.
5.2 Analysis

This research focused on three dimensions: firstly, the social networking behaviours of post-primary teachers in and outside of school; secondly the prevalence of cyberbullying experienced by participants, the source of this cyberbullying and how it impacts upon the victim when compared to traditional bullying; and finally a focus on school climate, comparing two groups; participants who have been victimised and those who have not. For the purpose of analysis, the findings which relate to these research questions will be organised according to the above three dimensions.

5.2.1 Social Media Use Research Questions

Several research objectives in this research focused on the social media use of teachers, as no previous research has specifically examined the social networking behaviours of post-primary teachers in Ireland. The aim of these questions was to understand the networks teachers use, and who they interact with on a daily basis and their understanding and use of the privacy tools on the platforms they use.

**Q1. What methods of self-regulation or tools do teachers employ online?**

Ahead of examining cyberbullying prevalence and its effect on school climate it is important to evaluate the social media which the participants in this research use, to better understand the setting where victimisation may take place, as previous research has identified that pupils and adults occupy different spaces online (McGuire & O’Higgins Norman, 2016). As this research has already highlighted, social media usage is linked to increased social capital, such as emotional and social support and the disclosure of personal and intimate information (Syn & Oh, 2015; Utz, 2015). Despite the potential benefits which social media use can provide, increased fears over risk are emerging in both the literature and applied spheres, including cyberbullying (Connolly,
2017) and the disregard for disclosing private information among pupils and teachers (Sumuer et al., 2014; Challenor, Foody & O’Higgins Norman, 2018).

The participants in this research used various forms of social media, as over two-thirds reported using WhatsApp and Facebook daily, and more than one third used Twitter and Instagram daily. Finally, more than a fifth of participants used Snapchat daily, with a fifth of participants also using LinkedIn.

While research on a teacher’s use of social media is limited in Ireland and the U.K., research by Sumuer et al., (2014) in Turkey identified similar trends to this research as more than half of participants used Facebook on a daily basis. However in addition to the quantitative examination of this current research, Simuer et al., (2014) gathered qualitative responses to further examine a teachers Facebook use. Alabdulkareem, (2015) identified higher social media use on Instagram and WhatsApp with teachers in Saudi Arabia, with all participants using WhatsApp, and a further two-thirds of teachers using Instagram.

These findings are supported by the CSO (2017) who also identified that seventy-two percent of adults access social media on a daily basis. The social media use findings are also similar to the findings of McGuire and O’Higgins Norman (2016), which identified that almost two-thirds of parents used WhatsApp and Facebook daily, while less than a fifth of participants used Twitter, Instagram or LinkedIn daily. While the post-primary teachers in this research are similar to the participants of McGuire and O’Higgins Norman (2016), the participants in this research share some of the social spaces used by post-primary pupils more, as eleven percent of the latter use Instagram and over two-thirds use Snapchat daily (Digital Youth Council, 2015).
While the results above highlight the use of social media by participants in this research and how it intersects with research on parents’ and pupils’ use of social media, teachers are also concerned with their privacy and security when they are online. Participants discussed the two main methods which they used to stay safe on their social networking, the main method being increasing their privacy settings, with a minority also changing their name to the Irish language to avoid being found on search engines.

The use of screen names on social media is supported by Sumuer et al., (2014) who also found that teachers alter their name to prevent contact with pupils. Although research in the area of teacher privacy online is limited, these results indicate an awareness or desire to separate private and professional spheres online. Conversely, some participants (7.4%) did not know how to increase their settings, which is lower than findings for Irish parents, where almost twenty percent did not know how to use these settings. In addition, more of the participants in this research also used privacy settings than research on Irish parents (McGuire & O’Higgins Norman, 2016).

Following a teacher’s use of social media and the growing use of social media among pupils this research wished to examine if interaction occurred between teachers and their pupils on social media. As there are principles in place by the Teaching Council of Ireland, (discussed in the literature chapter of this research), it is expected that participants will interact with their students for professional purposes. Qualitative findings did identify that some participants use social media to share their instruction with pupils and keep them engaged with the content, these participants also aimed to implement ethical boundaries for their use. For example not taking posting any photos of one another without having the consent of the pupils in the photograph.
While the prevalence of teachers interacting with pupils has been disclosed in previous research, it is normally a rare occurrence (Sumuer et al., 2014). Nonetheless, the first hypothesis of this research is supported as while most teachers in this research used email to interact with pupils, teachers also used various forms of social media including Twitter, WhatsApp, Facebook and Skype.

Further research is needed to explore social media use by teachers, particularly how they engage with pupils on these platforms and the features which are used. This would provide further insights into the development of training to support teachers’ personal use of these sites safely, but also training in how social media can be used to interact with other teachers and pupils and facilitate its use as a learning tool.

**Q2. Do teachers use self-regulation to avoid members of the school community?**

Researchers have discussed the tools educators use to protect or control the information which their learners may interact with online (Sumuer et al., 2014; Chou and Chen, 2016). This research explored if participants would also use the same regulation tools. On the basis of media attention on cyberbullying and ‘Rate my Teacher’ (Walsh, 2005), this research aimed to examine teacher self-regulation further.

The third hypothesis of this research focused on a teacher’s use of privacy settings on their social media, expecting that teachers would use privacy settings to limit their contact with pupils. Participants in this research followed the same trend as Sumuer et al, (2014) to increase their privacy, however teachers in this research also stated that they take steps to prevent this interaction with their pupils. The most frequent method to avoid pupils was to increase their privacy further, so that their profiles were not public or viewable to pupils.
While these tools may vary across social media platforms, participants also altered their name or part of their name to the Irish language, and while this does provide support for the hypothesis above, the majority of participants don’t take any additional steps to avoid pupils, or any other members of the school community. This may be because some teachers do not feel the need to increase their privacy and they are able to manage their social media use safely. However further research is needed to investigate this further, looking at contextual factors and differences across individual platforms.

The high portion of teachers who are not concerned for their social media privacy conflicts with the findings of Sumuer et al., (2014) who found that teachers were uncomfortable when parents or students could view their profiles, as they did not want to reveal information about their private life. Research by Chou and Chen (2016) stated that due to the persistent nature of online settings, including social networking, it is important for educators to be aware of the data they post and to disclose this data with caution.

The qualitative findings of this research also support teachers use of self-regulation to avoid pupils online, regulating their friendships with other school staff to avoid connecting with pupils. While other participants who have children in the school community reported that they would not connect with their children to prevent them from being connected to their children’s peers. Other participants address the small and close communities that schools often are, knowing that many people within the community will be connected to one another, particularly in rural areas. In all these scenarios we see teachers consider their own privacy and how they can regulate their interactions with pupils to maintain their professional boundaries.
Q3. Have teachers received unwelcomed requests on social media?

Further to the findings on avoiding pupil contact on social networking, this research aimed to identify if teachers receive unwelcome requests to connect on social media or if participants welcomed this contact. This included pupils, parents, colleagues and school management to identify what connections were deemed appropriate and which were not. Unexpected quantitative finding of this research was that more than two-thirds of teachers had received unwelcome requests, mainly from their pupils this may be as their own attempts to hide themselves from pupils on social networking was not successful, or it may relate to the large portion of teachers who did not increase their privacy settings.

Further to unwanted requests from pupils, participants also received unwanted requests from parents and a fifth received requests from other staff. In contrast to the unwelcome requests teachers receive, more than a third of participants also received welcome requests to connect from members of the school community. These findings indicate that while teachers do receive a high volume of requests from pupils, parents and other school staff, over a third of participants do welcome the requests they receive from colleagues and parents. These findings were also supported by qualitative reports made by teachers, often blocking and ignoring requests made by pupils while still in school, the majority of these participants not accepting pupils until after they have left the community.

There has been some research on the positive use of social networking to connect school communities across countries (Isik, 2013), enabling teachers to support parents whose children have disabilities (Nunes, Miranda & Amaral, 2017) and encouraging communication between pupils and engagement in education (Cunha Jr, van Kruistum & van Oers, 2016). However, the results of this study and research on the
ethical use of social media by teachers’ outlines that teachers should be entitled to their privacy online, and that teachers should take reasonable precautions that their communication with pupils is ethical and does not impact negatively upon the pupil (Warnick, Bitters, Falk & Kim, 2016). This research supports the recommendation of the Teaching Council professional code of ethics when communicating electronically with pupils (The Teaching Council, 2016).

On this basis social media can provide an environment where teachers can not only improve educational achievement but also foster informal learning whereby teachers motivate and engage students online, and promote relationships within the school climate (Alabdulkareem, 2015). While there are benefits to this communication, this researcher would argue that as there are not sufficient supports and policy in place currently to support pupils and teachers if negative incidents such as the cyberbullying of a teacher occur, the recommendation would be that that this communication should be monitored and limited.

Q4. Do teachers report stress from their personal social networking and is there an association between stress from social networking and stress as a teacher?

As social networking and technology continues to be integrated into the classroom and previous research identified teachers’ privacy concerns (Sumuer et al., 2014), this research also examined the potential negative effects which may occur from social networking. On this basis, do the participants of this research associate social networking with stress in their role as a teacher?
Although over two-thirds of teachers had received unwelcome requests which they associated negatively to impact on their role in the classroom or wider school, only ten percent of teachers stated that they felt their personal social networking caused stress in their role. While various risks and issues may impact on a teacher due to social networking, research from the United Kingdom identified that over a third of teachers felt it necessary to stop using personal social media accounts over privacy issues and abuse concerns. The majority of teachers stated that they did not feel stressed due to their social networking (NASUWT, 2017).

The fourth hypothesis of this research expected that teachers who report stress from their social networking use would also report stress in their role as a teacher. To examine this, stress from social networking was further explored to understand if overall job stress highlighted in the research by the ASTI (2004) in Ireland and culturally similar work of Herman et al., (2018) is associated with participants’ reported stress from social networking. The findings of a Pearson correlation did not support this hypothesis however, as higher stress in teaching was not found to interact with stress from social networking. These findings provide context to teachers’ perceptions of social networking in the job as participants in this study may not view their social networking to impact on them greatly. Further examination using interviews or more robust stress measures than those used by the ASTI (2014), Heman et al., (2018) and this research with teachers who feel stress as a result of social networking may produce further understanding of reported stress of a teacher due to social networking.

The final examination of the effect of social media on teachers’ stress levels was to identify if teachers who attempted to avoid pupils on social media and who had difficulty increasing their privacy online had higher reported stress. This research hypothesised that, as these variables focus on the difficulties which may occur for
teachers, higher stress levels would be reported. While a standard multiple regression identified that seven percent of the variance of teacher stress can be derived from these variables, this hypothesis cannot be supported as more in-depth examination is needed to discover the effects which social networking may have on a teacher’s role within a school, while also accounting for stress.
5.2.2 Cyberbullying Research Questions

Q1. *Is the cyberbullying of teachers by their pupils prevalent in Irish post-primary schools?*

The results of this research identified a low prevalence rate for cyberbullying, as a small portion of teachers experienced or were aware that another teacher had been cyberbullied. Experiences of cyberbullying were reported by just over nine percent of participants. Looking further at this victimisation five and a half percent of participants experienced cyberbullying by a pupil, while other sources of cyberbullying were also identified. The findings of this research however are similar to those found in a larger sample by Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a) who identified a slightly lower rate than this research among teachers in the Czech Republic. The demographics details of the sample (age, gender and teaching experience) provide support for comparisons to this research as they are similar.

Comparing these findings to other research on teacher cyberbullying, Kauppi and Porhola (2012a) identified a similar rate of cyberbullying with just under fifteen percent of teachers confirming cyberbullying through mobile devices, while others stated they has been cyberbullied online through denigration or exposure. However, the findings of Kauppi and Porhola (2012a) did not take into account if a victim was only cyberbullied but drew on a sample of teachers who were also bullied within a school setting, which may affect their results drawing on teachers experiencing in-class victimisation.

The prevalence rates identified in this research are also lower than those by NASUWT (2014) who focused on teachers in the UK, finding that over twenty percent of teachers reported cyberbullying, increasing to just under fifty percent in 2015 and to
fifty five percent in 2016 (NASUWT, 2015; 2016). Similarly to the work of Kauppi and Porhola (2012a), 50% of victimised teachers reported by NASUWT also experienced denigration, in addition to this a quarter of participants experienced the tactic of exposure using videos and images.

Related findings were also obtained by this research in relation to the cyberbullying tactics used by pupils experienced by teachers, as fifteen percent experienced exposure, fifty-nine percent were cyberbullied on social media and thirty four percent experienced denigration. While the research by NASUWT is the best culturally for comparison, the prevalence rates may not be reliable as the survey and methodology is not freely available for comparison, raising concerns about the questions asked or how cyberbullying is defined in the study.

On the basis of this research findings, it cannot be said that victimisation is prevalent in Irish post-primary schools, however drawing on first and second-hand experience the phenomenon does occur among Irish teachers, warranting further investigation, to investigate the relationships which exist and the variables which may influence victimisation further.

Following the prevalence of cyberbullying experience by teachers, this research expected that teachers would be cyberbullied more by their pupils than by parents in the school community. To examine this further, this research gathered the victimisation experienced by participants, firstly to identify if teachers are victimised more by pupils than by parents. This hypothesis was supported as only a small portion of teachers reported cyberbullying by a parent in comparison to pupil cyberbullying.

Supporting the findings of this research, Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a; 2017b) found that pupils were also the main perpetrators of cyberbullying, with parents
being the second highest source. While parents were not found to be the main source of cyberbullying experienced by the participants in this research, parents who are often detached from the school community accounted for a large portion of cyberbullies.

Similar findings which support this research were also discussed by Posnick-Goodwin (2012), referring to research in England, which found that pupils were also the main source of the cyberbullying of teachers, while the second largest group was parents. This was further supported by NASUWT in the UK who found that parents were also the second largest group after pupils (NASUWT, 2016; 2017). The relationships between these teachers and parents could have been further explored through qualitative research to discover the rationale of the cyberbullies and how teachers responded to the experience.

**Q2. Are teachers who are victimised by their pupils victimised by any other members of the school community?**

Unlike previous international research on the cyberbullying of teachers by pupils, this research also sought to examine if other members of the school community may victimise a teacher, including management, other teachers, parents, and pupils and parents at the same time.

