FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND
SPECIAL EDUCATION

SCHOOL BULLYING: STUDENTS PERSPECTIVES FROM A TANZANIAN SECONDARY SCHOOL.

IRENE G KAKURU

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am grateful to all the students who participated in this study, I appreciate your readiness and willingness to discuss your experience.

 My special thanks to Sally Windsor for her supervision throughout my thesis writing. Your supervision was incredible, and your mentorship made me grow. Your feedback always challenged my thinking and writing skills in an incredible way. I am so grateful and thankful for your encouragement, support and care especially during difficulty times.

I am indebted to Ernst Thoutenhoofd for his support, encouragement and mentorship, you are, hands down, the best teacher I have ever had.

I would like to thank my best friend Marcus Forsberg for his help, support and patience, it meant the world to me.

 I appreciate my family, teachers and friends for their support since the beginning of my career. Thank you.

ABSTRACT

Aim

The current study was designed to qualitatively examine secondary school students' understanding of bullying practices and how gender is involved in bullying in a Tanzanian secondary school.

Theory

The theoretical frameworks that are used in the current study are Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977) and Social Dominance Theory (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Social learning theory explains bullying behaviour in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between bullying behaviour and environmental influences while Social Dominance theory explains the desire for power, dominance and oppression as a key factor that fuels bullying behaviour.

Methods

The study focused on both girls and boys, 10 students (5 girls & 5 boys), 13-17 years old. The present study involved both individual and focus group interviews, focus group interviews were homogeneous in terms of gender. Data was analysed through thematic analysis and showed different

understanding of bullying practices and how gender is involved in bullying in school.

Results

Students reported bullying practices through corporal punishment and imbalance of power between teachers and students. The study further found that disciplinary acts such as corporal punishment in schools teach students aggressive behaviours. A different bullying practice was found between boys and girls. Girls claimed to be bullied by both male teachers and students, especially in science subjects. Gender roles influenced by cultural expectations are claimed to explain male teachers and students bullying girls. Gender roles in schools expect boys to master science subjects, while girls are expected to master artistic subjects. However, some girls studying science subjects have not been given enough attention by male science teachers and are laughed at and teased by fellow male students, who assume that girls cannot do science or compete with boys in science subjects. Results seem indicative of a school culture that is conducive to bullying behaviours. The study draws out the implications of this conclusion for antibullying interventions.

Contents

CHAPTER ONE. 1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the problem

Bullying is becoming a growing issue in today's schools, impacting students, their families and peers. Bullying is a worldwide problem with approximately 40% students of different ages reported been involved in bullying as victims, bullies or both (Levine & Tamburrino, 2014). Bullying has been reported as having a major negative effect on students mental and physical wellbeing (Paredes et al, 2016).

According to Olweus (2001, p. 5) "….a student is being bullied when he or she is exposed repeatedly and over time, to a negative action on the part of one or more other students". The definition emphasizes that these negative acts are carried out repeatedly over time due to imbalance of power between the victim and the bully. Physical bullying is considered direct and consists of the victims receiving bodily harm from hitting, kicking, punching and spitting which are intended to cause harm and can be repetitive in nature (Levine & Tamburrino, 2014). A study by Gill, Simonsson, & Matton (2017) found that both girls and boys at schools engage in bullying, boys tends to engage more in physical

bullying while girls are more likely to engage in relational or indirect bullying which includes spreading rumours and group exclusion. In addition to direct and indirect types of bullying new technology has contributed to the rise of cyber bullying among students during the last years especially in developed countries (Kowalski, Morgan, & Limber, 2012; Li, 2006; Tsitsika, et al, 2014).

Despite bullying being a global issue there is relatively little research on the phenomenon of bullying in schools in developing countries. In Africa a small number of studies have been conducted in South Africa and other countries such as Ghana and Nigeria. The research from Nigeria (Okoiye, Anayochi, & Onah, 2015; Olumide, Adams, & Amodu, 2015; 2016) and from South Africa (Rachoene & Oyedemi, 2015; Smith, 2015) has revealed that bullying is an emerging issue of concern among students in Africa. However, very little is known about the nature and spread of bullying in the Tanzanian context.

Studies show that bullying is a worrying issue concerning its impacts on students' social, health and psychological perspective. The most common impact of bullying is depression. Gill et al's (2017) research found that 29.5% of students in the study reported depressive symptoms, anxiety and even suicide. Bullying has been found to vary by age groups in different countries even though the occurrences of bullying appear to decline with age. Students reported being

involved in bullying in some way in high schools in Germany 8%, USA 13%, and England 24% (Tsitsika et al, 2014).

Students who are involved in bullying as bullies or victims are likely to have lower educational attainment when compared to students who are not involved in bullying (Slee, 2017). It has also been found that students who were most likely to be bullied reported to have poor interaction with fellow peers before they were bullied (De Wet, 2013). A study by (Welton, Vakil, & Ford, 2014) found students who had been through bullying did not have a positive experience of social attention or prosocial or productive behaviours in schools. Because they are driven by a need for social attention, coupled with their feeling of hostility, alienation and rejection there can be direct consequences for schools. Dangerous acts such as shooting, and suicide are all results of bullying in today's schools.

Even though bullying is prevalent in some schools and different strategies have been put forward to prevent it, it has been argued that bullying is a rite of passage and it is an inevitable part of childhood (Levine & Tamburrino, 2014). However, Tsitsika et al (2014) show that bullying is not a harmless rite of passage because it has serious and sometimes even fatal consequences especially when it remains unchecked.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Many studies show that bullying is still an issue in schools (e.g. Espelage & Swearer, 2004; De Wet, 2013; Gill et al, 2017; Levine & Tamburrino, 2014; Slee, 2017). It is found that both girls and boys are involved in bullying, however boys tend towards physical bullying while girls are more likely to be involved in relational or verbal bullying (Orpinas & Horne, 2006; Gill et al, 2017). Despite that, both boys and girls involve in bullying behaviour, many studies maintain that bullying and violence is representative of cultural ideologies in the society (for example Deliyann-Kouimtzis & Sakka, 2005a; Frossi & Deliyanni-Kouimtzis, 2007; Psalti & Constantinou, 2007). Studies show that the bullying problem has impacted students mental health in different ways including increased levels of depression and cases of suicide, and decreases in self-esteem (Rathon et al, 2011; Omoteso, 2010; Smith, 2015; Yen, 2014).

A study by Slee (2017) explains that bullying does not only affected students mental health but also their educational attainment, that both victims and bullies usually have lower educational attainment compared to students who are not involved in bullying. A study by Cook, Gottfredson & Na (2010) has concluded that bullying behaviour does not provide a positive social climate in schools where students can interact and feel safe.

Studies show that schools specifically in Tanzania, often use corporal punishment to discipline students (Ndibalema, 2013; Moris, 2008; Moris, 2006). Despite these disciplinary acts affecting students both physical and emotional wellbeing (Ndibalema, 2013; Moris, 2008), most studies to date have only focused on student to student bullying in schools (See, Levine & Tamburrino, 2014; Gill et al, 2017; Slee, 2017; De Wet, 2013). Research has largely overlooked how students are treated by their teachers in schools.

Furthermore, bullying may be targeted both within and across gender (Hanish, Sallquist, DiDonato, Fabes, & Martin, 2012; Rodkin & Berger, 2008). However, bullying practices may be different when it occurs within versus across gender. For instance, in a study of the behavioural antecedents of aggression, Hanish and colleagues (2012) found that peers (particularly female peers) respond aggressively to other girls' demands and attempts to control situations, but an aggressive response is rare when boys engage in similarly demanding and controlling behaviours. In a different study of social status variations in same- and cross-gender bullying, Rodkin and Berger (2008) found that, in same-gender, bullies were popular among peers whereas victims were unpopular, but this pattern was reversed for male bullies of female peers. In this case, boys who were bullies were unpopular and girls who were victimized were popular. Both studies suggest that bullying may carry different experiences and

practices within and across-gender, and more research examining bullying based on gender is needed.

1.3 Research question

This study examines two major things; how secondary school students understand bullying practices and how gender is involved in bullying in school. Therefore, research questions are:

1. How do secondary school students in Tanzania, understand bullying practices in school?

2. How is gender involved in bullying?

1.4 Relevance of the Study

There are growing concerns that bullying is impacting school students in negative and long-term ways. According to Welton et al, (2014) students who have been through bullying may not have a positive history of social attention in school where prosocial or productive behaviours are demonstrated and fostered. These students may therefore be driven by a need for social attention, which when coupled with feelings of hostility, alienation and rejection that can 'explode' in negative ways. These negative acts satisfy the need to act out against the perceived rejection and perhaps feel they are bringing attention to their plight and plight for others like them. Therefore, this study provides both social

attention and platform for secondary school students to present their bullying experience in school.