This research hypothesised that participants would be cyberbullied more by pupils than other members of the school community as previous researchers in the area have highlighted pupil involvement (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2015; Kauppi & Põrhõlä, 2012a, 2012b). This was supported as of the participants who were cyberbullied, more than half of these were cyberbullied by their own pupils, accounting for over five percent the sample. The rates of both the cyberbullying of teachers by pupils and the cyberbullying of teachers by other members of the school community is supported by the findings of
Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a), which similarly identified a cyberbullying prevalence rate with Czech teachers, identifying that three and a half percent experienced continuous cyberbullying by pupils.

In addition to this, the participants in Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a) identified that participants did not relate a single incident of cyberbullying under this rate, instead referring to it as a cyber-attack making up a fifth of their sample, creating ambiguity and limiting comparison to current research. The concept of repetition in research studies provides discrepancies in the rates of cyberbullying prevalence. While research by NASWUT (2014) in the UK identified a higher cyberbullying rate, as over a fifth of their participants reporting cyberbullying mainly conducted by pupils, while teachers were also cyberbullied by parents and management. Drawing on the findings of this research, Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a) and NASWUT (2014), further examination of the phenomenon is needed as issues with definition may affect the measurement of the cyberbullying of teachers (Connolly, 2017). Similar to research on cyberbullying among school pupils, when more research on the cyberbullying of teachers is conducted with a single definition, a clearer prevalence rate may emerge.

In addition to the cyberbullying which participants experienced, this research aimed to examine if teachers were cyberbullied by both parents and by pupils, hypothesising that teachers who are cyberbullied by pupils would also be cyberbullied by parents. This was supported as nine percent of victims were cyberbullied by both parents and by pupils. This however is a small proportion of participants. Further research is required to investigate if the pupils and parents are indeed related to one another but also to examine, if this is not the case, what is the context behind a teacher’s victimisation.
Parallel findings were also obtained by Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a; 2017b), as eight percent of teachers in the Czech Republic were cyberbullied by pupils and their parents, and in the UK where nine percent of teachers surveyed were cyberbullied by pupils and parents (NASUWT, 2014). While these researchers support the findings of this research, further studies should examine contextual factors which may result in pupils and parents cyberbullying teachers, identifying the focus or rationales given for the cyberbullying of teachers and if parents and pupils cyberbully a teacher for the same reason.

Finally, this research also identified a low prevalence rate for the cyberbullying of teachers by other teachers and management in their school. However, these numbers accounted for less than one percent of the entire sample of this research, limiting the discussion of these findings. However it is important that future research include these two groups to identify the phenomenon further. Additional examination of workplace cyberbullying between school staff is warranted with a larger sample, looking at the positions which are held by the victim and their bully, as Kowalski, Toth and Morgan (2018) identified that management were less likely to cyberbully their staff, with increased levels of cyberbullying occurring among peers.

**Q3. Are teachers victimised more by male or female pupils?**

A strength of the Cyberbullying Questionnaire (Slojne & Smith, 2008), is that it allows for the measurement of variables such as the gender of the cyberbully and whether cyberbullying was conducted by one or more individuals. The teachers in this research were cyberbullied more by female pupils than male pupils. In addition to this, teachers were also victimised by groups of females and by groups of males.
As this research highlighted in the summary above, the gender and group variations were in contrast to the existing peer bullying (James et al., 2008) and teacher bullying research conducted by Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012a). However, comparing the adolescent cyberbullies in this research to peer cyberbullying in an Irish post-primary school, Cotter & McGilloway (2011) also identified that the majority of students who reported being cyberbullied were targeted by female pupils and groups of female pupils, while less cyberbullying was conducted by males and groups of males.

The gender results relating to pupils in this research were not supported by Slonje and Smith (2008) who identified more cyberbullying perpetration by one male, followed by one female and then by groups of female and male pupils. While these findings relate to peer cyberbullying among pupils, further investigation is warranted to identify if the similarities between this research and peer cyberbullying are consistent with future research on teacher cyberbullying.

Further support for the group variations in this research is provided by Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a; 2017b), who identified that in almost half of cases a single person was responsible, with fewer incidents conducted by a group. However, no gender differences were examined, limiting gender comparisons.

**Q4. Is teacher cyber victimisation affected by age, gender or years of teaching experience?**

As this research is the first in Ireland to examine the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers, it was important to examine the demographic variables which may be associated with or predict victimisation. These variables were the age, gender and years of teaching experience of participants. The participants gathered in this research followed the same gender trends which are currently present on the Teaching Council
register, with seventy-eight percent of the sample being composed of female participants while twenty-one percent of participants were male with one participant not identifying as either male or female.

Focusing on the gender of victimised teachers, there was no significant differences between female and male teachers in the sample who were cyberbullied. The participant who did not state their gender was also cyberbullied. Focusing on the sources of cyberbullying for these participants: female teachers were mainly victimised by pupils, followed by parents, pupils and parents, teachers, other staff and finally by management. The findings of this research are in contrast to research on physical bullying of American teachers as Wei et al., (2013) previously identified that more female teachers experienced workplace violence than their male counterparts however the cultural contexts and levels of school violence greatly differ to the Irish context. In online contexts this research would state that further research is needed as there was not a significant difference statistically for gender and victimisation.

In contrast to the findings of this study, research by Martinez et al., (2015) identified that in their own research, female teachers were less like to experience victimisation by pupils than male teachers in school and online. More research findings from America by Martinez et al., (2015) provide further understanding into the gender of victims including cyberbullying. Martinez et al., (2015) research also accounts for physical violence, identifying that male teachers may be more likely to intervene in more gender research is needed to understand if gender plays a role in the cyberbullying of teachers.

The male participants in this research were similarly mainly cyberbullied by pupils, followed by parents, pupils and parents and management. Unlike female
teachers however, male participants were not cyberbullied by other teachers or staff members. Further examination of gender and cyberbullying was not found to be a significant variable in the cyberbullying of a post-primary teacher. This research has identified that both male and female teachers are victimised, providing a contribution in regard to gender in workplace cyberbullying.

Following participant gender and victimisation analysis, this research focused on the variables of age of a teacher and their years of teaching experience, to investigate if this was associated with victimisation. In order to test this, a standard multiple regressions was used to predict the relationship between these variables. There was no significant relationship found as cyberbullying was not predicted by age or years of teaching experience. Teaching experience has been previously identified to be negatively associated with the physical and non-physical violence experienced by teachers finding that teachers with more experienced were less likely to be victimised (Wei et al., 2013). The findings of Wei et al., (2013) are further supported by Martinez et al., (2016) as physical and non-physical aggression (including cyberbullying) was less likely to occur when teachers were more experienced. However further research is needed to understand the differences associated with teaching experience and how they interact with the cyberbullying of teachers.

**Q5. Does the use of self-regulation tools reduce cyber victimisation?**

A teacher’s use of self-regulation and privacy on social media has not yet been examined in relation to the cyberbullying of teachers. This research examined if these tools can reduce victimisation. Similar to the work of Sumuer et al., (2014), many participants modified their privacy settings and altered their name to avoid pupils. A logistical regression was run to assess if privacy and using screen names is associated with victimisation. The results of the regression analysis was found to be significant as
teachers who used self-regulation on social media increasing their privacy were 39.47% less likely to be victimised than their peers. However due to the smaller numbers of participants who were victimised, this researcher would suggest in future research to continue to assess self-regulated privacy and examine its association in preventing cyberbullying behaviours.

Recent research by Kowalski, Toth and Morgan (2018) which examined bullying and cyberbullying in the workplace identified that as employees often communicated by email and social networking these spaces were often where cyberbullying took place, rates of which was also higher than traditional bullying in their study. Applying these findings to this research supports further investigation to explore how a teacher’s use of online communication with pupils and other school community members may impact upon a teacher.

**Q6. Are teachers who avoid pupils on social networking less likely to be victimised?**

In relation to self-regulation and cyber victimisation, a small positive relationship was identified, as increased avoidance of pupils on social networking websites was associated with increased cyberbullying. Further regression analyses identified that teachers who altered their social networking to avoid their pupils were 13.2% more likely to be cyberbullied than their peers. However, these findings are limited and may need further exploration, as teachers may increase their avoidance of pupils after they have experienced cyberbullying by a pupil. Comparisons to other research are not currently possible as no other research has examined this variable.
Q7. Do teachers who are victimised believe that methods of cyberbullying have more of an impact than traditional forms of bullying?

Following the work of Smith et al., (2006), Slonje and Smith (2008) and Cotter and McGilloway (2011), who investigated the perceived impact of various methods of cyberbullying compared to traditional bullying among post-primary pupils. This research is the first to follow the same method of comparison with teachers who are cyberbullied. The highest impacts were provided by teachers who were victimised by their pupils. The perceived impacts of cyberbullying using pictures and videos was the highest, and these tactics were also seen in the work of Kyriacou and Zuin (2015) when teachers were cyber-baited into a reaction in class which was then posted online, a tactic also experienced by the participants in this research. This was echoed in the qualitative findings of this research as participants reported the impacts of video and image-based cyberbullying, particularly in relation to repetition online. As incidents can be viewed again and again, where teachers do not feel they have the ability to defend themselves of their reputations when victimised online. Following this, impacts rates of cyberbullying by pupils using social media, websites and instant messaging were also rated to have more of an impact than traditional bullying.

However, in comparison to the impact of cyberbullying by pupils, teachers who were victimised by management also gave high impacts for all forms of cyberbullying. This may be, as Gleeson (2014) discussed, that the negative impact of cyber victimisation appears to depend on how each incident is perceived. This is often conducted using similar self-report methods used in this research and previous studies (Slonje & Smith, 2008; Cotter & McGilloway, 2011) by comparing various methods of cyber tactics to traditional bullying methods.
Q8. Is the perceived impact of cyberbullying influenced by who they are victimised by?

Due to the limited sample size and differences in victimised teachers between these groups this could not be conclusively investigated. However, the participants in this research were victimised by five groups: pupils, parents, management, teachers and other staff. Cyberbullying which was conducted by management was perceived to have more of an impact than if participants were bullied traditionally. However, all victimised participants felt that the cyberbullying tactics they experienced to have more of an impact than traditional bullying methods, with cyberbullying by parents being perceived had less of an impact than cyberbullying conducted by pupils, management, teachers or other school staff.

Q9. Do teachers who are victimised believe being victimised in one platform is more damaging than another?

Overall considering all sources of cyberbullying, picture and video cyberbullying tactics were deemed to have the greatest impact. This finding is supported by previous Irish research by Cotter and McGilloway (2011) which also identified video and picture clips to be the most impactful compared to traditional bullying. Furthermore, these impact findings are also supported by Smith et al., (2006) and Slonje and Smith (2008) who also identified picture and video methods to be the most negative of the tactics reported by pupils, which limits possible comparisons. Slonje et al., (2017) state that this may be due to the potential audience size and exposure of the victim of these methods while the anonymity of the cyberbully may also further heighten this experience (Sawer, 2011).
This researcher would recommend that these findings be investigated further beyond the perceived impact to identify why videos and pictures are perceived to have the greatest impact on the victim using qualitative research. On the basis of these findings however this researcher would recommend that policy makers and school leadership ensure teachers are provided with adequate training in this area to ensure that they are aware of these risks and can counteract them through prevention and classroom management strategies to counteract the exposure as discussed by Kyriacou and Zuin (2015).

**Q10. Who do teachers seek support from when victimised?**

The participants in this research sought support from a number of sources, the largest of these being school management, with equal amounts going to other school staff and seeking supports online. Finally, the majority of teachers who were victimised by pupils did not disclose their source of support. Qualitative participants discussed their help-seeking behaviours, the majority of which seeking support from management and a partner as they viewed the pupil to be the source of the problem, dissociating themselves from their cybervictimisation. Further research is needed to explore help-seeking behaviour. However, in contrast to research by Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a; 2017b) who also gathered data on help-seeking behaviour, few cases sought support from management, while a third went to colleagues for support. On the basis of the positive school climate findings which will be discussed later and the existing structures within Irish post-primary schools to deal with bullying and cyberbullying, teachers may feel supported or confident to seek the support of school management.

However, barriers which may reduce or prevent help-seeking behaviour may also be present as participants in the UK of the NASUWT (2014) identified that more than half of teachers did not report their victimisation, with two thirds of these believing
that if they reported it to management or to the police that nothing would happen. Other teachers did not believe their help seeking would be taken seriously, or were too embarrassed. Finally teachers who had already reported incidents did not seek help as management did not investigate their original victimisation (NASUWT, 2014).

Similar to the findings on help-seeking behaviour by NASUWT (2014), Pervin and Turner (1998) also identified that teachers who experienced physical bullying by pupils had reduced trust in management support. However positive relationships and addressing all reports of bullying behaviour seriously has been found to reduce victimisation rates and bullying perpetration and increase bystander intervention among students when all school staff show that bullying behaviours will not be tolerated (Espelage, Polanin & Low, 2014).

In addition to promoting relationships to increase bystander behaviour, Patterson, Allan and Cross (2015; 2017) have also identified that in addition to positive relationships, bystanders are more likely to intervene if the perceived impact on the victim is high or if they can support the victim online. Researchers should further consider the role of bystanders in the cyberbullying of teachers to not only counter negative bystander behaviour but promote positive action.

In addition to the findings of this research on help-seeking behaviour and insights into bystander intervention by Patterson et al., (2017), further emphasis is needed to support both male and female victims as over two thirds of participants did not disclose who they sought support from. Further research is needed to understand this and whether help-seeking is altered by the source of victimisation or as researchers have suggested, the victims’ perception of blame (Weber, Koehler, Schnauber-Stockmann, 2018), responsibility or reputation (Bester et al., 2017).
Drawing on the work by Espelage et al., (2014) this research or suggests that school management and other school staff members take all reports of teachers being bullied or cyberbullied seriously, showing that the school supports the teacher and will not allow the behaviour to occur. This in-turn supports the anti-bullying norms within a school will change and foster anti-bullying behaviours.

**Q11. Are help seeking behaviours of participants altered by the source of victimisation?**

Following the victimisation by pupils where participants sought more support from management, of the participants who were victimised by parents only a small number sought support, of which fewer sought support from management while more did not disclose their support source. The generalisability of these help-seeking behaviours is limited due to the numbers and the influence of contextual factors, however as the majority of participants did not seek support this research would recommend that future researchers also examine this area further.

Research by Kauppi and Prohola (2012a) may provide further insights into the help-seeking behaviour by victimised teachers, as half of victims sought support from colleagues with less seeking support from school management and seeking help from a partner. Relating this help-seeking to colleagues and management as teachers believed the students’ own behavioural issues were the cause and did not reflect on the capability of the teacher.

However, when a teacher believed that they were the cause of their victimisation they instead sought support from a partner or spouse. Teachers’ who reported being cyberbullied by a member of management in their school unlike previous victim groups in this research, did not seek support from management. Instead these teachers sought
support from external supports outside of their school such as the Education and Training Board. On the basis of these findings it is important that school leaders and policy creators provide alternative methods of help-seeking and escalation if they cannot be provided with this support in their own school.

The final variation in help-seeking behaviour was identified in the participants who were cyberbullied by another teacher and by other members of the school community. Teachers who were cyberbullied by another teacher did not, as this research expected, speak to management or an external authority but instead, did not disclose their support, while teachers who were cyberbullied by another member of the school community sought support from a spouse or partner. Teachers who experience workplace cyberbullying need to be provided with support structures. While teachers who are victimised by pupils can speak to management, teachers who are victimised by adults appear to not have a clear method of help-seeking they can follow.

**Q12. Are the social networking behaviours of teachers and phone use in school linked to a teacher’s victimisation?**

This research also expected that teachers who used their phone in class with their pupils may be more likely to be victimised, partially due to a pupil’s awareness of a teacher’s device use. This hypothesis was not supported when a standard multiple regression was used to assess the influence of age, gender, a teacher’s phone use in class with pupils, teaching experience and role held by the teacher in the school to identify if these variables could predict a teacher’s victimisation. When analysing these variables, no significance was identified. While no significance was identified for this, considerations must be taken by teachers to ensure that the use of their device in class is done so within the regulations set by the school and provides a good role model to
pupils. This behaviour will be discussed further in the theoretical and practical implications of this research.
5.2.3 School Climate Research Questions

Q1. Do teachers who are victimised have lower school climate perceptions than non-victimised teachers?

The first hypothesis which focused on school climate examined the overall perceptions of school climate for teachers who were and were not victimised, stating that teachers who experience cyberbullying will have significantly lower perceptions. This hypothesis draws on research on cyberbullying amongst pupils, as cyberbullying victims are more likely to report negative perceptions of school climate, which can in turn reduce help-seeking and the reporting of bullying behaviour in schools (Brighi, Guarani, Melotti, Galli & Genta, 2012; Guerra, William & Sadek, 2011). In line with previous cyberbullying research (Cohen et al., 2009; Farley et al., 2015; Hong et al., 2018), this research identified that victimised teachers did report significantly lower scores across the domains for school climate.

These findings support previous international research which identified reduced school climate perceptions by victims of bullying and cyberbullying (Farley, Coyne, Sprigg, Axtell & Subramanian, 2015; Saeki, Segool, Pendergast & von der Embse, 2017; Datta, Cornell & Huang, 2017). In addition to the differences between participant groups, this study also identified that teachers who were cyberbullied reported negative responses for their physical environment, teaching and learning capacity and the perception of administrative support, which has been found to occur among pupils who experience bullying and cyberbullying (Hinduja & Patchin, 2012).
Q2. Do teachers who are victimised have lower scores in physical environment and safety situation?

Researchers who investigated school bullying and school climate have identified that bullying can affect a victim's perceptions of school safety, which can lead to a teacher changing career or retiring early (Reddy et al., 2013). This research hypothesised that participants who were cyberbullied would also have lower perceptions of the physical climate as a result of victimisation. A teacher’s perception of school safety was assessed using two questions: how safe they felt on the school grounds in general; and how safe they felt in the classrooms.

Overall all participants provided positive scores for safety on school grounds and in classrooms. This may be a reflection on Irish secondary schools as they would not face the same level of physical violence as teachers in Espelage et al., (2013) in schools in the United States. However, cyberbullying was found to have a significant effect on school safety as teachers who were cyberbullied had significantly lower scores than teachers who were not victimised. This finding may result from the altered perception of the victim towards their environment, as Reddy et al., (2013) and Espelage et al (2013) and Hong et al., (2018) identify that aggressive school environments can cause distress not only for a pupil but also for the teacher, leading to a teacher feeling unsafe in the school community.

Q3. Do teachers who are victimised have lower perceptions of their teaching and learning capacity?

This research hypothesised that victimised teachers would also have significantly lower perceptions of their teaching and learning capacity than their non-victimised counterparts. Overall the participants reported positive perceptions for this
domain, believing that their pupils do care about their learning. However, when we focus on the teachers who were cyberbullied, they present significantly different scores also, believing that their pupils don’t care about learning. It is important to consider this finding further, as overall teachers report positive perceptions of student learning, however are victimised teachers biased in their response, or are they reflecting the climate within their own particular school. In line with the research by Ramsey et al., (2016), the responses by members of the school community for school climate have been shown to alter on the basis of the individual, their experiences and attitude.

On the basis of the results reported for student learning, future research on school climate which looks at the victimisation of teachers online or offline should also evaluate what may alters a teacher’s perception of learning capacity after victimisation has been accounted for.

**Q4. Will teachers who are victimised have reduced scores on parental support and engagement?**

In addition to the victimisation by pupils experienced by teachers, this research also included cyberbullying by parents based on previous research in the field (Kopecky & Szotkowski, 2017a; 2017b; Posnick-Goodwin, 2012; NASUWT, 2016). This research hypothesised that teachers who are cyberbullied will have significantly lower scores for parental support than those who were not victimised. Although participants who were victimised had significantly lower scores than teachers who were not cyberbullied, all participants scored neutral to positive responses for the parental support domain. This research did not investigate the parental victim group further, however future research could examine school staff perceptions of parents as a whole, comparing the influence of job roles within a school, along with victimisation by parents, to explore the area further.
**Q5. Do teachers who are victimised have reduced scores on school community morale?**

Teachers who have negative experiences within a school can result in reduced teaching efficacy and overall self-efficacy (Morgan, 2011). On this basis this research hypothesised that teachers who experienced cyberbullying would report lower perceptions of their school community morale which looks at the challenges in the school environment, such as teachers’ opportunities for personal growth. Victimised teachers reported lower scores for; students’ pride in the school, access to teaching tools and time disciplining their students. Teachers who were and were not cyberbullied did not differ significantly in relation to negative opinions about their opportunities for personal growth and that their class sizes being too large.

Overall teachers showed negative school morale, and the cyber victimisation of teachers was found to affect three areas within school community morale. Therefore hypothesis cannot be fully supported as further examination is needed to exclude the compounding variables which may reduce school community morale.

Supporting the findings of this study, research from Australia by Cross et al., (2012) previously identified that experienced teachers reported spending an average of six hours each week dealing with issues connected to cyberbullying. The result of this pupil management did not only take time away from instruction and teaching but was also found to impact on their perceptions of school climate. The research by Aldridge et al., (2017) may provide support to reduce the amount of time teachers require to discipline students, as their research identified that rule clarity is negatively associated with bullying, as it enables pupils to understand the boundaries within a school for their behaviour and raises awareness of the consequences. If these strategies are introduced, a teacher’s perception of school climate may be enhanced as positive relationships have
been identified between a positive school climate and well managed pupil behaviour (Hosford & O’Sullivan, 2016). As the participants in this research who had significantly lower scores than non-victimised peers, further research is needed to examine school morale further and how it is associated with bullying behaviours.

**Q6. Do teachers who are victimised have lower perceptions of the relationships in their school?**

As Berkowitz et al., (2017) and Cohen et al., (2015) discussed in their school climate research, the quality of relationships within the school community can affect the overall functioning of a school. The quality of these relationships has also been found to influence not only help-seeking behaviour but also bystander interventions (Madden & Loh, 2018). On this basis this research expected that participants who report that they have been cyberbullied would have lower perceptions of the relationships that exist in their school.

This research examined teachers’ perceptions of student pride, and respect between staff, pupils and parents. The findings of this research are supported by American research (Berkowitz et al., 2017; Cohen et al., 2015) where victimised teachers reported increased peer bullying, reduced parental and student respect for teachers and reduced respect for pupils by teachers. Teachers in this study who were cyberbullied also reported significantly lower perceptions of respect for diversity by students and by staff. Although cultural differences occur between Ireland and America, it is important to consider these findings as they are conducted on a larger scale than most investigations on school climate.

In addition Gray, Wilcox and Nordstokke (2017) stated that while teaching is a stressful occupation, school leaders can provide supports to teachers to manage
workplace stressors and improve motivation and relationships. This in turn can provide a supportive and beneficial atmosphere, using a whole school approach to enhance school climate. Gray et al (2017), state that the promotion of relationships within a school can not only enhance school climate but can also influence individual responses during bullying and cyberbullying. As Madden and Loh (2018) discussed, personal relationships between victims and bystanders may also influence bystander behaviour. Further supporting the need to foster the negative perceptions of relationships found in this research, Machackova, Dedkova and Mezulanikova (2015) found that bystander action and supporting behaviours were increased when relationships between victims and bystanders were stronger.

**Q7. Do teachers who are victimised have lower perceptions of internal support in their school?**

As this research has already discussed, creating an ethos which is inclusive and which does not tolerate any forms of bullying behaviour is steered through transformational and supportive leadership (O'Higgins Norman & Sullivan, 2017; Berkowitz et al., 2017). This research hypothesised on this basis that teachers who are victimised would have negative perceptions of this internal support within their school. While teachers who were victimised by their pupils did seek support from school management, victims also held negative perceptions of support within their school.

Participants in this research who were victimised showed significantly lower perceptions of support, believing that school administrators did not follow through on their commitments, while not involving them in the decision-making and problem-solving processes of the school. Further to this, victims also reported lower perceptions of communication between school staff and inconsistency in their own expectations of staff. However, despite the help-seeking highlighted above, all participants displayed
neutral results for support by school management, with victimised teachers reporting significantly lower scores than other participants. On the basis of these findings it may be said that teachers who are victimised have significantly lower perceptions of school management, thus supporting the hypothesis.

The findings relating to cyberbullying victims lower perceptions of internal support in their schools may be improved through increased involvement and support from school leadership. Research by Martinez et al., (2016) previously identified that teachers who experience physical and non-physical violence in school, further consideration is needed to identify if support is also a preventative tool for preventing the cyberbullying of teachers. International research findings in America by Bosworth et al., (2017), and in Sweden by Låftman et al., (2017), identified that school leadership can reduce bullying and cyberbullying prevalence rates in schools, while also improving student perceptions of school climate and reductions in peer bullying. Låftman et al., (2017) state that school leadership should consider their ability to promote relationships between staff as this may reduce cyberbullying victimization; this may however be due to the perception of collegiality and shared principles perceived by pupils.

Farley, Coyne and D’Cruz (2018) further support the influence of school management, stating that similar to the relationship which pupils and teachers have, management can guide and support teachers in their roles to ensure they also achieve within a school. While peer bullying reductions due to leadership implementation is supported, further research is required to support this finding at a workplace level in schools. However, in non-educational workplaces, transformational leadership and authentic leadership have been found to decrease the risk of exposure to bullying behaviours (Nielsen, 2012).
Cyberbullying is a significant problem in schools and workplaces, and as such, leadership in schools and in other workplaces must proactively protect against bullying and cyberbullying behaviours. Current research has highlighted that leadership is a key component to work against cyberbullying by pupils (Låftman et al., 2017) and in workplaces (Nielsen, 2012). Research on the effect of the bullying of teachers by pupils identified that bullied teachers were more likely to continue this behaviour and bully other students. Therefore leaders must change climates where a bullying culture is present, to prevent the escalations seen by Twemlow et al., (2006). As support from school leaders and administrators has been found to reduce the victimisation of teachers by pupils in both traditional bullying and cyberbullying, it is important that school leaders and policy be established to foster and promote this support in every school (Martinez et al., 2016).
5.3 Strengths and Limitations

5.3.1 Strengths

As with all research, it is important to understand the strengths and limitations which can be identified. Firstly the use of an online survey was beneficial as it allowed participants to provide responses at their convenience on a sensitive subject anonymously without fear of reprisal from their participation. Furthermore, this method also allows for a self-selected sample, as participants may already have an interest in the topic if they have witnessed or experienced cyberbullying and as Coyne et al., (2017) state, the use of an online recruitment method is applicable as the focus is on an online phenomenon.

Another strength of this research is that it not only gathered primary data on the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers but also data from non-victimised teachers as victims may not report their experiences for concern of their reputation. As Datta et al., (2017) report that instances of bullying when measured between members of the school community should have some external measurement by other parties, however while these secondary prevalence reportings support the trends found in this research further internal support is needed.

A further strength of this research is the representative nature of the sample to the national post-primary teacher demographic. The gender and age of post-primary teachers in this research is supported by the national registration held by the Teaching Council of Ireland. In addition to this, the majority of teachers within this research also had several years teaching experience across a variety of schools.

Furthermore this research also had methodological strengths, firstly the use of a pilot study to identify potential issues with data collection but to also to gather insights
from post-primary teachers on the questions asked and thus increase potential participation through altering the survey. This research also used measures with high validity previously used in research from Ireland and the U.K. on cyberbullying among pupils (Slonje & Smith, 2008) while also using a robust measure which specifically focused on a teacher’s perception of school climate (NJDOE, 2012).

This research also provided further support to the limited research on the cyberbullying of teachers internationally, and to the best of this researchers knowledge is the first in Ireland to examine the social networking behaviours of teachers, their cyberbullying and how this in turn effects their school climate perceptions. To date this research is also the first to examine the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers in Ireland, providing insights into the prevalence amongst teachers, and allowing for further exploration of the phenomenon. Furthermore this investigation recruited participants nationally, gathering a large sample or participants which was composed of teachers who held various roles within their school.
5.3.2 Limitations

Although this research is the first national cyberbullying research study examining the relationship between pupils and teachers, there are several limitations to this study. First, it is possible that the teachers who chose to complete this research had more experience with school violence or their own bullying experiences than other teachers who opted not to participate. Therefore, this limitation may have inflated the rates of reported teacher-directed cyberbullying. While there are benefits to gathering data online, participants who may not be comfortable to complete online surveys may also have chosen not to participate or withdrew if the survey took them longer than expected, potentially limiting the scope of data collection.