Moreover, students need safe schools not only for their physical safety but also intellectual and emotional growth. A safe school is one in which the school climate allows teachers, students, administrators and visitors to interact in a positive relationship and experience personal growth (Kohn, 2004; Merrow, 2004). Creating a safe school does not only mean getting rid of extreme negative acts but also other smaller, often less visible or obvious bullying behaviours. Findings from this study may help policy makers, administrators and teachers reconsider the strategies that are used to counter bullying in schools so that to create a good learning environment for students.

In the long fight against bullying based on gender, a detailed understanding of the very essence of the problem is required. This study presents findings which increase the visibility of the problem of gender bullying in secondary schools which is not only among students but also between students and teachers. The current study provides knowledge which in turn can be used for strategic policy interventions on gender bullying in secondary schools.

This research drew upon literature mostly from outside Tanzania and Africa more broadly since there have been few studies about bullying in this

context. There has been research into the phenomena from South Africa, Ghana and Nigeria (see, Okoiye, Anayochi, & Onah, 2015; Olumide, Adams, & Amodu, 2015; 2016; Rachoene & Oyedemi, 2015; Smith, 2015). Having little or no information about bullying behaviour in Tanzania does not mean the problem does not exist. As an aspiring researcher, I think it's an opportunity not only to fill in this contextual gap but also to present secondary school students understanding on bullying practices and how gender is involved in schools, provide them a platform where their voices and experiences can be heard.

CHAPTER TWO. 2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 What is bullying?

Among researchers, a common definition of bullying involves aggression, intention, repetition and imbalance of power between the aggressor and the victim (see for example Orpinas & Horne, 2006; Psalti & Constantinou, 2007; Rigby, 2002; Smith, 2000; Smith & Osborn, 2003). Bullying is sustained series of intentional acts with the potential for hurting others that may be considered a subset of aggression (Nansel, Overpeck, Hynie, Ruan & Scheidt, 2003; Orpinas & Horne, 2006). Characterized by an imbalance of power, intentional acts, that are repeated over time, 'the bully is more powerful than the victim and commits aggressive behaviour intentionally and over time' (Orpinas & Horne, 2006, p. 14). The concept of 'intention' is the key element in the definition of bullying.

Although not always true, bullying is likely to occur in social situations when peers are present and adults are not. Thus, students may take one or more roles in the "bullying process" (Espelage & Swearer, 2004; Espelage, Hong & Adams, 2016). Students may be bullies, victims or bystanders to varying degrees across different situations. These roles are not always stable, and students do not necessarily always take the same role. Other studies suggest that some students who act as bullies may also be victims in other instances (Peets & Kikas, 2006; Watson, 2007; Yubero & Navarro, 2006). A bully is a person who instigates

bullying while a victim is a person who is intentionally and repeatedly abused by the bully (Rigby, 2002; Smith, 2000; Orpinas & Horne, 2006). Some studies (see Pallegrini & Long, 2002) claim that secondary school students(grade 8 to11) are faced with two major changes such as interring puberty and starting a new level of education, therefore it is a challenging stage were most teens develop new behaviours including bullying.

Despite the fact there is a growing body of literature about bullying in schools, an important part has been overlooked; how school students perceive that their teachers bully them. Most studies in the area of bullying focuses on student to student bullying (e.g. Levine & Tamburrino, 2014; Gill et al, 2017; Slee, 2017; De Wet, 2013). Studies have examined bullying behaviours among students and have often overlooked how students are being treated in school by their teachers and administration.

Due to development of technology, cyber bullying is also growing rapidly, students intentionally inflict fellow students through digital technologies such as phones, tablets and computers on social media and websites (Campbell & Bauman, 2018; Elbedour, et al 2020; Li, 2006; Watson, 2007). Although the use of mobile phones and access to the Internet is widespread across the world, studies of cyberbullying among students have mainly come from North America, Australia, Europe, and Asia. Unfortunately, a review of the status of

cyberbullying in the global playground considered no data from a country on the continent of Africa, despite the increase in the use of mobile phones in African countries (Smith, 2015).

2.2 Research about bullying in Tanzania

The problem of home and school physical violence towards children in Tanzania is currently still widespread. A Tanzanian report *Violence Against Children in Tanzania* (UNICEF, 2011), measured sexual, physical and emotional violence among youth aged between 12 and 24 were 908 girls and 891 boys were involved. Participants were asked to report their experiences of violence before they turned 18. Although the study was focused on sexual violence, it also revealed that physical violence was frequently experienced by children both at home and school. The study revealed that 50% of children had experienced violence in school through corporal punishment, sexual violence and emotional abuse.

Omari (2006) explains that the parliamentary Tanzanian National Education Act of 1978, and the National Education Regulations of 1979 (which was reiterated in 2002) allow corporal punishment to occur at school. The belief is that, "corporal punishment is useful in maintenance of discipline and improvement of performance" (Ndibalema, 2013, p. 3). Corporal punishment is used as a disciplinary tool to students. While only headteachers used to be

allowed to practice corporal punishments in schools in Tanzania, recently corporal punishment has been reintroduced as a corrective measure used by all teachers (Global, 2012). However, due to complaints about physical pain and abuse, in 2000 the Government decided to reduce the number of times a stick to strike students to four. Yet corporal punishment and physical abuse are still allowed to be practiced by teachers (Kahemele & Kahemele, 2014).

Corporal punishment has been experienced by students who misbehave, and/or those scoring low grades. Students can be punished in several ways such as caning (using a long cane to strike the child), making them do push ups or kneel for extended periods, having them clean the school grounds, or working on farms (Ndibalema, 2013 ; Kahemele & Kahemele 2014; Tangi, 2010, 2015).

Research by Moris (2008) in Dar es Salaam and Ndibalema (2013) in Dodoma in Tanzania shows that bullying incidences had adversely affected the physical and emotional wellbeing of both girls and boys in secondary schools. These studies also show that when violence exists in schools, which includes corporal punishment, it is blamed as one of the reasons for poor performance (Ndibalema, 2013; Moris, 2008).

Although bullying behaviour is presumably widespread in schools in Tanzania, there is scarce literature on the phenomena in this context. In other African countries there has recently been a small number of studies in Nigeria

(Okoiye, Anayochi, & Onah , 2015; Olumide, Adams, & Amodu, 2016; Olumide) and South Africa (Rachoene & Oyedemi, 2015; Smit, 2015) which provided evidence that cyberbullying is an emerging issue of concern among African students. However, very little is known about bullying in African counties including Tanzania.

2.3 Effects of Bullying

Research has found adolescents' mental health is negatively impacted by bullying in a number of different ways, with increased levels of depression and cases of suicide, and decreases in self-esteem (see for example, Corene & Lynette, 2013; Omoteso, 2010; Levine & Tamburrino, 2014; Rothon, Head, Klineberg & Stansfeld, 2011; Smith, 2015; Shafer & Silverman, 2013). A study by Yen, Liu, Ko, Wu, and Cheng (2014) found that children who experience bullying experience increased feelings of helplessness and hopelessness and they are at risk of killing themselves.

Several studies have documented links between involvement in bullying and mental health problems, especially depression (Corene & Lynette, 2013; Levine & Tamburrino, 2014; Shafer & Silverman, 2013; Owusu et al, 2011). Specifically, victims of bullying have been found to have higher rates of depressive symptoms compared to youth who were not victimized. A study by Shafer and Silverman (2013) examined the association of peer victimization and

psychosocial maladjustment whereby several forms of maladjustment included depression, anxiety and loneliness were included. They found that depression was the largest effect of peer bullying. Mura et al (2010) also examined mental health symptoms among victims of bullying and found that victims constitute the most at risk group of depression.

Low self-esteem and heightened anxiety are other consequences of bullying and can have long-term effects on the victim as well as on the bully and the bystanders. Studies by Onditi (2017) and Corene and Lynette (2013) confirm that a consequence of being bullied is low self-esteem and anxiety which increases feeling of depression and social isolation. However, other studies claim that low self-esteem is not only the result of being bullied because even bullies are at risk of engaging in bullying, antisocial and violent behaviours due to lower self-esteem (Hase, Goldberg, Smith, Stuck & Campain, 2015). A study by Rathon et al, (2011) that examined the relationship between bullying behaviour and self-esteem found that, when boys were considered bullies, they had high self-esteem but conversely girl bullies' self-esteem was low. However, whether low self-esteem is a risk factor for bullying is inconclusive. Other research has examined low self-esteem as an effect of bullying and confirms that it leads to isolation, dislike and avoidance of school and being more anxious (see for example; De Wet, 2013; Smith, 2015; Tsitsika et al, 2014).

Moreover, most students who developed low self-esteem due to bullying and did not report their experiences either teachers or parents suffered suicidal ideation (Omoteso, 2010). Additionally, bullied students who did not report their experiences to parents admitted not to have positive communication with their parents. Omoteso (2010) found that most parents of children who were bullied were unsure about who to contact and how to manage the situation.

Slee (2017) claims that peer bystanders observe bullying taking place on school grounds at least 85% of the time. Bystanders who witness bullying often experience increased anxiety and fear that they may become victims if they act on behalf of the target of bullying. However, the role of bystanders in intervening in bullying has not been discussed in these studies.

2.4 Bullying in schools

It is important for schools to respond vigorously to bullying and any other serious safety threats and implement firm and fair rules to counter it (Arum, 2005). Educators have the platform, position, and presence not only to teach their academic subject matter but also to encourage appropriate behaviours through instruction, modelling, policies, reminders, and reinforcement. Research has shown that schools with clear, detailed rules, and strict discipline reported a reduction of bullying behaviours (Arum, 2005; Craven & Parada, 2002). However, research also demonstrates that strict school rules and

punishment are unfair to students in schools (Athanasiades & Deliyanni-Kouimtzis, 2010; Kupchik, 2010).

Secondary schools in Tanzania often have complex school rules, less integrated curriculum and more traditional assessment regimes (Ndibalema, 20013). Omari (2006) maintains that, corporal punishment in Tanzania is enshrined on the parliamentary Acts which give legal power to teachers and administrators to punish students whenever they misbehave in schools. Anangisye (2011) found that corporal punishment in schools is strongly supported by parents both in rural and urban areas in Tanzania.

Disciplinary acts such physical punishments are authoritarian, meaning they involve a power imbalance between a teacher and a student(adult vs child), and are often repeated several times (Lyons & Drew, 2006: Kupchik, 2010; Mukherejee, 2007; Nolan 2011). Disciplining students in an authoritarian way may also teach students aggressive behaviours (Harber, 2004; Gini & Pozzoli, 2006). An ethnographic study by Kupchik (2010) found that punishment showed teachers to prioritise school rules, rather than listening to students or get a way to help them or find a cause to their misbehaviours.

Moving from looking at bullying on an individual level is possible to recognize the importance of school social climate and consider whether a poor school climate correlates with a conducive environment for bullying. The

definition of school social climate can vary, but this review considers school social climate as an environment with a social atmosphere for learning whereby students have different experiences based on the protocols set by teachers and administrators (Williams & Guerra, 2011). Some studies claim that punishment does not provide positive social climate where students feel valued, respected and listened to (Cook, Gottfredson & Na, 2010) and that punishment damages the social school climates by making it less interactive and more hostile (Lyons & Drew, 2006; Noguera, 2003; Eliot et al, 2010; Hernandez & Seem, 2004). Other research claims that most school rules and policies are set in a way that alienates students, making students perceive administration of these rules as discriminatory (for example Ferguson, 2000; Kupchik, 2010; Nolan, 2011; Rios, 2011). There is research examining the link between school social climate and bullying that reports that schools with a positive social climate report less (or no) bullying while schools with negative school social climate are the opposite (Swearer & Espelage, 2004; Lee & Song, 2012). In these cases, researchers have concluded that schools with positive social climates are likely to have less bullying compared to schools with negative social climate (Williams and Guerra, 2011; Swearer & Espelage, 2004; Lee & Song, 2012).

Despite the fact there that there is a growing body of literature about bullying in schools, an important part has been overlooked; how school students

perceive that their teachers bully them. Studies conducted to date have examined bullying behaviours among students and have often overlooked how students are being treated in school by their teachers and administration. There is also a scarce of literature on how some students bullies their teachers.

2.5 Cultural and gender differences in bullying

According to literature, there are differences in the type of bullying that occurs between boys and girls (Gini & Pozzoli, 2006; Cowie, 2000). Boys tend to be involved in more aggressive physical behaviours while girls are more indirect or relational. Research has found that masculine emphasis on independence and social dominance may lead some students to bully others to attain their goal (Gini & Pozzoli, 2006). The relationship between bullying behaviour and masculinity has also been explained in terms of cultural and social expectations. Some consider bullying behaviours to be a process of social control or dominance where bullying students seek power over their fellow students (Smith, 2000; Mbassa and Daniel, 2001). Other studies such Nansel et al, (2001) from the United States and Wolke et al, (2001) from England and Germany reported 15% to 20% male students had engaged in bullying behaviours.

Cultural ideologies may also somewhat explain gender differences in bullying. Research conducted in Greece found that boys' aggressive behaviours is associated with traditional ideas of male identity, where boys and girls

interpreted male violence as representing cultural ideologies in the society (Deliyanni-Kouimtzis & Sakka, 2005a; Frossi & Deliyanni- Kouimtzis, 2007). A study by Psalti and Constantinou (2017) found out that girls were sympathetic to the victims of bullying while boys claimed that victims deserved to be subjected to such aggressive behaviours. Yubero and Navaro (2016) found similar things in their study among secondary students in Spain. They found that gender differences in bullying was attributed to boys' impulsive characters which leads them to be more aggressive.

It has been found that some students, especially boys, may not be able to share their bullying experiences with their parents or teachers because their cultural ideologies have justified bullying in some ways (Boulton, Trueman & Flemington, 2002). In other words, some students may not disclose bullying to their parents or teachers because it may be irreconcilable to the society's expectations of male identity. However, the theoretical explanation of bullying among girls that deviates from traditional female roles has been neglected in these studies.

It has been found that in some cases teachers only assume responsibility for cognitive development, and formal learning in school and leave psychological and sociological responsibilities to parents and other social workers (Frossi & Deliyanni-Kouimtzis, 2007). A study of secondary school students in Australia on

bullying revealed that 40% students claim that teachers do not take any action to stop bullying (Rigby & Bagshaw, 2003). There are also cases where students prefer their fellow peers or friends for social support rather than their teachers or parent's involvement in bullying (Boulton, 2005). In Psalti & Constantinou's (2007) quantitative study they found that 25% of the students surveyed do not report bullying and bullying victimization to teachers and parents while 30% claimed to report bullying and bullying victimization to parents and teachers.

As Espelage and Swearer (2003) explain "bullying is complex interaction that needs to be studied using multivariate methods" (p. 379). This chapter has reviewed several studies which have adopted different methodologies that focus on the interaction among students. However, other school contexts such as classroom management, academic instructions, assessment regime and interaction between students and teachers has not given a great attention.

CHAPTER THREE. 3.0 THEORY and METHODS

This chapter presents the theories that were used to interpret data of this study (Social Learning theory and Social Dominance theory). Also presents a study design and methods used to collect data.

3.1 THEORECTICAL PERSPECTIVE

Theories are used to explain, understand and predict different phenomena (Dubin, 1978) and expressly important to illuminate phenomena such as bullying. Theories help to clarify the negative outcomes related with bullying in schools (Mitchell & Sidanius, 1995), and explain how culture and school climate is associated with the prevalence of bullying behaviour. The complexity of the bullying phenomenon is seen in the different factors that account for it such individual, interpersonal, systematic and structured factors therefore it's not easily explained by single theory. In that case, various theories are needed to fully explicate this social dynamic behaviour of bullying. However, this thesis explores bullying behaviour drawing on two theories: Social Learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and Social Dominance theory (Sidanius and Pratto, 1999). The purpose of this study is to use the frameworks of Social Learning theory and Social Dominance theory to understand how secondary students in a school in Tanzania understand and experience bullying.

3.1.1 Social Learning Theory

Bandura's (1977) Social learning theory is a theory of learning and social behaviour which proposes that new behaviours can be acquired by observing and imitating others. This learning theory depicts behaviour as more than the product of directly experienced response consequences. Bandura (1977) states that man's capacity to learn by observation enables him to acquire large, integrated units of behaviour by example without having to experience consequences directly and emotional responses can be developed by witnessing the effective reaction of others undergoing painful or pleasurable experiences. Fearful and defensive behaviour can be learned vicariously by observing others engage in the activities without any adverse consequences. Conversely, behavioural inhibitions can be induced by seeing others punished for their actions. For example, students who are exposed to domestic abuse in the home are likely to be involved in bullying behaviours (Badly, 2003). Students who socialize with aggressive peers (i.e. bullies) are more likely to carry out acts of aggression than those students who do no associate with aggressive peers (Mouttapa et al, 2004). In response to this evidence, some research concludes that observational factors are the most strongly related to bullying behaviour in schools (Curtner- Smith, 2000).

Social learning theory has been used to explain aggressive behaviours (Bandura, 1978; Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1961) and can be applied to this study to explain how students may learn to bully via vicarious reinforcement and observational learning.