Another limitation of this research focuses on self-reported measures, and as Sun and Royal (2017) highlight the use of self-reported measures on school climate are subject to self-reported bias. This also applies to the cyberbullying behaviour and social media questionnaires. Furthermore the cyberbullying questionnaire used has varying frequencies for the duration of cyberbullying behaviour and participants can respond if they have experienced cyberbullying within the last 6 months or in the last three months, the large gaps between these may not be an appropriate time scale measure. In addition to this research does not take into account bystander behaviour or the primary accounts of other members of the school community and how this in turn may affect bystander behaviour in the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers. On this basis the self-reported findings allow participants to display themselves or their actions in a favourable light and may not reflect actual behaviour.

While this research provides novel findings and insights into the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers in Ireland, the motivations of cyberbullies are not truly known which limits the scope of this research. The reasons why teachers were cyberbullied by
their pupils, parents and other members of the school community and whether this is a result of teacher and pupil interaction or relates to a challenge to the teachers’ authority in their role as previous researchers have suggested is unknown (De Wet, 2012). As Kowalski, Toth and Morgan (2018) discussed, the causes of bullying and cyberbullying behaviour can provide areas of focus to address the bullying behaviour of the bully to prevent its occurrence. On this basis, this research would be further supported by more causational investigation to identify why participants were cyberbullied. Further research should examine the rationale for a pupil’s behaviour, specifically gathering this rationale from the perpetrator and the victim to identify the potential differences between bully and victim.

The sample size obtained in this research is a potential limitation. Although the overall sample is respectable, the prevalence of cyberbullying by pupils within the study is small and reduces further when the other sources of cyberbullying are discussed. While the results obtained in this research are novel and the first in Ireland in this area, deeper examination using a mixed methods approach is required. In addition to this, the cyberbullying questionnaire does not assess the severity of the cyberbullying experienced by a teacher, but only the impact of forms of cyberbullying compared to traditional bullying. While this limits the data collected, research by Wozencroft, Campbell, Orel, Kimpton and Leong (2015) argues that unless researchers assess the self-reported impact of an incident, the intentions of the victim to report and the severity of the impact on the victim remains truly unknown however this limitation can be assessed in the future.

Further to this limitation, unlike recent research by Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a; 2017b), this research did not identify if the victims in this research taught their bullies. While this is often assumed, further research should examine the offline
relationship between the victim and bully more closely to understand if this has an effect on the victimisation of a teacher.

Brewer and Kerslake (2015) previously discussed that while the victims of cyberbullying may participate in research, participants may not be willing to publicly report their victimisation due to how they will be perceived. In the context of the cyberbullying of teachers by pupils this may also affect reporting rates, as teachers may perceive their victimisation as a result of their own character or actions. The measurement of cyberbullying has also been found to be affected through the use of definition (Smith, 2012). As the Department of Education and Skills (2013a, 2013b) follow the definition proposed by O’Moore (2014) for cyberbullying among peers in Irish schools, this was also the definition used for this study. While this provides strengths and weaknesses to this research, it must be noted that the definition for the cyberbullying used to gather data is not the definition for the cyberbullying of a teacher posed by this research. This was chosen as teachers are already familiar with the definitions used at pupil level.

A further limitation of this research relates to the measurement of stress, as this research asked participants to self-report their own stress levels, similar to the work by the ASTI (2004) and Herman et al., (2018). While this method is useful for the gathering of data, internal consistency calls for the use of a more robust and valid measure to evaluate the stress levels of participants.

5.4 Suggestions for future research

While this research is the first in Ireland to examine the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers in Ireland and its resulting effects on school climate, there are several avenues which can build on this study. Firstly this research would recommend a larger
study including both the Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland, using the same variables examined, and in addition to this gathering data on the influences of school type and ethos. However instead of solely focusing on post-primary teachers, this research would also recommend that data be collected from parents and pupils to understand the perspectives and differences compared to teachers.

This research gathered data online using a survey which also allowed for some qualitative remarks by participants, however as the cyberbullying of teachers has shown variances and specific nuances in definition and impacts. This research requires richer data to be gathered using qualitative data through semi-structured interviews, but also a case study approach could be used focusing, further on an incident of cyberbullying to understand all the perspectives of those involved.

While teacher unions play an important role for supporting the cyberbullying of teachers, the perceptions of those who work in unions and how their support is provided is still unknown. Future work is needed with unions to understand their role further to inform policy.

While this research discusses how instructional practices and classroom management may counteract bullying and cyberbullying, future research on the cyberbullying of teachers should include instructional practices, while focusing on the individual relationships in a classroom, to identify if there is a correlation between this behaviour and bullying and cyberbullying of teachers, but also their future relationships with pupils. Kopecky and Szothkowski (2017a) argued that cyberbullying can impact on victims’ relationships, specifically the formation of their interpersonal relationships, which can inhibit socialisation and influence the general well-being of the individual.
As this research gathered the self-reported data of victimised and non-victimised teachers, this research must consider, as previous researchers have, that there may be bias in the data (Datta et al., 2017). Participants all reported positive perceptions of school climate, this may be due to teachers wanting to display that they have a positive school environment not associated with bullying. Furthermore the teachers in this research who were not happy within their school or who have been victimised may report more negative perceptions of school climate. Further research is needed in Irish post-primary schools to identify if the positive school climate responses amongst staff are identified in other research.

The participants in this research who experienced cyberbullying reported significantly negative scores for school climate and reported higher stress levels. However, while these results reflect the negative psychological impacts which result from victimisation, a longitudinal study utilising more robust measures (such as the general mental health questionnaire or scales which examine anxiety) could be used to identify the short-term and long-term effects of being bullied by teachers.

This research supports the work of researchers who identify that cyberbullying and bullying cannot be viewed as two separate phenomenon but intersecting behaviours (O’Moore, 2014; Slonje, Smith & Frisen, 2017). Future examinations on the cyberbullying of teachers should also identify if teachers experience other forms of violence in or outside of school by members of the school community to identify if similar overlapping prevalence rates are present.

Furthermore as Kowalski, Toth and Morgan (2018) state in their research on workplace bullying and cyberbullying, further examination is needed to determine the relationship between bullying and cyberbullying, but also the correlates and impacts
such as depression, self-esteem and social anxiety. This research would suggest comparison of these two forms of bullying behaviours, as well as cases that overlap as both bullying and cyberbullying is warranted. This would inform researchers and schools of their effects but also their impact on workplaces, including employee absenteeism and employee retention. Examining the prevalence of the cyberbullying and bullying of teachers by members of the school community would allow researchers to further understand the impacts on mental health when victimised but also the differences which may occur in the varying forms.

Future research should consider school climate measurement with all participants. In the case of this study which focused on teachers, further insights could be identified from parent and pupil perceptions. Research on school climate by Ramsey, Spira, Parisi and Rebok (2016) advocate a whole school approach assessment for school climate measurement, as they identified significant differences between students, parents and staff. This wider assessment would create more knowledge from the school community so that specific considerations may be made for the needs of school groups in training and resources.

Future research investigating the cyberbullying or bullying of teachers by pupils should seek to examine the external effects after victimisation occurs. The research on remorse by Slonje, Smith and Frisen (2012) which examined the feelings of remorse by bullies and cyberbullies, should be explored in the context of this field. This could be conducted in a mixed methods approach to identify this phenomenon from the perspective of the pupil, while gathering richer data from interviews with the stakeholders of a cyberbullying case of a teacher. In doing so, the levels of remorse and the causes for remorse expressed by pupils who bully their teachers and could further
prevention efforts but also aid in the resolution of cases and raise empathy among cyberbullies.

In addition to the qualitative insights which may be identified above, future research may seek to examine the potential application of the bystander effect paradigm (Darley & Latane, 1968). While this research focused on the relationships between staff and pupils, drawing on school climate, future research could examine how relationships between pupils and their teachers as well as between school staff may predict bystander behaviour in cyberbullying situations. This would further both the findings of this research using school climate as a predictor and the work by Madden and Loh (2018).

5.5 Conclusion

This research has identified that the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers does occur in Irish schools; however a teacher’s victimisation is not influenced by their gender or age. As this research discussed above, victimisation may be influenced by the social media use of a teacher, while the rationale for their victimisation is unknown. In line with limited existing research on the cyberbullying of a teacher by their pupils, this research supports that further research is needed which examines the interpersonal relationships and variables which may influence victimisation.

The participants who were victimised also sought support from a number of members of the school community and, in contrast with other research, the majority sought support from school management, which may indicate positive relationships with management, particularly confidence and trust to resolve the incident. The majority of teachers experienced the cyberbullying tactic of exposure, having their image or video posted online without their consent, and while this is the first research in Ireland, further work is needed to identify other tactics which pupils may use.
The main implications of this research are for training in schools. Teachers require further support for safe online behaviour, anti-bullying practices and classroom management styles which may aid prevention efforts. This researcher would also recommend that pupil training which promotes safer online behaviour and digital citizenship may aid in the reduction of disinhibition and moral disengagement to reduce a pupils’ digital misconduct.

Finally school leaders and management should adopt policies which address the cyberbullying of teachers, aiming to prevent the behaviour, support a teachers psychological wellbeing, and promote teaching efficacy. In turn, teachers and other members of the school community should foster positive relationships with pupils to increase the overall climate of a school and aid prevention efforts. Further to this, research is needed in Ireland to expand on this study to build an understanding of the phenomenon, supporting teachers while also examining the most frequent source of cyberbullying, the pupil. The theoretical and practical implications of this research will be discussed in the next chapter in relation to implications for education, psychologists who work in education, and policy development.
6. Theoretical and Practical Implications

6.1 Educational implications

As this research has discussed, the cyberbullying of teachers poses a number of challenges, which requires a whole school approach solution to counteract. The implications of this approach for education focus on prevention, intervention of the cyberbullying of teachers and support structures for the victim, bystander and cyberbully. These recommendations will be discussed under several headings: 1) Awareness Raising; 2) Training; 3) Psychological Implications and Supports; and 4) School Climate.

6.1.1 Awareness Raising

Researchers who examine bullying often discuss the need to raise awareness as part of a whole school approach to share knowledge, provide skills and deliver training to prevent, intervene and resolve bullying cases due to their impacts on the school and mental health (O’Moore, 2012, 2014; Smith, 2014; Cowie & Myers, 2018). This research identified that the majority of participants engaged in safe online behaviours, however this safe online behaviour must be further supported and increased to prevent opportunities for cyberbullying. This may be achieved through awareness campaigns. In doing so, teachers’ personal reputations may be maintained and unaffected by any potential consequences of their digital reputations in school.

O’Higgins Norman and Sullivan (2017) argue that school leaders can implement change with staff in a school through awareness promotion in staffrooms and at staff meetings. This would provide staff with an opportunity to get support to prevent their own victimisation and improve the relationships between staff and management. Similar to the awareness which is raised for Safer Internet Day by the European
Commission, and the campaigns implemented by the Department of Education and Skills (2013b) whereby, schools are required to provide in-service talks and training to increase awareness and skills. This training will be discussed further as it may be directed at the various members of the school community to counteract the cyberbullying of teachers.

6.1.2 Training

Research on the cyberbullying of teachers by Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a; 2017b), identified that teachers combine various strategies to cope with cyberbullying, including blocking content, creating records for investigation and addressing the incident within the school. However as this research identified gaps in a teacher’s knowledge on cyberbullying and safe online behaviours, similar strategies which are used with pupils to prevent negative experiences are also needed through professional development training. The qualitative findings of this research highlighted the need for further training to support teachers to establish the personal and professional boundaries due to the overlapping nature of social media and its impact on the school community and in doing so providing further online safety supports for teachers. The already established concerns identified including the ethical issues, appropriate use of technology, privacy concerns may all impact on a teachers reputation if negative experiences arise. Furthermore as teachers are now viewed within the school community as digital mentors as part of the digital strategy for education in Ireland, further training and supports are needed to aid teachers in this role.

Several researchers support the need for educators to be provided with digital training on social media and privacy (Carter et al., 2008) but also on e-learning environments where pupil interaction takes place, to be aware of the need for privacy and which information should and should not be disclosed to others (Chou & Chen,
While other researchers support that, training and policy supports are currently hindered by the difficulties in defining and measuring cyberbullying in different workplace contexts, including the power and intention criteria in this research considering the dynamic of the pupil and teacher (Farley, Coyne & D'Cruz, 2018).

While training for teachers is beneficial to increase preventative measures and provide skills for intervention, it is important to also address the source of cyberbullying, which in most cases is the pupil. This research supports the Department of Education and Skills (2013b) and Patterson et al; (2017) who recommend that teachers are best placed to instruct their pupils to become digital citizens and guide them on appropriate social media use, including cyberbullying, while encouraging pupils to comply with rules when using mobile phones and the internet. O’Higgins Norman and Sullivan (2017) support this view, stating that bullying and cyberbullying must be addressed in a wider social environment and include the relationships within it. This is further supported by the Department of Education and Skills (2018) in the National Action Plan for Education (2013), stating that bullying must be considered as a continuum of behaviour rather than a series of standalone incidents, which require continuous preventative practices. A method of achieving these goals is if teachers implement Cyber-phronesis approaches.

Harrison (2016) proposed that cyber-phronesis may be an effective tool to combat this cyberbullying behaviour. Cyber-phronesis was defined by Harrison (2016) as the ability for a person to do the right thing while online, in a moment when they may engage in a negative behaviour, rationalising their actions and in turn preventing the behaviour. This research would argue that moral disengagement (Bandura, 2002), which may increase cyberbullying perpetration, can be counteracted through the implementation of cyber-phronesis (Harrison, 2016). Applying the recommendations of
Kyriacou and Zuin (2018), training should not only aim to counteract cyberbullying behaviour but foster empathy and responsibility to counteract moral disengagement as a bystander.