3.1.2 Social Dominance Theory

Social Dominance theory (Sidanius and Pratto, 1999) focuses on group-based social hierarchies that are formed through the mechanisms of oppression, discrimination, and injustice. Dominant groups oppress less-powerful groups to form a hierarchy with one or a few dominant groups at the top while subordinate groups are forced to the bottom. The dominant group possesses a disproportionate amount of ''…positive social value, or all those materials and symbolic things for which people strive'' (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999, p. 31), whereas the subordinate groups possess disproportionate amounts of negative social value. In group-based social hierarchies, the social status and power that individuals possess is derived from their group membership rather than individual characteristics (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Social Dominance theory provides understanding into bullying dynamic. The desire for dominance and power is the key factor for bullying behaviour, and bullies use humiliation and intimidation as the means to obtain power over others. According to this theory, group discrimination tends to be systematic

because social ideologies help to coordinate the actions of individuals and institutions, people share beliefs and culture that legitimate discrimination among social groups such as age groups (older vs young), gender (male vs female), power (Teachers vs students) (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Social institutions such as school allocate desired goods such as power to members of dominant group so that to create and maintain a system of group-based hierarchy.

The acceptance of ideologies that legitimize inequality and behaviours that produce inequality is partly determined by people's general desire for group-based dominance. This desire for group-based dominance is captured by a construct we call social dominance orientation. This psychological orientation is important not only for understanding individual differences in socio-political attitudes and behavior, but also for understanding group differences in behaviours such as in group favouritism and the attainment of social roles that influence the degree of hierarchy. As such, social dominance theory views the determinants of group-based hierarchy at multiple levels of analysis, including psychological orientations, the discriminatory behaviours of a certain group, the legitimizing ideologies that permeate entire social and cultural systems, and the social allocations of groups, for example in gender, Men and women play different roles with respect to group-based hierarchy, men predominate in

roles and institutions that enhance hierarchy while whereas women are overrepresented in roles that attenuate hierarchy   (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Both theories help this study understand different aspects of bullying. Social learning theory explains bullying behaviour in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between bullying behaviour and environmental influences (Bandura, 1977). Social Dominance theory explains the desire for power and dominance as a key factor that fuels bullying behaviour (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999)

3.2 Study design

This study follows a qualitative and case study research design. A case study approach was chosen to portray an in-depth explanation on this complex phenomenon of bullying in schools (Yin, 1989; Yin, 2003). Moreover, the nature of case study gives room to ask 'how, why and what' questions which are more explanatory in nature (Yin, 1989). The focus of this study is on secondary students' perspectives on bullying and aims at shining a light on how students in secondary school in Tanzania understand and experience bullying in school.

The study uses semi structured interviews, a method which suits the exploration of the perceptions and opinions of students regarding this complex

and sensitive issue of bullying. This method enabled probing for more information about bullying in Tanzania and clarification of students' answers (Barriball & While, 1994) and helped respondents recall information for questions involving memory (Smith, 1992; Austin, 1981). However, this method involves self- report data therefore it may give response biases. For example, participants may give responses that present them in more favourable light even though their response may not reflect how they behave (Paulhus, 1991). In deciding who and how participants were recruited, I considered my research question, resources and time available. Due to limited time and resource (Suri, 2011), the study applied a purposive sampling to locate students who were interested to volunteer take part in this study.

This study involves students from secondary school (grade 8 to 11, aged 13 to 17) located in Mwanza Tanzania. The Mwanza region is one of the major commercial centres and largest city in Tanzania with many people from different places. Moreover, the school selected is one of the public schools in the region with students from different background, culture and education which provided this study rich information in order to answer the research question. I was welcomed to the school and attended student assembly and I was able to provide a brief introduction to the study and asked for volunteers. Many students were willing to take part in this study, and all volunteers were

offered a consent letter to be signed by parent or guardian. Only few

volunteers returned their consent form with permission from their parents or

guardians the next day.

3.3 Participant Recruitment

For the scope of this project was only 10 students (5 male and 5 female) aged

13 to 17 years old were part of this study. The interviews were conducted in

Swahili, which is the Tanzanian national language. The recruitment is shown in

the table below;

Table 1

Class	Number of students	Male (M1 to M5)	Female (F1 to F5)
1	3	1	2
2	3	2	1
3	2	1	1
4	2	1	1
Total	10	5	5

The table show recruitment of participants; the number of students from each class, gender

and codes used to identify them, Male identified as M1- M5 while female as F1-F5.

The study had planned to interview each participant individually,

however due to delay of the research permit in the school, where the

educational officer needed to confirm that this study would not be harmful to

participants, since numerous studies had negative impact on participants

especially in schools. However, researchers or students studying outside

Tanzania need to undergo mandatory government supervision and verification

of intent to be able to conduct a study in a school. I followed all the required

procedures; however, the permission was not given on time, therefore, most of

my planned time for data collection was, in effect, wasted. The whole process

of data collection was planned to be done from 2nd January 2020 – 5th February

(five weeks), however permissions took almost three weeks, longer than

expected therefore interviews were only conducted in the last two weeks. In

that case only 5 students were able to be interviewed individually while the

rest were interviewed in focus groups. Because bullying is a group

phenomenon (Swearer & Hymel, 2015), I supposed that most students in some

ways are involved in bullying as victims, bystander, bully or bully-victims.

Therefore, I decided to have 5 students participate in a focus groups, whereby

two students were interviewed together and the remaining three had their

own group, making a total number of 5. Students were relaxed and

comfortable in the focus group interviews which shows that some participants

relay on collective or group interviews rather than expressing individual ideas.

However, not having individual interviews to some of the participants may

have set a limit to discover not only how individuals think and feel about the

topic and why they hold certain opinions but also to obtain detailed

information about personal feelings and perceptions. Participants were

informed about their right to quit at any time, also reassured them about the

confidential nature of the interview process as well as anonymity concerning

the research results.

Overall, I conducted interviews with ten participants, 3 girls were

interviewed individually and two were interviewed in a group, while two boys

were interviewed individually and the rest in a group. The girls' interviews were

longer in time compared to boys. As suggested that group homogeneity

reduces conformity among participants, enhancing a more diverse expression

of opinions, particularly if these are different from that of the dominant culture

or social groups (Stewart & Shamdashani, 1990). Moreover, having participants

in groups stimulated the wider range of information among these students that

are more spontaneous and less conventional, within secure and familiar

context of social setting (Wilkinson, 2003; Willig, 2001).

2.4 Data Collection & Analysis

Both individual and group interviews were semi structured and guided by

the set of predetermined questions to address the research objectives (see

Appendix 1). The aim of the interview process was to gather data that suitably

captured the ways in which secondary school students understand and

experience bullying in school. The use of semi structured interviews provided

an opportunity to be flexible with the words but not the meaning of questions

because not every word has the same meaning to every participant and not

every participant uses the same vocabulary (Treece & Treece, 1986). Moreover,

the method provided an opportunity for participants to reflect on their own

experiences and knowledge on this complex phenomenon of bullying (Bryman,

2008). Correspondingly, participants involved in a process of discovery as they

responded to questions about bullying. The questions were designed not only

to disclose participants experiences and knowledge but also to find out how

these participants transpired to this knowledge. Both types of interview were

deep and open in the sense that predetermined questions were roughly

followed and created room for me to examine "unexpected lines of reasoning

that (could) lead to fruitful new reflections" (Booth, 1997, p. 138) evident in

participant responses.

All the interviews were conducted at school and lasted between 30 to 45

minutes. All the interviews were audio recorded, with informed consent from

both participants and parents. Additionally, shorts notes were taken during the

interview. All the interviews were transcribed, and excerpts translated to

English. I analysed the interview transcript through qualitative thematic

analysis which constituted the "pool of meaning" (Akerlind, 2012, p. 120). This

method allowed me to identify patterns within and across data in relation to

students' views and experiences on bullying behaviour in school (Braun and

Clarke, 2012). The data were identified and interpreted through the following

stages: Compiling (I transcribed the interview so that I can easily see the data);

disassembling (took the data apart and created meaningful groupings through

coding); reassembling (I mapped the codes to create themes); then,

interpreted and made conclusions by producing a scholarly report of the

analysis by selecting vivid compelling extract example and relating these to the

research question (Castleberry and Nolen, 2018; Braun & Clarke, 2017).

To ensure trustworthiness and reliability, which are evaluated

differently in qualitative research (Elliot, Fischer & Rennie, 1999; Perakyla,

1997) the study applied intra-rater-reliability technique whereby transcripts

were read many times so that to be sure of the themes and make sure that I

have not missed any theme (Intra-rater-reliability) (Armstrong et al, 1997).

Nowell et al (2017) claim that validity in qualitative thematic analysis refers to

the product of a transparent and trustworthy analytical process which should

reflects the researcher's representation of participants' ideas (credibility);

provide rich and thick description of findings, interpretations and conclusion

(transferability); establish that the researcher's interpretations and findings are

clearly derived from the data (confirmability) and ensure that the research

process is logical, traceable and clearly documented. Therefore, to ensure that,

qualitative thematic analysis which involved four stages as mention above were followed. Also, I have tried to be transparent regarding the methodology presuming that the reader will be able evaluate and interpret the whole research process. Additionally, all the interviews were conducted at school, some individually while others in peer groups which corresponds to natural and daily interaction at school.

2.5 Ethical considerations.

Given the importance of ethics in research involving human subjects, this study has applied the following ethics. Informed consent is one of the most important ethics in human subject research (Girvan and Savage, 2012). In all the letters that were sent to the District Executive Director, Head of the school and parents (consent form) important aspects were included including informed consent. Every research participant was informed of their right to self-determination and autonomy. Before conducting interviews , participants were verbally informed of the research purpose and goals, that the process was completely voluntary, and they could withdraw at any stage during the process.

All the participants were assured of their right to privacy during data analysis that all participants identities, locations of individuals and places, data

collected would be held in anonymized form, and all data will be kept securely

confidential (Bulmer, 1982). Finally, the original data, including audio recorded

data and notes and all the copies are strictly to be used for research purpose

only and are secured and kept on a protected computer.

CHAPTER FOUR. 4.0 RESULTS

The ten students interviewed (both individual and focus group interviews) had different ideas about how they understand bullying practices in school. Overall students interpreted bullying as an issue of fear, control and threat which is close to the definition of bullying as the systematic abuse of power (Rigby, 2002). The main idea that each student discussed to be a concern in school was about getting corporal punishment from their teachers, which they considered to be bullying. They felt this was bullying because it affected them in different ways including generating fear when they were at school. However, one student had a slightly different perspective about corporal punishment at school, claiming that punishments were good because they help to shape them and other students in a good way. Apart from punishment from teachers, students claimed bullying occurred because of gender discrimination, cultural expectations and differing/problematic power relations which are explained below.

4.1 School rules and corporal punishment

The use of what are perceived as harsh punishments as the way to discipline students was conceptualized as bullying by students. They viewed the school to respond to (real and perceived) student misconduct by using punitive practices rather than social welfare. Harsh punishment was seen as the school

authorities prioritizing rules over the students' needs and applying rules without listening to the students. The students interpreted these policies as being implemented in a way that "bully" students, leading them to perceive the school's authority as unjust.

Most students in this study claimed to have received harsh punishment at school from their teachers, which they claim to them feels like harassment and bullying. They explained that punishment not only made them feel bullied but also taught them that bullying is a way to respond to stress or conflict. The students' perceptions of unfair school rules and punishment related to greater likelihood of feelings of victimization of bullying. It is important for schools to implement firm and fair rules and to respond vigorously to misbehaviour, but students overwhelmingly found that these strategies are, in practice, excessive. It was found that due to these corporal punishment some students felt uncomfortable attending school because of the fear of being severely punished if they were late or every time, they made mistakes. An example of this was extracted from a focus group interview by student F1;

> *" I really like school, I have a dream to become a lawyer but every time I think about the punishments at school, I wish to stay home, we get punished a lot, for example teacher Y's duty week, it is always worse, everybody is scared of him, if you are late to come to school, its better if*

you don't show up because he will punish you severely, so most students

fear to come to school on his duty week" (student F1).

Student M1 from a focus group interview explained how another teacher was

excessive with punishment if students did poorly in tests:

".. life was good in primary school compared to secondary school, I wish

life here was the same as in primary school, there was no harsh

punishments, if you fail in a test, for example teacher Y, If you get below

45, you better not come to school otherwise you will regret that day, I

*usually dodge his class if I fail in the test " (*Student M1)

This finding showed that harsh punishment creates a fearful environment for

students and tends to decrease quality of relationship between a teacher and

student. Studies show that schools with inclusive social climates (these are

schools in which students feel respected, valued and listened to) are safer than

others (see for example: Cook, Gottfredson & Na, 2010; Noguera, 2003, Lyon &

Drew, 2006). While contemporary policing and punishments in schools can

often deteriorate the school social climate by making schools more hostile and

less inclusive.

However, one student had a different perspective about corporal

punishment at school. While most students claimed to be bullied through

corporal punishment, Student M2 from individual interview claimed that

corporal punishment was a good way to keep students behaving well in schools. Student M2 claimed that punishments shaped them in the desired direction and thought that corporal punishment eliminates or prevent disruptive behaviour when students knew what the consequences were for their actions. Students learned that negative behaviours equalled punishment and disciplinary measures. Student M2 insisted that it was possible to not be punished if they followed the school rules. Student M2 also explained it is a tradition to punish anyone if they misbehave, that even parents use corporal punishments when we misbehave at home. Student M2 explained:

> *"I think it's difficult to control students without punishment, besides no one is punished without doing anything [wrong]. If you don't want to be punished, you need to respect teachers and follow school rules (…………….) I think it is normal to use corporal punishments because even parents at home use corporal punishments too"* (student M2)

The finding reveals that some students who witness or experience corporal punishment develop an understanding of what it means to respect authority. When students learn that they cannot get away with disrespecting teachers and other classmates, they can start to appreciate the concept of listening to teachers at school, following orders and abiding by the rules.

4.2 Teacher-student power relations.

These findings show that discipline practices going on in this particular secondary school in Tanzania are enforced in authoritarian ways that resemble what is defined as bullying when it occurs between children. It involves a power imbalance i.e. students defined as troublemakers are targeted by disciplinarians, and it is also repeated over time.

When punishment policies are enforced, they often look a lot like bullying as it is commonly operationalized. They involve the enforcement of power (teachers vs students) and leave their victims demoralized and powerless. Students are not able to act against their teachers even when they are mistreated due to the authoritarian structure found in school which leaves most of the students powerless. Student F2 from focus group interview explained;

> *"…. I like to study when the teacher is not in class, however some students like making noise. When the teacher comes, we all get punished, I hate it because I get punished for something wrong that I haven't done, I have tried to express myself to the teacher, but he never wants to listen*" (Student F2)

The findings also reveal that that authoritarian discipline may directly teach students aggressive behaviour. And some of the students learn physically

aggressive behaviours as the way to respond to conflicts and anger. Some students learned to bully others by observing their fellow students being bullied by teachers, which demonstrates that corporal punishment sometimes provides a model of bullying for students to imitate. Student F3 from individual interview explained;

*"…..it was noisy in our class when the teacher came. she asked us to mention everyone who has been making noise. I mention John (*fake name*) and he got punished. On our way home he started fighting me asking why I mention him. I reported him and he got punished again, he still bullied me on my way home saying whoever misbehaves must get punished…."*(Student F3).

This finding shows that bullying occurs in this school that is authoritarian, hierarchical and focused on power-dominant relationship between students and teachers. Some students learned to bully their fellow students by imitating their teachers and interpreted punishment as the way to respond to anger, conflicts or misbehaviours among themselves.

4.3 Cultural and gender differences in bullying.

When interpreting gender roles, one has to consider about cultural expectations and patriarchal structure in Tanzania (UNICEF, 2011)

The findings show that some students, basically girls are still bullied and discriminated in school by both male teachers and students. This study found that gender roles in the school context are influenced by cultural expectations. For example, science subjects were considered to be more suited boys, which resulted in girls being discriminated against and not given the same levels of attention to boys with some teachers. These actions have automatically put girls in disadvantaged positions for achievement in classroom interaction. Some girls found this situation unfriendly for their daily classroom interaction especially on science subjects. The following extract is from individual interview by Student F4;

"..Physics teacher always refer to boys every time he gives out examples in physics class, he says girls cannot do science or compete with boys in science, I like physics but I always feel left out every time he teaches……" (student F4)

The findings show that girls believe males teachers and students tend to bully them particularly in science subjects. As student F4 above explained the male teachers claimed that girls could barely do science, so they tended to let boys actively take part in the learning while girls were given less attention. Also, the study found that the girls felt that male students tend to bully them through name calling and teasing that girls can hardly do or compete with boys

in science subjects, believing that girls can only study artistic subjects rather than science. Student F5 from group interview explained;

" I feel uncomfortable to ask questions to boys because they sometimes bully me that girls can't do science….." (Student F5)

Culture plays an important role in child rearing, appropriate discipline and goals and expectations for children in Tanzania (Ndibalema, 2013). The findings of this study also show that culture can be viewed as an important factor contributing to students feelings about bullying. Secondary school students in Tanzania are punished by caning or whipping, being made to kneel for long periods of time, being made to do push ups, gardening, or sweeping the school grounds, or raising up of both hands for long period of time. The participants believed that punishment is considered to part of school, and that some parents encouraged their children to accept school punishment because they themselves were treated the same way when they were students. Moreover, some parents encourage such punishments simply because they believe it is another way to discipline their children. As student M3 from individual interview explained;

.. I told my father about harsh punishments we get at school, he told me it's okay that punishments are part of school. He said he used to be punished too back in the days when he was still a student, that not only

teachers but also parents punish children as a way to discipline them,

punishments make you a good child". (Student M3).