Teachers who train their pupils should aim to promote empathic bystander behaviours (Cross et al, 2015), in order to reduce the disengagement, and increase self-regulating online behaviour (Harrison, 2016). This may influence bullying and cyberbullying perpetrators and their supporting bystanders to alter their own behaviour (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2016; Mazzone et al., 2016). Patterson, Allan and Cross (2017) also support that moral disengagement should be countered through training and building relationships as it can decrease cyberbullying behaviour and also increase bystander action to support those that experience cyberbullying. Further emphasis on digital training and ethical online behaviour may promote behaviour changes amongst pupils, as Gleeson (2014) stated that positive and pro social behaviours should be promoted further in schools, and where required alongside sanctions when boundaries are breached.

In addition to the implications for training which are discussed above, this researcher recommends the need for further training to be provided to teachers, school leaders and the school as a whole to combat bullying and cyberbullying. As Gleeson (2014) identified, pupil awareness of a teacher’s ability to intervene in bullying and cyberbullying incidents may reduce the prevalence of peer bullying/cyberbullying as well as the cyberbullying of teachers. This is supported by the findings of this research but also Foody, Challenor, Murphy and O’Higgins Norman (2018) and Murphy, Downes and O’Higgins Norman (2017), where principals and teachers have requested further training on anti-bullying prevention and intervention.
In addition to the digital skills training and cyber-phronesis highlighted above, teachers can also attempt to reduce opportunities for students to record them in their classrooms and post them online to expose and embarrass the teacher as seen in this research and that conducted by Kyriacou and Zuin (2015). Research on managing challenging classroom behaviour which may present, such opportunities to pupils has been found to be effective and is mediated by a teacher’s instructional practice, as Müller, Hofmann, Begert & Cillessen, (2018) identified that the influence of peers on disruptive behaviours and teachers’ method of instruction can mitigate disruptive behaviours. The results of Müller et al; (2018) suggest that teachers who use supportive instruction are less likely to experience disruptive behaviour, as pupils were more focused on achievement academically, however this may not be as influential with pupils who are not focused on academic achievement, which requires further tools. Further to this finding, Müller et al., (2018) state that teachers who are perceived by their pupils as disengaged and less supportive are more likely to become frustrated and engage in disruptive classroom behaviours. On this basis, teachers and schools need various training methods which focus on their online behaviour and classroom management while addressing the main source of cyberbullying against them, and fostering cyber-phronesis and digital citizenship, these suggestions are shown in Fig 31.
Implications for Training

6.1.3 School Climate

The final implications for education are the concerns which must be given to school climate. As Aldridge et al., (2017) discussed, further consideration must be given to the psychosocial and physical components of school climate as these may be used to enhance the connections between staff, staff and their pupils, improve relationships with parents, and aid in the reduction of both cyberbullying and bullying of post-primary teachers. This relationship development between staff and pupils it may contribute to a shared value and norm system within a school to prevent and counter cyberbullying behaviours (Sulak, 2018).
Furthermore, schools should consider the importance of emotions and workplace stressors with cyberbullying, allow teachers to consider their interpersonal interactions online, and include training on how to manage these relationships in professional and social contexts (Vranjes, Baillien, Vanderbosch, Erreygers & De Witte, 2018).

Drawing on these findings school leadership and indeed teachers on an individual level should seek to promote and enhance their relationships in schools and online where applicable, on a continual basis to promote positive school climate and reduce bullying/cyberbullying. Researchers have identified that school climate components such as connectedness, rule clarity, in addition to supportive teachers and effective in tackling bullying can reduce victimisation (Aldridge et al., 2017; Gleeson, 2014).

This researcher recommends that school leaders and teachers consider the research by Müller et al., (2018) in order to promote their relationships with pupils within the school climate, to prevent disruptive behaviours from occurring which may lead to cyberbullying incidents within a classroom. Furthermore Kopecky and Szothkowski (2017a) argue that cyberbullying can impact on victims’ relationships, specifically the formation of their interpersonal relationships, which can inhibit socialisation and influence the general well-being of the individual. Therefore in light of this research and the research discussed above, school management should consider the introduction of a new policy accounting for the cyberbullying of teachers, explicitly stating the need for training which encompasses online safety, cyberbullying and bullying prevention and intervention, relationship promotion and classroom management. This would aid a teacher to not only prevent their own victimisation, but
would allow a whole school approach to challenge bullying behaviour, while increasing the climate of teachers’ own classroom and school (Espelage, Polanin & Low, 2014).

6.2 Psychological Implications and Supports

6.2.1 Psychological implications

As the participants in this research who were cyberbullied reported increase stress levels and as a positive relationship was found between overall stress as a teacher and stress from social networking, it is important for this research to discuss the implications of stress and cyberbullying on mental health. International research in education has established teaching as a stressful occupation which can affect teacher burnout, student academic achievement (Gray et al., 2017; Herman et al., 2017), reduced staff performance and well-being (Yong & Yue, 2007; Garrick et al., 2017) and negatively impact on school climate (Saeki et al., 2017).

The psychological impacts of bullying and cyberbullying have also been widely researched. Tokunaga (2010) reported that cyberbullying is seen as more harmful than traditional bullying. The ability which anonymity affords a cyberbully may not only heighten the mental health impacts of the victim but also prevent resolution or intervention in cyberbullying cases (Suler, 2004; Cotter & McGilloway, 2011; Slonje et al., 2017). Furthermore, the psychological impacts of cyberbullying can include suicidal ideation, depression, behavioural difficulties and psychosomatic problems (Hinduja & Patchin, 2010). While the victims of cyberbullying also report feelings of loneliness, hopelessness, anxiety and anger (Tokunaga, 2010), victims and perpetrators of cyberbullying have also been found to have reduced self-esteem (Patchin & Hinduja, 2010).
Bester, du Plessis and Treurnich (2017) can provide further insights into the negative psychological impact which cyberbullying may have on a post-primary teacher. Their research identified that the cyberbullying of a teacher can result in emotional distress, anxiety, anger, humiliation and a loss of dignity as well as a wider effect causing distress to the victims’ family. Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017) discussed the short-term impacts and persistent and long-term impacts of cyberbullying. Short-term impacts can include anger, sadness, fear, self-blame and helplessness (Slonje et al., 2017; Smith, 2014; Cowie & Myers, 2017). The long-term impacts may include not only the short-term impacts but also social anxiety (Toth & Morgan, 2018), loneliness and depression (Farley, Coyne, Sprigg, Axtell & Subramanian, 2015; Saeki, Segool, Pendergast & von der Embse, 2017).

The impacts of cyberbullying in the workplace identified by Kowalski, Toth and Morgan (2018) suggest that while cyberbullying prevalence was higher in adulthood in their research than bullying, it also had more of an impact on the victim. Victims experienced higher levels of depression and social anxiety than bullied participants, while cyberbullied adults also showed higher levels of social anxiety, lower levels of self-esteem and higher rates of depression than non-victimised peers.

Brewer and Kerslake (2015) also identified that cyberbullying negatively impacted on self-esteem, empathy and loneliness with British adolescents using the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale. In addition to individuals with low self-esteem were more likely to be victimised, while pupils with low levels of empathy were more likely to cyberbully others. This can be counteracted however, as teachers can also be supported in school to seek peer support to increase their resilience and self-esteem (Morgan, 2011). These findings further enforce the need to support the victims of cyberbullying behaviour and promote empathy in training to reduce prevalence rates.
The true impacts of cyberbullying behaviour on mental health may vary due to each content case, however these impacts are often present in cases (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2018).

6.2.2 Psychological Supports

As there are serious consequences which result from experiencing or perpetrating cyberbullying, teachers who are cyberbullied and the wider school community may require psychological supports for mental strain, stress which reduce job satisfaction (Coyne, Farley, Axtell, Sprigg, Best & Kwok, 2017). In addition to Coyne et al., (2017) provide further insights into the effect of cyberbullying in face to face settings on the individual and the wider organisation suggesting that further actions are needed to support victimised individuals as well as the rest of the community who may be aware of the behaviour.

Firstly schools should also seek support from the Irish National Educational Psychology Service (NEPS), as Purdy and Smith (2016) state that educational psychologists should have a more active role in the prevention of bullying and cyberbullying behaviour in schools. Part of this role may include supporting the creation of universal definitions which support schools at a local level to act while taking part in public consultations to support those affected. In addition educational psychologists may also provide mental health supports and assessments for pupils who may be experiencing behavioural difficulties which participants stated they spent a great deal of time on, as pupil behavioural difficulties have been previously found to be a cause of the bullying and cyberbullying of teachers (Kauppi & Porhola, 2012a).

Further contributions are needed by psychologists who work in education as this research identified variations in self-reported impacts of cyberbullying. Slonje et al.,
(2017), state that these perceived impacts discussed by participants can be used to tailor support strategies and methods for coping as a teacher who is cyberbullied by a pupil or by a co-worker, as they will require different supports to aid the teacher, but also, due to the varied impact, tailored actions may need to be taken to support and resolve what has occurred.

Gray et al., (2017) recommend that teacher stress and burnout can be reduced by school leadership, who can provide a supportive environment for teachers in and outside of the classroom. Through this implementation so providing teachers with further resilience throughout their career, providing teachers with opportunities to overcome and increase their own teaching efficacy (Morgan, 2011). While Bester et al., (2017) state that support from school leaders can reduce the negative impacts which a teacher may experience when bullied by a pupil, through policy and supporting teaching efficacy. Gray et al., (2017) state that this in turn has wider benefits on school climate, promoting relationships within the school while also having a positive effect on student academic achievement.

In addition to the negative experiences of teachers who have negative experiences within their role as a teacher can be counteracted with positive experiences and relationships within the school environment, resulting in increases in a teachers’ commitment to the teaching profession (Kitching, Morgan & O’Leary, 2009). It is important for teachers to be supported when stressed, and, as Morgan (2011) states, fostered to overcome the negative experiences which they may encounter, as effective coping strategies such as mindfulness have been found to allow teachers to mitigate and manage workplace stress and reduce potential burnout (Herman et al., 2018; Emerson et al., 2017).
Methods of coping can provide protection, such as help-seeking from family and support from members of the school community, to overcome being cyberbullied by a pupil and increase resilience after the event has passed (Bester et al., 2017). Glesson (2014), further states that problem-focused coping strategies may be effective for bullying and cyberbullying victims, whereby the individual alters their behaviour to prevent recurrence which can reduce the stress level of the victim. In the case of teachers, preventative steps and procedures to resolve their own bullying or cyberbullying may be beneficial.

6.3 Policy implications

6.3.1 New Policy

Throughout this research the nuances and difficulties of the cyberbullying of teachers have been examined, and on the basis of this and existing research in the area policy must now adapt and include the bullying and cyberbullying of the entire school community and not only account for pupils. Qualitative responses further support the need for new policy as teachers use of social media in the classroom and as a means of communication between staff is still not universal or led through the Department of Education and Skills.

As this research has previously discussed, one of the key recommendations for the reduction of bullying and cyberbullying behaviours is policy development (Department of Education and Skills, 2013b). However it is important that actions arise from policy, as research on the implementation of the anti-bullying procedures for primary and post-primary schools has been criticised because there has been no follow-up in terms of government support or circular, while principals across the post-primary
sector seek more supports to prevent and support those affected (Foody, Challenor, Murphy & O’Higgins Norman, 2018).

Research from the Czech Republic by Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a) states that school management can create conditions which consider the bullying and cyberbullying of teachers in school policy. This was supported in the UK by NASWUT (2017) who identified that although a third of teachers in their research were cyberbullied, current school policy still does not have guidelines to support victimised teachers. The quantitative and qualitative findings of this research identified that Irish teachers are indeed victimised by pupils and other members of the school community. This requires further legislative support for teachers as participants discussed that in some cases where no policy was present to support them, little or no action was taken by the school in some cases until the situations escalated. Similar procedures which are used to investigate and resolve peer based bullying and cyberbullying can be built upon to provide this support.

Policy development is an important measure to support teachers who may be bullied or cyberbullied, as workplace bullying has been found to influence personal, professional and financial well-being in addition to affecting relationships at work and home (O’Donnell & MacIntosh, 2016). Workplaces should now adapt to account for workplace cyberbullying, as Flood (2016b) states that as more employees are now online workplace cyberbullying policies should include social and organisational support for the victim while aiming to prevent its occurrence. This can in turn improve the organisational climate, relationships between staff and increase teacher commitment (Othman & Kauma, 2017).
As the literature chapter of this research has discussed there is no widely used definition for the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers, and while there are several similarities between adolescent cyberbullying and the cyberbullying of teachers it is important to provide a definition in policy. This research drew upon the work of Smith (2012), Garret (2014) and Kyriacou and Zuin (2015) to define the cyberbullying of teachers as ‘a student who uses electronic devices in an attempt to gain power over a teacher causing acts of aggressive behaviour which are intended to cause psychological, emotional or professional harm’. However schools may wish to use the definition for bullying and cyberbullying provided by the Department of Education and Skills (2013b) as this is already used in schools.

This anti-bullying policy must also be revised and assessed similarly to the current procedures for the renewal of pupil policies in schools, while also accounting for the changing mediums and methods which facilitate cyberbullying behaviour (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2018). This policy review should include all members of the school community, as Purdy and Smith (2016) state that it is important that any policy changes should involve parents and teachers in this process, as their research identified that less than 40% of policies in the Northern Ireland do so before implementation. O’Moore (2014) states that polices may be more effective when all members of the school community are a part of the process.

Similar to the new digital strategy for technology use in classrooms, this research would argue that pupils must also be consulted in this development. As qualitative responses discussed that some of the strategies used by teachers to implement social media in their instruction, further refinement of their implementation as an educational tool is also required. Parental consultation may also increase parental support for schools where pupils cyberbully teachers, as previous researchers have
identified increased rates of teachers being bullied when pupils perceived that their parents supported their bullying behaviour (De Wet, 2012).