The fact that some parents encourage their children to tolerate punishment at school shows the acceptance of physical punishment as a cultural tradition in some of the societies in Tanzania. Moreover, the idea of teachers giving corporal punishment to students tends to be passed from one generation to another that they tend to interact with students in much the same way as they themselves were dealt with as students many years ago.

CHAPTER FIVE. 5.0 DISCUSSION

5.1 Punishment and Imbalance of Power

Despite decades of research and prevention efforts, bullying behaviours is still a problem in schools, which affects students' emotional, psychological, physical, academic, and behavioural development in different ways. Several researchers have made effort to examine the main causes and suggest preventive measures so that to prevent bullying in schools (see Smith & Brain, 2000; Smith, 2004; Rigby, 2005),

However, bullying in a secondary school in Tanzania is still a concerning phenomenon. Students who participated in this study reported and identified different forms of bullying, which surprisingly focused on harsh punishment and imbalance of power with teachers. They confessed that this form of bullying does not provide them with a good learning environment or good school climate, where they feel safe to learn. As I have shown in the literature review, it is bullying among students that has been examined most widely, while only a few studies including (see Athanasiades & Deliyanni-Kouimtzis, 2010; Kupchik, 2010) have examined how school rules and punishment are perceived to be unfair in schools. However, the main finding of this study is how students believe excessive punishments and authoritarian ways of discipline are types of bullying. This study not only contributes to the research by answering how secondary

school students in Tanzania understand bullying practices in school but also how students imitate bullying behaviour and learn aggressive behaviours which is confirmed by social learning theory (Bandura, 1977).

Studies have shown that schools with clear, detailed rules, and strict punishment have reported a reduction of bullying behaviour (Craven & Parada, 2002; Asam, 2006). However, this current study found that disciplinary acts seem to be excessive in school which is interpreted as bullying by students. The use of harsh punishments as the way to discipline students was conceptualized as bullying by students because they viewed the school to respond to (real and perceived) student misconduct by using policing practices rather than social welfare. Students who were involved in bullying and other aggressive behaviours were subjected to different types of corporal punishment such as caning, kneeling and push-ups.

This research found that corporal punishment created an uncomfortable and unfriendly environment for students to learn in, that was a less fair and less interactive and fearful environment as it explained by student F1. This concurs with findings from Athanasiades & Deliyanni-Kouimtzis (2010) and Kupchik (2010) who revealed that school rules and punishments are perceived as unfair to students in schools and research that shows that harsh punishment

and strict school rules do not provide a positive school climate (see Cook, Gottfredson & Na, 2010; Noguera, 2003; Lyons & Drew, 2006).

Although there are other studies that claim that strict discipline decreases bullying behaviours in school (Craven & Parada, 2002; Asam; 2006). To the contrary, the current study found that punishments do not decrease bullying behaviour and that students have been learning and imitating bullying and other aggressive behaviours from their teachers, as explained by student F3. This research found punishment acted as a model for the students to imitate and learn bullying and aggressive behaviours as social learning theory posits i.e. new behaviours can be acquired by observing and imitating others (Bandura, 1977).

When punishment was administered in an authoritarian approach it therefore created an imbalance of power (teachers vs students, adult vs children) and facilitated a form of bullying, where teachers were seen to prioritise rules over students in schools. Secondary school teachers in Tanzania use their power and mandate to discipline students so that to maintains their dominance over students which is confirmed by social dominance theory i.e. power is allocated to dominant group so that to create and maintain group hierarchy (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). When teachers create a hostile and less interactive environment, they leave victims powerless (Sidanius &Pratto, 1999;

Nolan, 2011; Rios, 2011). The research recognises findings from studies that revealed that most disciplinary acts in schools involves imbalance of power where teachers always target bullies and troublemakers (Lyons & Drew, 2006; Mukherejee, 2007; Nolan, 2011).

It has been found that bullying behaviour in school not only deteriorates school social climate, but also leads to low self-esteem, anxiety and depression among students (Onditi, 2007; Omoteso, 2010; Levine & Tamburrino, 2014; Rathon et al, 2011). The Basic Education in Tanzania-National Data (BEST, 2012) revealed that declining rates of passing in form four (grade 11) national exams has been changing year to year. In 2012 out of 76,002 students who failed 72.7% of them did so because of truancy. Ndibalema (2013) identified corporal punishment as one major reason for students' truancy and poor attendance to school since it creates uncomfortable environment which was explained by Student M1 . Meanwhile corporal punishments are used for bad performance and bad behaviours in secondary school.

5.2 Cultural and gender differences in bullying

Participants in this study revealed different forms of bullying based on gender. Students may vary in the degree of which they comply to stereotypical norms and attitudes towards gender in their life, however evidence was found

in the individual interviews. Gender identity in Tanzania still assumes

traditional ways in which it modulates bullying (Ndibalema, 2013).

    According to some studies both boys and girls tends to engage in

bullying (see, Mebane & Adams, 2004; Watson, 2007; Rigby, 2004; Smith 2000;

Lee & Song, 2012). This study only found reports that both male teachers and

students tend to bully female students in school. Gender roles are shaped in

the school context by broader cultural expectations, whereby science subjects

are expected to be mastered by my male students, rather than girls. The

female students in this study have been discouraged and not given attention by

male science teachers during learning, as well as been laughed at and mocked

by male students as explained by student F4.   This finding reveals that gender

bullying and discrimination against female student is fuelled by gender roles

(cultural expectations) in school as social dominance posit; It is an example of

when group (in this case the group is girls) discrimination tends to be

systematic because the social and cultural ideologies help to coordinate the

actions of institutions and individuals (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

    The current study concurs with findings from Kartal (2009) in Turkey

who reported that male students are most likely to bully female students.

Relevant research in Greece also found that males' violence was also

associated with cultural ideologies (Deliyanni-Kouimtzis & Sakka, 2005a ; Frossi

& Deliyanni-Kouimtzis, 2007). This study aligns with previous research that found that cultural expectations within school and society encourage hegemonic masculinities among boys which are mostly exercised through gender discrimination and aggressive behaviours (Deliyanni-Kouimtzis & Sakka, 2005a; Frossi & Deliyanni-Kouimtzis, 2007; Psalti & Constantinou, 2017). The current study also concurs findings from Audrey (2006) who revealed that girls in difficulty at schools receive less attention than male peers from teachers which make it difficulty to access resources. The study also found that girls are not priority in school thinking about behaviour management, school bullying or exclusion, even when girls problems are recognized, professionals may be reluctant to refer girls to alternative schemes or programmes, judging such provision to be male dominated.

Conversely, girls are expected to behave in ways that align with societal expectations in relation to what it means to be feminine in school such as studying artistic subjects which are considered easier compared to science subjects. Deliyanni- Kouimtzis & Sakka (2005a) found that girls are culturally expected to have positive social behaviours of being polite, show sympathy, softness and involve in artistic studies. This understanding of the gendered cultural roles was evident in this research by Student F4 which reflects social dominance theory that most forms of intergroup oppression, domination and

conflicts serve the function of establishing and maintaining particular group based hierarchical social and cultural systems (in this case the oppressed group is female students). Men and women play different roles with respect to group-based hierarchy, men predominate in roles and institutions that enhance hierarchy while whereas women are overrepresented in roles that attenuate hierarchy (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

It was most interesting in this research that the male students did not report any bullying from girls or fellow male students. This challenges the findings of Moris (2008) who revealed that boys are likely to be involved in bullying other boys. The boys in this study did not speak about bullying their male peers and positioned themselves in the position of the aggressor and placed girls on the side of victims.

Gender roles imposed in schools that are associated with cultural expectations have been an obstacle to female students interviewed towards their science careers and have affected their sense of identity. A study by the United Nations Children's Fund, U.S. Centres for Disease Control & Preventation & Muhimbili University of Heath & Allied Science (UNICEF, 2011) revealed that 50% of women in Tanzania do not reveal gender discrimination and sexual abuse due to social expectations and taboos. This suggests that it is high time to educate both teachers and students about gender equality. The

government should provide teachers with seminars on how to treat students equally in schools despite their gender. Once teachers are educated, it will be easy to educate students not only through teaching but also as role models.

Although both girls and boys are bullied by their teachers in schools, it is nevertheless reasonable to speak about how girls are treated in schools. The current study found that female students are bullied by both male teachers and students, the study advocates for policies, practices and programs that enhance safety and wellbeing of female students by preventing gender bullying in school. Furthermore, policies and practices that address bulling need to recognize gender discrimination to which girls may be particularly vulnerable to as bullying. Policies need to be implemented along side educational programs for students and training and support for teachers.

Compared to the vast of research on bullying in schools, there is a scarce of research on teachers as instigators of bullying. If these forms of bullying are not dealt with, students will see their teachers as bullies and not as role models. When teachers are seen as bullies, they have a negative impact on the school social climate. A learning environment is made needlessly hostile and vulnerable and students may suffer depression, low self-esteem and anxiety (Onditi, 2007; Rathon et al, 2011, Omoteso, 2010, Levine & Tamburrino, 2014).