This policy revision will inform future actions such as training, internal and external supports and definition in policy. This research would also recommend that educational policy move beyond the individual or micro level when assessing the implications of school climate, pupil behaviour and its negative consequences such as bullying or cyberbullying but instead assess the wider community at a macro level, including all school stakeholders as all these members of the school community will have different perceptions which are influenced by their own attitudes and goals (Ramsey et al., 2016; Martinez et al., 2016). Examining policy at this wider level will address concerns raised in qualitative data in relation to a teachers own reputation online and offline, providing guidance on the ethical use of devices suggested by Harrison (2016) and aid schools to work with parents to intervene in negative behaviours. This will allow school management to not only evaluate the needs of the school community but also the areas of improvement for the school across school climate which can be a benefit for the school apart from reducing cyberbullying and bullying.

To further support policies and changes within the school environment, Gleeson (2014) argues that technological strategies are required to reduce the prevalence of cyberbullying. These strategies could be implemented through the curriculum and supported by the proposed digital safety commissioner through a national online safety campaign for school communities and the wider public. Strategies which have been recommended for pupils include keeping personal data safe, protecting passwords, implementing privacy settings and only connecting with people who users know offline (Challenor et al., 2018). This research would argue that while some of these strategies
are in place at pupil level, school staff should also increase their own awareness and confidence to not only protect themselves but so that pupils feel more supported by them.

6.3.2 Reporting Procedures

Any policy development which seeks to address the cyberbullying of teachers by other members of the school community must have a transparent process of investigation, whereby teacher, parents and pupils have a shared understanding of not only the expectations but the procedures for investigation and resolution so that schools provide all teachers with the same supports and stages to resolve cyberbullying.

If a new policy is introduced which addresses the cyberbullying and bullying of teachers it is important that there is a staged procedure, similar to the procedures to investigate and resolve bullying for pupils, whereby all reports of bullying are investigated, using interviews and all relevant information. After this a decision may be made of how best to resolve the situation, providing supports for all parties, whereby the best outcome and resolution is reached to prevent future occurrence. If the behaviour is not resolved, escalation may be required but all instances must have detailed records and accounts of the entire process (Department of Education and Skills, 2013b). Currently participants in this research state that they seek support from a partner or school management to resolve any incidents of bullying, however qualitative participants provide further insight, seeking support from management in most of these cases and showing a positive relationship with their school to investigate their victimisation. The low prevalence rates seen when we ask adolescents to report their victimisation does not appear to transfer across to adults who are victimised within the school system. If policy creation can increase a teacher’s supportive power discussed by
Tew (2006) then this high reporting may be maintained and increased to allow schools to act quickly to resolve incidents.

In the current Anti Bullying Procedures for Primary and Post-Primary Schools (Department of Education and Skills, 2013b), schools may act upon cyberbullying which takes place outside of school when it impacts on the relationships within a school. This consideration must also be applied to the cyberbullying of teachers, as Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a) state that schools should be addressing non-acceptable behaviours towards a teacher, with adequate sanctions for a pupil. Adopting a similar approach as that which is used in peer cyberbullying may allow schools to take a pastoral and restorative approach within their school. Any additional new policy which is created to support teachers in their victimisation must also focus on supporting the relationships within the school climate as the findings of this research emphasise that not only do victimised teachers have significantly lower perceptions of school climate. Participants also reported negative perceptions of school management when they felt their school was not acting and in contrast positive perceptions of management when cases were resolved efficiently.

6.3.3 Supports for Stakeholders

As the educational policy recommendations have discussed, cyberbullying impacts on the victim, bully and bystanders to an event. As such it is important that policy also explicitly state how these individuals are provided with supports. This implementation could outline a series of mental health supports outside of the school, anonymous help-seeking channels as well as a dedicated contact point to deal with issues of bullying among staff, either the union representatives in a school, anti-bullying coordinator or the school principal. Many qualitative participants also sought support
from outside agencies such as their union and the Gardaí who they felt to be unhelpful or uniformed to support them.

As the cyberbullying of teachers may involve external and internal cyberbullies, additional support structures are also required. These should include the Health and Safety Authority (HSA) as their own inspectors can aid school leaders to introduce measures to reduce cyberbullying behaviours but also supports when events arise. As participants discussed that external agencies are unhelp when contacted to aid them in resolving their own cyberbullying experiences, further training is also needed amongst the Gardai, teachers and principal education organisations and amongst parent groups to better inform them of the impacts and ways in which they can support cyberbullied teachers. Furthermore these measures which can be taken by schools should include pupil training, to counter not only the cyberbullying of teachers but cyberbullying as a whole.

6.3.4 Government Policy

While the introduction of new policy can be beneficial, it is important that this policy is actioned and taken up by schools. In a review of social media company cyberbullying policies, Milosevic, (2016) stated that a government representative act on these policies, such as the Australian office of Children’s eSafety commission. As Ireland aims to introduce a new commissioner for digital safety, it is important that the person appointed also examine the wider environment, accounting for all those who may experience cyberbullying, issues of online safety and methods to counter negative online behaviour.

New approaches are currently being examined by the Department of Education and Skills to allow schools to introduce smartphone and tablet use in classrooms to
support education (Department of Education and Skills, 2018b). The policy requires stakeholder involvement, to ensure safe device use but also to address cyberbullying. The effective implementation of this process discussed by O’Moore (2014), involves students, parents, teachers and school management to create guidelines for device use and official school policy for their use in the classroom as educational tools. This collaborative approach would support that pupils are involved and agree to the rules set for their device use, and importantly that teachers are a positive role model for pupils in their device use as previous researchers have identified that these role model behaviours can influence school climate and behaviour (Twemlow et al., 2006, Bandura, 1986).

If this approach is adopted, consideration must be given to the acceptable boundaries pupils must follow to prevent the cyberbullying of other pupils and staff, particularly the non-consensual recording of others which was central to the cyberbullying of teachers detailed by Kyriacou and Zuin (2015). The implementation of this boundaries will draw upon the utilitarian approach of Harrison (2016), discussed in the first chapter of this research, whereby pupils who have agreed to a specific set of rules, evaluate their potential cyberbullying actions on the basis of the consequences which may occur and alter their behaviours.

Furthermore, this research identified that many teachers communicate with their pupils for professional purposes, such as Instagram to deliver their curriculum and engage pupils. Further policy is needed to support teachers to use social media within the curriculum providing guidance not only on the most effective methods but for issues such as GDPR. More recently the Teaching Council of Ireland have drafted guidelines for the use of social media by teachers. Making recommendations for the appropriate and responsible use of social media within school. This policy addresses the issues seen in qualitative findings where teachers receive request from pupils stating that “future
teachers should be aware of the challenges that can be associated with the use of electronic communication and social media, particularly in a private capacity” (The Teaching Council 2019, p1). The results of this research identified that teacher stress levels were increased due to the pressure caused by social media, on this basis we must ensure that teachers have more support to reduce the pressures and stress which may be due to their social media use.

NASUWT (2014) also advocate the implementation of school policies to address the cyberbullying of teachers, to prevent abuse by outlining sanctions for parents and pupils who breach these policies. This research would also recommend that schools and unions aid Irish teachers to have content on social media sites removed. Furthermore, this research supports O’Higgins Norman and Sullivan (2017), who argue that the development and implementation of school policy should consider methods to help teachers reflect on their own personal and professional dynamics, in this case evaluating their own device use in school for professional and personal reasons.

However, policy changes are also needed at a workplace level to support school staff, as human resource policies and health and safety legislation should account for cyberbullying, in and out of working contexts. The introduction of policy however may be difficult as there are ambiguous hurdles, such as the legal sanctioning of a pupil (which can result in negative outcomes for the teacher, see Bester et al., 2017), which would not be a strategy anyone who works within education would take lengthy, instead seeking an in-house solution.

However, this research would suggest that at government level, the Health and Safety Authority (HAS) in partnership with teachers unions and the Teaching Council of Ireland create clear online policies for educational workplaces. As Coyne et al.,
(2017) suggest, policy changes which account for cyberbullying should include guides on acceptable behaviours for online communication, specifying that leadership is central to implementation and development of trust between the organisation and employee.

The Health and Safety at Work Act (2005) states that the employer must ensure that training is adapted to take account of new or changed risks in the workplace to support staff. This research would recommend that these include various forms of training, including classroom management for device use, personal online safety training, digital skills training for pupils and training to promote school functioning, primarily school climate.

Schools that fail to support teachers who are bullied may face legal challenges by victims or the sanctions of current government policies such as the Health and Safety at Work Act (Health and Safety Authority, 2005). The main goal of unions is to support and aid teachers in their careers. In relation to the cyberbullying of teachers NASUWT stated that they will continue to challenge the cyberbullying as much as possible, including industrial action where any school fails to treat their staff with dignity and respect (NASUWT, 2018).

The Health and Safety Authority also currently provides a phone service for people who experience bulling in the workplace. While they could support workplace cyberbullying, if it was expanded further, it could support all adults who are victimised. As workplace cyberbullying does not only happen during working hours a reporting or email service may also be beneficial or as Milosevic (2016) argues, an emphasis on the fostering of bystander action to aid any digital intervention.
However, the introduction of government policy may be hindered for cyberbullying as the Law Reform Commission (2016) discuss that the term cyberbullying is often not used within the law as it is viewed as too broad a term. The recommendation is that instead of cyberbullying the term ‘Harmful Communication’ was used which does cover any intention to cause harm to another person using technology. The introduction of any laws is still however unseen as critically no actions were taken to introduce law after this review and cyberbullying in the law is currently addressed using the Postal and Telecommunications Services Act (1983).

As this chapter has discussed, there are a number of implications which arise from this research for those that work in education, psychology, unions, school management and legislators to consider. This research recommends that the implications of these findings are used to further support not only a teacher but the overall functioning of a school using a combined approach to improve the role of a teacher and the wider educational setting. This research will conclude in the next chapter, providing an evaluation of the overall research.
7. Conclusion

This research aimed to examine the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers by their pupils in Ireland, and as part of this examination this research also investigated a teacher’s phone use and social networking behaviours as well as their knowledge of online safety tools. The participants in this research also provided self-reported stress levels in their role and as a result of social networking and their perceptions of their school climate to allow comparisons to be made between victimised and non-victimised teachers.

The results of this research identified that teachers who experienced cyberbullying were predominantly victimised by their pupils, then by parents and followed by other members of the school community. This victimisation also resulted in varied impacts when compared to traditional tactics and stress levels which were dependent on the source of the cyberbullying, despite negative perceptions of school climate among victims, the majority still sought support from school management. It is important for researchers to consider that cyberbullying among adolescents and adults poses the same difficulties due to its ambiguous features. This was similarly identified by qualitative responses by teachers, where the theme of the fluidity of cyberbullying was derived. This theme focused on the blurred lines between the personal and professional boundaries which are impacted by the implementation of social media in education for instruction. These findings require further investigation to support teachers to establish and maintain clearer boundaries for their social media use as they too are entitled to boundaries between their personal and professional use. As both qualitative and quantitative findings identify the increased stress and pressures of social networking in their role but also as it may reduce overall stress levels. This is
particularly important for teachers as the new guidelines for teachers use of social media states that “teachers may be subject to a level of scrutiny over and above other public sector employees because of their work with children and vulnerable persons (The Teaching Council, 2019, p1). While this policy provides support and advice for teachers using social media and the associated professional risks to a teacher there is currently no training or tangible supports available to teachers about their own use of social media or how teachers can best role model this behaviour which is a recommendation for this research.

As this research has discussed, these often include features such as anonymity which can increase disengagement and reduce empathy (Mazzone et al., 2016), lack of supervision by parents or industry (Coyen et al., 2017; McGuire & O’Higgins Norman, 2016), the pervasive nature of the medium, audience size and potential for repetition (Smith, 2012; Corcoran et al., 2015). All of these components can then heighten the feelings of helplessness and psychological impact on the victim in adults or adolescents (Coyne et al., 2017; Farley et al., 2018; Saeki et al., 2017). Participants responses also highlighted the feelings of helplessness in their situations, the lack of ability to defend themselves or their reputations. While these qualitative findings provide further weight to quantitative results, future research should examine the specific impacts in individual cases to identify the impact on a individual’s reputation, wellbeing and role as a teacher.

Two theories which are discussed may provide further insights. Counter-power theory (Terry, 1998) and attribution theory (Kauppi & Pörhölä, 2012b) may rationalise why teachers feel powerless to defend themselves in an online situation and may not seek support during victimisation. However, while this may explain why some teachers do not seek support, these theories are not fully supported by this research as a large portion of teachers do seek internal support from management in their schools.
While researchers have investigated the prevalence of cyberbullying in workplace settings (Coyne et al., 2017), this emergent research is the first in Ireland to examine the cyberbullying of Irish teachers, providing further insights in the field of the cyberbullying of teachers and building on the work of previous international research (Kyriacou & Zuin, 2015; Kopecky & Szotkowski, 2017). This research also provides novel insights through the examination of the social media use and workplace cyberbullying of post-primary teachers by members of the school community and its resulting impacts on the teacher, and their perceptions of the school community.

As this research has investigated the social media use of post-primary teachers, their cyberbullying experiences by members of the school community and its effect on school climate there are a number of closing conclusions which may be drawn. Firstly, while the social media use of teachers was not a main area of investigation of this study it has provided a number of unexpected findings and implications for both policy and practice.

It is imperative that teachers receive increase supports and training on social networking to incorporate into their own personal use but also to ensure they can create future digital citizens in their own classrooms and support the recommendations for social media use provided by the Teaching Council (2019). This research identified that a significant portion of participants have still not undertaken any training on bullying or cyberbullying as a result of government policy, in addition to this some participants do not want this training. Teachers must be provided with the appropriate support level in regard to training, assessing their needs and providing them with their ideal support.

This training is not only needed in post-primary education, as access to technology continues to increase with the introduction of smartphones and tablets in
classrooms in primary and post-primary schools (Department of Education and Skills, 2018b). We must therefore begin digital safety training and pro-social ethical online behaviour in primary schools to aid both early intervention but establish positive normative behaviour at a young age (Gleeson, 2014; O’Higgins Norman & Sullivan, 2017).