The research suggests that students should participate in decisions that are relevant to their wellbeing in schools. School teachers and administrators should engage with students and listen to their ideas and opinions about their everyday life in schools and respect their rights as children. The Tanzanian Law of Children (2009) point out that "A child shall (.......) the right to express an opinion, to be listen and to participate in decisions which affects his well-being"(part 2, Article 11).

CHAPTER SIX. 6.1 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to examine secondary school students understanding of bullying practices and how gender is involved in bullying in a school in Tanzania. The students interpreted bullying as an issue of threat, control, fear and feeling less powerful less powerful in the school through the imbalance of power that exists between teachers and students, they experience bullying practices through harsh and hostile environment through corporal punishment from their teachers. Moreover, students especially girls revealed cultural and gender differences in bullying in school where both male teachers and students bullied female students in science subjects. The study found that gender roles in school that are driven by cultural expectations was the major reasons behind both male teachers and students to bully female students.

Generally, the data reveals that school bullying is a problem in secondary school in Tanzania, but in different ways than expected. Most studies (see Levine & Tamburrino, 2014; De Wet; 2013)discusses about peer-to-peer bullying, however, students in this study believed the real bullying problem was their teachers bullying them.

Disciplinary acts such as corporal punishment enforced through imbalance of power and gender bullying influenced by cultural expectations

gives an alert that there is need for action. Corporal punishment do not only lead to emotional stress but also physical injuries on students. The current study found that most students fear to attend school due to corporal punishments from their teachers. Having teachers bullying students while they are expected to protect them it would be a challenge for teachers to protect students from any other forms of abuse and bullying (Tangi, 2015).

The current study provides findings which enhances our knowledge and understanding about how secondary school students experience bullying practices and how gender is involved in bullying in school. Therefore, this study emphasizes the need to inform all educational stakeholders such as policy makers, administration, teachers and parents about the consequences of associated with corporal punishment, imbalance of powers and gender bullying in school. The study emphasises the need to implement preventive measures against bullying in school so that to create a positive social climate where students can grow both emotionally and intellectually.

6.2 Limitations of the study

Considering the nature of qualitative and case study design it may not be possible to generalize this information especially with regards to the cultural expectations presented. Moreover, data collection method such as semi

structured interview   may have some limitations because it involves self-report data therefore it may have response biases (Paulus, 1991). Also, participants who involved in focus group may have hesitated to open up clearly due to the fear of revenge or bullies may have hesitated to talk about their bullying experience due to the fear of being socially censured.

6.3. Recommendations for future Research.

The current study's findings indicate that effective prevention intervention is required to help prevent secondary school students from developing low self-esteem, depression, anxiety and physical injuries. The present study suggest that preventive measures should focus on positive and nonaggressive disciplinary strategies. Studies (for example; Burchinal, Skinner, Reznick, 2010; Hermenau, Hecker, Elbert, & Ruf-Leuschner, 2011) identifies reasons for using corporal punishment that is due to lack of nonviolent caregiving skills and helplessness. Therefore, this study undertake that teachers may benefit from nonviolent disciplinary skills. In that case, future research should focus on developing and testing culturally appropriate programs that may help teachers develop nonviolent disciplinary skills.

This study uncovers what has been a hidden problem of gender bullying specifically girls in a Tanzanian secondary school. Girls bullying experiences in

school places them in a unique position to access the quality of school climate and culture that needs to be improved. This study reaches out to teachers, researchers, schools and educational policy makers to learn from these girls bullying experiences for better learning environment in schools. Future research should explore intervention strategies that seek to prevent gender bullying in schools.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Anangisye, W. A. L. (2011). Developing Quality Teacher Professionals: a Reflective Inquiry on the Practices and Challenges in Tanzania. Dar es Salaam: University of Dar es Salaam.

Akerlind, G. S. (2012). *Variation and commonality in phonomyography research methods.* Higher Education Research & Development, 3(1), 115-127.

Armstrong, D., Gosling, A., Weinman, J., & Marteau, T. (1997). *The Place of Inter-Rater Reliability in Qualitative Research: An Empirical Study*. Sociology, 31(3), 597606. https://doi.org/10.1177/0038038597031003015

Arum, R. (2005). *Judging school discipline*. Harvard University Press.

Athanasiades, C., & Deliyanni-Kouimtzis, V. (2010). *The experience of bullying among secondary school students.* Psychology in the Schools, *47*(4), 328-341.

Audrey Osler (2006) Excluded girls: interpersonal, institutional and structural violence in schooling, Gender and Education, 18:6, 571-589, DOI: 10.1080/09540250600980089

Austin E.K. (1981) *Guidelines for the Developing of Continuing Education merings for Nurses.* Appleton-Century-Crofts, New York

Baldry, A. C. (2003). *Bullying in schools and exposure to domestic violence.* Child Abuse & Neglect, 27, 713–732. doi: 10.1016/S0145-2134(03)00114-5.

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Oxford, England: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. (1978). *Social learning theory of aggression*. Journal of Communication, 28, 12–29. doi: 10.1111/j.1460-2466.1978.tb01621.x.

Bandura, A., Ross, D., & Ross, S. A. (1961). *Transmission of aggression through imitation of aggressive models*. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 63, 575–583. doi: 10.1037/h0045925.

Barriball, K. L., & While, A. (1994). *Collecting data using a semi-structured interview: a discussion paper.* Journal of Advanced Nursing-Institutional Subscription, 19(2), 328-335.

Booth, S. (1997). *On phenomenography, learning and teaching.* Higher Education Research and Development, 16(2), 135-159.

Boulton, M.J. (2005)A study with secondary school pupils. British Journal of Guiding School peer counselling for bullying service as source of social support; Guidance & Counselling, 18, 485-494.

Boulton, M.J., Trueman, M., & Flemington, I. (2002). Association between secondary school pupils' definitions of bullying, attitudes towards bullying, and tendencies to engage in bullying; Age and sex differences. Educational studies,28, 353-370.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2012). *Thematic analysis.*

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2017). Thematic analysis. *The Journal of Positive Psychology, 12*(3), 297-298.

Brist, T., Sheedy, Patrick D., Feder-Lewis, Sonia, McClure, John, & Pye, Yvette. (2015). Not Just a Rite of Passage: An Action Research Project on Bullying Prevention, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses.

Bryman, A. (2008). *Social research methods* (3.rd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bulmer, M. (Ed.). (1982). Social research ethics. London: Macmillan.

Burchinal M, Skinner, J.S. Reznick (2010) European American and   African American mothers' beliefs about parenting and disciplining infants: A mixed-method analysis Parenting; Science and Practice, 10; pp 79-96, 10.2080/15295190903212604

Campbell, M., & Bauman, S. (Eds.). (2018). *Reducing cyberbullying in schools: International evidence-based best practices*. Academic Press.

Castleberry, A., & Nolen, A. (2018). Thematic analysis of qualitative research data: Is it as easy as it sounds? Currents in Pharmacy Teaching and Learning, 10(6), 807-815.

Cook, P., Gottfredson, D., & Na, C. (2009). School crime control and prevention. Crime and Justice, 39, 313–440.

Corene de Wet & Lynette Jacobs (2013) South African Educators' Understanding of Bullying, Journal of Psychology in Africa, 23:2, 339-343, DOI: 10.1080/14330237.2013.10820633

Cowie, H. (2010). Bystanding or standing by: Gender issues in coping with bullying in English schools. Aggressive Behaviour, 26,85-97.

Craven, R. and Parada, R. H. (2002). Beyond Bullying Secondary school Program: Consultant's handbook. Publication Unit, Self-concept Enhancement and Learning Facilitation (SELF) Research Centre, University of Western Sydney

Curtner-Smith, M. E. (2000). Mechanisms by which family processes contribute to school-age boy's bullying. Child Study Journal, 30, 169–186. Retrieved from http://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ626921.

De Wet, C. (2013). Educators' perspectives on risk factors for learner-on-learner bullying/Opvoeders se perspektiewe oor risiko-faktore vir leerder-op-leerder afknouery. Koers, 78(3), 1-9.

Deliyanni-Kouimtzis, V., & Sakka, D. (2005a). Adolescent views on violence and aggression [In Greek]. In V. Deliyanni-Kouimtzis & D. Sakka (Eds.), Growing up as a boy (pp. 75 – 106). Athens: Gutenberg

Dubin, R. (1978). Theory building (Rev. ed.). New York: The Free Press.

Dupper, D. (2013). Best Practices in Preventing School Bullying: A Whole-School Approach and Beyond. In School Bullying (p. School Bullying, Chapter 6). Oxford University Press.