This positive behaviour can, as Gleeson (2014) stated, create an ethical and caring environment within Irish schools, where management and policy can support a teacher’s co-operative power, reducing moral disengagement online and encouraging cyber-phronesis (Tew, 2006; Harrison, 2016; Mazzone et al., 2016). Teachers can encourage pro-social behaviour, by inspiring and supporting pupils to use their protective power, report content and change social norms (Tew, 2006). The use of this prosocial education curriculum is supported by Cohen et al., (2015), who state that the systematic development of core social, emotional, ethical and civic values may allow children to not only handle challenges in life but make better decisions in social and learning environments.

This should also change the behaviour of potential bullies through the promotion of a positive and supporting school climate and encouraging positive relationships (Hinduja & Patchin, 2012). As Kyriacou and Zuin (2016) discuss, school climate can be enhanced through pastoral care, promoting care and welfare, inclusion, pupil socialisation, academic support and social inclusion. The theoretical framework which is discussed above may be used to implement a behaviour change with pupils who engage in the cyberbullying of teachers and cyberbullying amongst their peers may be seen in Figure 32.
The detrimental effects of bullying and cyberbullying can have short term or long term psychological consequences for teachers which include stress, anger, fear, self-blame, anxiety and lower self-confidence and self-esteem (O’Donnell & MacIntosh, 2016; Kopecky & Szotkowski, 2017; Herman et al., 2018; Toth & Morgan, 2018). These negative experiences have been found to impact on a teacher’s overall motivation and persistence in their job and are heightened by stress, requiring more preventative and support measures to aid the teacher (Morgan et al., 2010). On this basis, educators, school leaders and policy makers must therefore aim to counteract this occurrence through best practice prevention methods, while providing supports for those already affected (Gray, Wilcox & Nordstokke, 2017). Overcoming these experiences can foster resilience in teachers and can counteract negative experiences and fortify motivation in their job (Moran et al., 2010).
As there are no current policies at a school, union or government level which specifically address teachers who are cyberbullied by pupils, Farley et al., (2018) argue that perpetrators can take advantage of this weakness if they believe they may not face consequences for their actions. Researchers, educators and policy makers should aim to support teachers in this regard by having clearly stated policies which are available to all members of the school community aiming to prevent the opportunities for pupils described by Farley et al., (2018). This may prove a significant challenge to overcome if there is not a united approach to prevention and intervention. While these issues occur in schools it should not be viewed as solely a localised issue and in partnership with stakeholders’ teachers can be provided with lasting supports from colleagues and policy.

Research on school climate by Aldridge et al., (2017) which identified the importance of positive school climate in reducing peer bullying recommended that schools consider the physical and psychosocial aspects of school climate. As a low prevalence rate of the cyberbullying of teachers by their pupils was identified in this research it is important to consider if the overall positive scores for school climate reduced victimisation rates, as Hinduja and Patchin (2012) previously identified fewer cyberbullying incidents where students reported a healthier school climate.

This research supports the suggestions made by Cohen et al., (2015) who discuss that when pupils are in a positive school climate where they feel connected to their school and have positive relationships with others, it is associated with reduced violence and bullying, while also increasing a teacher’s connectedness to their school (Beurden et al., 2017). This research would also endorse this adding to the recommendations made by Hong et al., (2018) whereby school climate improvement should be of interest to all those in the school community, to increase feelings of safety,
develop relationships and improve the overall daily experiences of all those in the school community. However, as this research identified, the fluidity of cyberbullying which teachers discussed must be considered as while it is important to improve relationships within the school context that teachers are also not viewed to be friends with their pupils through social media. Clear and established boundaries must be maintained not only by teachers but also by the parents of pupils, setting behaviour expectations and guidelines through policy implementation. This will not only improve the climate for teachers and reduce victimisation but also benefit pupils and other staff. Furthermore, this research would support the suggestions by Twemlow et al., (2006) and Datta et al., (2017), whereby teachers and other adults in schools are integral in the creation of a positive school climate which fosters positive relationships. Further work is needed to identify true causality and exclude confounding variables within the school climate context.

This research would also suggest that the rates of bullying and cyberbullying of post-primary teachers may also be affected by positive school climate. In addition to this, the positive role which school management and other staff can have in supporting and increasing self-esteem and self-efficacy of victimised teachers can aid in the reduction of the behavioural consequences of bullying which was supported by the responses provided by teachers who were victimised. Positive school climate among the whole school community may promote relationships, empathic behaviours and understanding between staff, pupils and management to aid in the reduction of the cyberbullying of teachers in Ireland.

The participants who were victimised in this research sought support from school management, colleagues and online. Help seeking by participants from management was an unexpected finding, based on previous research on the bullying
and cyberbullying of teachers, as support and help seeking was found to depending on whether they perceived themselves to be responsible for their own victimisation (Kauppi & Prohola, 2012). Teachers in this research altered their help-seeking slightly if they were victimised by other members of the school community and as Bester et al., (2017) stated, a teacher may consider their own reputation before seeking help.

Similar to the work by Kopecky and Szotkowski (2017a; 2017b), teachers sought support online and implemented online safety intervention tools to aid in the resolution of their cyberbullying. This research supports the need for clear and varied help seeking methods, to account for the variance in this research and to ensure that the considerable numbers who don’t seek help feel supported to do so. Additionally, this research supports the statements by Kowalski et al., (2018) that while schools have policies to support pupils more work is needed to support teachers. As schools are communities which rely on all members it is important to ensure that everyone within this environment is supported and protected.

This research has investigated the cyberbullying of post-primary teachers in Ireland, exploring a teacher’s social networking use and safe online behaviour and its relationship with victimisation and its resulting impacts on both the teacher and their perceptions of school climate. While this research is the first of its kind in Ireland, further research is needed to build on this investigative study to aid researchers to inform the design of support services and policy and aid all those in the school community to continue to reduce the prevalence of bullying and cyberbullying in Irish schools. The findings of this research support the need for a consultation process in this policy creation, involving stakeholders within the school community but also external agencies such as teaching unions and the teaching council, parent groups such as the National Parents Council Post-Primary, National Association of Principals and
Deputy Principals and the Gardaí to consider all those who may be involved to resolve the cyberbullying of a teacher. As cyberbullying is a pervasive behaviour, continuous evaluative efforts are needed to provide insights and aid in the reduction of its occurrence for all members of the school community.
8. References


[https://www.education.ie/en/Publications/Policy-Reports/Anti-Bullying-Procedures-for-Primary-and-Post-Primary-Schools.pdf](https://www.education.ie/en/Publications/Policy-Reports/Anti-Bullying-Procedures-for-Primary-and-Post-Primary-Schools.pdf)


Foody, M., Challenor, L., Murphy, H., & O’Higgins Norman, J. (2018). The Anti-Bullying Procedures for Primary and Post-Primary Schools in Ireland: What Has


http://dx.doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.27.3.396


Sawer, P. (2011, November 13). Cyberbullying victims speak out: ‘they were anonymous so they thought they could get away with it’. The Telegraph. Retrieved from https://www.telegraph.co.uk/technology/facebook/8885876/Cyberbullying-
victims-speak-out-they-were-anonymous-so-they-thought-they-could-get-away-with-it.html


Utz, S. (2015). The function of self-disclosure on social networking sites: not only intimate, but also positive and entertaining self-disclosures increase the feeling of connection. *Computers in Human Behavior, 45*, 1-10. DOI: 10.1016/j.chb.2014.11.076


Wei, H-S., Williams, J. H., Chen, J-K., & Chang, H-Y. (2010). The effects of individual characteristics, teacher practice, and school organizational factors on students’


9. Appendices

9.1 Ethical Approval Notification

Mr Liam Challenger
Anti-Bullying Centre, School of Human Development

1 December 2016

REC Reference: DCUREC/2016/176
Proposal Title: Cyberbullying of teachers by pupils
Applicant(s): Liam Challenger, Dr James O’Higgins-Norman, Dr Irene Connolly

Dear Liam and colleagues,

Further to a full committee review, the DCU Research Ethics Committee approves this research proposal.

Materials used to recruit participants should note that ethical approval for this project has been obtained from the Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee.

Should substantial modifications to the research protocol be required at a later stage, a further amendment submission should be made to the REC.

Yours sincerely,

Dr Dónal O’Gorman
Chairperson
DCU Research Ethics Committee
9.2 Letter to Teaching Council of Ireland Director

Director Tomás Ó Ruairc,
The Teaching Council,
Block A,
Maynooth Business Campus,
09-03-2017
Maynooth,
County Kildare.

Dear Mr. Ó Ruairc,

I am writing to you to request support from the Teaching Council with a PhD research project. This project is supervised by Dr. James O'Higgins Norman, Director of the National Anti-Bullying Research and Resource Centre. The project focuses on cyberbullying of teachers by their pupils in post-primary education and has obtained ethical approval from Dublin City University. As there has been limited international research on the area we wish to ensure that we can represent teachers accurately from the data we gather. One of the main aims of this project is to identify the problem further to develop training and supports for teachers.

As such, we would like to request national information about the professional profiles of teachers in Ireland. This information would include; the number of teachers registered in post-primary schools (secondary, vocational, community, fee paying and comprehensive). An overview of how many of these teachers qualified in Ireland or other countries, locality (town/county/province), years of teaching experience and demographic information such as age, gender and ethnicity. If you feel there is other information which may be beneficial please inform me.

If the Teaching Council could support this request we would be very grateful. Thank you for taking the time to read this letter.

Kind regards,

Liam Challenor, B.Sc., M.Sc.
Doctoral Researcher and Trainer
01 – 884 2012
Dear Teachers,

The National Anti-Bullying Research and Resource Centre is conducting research on the Cyberbullying of post-primary teachers in Ireland with teachers who have and have not been cyberbullied.

The research is the first of its kind in Europe, aiming to provide support to teachers through policy development supports and training. We would appreciate if you could take 15 minutes to take part in the online survey.

Teacher cyberbullying may lead to increased stress, psychosomatic effects, negative school climate and reduced academic attainment.

The survey is confidential and will take 15 minutes to complete.

The survey can be accessed at the following link: https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/CyberTeacher

If you have any questions please contact the researcher by email at Liam.challenor@dcu.ie or by phone at 01-8842168.

Kind regards,
Liam Challenor, B.Sc., M.Sc.
PhD Researcher and Trainer.
ABC - National Anti-Bullying Research and Resource Centre
9.4 Plain Language Statement

This research is titled “The Cyberbullying of Teachers by Pupils”, investigated by Liam Challenor, B.Sc., M.Sc., Dr. James O’Higgins Norman and Dr. Irene Connolly from the National Anti-Bullying Research and Resource Centre in Dublin City University. The researchers may be contacted at Liam.challenor@dcu.ie (01-8842168), James.ohigginsnorman@dcu.ie and Irene.conolly@iadt.ie.

What will my participation involve?

This research study will take place in two phases; very few participants will be requested to complete the two phases. Phase one will take place now and require about 25 minutes to complete a cyber behaviour and school climate questionnaires. Phase two will take place in April-May 2017, the second phase of this research will involve a 40 minute interview recorded in DCU, and you may opt in to these interviews by providing your email at the end of the questionnaire. You may participate in phase one and not phase two if you wish. Your participation in this research should not incur any risk in either your private or professional life.

Benefits of Participation

By choosing to participate in this research study participants will further the knowledge to prevent the cyberbullying of teachers and develop resources for teacher training in cyberbullying. This knowledge will be acquired by the participants reflecting on their own understanding and the questions being asked. This will allow for the development of training for teachers but also policy development within the school structure. Further to this teachers who have and have not been victimised will benefit by reflecting on how they personally may protect themselves online and review their own technology use.
How will my data be stored?

Your voluntary participation is completely confidential and the researcher will protect all your information. Your information will be stored in a password secured folder. Your data will confidential and not accessed by anyone but the researchers, this is subject to legal limitations. Your data will be stored for 5 years under the Data Protection Act, 1998. The researcher would like to use your data during publication and presentations of this, research this will be anonymous, if you would not like your data used please contact the researcher or supervisors.

Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary, you may close the survey at any point and your data will be withdrawn. If you have concerns about this study and wish to contact an independent person, please contact: The Secretary, Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee, c/o Research and Innovation Support, Dublin City University, Dublin 9. Tel 01-7008000

Consent

I give my consent to participate in this study and understand that I may withdraw from the study at any point.

By continuing to complete the survey you:

- Consent to participate in this research study
- Confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and had the opportunity to ask questions.
- I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time.
- I agree to take part in this study.
- I understand that data collected about me during this study will be anonymous before it is submitted for publication.
- I agree to be contacted about possible participation in future research projects.
9.5 Consent form

This survey is part of the research being conducted for a PhD by Liam Challenor in the National Anti-Bullying Research and Resource Centre in DCU. This research is funded by the Department of Education and Skills. Please contact the researcher if there is anything that is unclear or if you would like more information.

The Research Aim

The aim of this research study is to examine the social networking behaviours of teachers in post primary education. This includes the websites teachers are using and privacy behaviours of teachers in their social networking. Teachers will also be asked about their own direct or third party experiences in regard to cyberbullying experiences. By choosing to participate in this research study participants will further the knowledge to prevent the cyberbullying of teachers and develop resources for teacher training in cyberbullying. Your voluntary participation is completely confidential and the researcher will protect all your information.

Consent

I give my consent to participate in this study and understand that I may withdraw from the study at any point. By continuing to complete the survey you:

- Consent to participate in this research study
- Confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and had the opportunity to ask questions.
- I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time.
- I agree to take part in this study.
- I understand that data collected about me during this study will be anonymous before it is submitted for publication.
- I agree to be contacted about possible participation in future research projects.
9.6 Demographic & Social Media Use Questionnaire

* 5. What type of Post-Primary school do you teach in?
   - Secondary School
   - ETB School
   - Community/Comprehensive School
   - Fee Paying School
   - Other (please specify)

* 6. What is your role in your school?
   - Subject Teacher
   - Class Tutor
   - Year head
   - Chaplain
   - Guidance Counsellor
   - Assistant Principal Role (i.e. Year Head)
   - Deputy Principal
   - Principal
   - Other (please specify)

* 7. Have you undertaken any forms of anti-bullying training?
   - Yes, provided by my school
   - Yes, outside of school
   - No
   - No, but I would like training

Please describe the training desired
Social Media Use

* 8. Have you ever used your phone during class time?
   - Yes
   - No
   (please specify)

* 9. Do you have access/use of the internet on a daily basis in these places? (You may choose more than one answer).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Don't Have Access</th>
<th>Have Access</th>
<th>Have Access but not to Social Networks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Home</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your Work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your Mobile Phone/Tablet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 10. Where do you access your social media?
   - On the way to/from work
   - Home
   - In school
   - In class with pupils present
   - In class with no pupils present
   - Other (please specify)
11. Social Networks Used By You (You may choose more than one answer).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Don't Use</th>
<th>Use Daily</th>
<th>Use Weekly</th>
<th>Use Monthly</th>
<th>Use Less than Monthly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Twitter</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facebook</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instagram</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LinkedIn</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snapchat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texting (Whatsapp, SMS, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other (please specify)

12. Please list the tools you know of to prevent threats on websites and social networks.

13. Have you modified your privacy settings on your social networking websites or apps before?
   - Yes
   - No
   - I don’t know how to alter my privacy settings

14. How easy do you think it is to modify your privacy settings on your social networking websites?
   - Extremely easy
   - Very easy
   - Moderately easy
   - Slightly easy
   - Not at all easy
15. Please list any websites that you know of or have used to learn more about your security and privacy on social networking websites.

* 16. Have you interacted with your pupils for school purposes using the following?
   - [ ] Email
   - [ ] Facebook
   - [ ] Twitter
   - [ ] Skype
   - [ ] Whatsapp
   - [ ] I have not interacted with my pupils using any of these.
   - [ ] Other (please specify)

* 17. Does your school have any official social media accounts for interacting with parents or pupils?
   - [ ] Yes
   - [ ] No

* 18. Have you interacted with your pupils for non school purposes using your own social networks?
   - [ ] Yes
   - [ ] No
   - [ ] If yes please specify how

* 19. Have you altered your social media accounts to avoid contact with pupils?
   - [ ] Yes
   - [ ] No
   - If yes please specify how

364
* 20. Have you ever received a unwanted friend request from any of the following? (You may answer more than one)

☐ A pupil
☐ A parent
☐ Another staff member
☐ I have not received a request.
☐ Other (please specify)

* 21. Does your use of social media cause personal stress as a teacher?

☐ Yes (Please specify why below)
☐ No

Other (please specify)
## 9.7 Cyberbullying Questionnaire Filter Page

**Cyberbullying by a Pupil**

**Definitions:**
1. Text Message Bullying - Receiving nasty or upsetting messages to your phone
2. Picture and Video Bullying - Directly receiving nasty/upsetting pictures or video clips, or others receiving nasty/upsetting pictures or videos about you.
3. Phone Call Bullying - Receiving nasty/upsetting or prank calls on your phone.
4. Email Bullying - Receiving abusive emails.
5. Instant Message Bullying - Negative messages sent on instant messaging platforms (Facebook Messenger, WhatsApp etc.)
6. Website Bullying - A negative website which is created about someone revealing personal details (Blog or another website)
7. Social Media Bullying - Receiving or seeing hurtful communications on a social networking website about you.
8. Online Gaming Bullying - Receiving hurtful messages via online gaming or continuous reporting by other users.

* 24. Have you been cyberbullied by a pupil via

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>Over a year ago</th>
<th>Within the last 6 months</th>
<th>Within the last 3 months</th>
<th>Within the last month</th>
<th>Within the last few weeks</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text messages</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pictures or video-clips</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone calls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emails</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant messaging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website bullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (please specify)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 9.8 Cyberbullying Questionnaire by Pupils
* 25. Do you think the following forms of cyberbullying have more or less of an effect on the victim than face-to-face bullying?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Less of an effect</th>
<th>The same effect</th>
<th>More of an effect</th>
<th>Don’t know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text message bullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture/video clip bullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone call bullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email bullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant message bullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website bullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reasons (please specify)

* 26. Have you been cyberbullied through the following methods by male or female pupils?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mainly by one male</th>
<th>By several males</th>
<th>Mainly by one female</th>
<th>By several females</th>
<th>By both males and females</th>
<th>I don’t know who contacts me</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture/video clip cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone call cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
27. By how many students have you been cyberbullied through the following methods?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Mainly by one</th>
<th>By a group of 2-3</th>
<th>By a group of 4-9</th>
<th>By a group of more than 9</th>
<th>By several different students or groups</th>
<th>Ni/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture/Video clip cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone call cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (please specify)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

28. How long did the cyberbullying last?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>1 or 2 weeks</th>
<th>About a month</th>
<th>For 6 months</th>
<th>For 1 year</th>
<th>1 year +</th>
<th>Ni/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture/Video clip cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone call cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (please specify)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
29. Did you tell anyone about the cyberbullying? (Please state why)

- Yes
- No

Other (please specify)
9.8 Cyberbullying Questionnaire by Parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 31</th>
<th>Text message bullying</th>
<th>Picture/video clip bullying</th>
<th>Phone call bullying</th>
<th>Email bullying</th>
<th>Instant message bullying</th>
<th>Website bullying</th>
<th>Social Media</th>
<th>Online Gaming</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less of an effect</td>
<td>The same effect</td>
<td>More of an effect</td>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reasons (please specify)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 32</th>
<th>Text message cyberbullying</th>
<th>Picture/video clip cyberbullying</th>
<th>Phone call cyberbullying</th>
<th>Email cyberbullying</th>
<th>Instant message cyberbullying</th>
<th>Website cyberbullying</th>
<th>Social Media cyberbullying</th>
<th>Online Gaming cyberbullying</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mainly by one male</td>
<td>By several males</td>
<td>Mainly by one female</td>
<td>By several females</td>
<td>By both males and females</td>
<td>I don't know who contacts me</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
* 35. Did you tell anyone about the cyberbullying? (Please state why)

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] No

Other (please specify)
Cyberbullying by Management

Definitions:
1) Text Message Bullying - Receiving nasty or upsetting messages to your phone
2) Picture and Video Bullying - Directly receiving nasty/upsetting pictures or video clips, or others receiving nasty/upsetting pictures or videos about you.
3) Phone Call Bullying - Receiving nasty/upsetting or prank calls on your phone.
4) Email Bullying - Receiving abusive emails.
5) Instant Message Bullying - Negative messages sent on instant messaging platforms (Facebook Messenger, Whatsapp etc.)
6) Website Bullying - A negative website which is created about someone revealing personal details (Blog or another website)
7) Social Media Bullying - Receiving or seeing hurtful communications on a social networking website about you.
8) Online Gaming Bullying - Receiving hurtful messages via online gaming or continuous reporting by other users.

* 36. Have you been cyberbullied by management via

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Over a year ago</th>
<th>Within the last 6 months</th>
<th>Within the last 3 months</th>
<th>Within the last month</th>
<th>Within the last few weeks</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text messages</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pictures or video-clips</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone calls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emails</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant messaging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website bullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (please specify)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.9 Cyberbullying Questionnaire by Management
* 37. Do you think the following forms of cyberbullying have more or less of an effect on the victim than face-to-face bullying?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Less of an effect</th>
<th>The same effect</th>
<th>More of an effect</th>
<th>Don’t know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text message bullying</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture/video clip</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone call bullying</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email bullying</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant message</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website bullying</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reasons (please specify)

* 38. Have you been cyberbullied through the following methods by male or female management?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mainly by one male</th>
<th>By several males</th>
<th>Mainly by one female</th>
<th>By several females</th>
<th>By both males and females</th>
<th>I don’t know who contacts me</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text message cyberbullying</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture/video clip cyberbullying</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone call cyberbullying</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email cyberbullying</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant message cyberbullying</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website cyberbullying</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media cyberbullying</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming cyberbullying</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
39. By how many people have you been cyberbullied through the following methods?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Mainly by one</th>
<th>By a group of 2-3</th>
<th>By a group of 4-9</th>
<th>By a group of more than 9</th>
<th>By several different people or groups</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture/video clip cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone call cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (please specify)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

40. How long did the cyberbullying last?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>1 or 2 weeks</th>
<th>About a month</th>
<th>For 6 months</th>
<th>For 1 year</th>
<th>1 year +</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture/video clip cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone call cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (please specify)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
* 41. Did you tell anyone about the cyberbullying? (Please state why)

- Yes
- No

Other (please specify)
9.10 Cyberbullying Questionnaire by Teachers

Cyberbullying by a Teacher

Definitions:
1) Text Message Bullying - Receiving nasty or upsetting messages to your phone
2) Picture and Video Bullying - Directly receiving nasty/upsetting pictures or video clips, or others receiving nasty/upsetting pictures or videos about you.
3) Phone Call Bullying - Receiving nasty/upsetting or prank calls on your phone.
4) Email Bullying - Receiving abusive emails.
5) Instant Message Bullying - Negative messages sent on instant messaging platforms (Facebook Messenger, Whatsapp etc.)
6) Website Bullying - A negative website which is created about someone revealing personal details (Blog or another website)
7) Social Media Bullying - Receiving or seeing hurtful communications on a social networking website about you.
8) Online Gaming Bullying - Receiving hurtful messages via online gaming or continuous reporting by other users.

* 42. Have you been cyber-bullied by another teacher via

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Over a year ago</th>
<th>Within the last 6 months</th>
<th>Within the last 3 months</th>
<th>Within the last month</th>
<th>Within the last few weeks</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text messages</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pictures or video-clips</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone calls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emails</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant messaging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website bullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other (please specify)
* 45. By how many people have you been cyberbullied through the following methods?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Mainly by one</th>
<th>By a group of 2-3</th>
<th>By a group of 4-9</th>
<th>By a group of more than 9</th>
<th>By several different teachers or groups</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture/Video clip cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone call cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other (please specify)

* 46. How long did the cyberbullying last?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>1 or 2 weeks</th>
<th>About a month</th>
<th>For 6 months</th>
<th>For 1 year</th>
<th>1 year +</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture/Video clip cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone call cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other (please specify)
47. Did you tell anyone about the cyberbullying? (Please state why)

- Yes
- No

Other (please specify)
### Cyberbullying by another staff member

**Definitions:**
1) **Text Message Bullying** - Receiving nasty or upsetting messages to your phone
2) **Picture and Video Bullying** - Directly receiving nasty/upsetting pictures or video clips, or others receiving nasty/upsetting pictures or videos about you.
3) **Phone Call Bullying** - Receiving nasty/upsetting or prank calls on your phone.
4) **Email Bullying** - Receiving abusive emails.
5) **Instant Message Bullying** - Negative messages sent on instant messaging platforms (Facebook Messenger, Whatsapp etc.)
6) **Website Bullying** - A negative website which is created about someone revealing personal details (Blog or another website)
7) **Social Media Bullying** - Receiving or seeing hurtful communications on a social networking website about you.
8) **Online Gaming Bullying** - Receiving hurtful messages via online gaming or continuous reporting by other users.

* 48. Have you been cyber-bullied by another person via

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Over a year ago</th>
<th>Within the last 6 months</th>
<th>Within the last 3 months</th>
<th>Within the last month</th>
<th>Within the last few weeks</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text messages</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pictures or video-clips</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone calls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emails</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant messaging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website bullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (please specify)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
* 51. By how many people have you been cyberbullied through the following methods?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>By a group of 2-3</th>
<th>By a group of 4-9</th>
<th>By a group of more than 9</th>
<th>By several different people or groups</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture/video clip cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone call cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (please specify)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 52. How long did the cyberbullying last?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>1 or 2 weeks</th>
<th>About a month</th>
<th>For 6 months</th>
<th>For 1 year</th>
<th>1 year +</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture/video clip cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone call cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instant message cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Gaming cyberbullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (please specify)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

380
* 53. Did you tell anyone about the cyberbullying? (Please state why)

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] No

Other (please specify)

[ ]
### School Climate

* 54. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements about your school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The school’s schedule allows adequate time for teacher preparation and planning</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school environment is clean and in good condition</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel safe outside on the school grounds</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 55. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements about your school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I feel safe in the classrooms</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In this school, we teach ways to resolve disagreements so that everyone can be satisfied with the outcomes</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students at this school are well-behaved</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### School Climate

#### Question 56
*Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements about your school.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students at this school don't care about learning</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I spend a great deal of time dealing with students' social and emotional challenges</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students have pride in the school</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My class enrollments are too large</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Question 57
*Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements about your school.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have access to the tools I need to do my job</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am dissatisfied with opportunities for my professional growth</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I look forward to coming to work everyday</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I spend too much of my teaching time on disciplining students</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### School Climate

**60.** Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements about your school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students in this school respect each other's differences (for example, gender, race, culture, etc.).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school staff respects and embraces diversity.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School administrators follow through on commitments.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**61.** Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements about your school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School administrators involve teachers in decision making and problem solving.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School administrators and staff communicate with each other effectively.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School administrators hold themselves to the same high expectations as others.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School administrators back me up when I need it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
62. In general, how stressful do you find being a teacher?

- Not at all stressful
- Mildly stressful
- Moderately stressful
- Very stressful
- Extremely stressful

63. If you have any further comments on this research please use the box below.

64. If you would like to take part in a short interview please provide your email in the box below.
Debriefing Form

Thank you for participating as a research participant in the present study concerning the social networking and cyber-bullying of teachers.

The present study aims to examine the methods of self-regulation of their personal and public social networks. The primary aim of this research is to understand these methods of self-regulation and any cyberbullying experiences by teachers.

Your information will be protected at all times during the course of this study. A password protected storage program will store your email address separately from your data that will be stored on surveymonkey.com and protected by a password before it is destroyed after 5 years under the Data Protection Act, 1998. The researcher and supervisors will have access to the secure folder in which it will be stored.

Your results will further the understanding of teachers online social networking behaviours, cyberbullying and aid in the development of teacher training. If you wish to withdraw your results from this study please contact the researcher or supervisors. The researcher would like to use your data during publication of this research, if you would prefer your data is not used please contact the researcher or supervisors.

Contact

If you have any further questions please ask the researcher at liam.challenor@dcu.ie or james.ohigginsnorman@dcu.ie, Irene.Connolly@iadt.ie

Resources

You may find the following resources useful:

www.irish-counselling.ie.
www.tacklebullying.ie
www.dcu.ie/abc