Elbedour, S., Alqahtani, S., Rihan, I. E. S., Bawalsah, J. A., Booker-Ammah, B., & Turner Jr, J. F. (2020). Cyberbullying: Roles of school psychologists and school counselors in addressing a pervasive social justice issue. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *109*, 104720.

Eliot, M., Cornell, D., Gregory, A., & Fan, X. (2010). Supportive school climate and student willingness to seek help for bullying and threats of violence. Journal of School Psychology, 48(6), 533-553

Elliott, R., Fischer, C., & Rennie, D. (1999). Evolving guidelines for publication of qualitative research studies in psychology and related fields. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology, 38*(3), 215-229.

Espelage, D. L., Hong, J. S., & Mebane, S. (2016). Recollections of childhood bullying and multiple forms of victimization: Correlates with psychological functioning among college students. *Social Psychology of Education*, *19*(4), 715-728.

Espelage, D., & Swearer, S.M (2004). Research on school bullying and Victimization; What we learn and where do we go from here? School Psychology Review, 32, 365-383.

Espelage, D.L., Mebane, S., & Adams, R. (2004). Empathy and the bully-victim continuum. In D.L. Espelage & Swearer (Eds.), Bullying in American schools: A social ecological perspective on prevention and intervention (pp. 37-61). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Ferguson, A. A. (2000). Bad boys: Public schools in the making of black masculinity. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press

Frossi, L., & Deliyanni-Kouimtzis, V. (2007). Teachers' views for promoting gender equality within the educational system: Formulating ideology and resistance [in Greek]. In V. Deliyanni-Kouimtzis & D. Sakka (Eds.), From adolescence to adulthood: Studies for gender identity construction in contemporary Greek society (pp. 313 – 330). Athens: Gutenberg

Gill, Peter Edward, Simonsson, Bo-Erik, & Matton, Pelle. (2017). Consequences for prevention strategies of reduced prevalence of bullying at school-class and school level in a Swedish Municipality. Ecer 2017, ECER 2017.

Gini, G., & Pozzoli, T, (2006). The role of Masculinity in children's bullying. Sex Roles, 54, 585-588.

Girvan, C., & Savage, T. (2012). Ethical considerations for educational research in a virtual world. Interactive Learning Environments, 20(3), 239-251.

Girvan, C., & Savage, T. (2012). Ethical considerations for educational research in a virtual world. Interactive Learning Environments, 20(3), 239-251.

Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children (2012), United Republic of Tanzania – Country report; pp. 1-5. http://www.endcorporalpunishment.org/pages/pdfs/states-reports/UR Tanzania.pdf

Hase, C., Goldberg, S., Smith, D., Stuck, A., & Campain, J. (2015).Impacts of Traditional Bullying and Cyberbullying on the Mental Health of Middle School and Hight school Students. Psychology in the Schools, 52(6), 607-617.

Hermenau, K., Hecker, T., Elbert, T., & Ruf-Leuschner, M. (2011). Maltreatment and mental health in institutional care–comparing early- and late institutionalized children in Tanzania. *Infant Mental Health Journal*.

Hernandez, T. J., and S. R. Seem. (2004). A safe school climate: A systemic approach and the school counsellor. Professional School Counselling 7 (4):256-62

Hanish, L. D., Sallquist, J., DiDonato, M., Fabes, R. A. and Martin, C. L. 2012. Aggression by whom—Aggression toward whom: Behavioral predictors of same- and other-gender aggression in early childhood. *Developmental Psychology*, *48,*1450–1462. doi:10.1037/a0027510

Kahemele, J. W., & Kahemele, J. (2014). The sanctioned emotional, physical and sexual abuse of children in Tanzania Part 2. *Papers and Essays*.

Kartal, H. (2009). The Ratio of Bullying and Victimization among Turkish Elementary School Students and its Relationship to Gender and Grade Level. Journal of Social Science, 20 (2): 109-119.

Kohn, A. 2004. Safety from the inside out: Rethinking traditional approaches. Educational Horizons 83 (1): 33–41

Kowalski, R, M., Morgan, C, A., & Limber, S, P. (2012). Traditional bullying as a potential warning sign of cyberbullying. School Psychology International, 33(5), 505-51

Kupchik, A. (2010). Homeroom security: School discipline in an age of fear. New York: New York University Press.

Lee, C., & Song, J. (2012). Functions of parental involvement and effects of school climate on bullying behaviors among South Korean middle school students. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 27, 2437–2464.

Levine, E., & Tamburrino, M. (2014). Bullying Among Young Children: Strategies for Prevention. Early Childhood Education Journal, 42(4), 271-278.

Li, Q. (2006). Cyberbullying in schools. School Psychology International, 27, 157–170

Lyons, W., & Drew, J. (2006). Punishing schools: Fear and citizenship in American public education. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press

Mbassa, M. And Daniel, D. (2001). Violence against Children within the family and in Schools. In Wellesley Centres for Research on Women, (ed.), Unsafe Schools: A Literature Review of School-Related Gender Based Violence in Developing Countries. Virginia: Development and Training Services, Inc. (DTS)

Merrow, J. 2004. Safety and excellence. *Educational Horizons* 83 (1): 19–32

Mitchell, M., & Sidanius, J. (1995). Social hierarchy and the death penalty: A social dominance perspective. Political Psychology, 16, 591–619.

Moris, C. (2006). Bullying behavior among secondary school students in Dar es Salaam region: a case study of Dar es Salaam region. Unpublished Thesis University of Dar es Salaam. Dar es Salaam: University of Dar es Salaam.

Moris, D. (2008). Bullying among Secondary School Students in Dar es Salaam Region, Tanzania. Papers in Education and Development. 28, 40-60.

Mouttapa, M., Valente, T., Gallaher, P., Rohrbach, L. A., & Unger, J. B. (2004). Social network predictors of bullying and victimization. Adolescence, 39, 315–335. Retrieved from http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15563041.

Mouttapa, M., Valente, T., Gallaher, P., Rohrbach, L. A., & Unger, J. B. (2004). Social network predictors of bullying and victimization. Adolescence, 39, 315–335. Retrieved from http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15563041.

Mukherjee, E. (2007). Criminalizing the classroom: The over-policing of New York City schools. New York: New York Civil Liberties Union.

Mukherjee, E. (2007). Criminalizing the classroom: The over-policing of New York City schools. New York: New York Civil Liberties Union.

Mura, G., Bonsignore, V., & Diamantini, D. (2010). Conflict management among secondary school students. Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 2(2), 2402-2408

Nansel, T. R., Overpeck, M. D., Haynie, D. L., Ruan, W. J., & Scheidt, P. C. (2001). Relationships between bullying and violence among U.S. youth. Archives of Pediatric Adolescent Medicine, 157, 348–353.

Nansel, T. R., Overpeck, M., Pilla R. S., Ruan, W. J., Simmons-Morton, B. and Scheidt, P. N. (2001). Bullying s among US Youth: Prevalence and Association with Psychosocial Adjustiment. JAM, 285, 2094-2110.

Ndibalema, P. (2013). Perceptions about bullying behaviour in secondary schools in Tanzania. The case of Dodoma Municipality. International Journal of Education and Research. 1(5), 1-16

Noguera, P. (2003). City schools and the American dream: Reclaiming the promise of public education. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Nolan, K. (2011). Police in the hallways: Discipline in an urban high school. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press

Olweus, D. (2001). Olweus' core program against bullying and antisocial behavior: A teacher handbook. Bergen, Norway: Research Center for Health Promotion.

Olweus, Dan. (2001). Bullying at school: Tackling the problem. OECD Observer,24.

Omari, I. M. (2006). Educational psychology for teachers. Dar es Salaam: Dar es Salaam University Press. Omoteso, B. A. (2010). Bullying, its Associated Factors and Psychological Effects among Secondary Students in Nigeria. The Journal of International Social Research. 10(3), 498-509.

Omoteso, B. A. (2010). Bullying, its Associated Factors and Psychological Effects among Secondary Students in Nigeria. The Journal of International Social Research. 10(3), 498-509.

Onditi, H. Z. (2017). Cyberbullying in Tanzania: adolescents' experiences and the psychosocial factors influencing coping strategies (Doctoral dissertation, University of British Columbia, 10.14288/1.0343970

Orpinas, P., & Horne, A. M. (2006). *Bullying prevention: Creating a positive school climate and developing social competence*. American Psychological Association

Owusu, A., Hart, P., Oliver, B., & Kang, M. (2011). The association between bullying and psychological health among senior high school students in Ghana, West Africa. The Journal of School Health, 81(5), 231-238.

Paredes, M., Campbell, Venetta, Lam, Brian, & Santhiveeran, Janaki. (2016). Bullying Prevention Strategies for Elementary School Students: A Grant Proposal, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses

Paulhus, D. P. (1991). Measurement and control of response bias. In J.P. Robinson, P.R. Shaver, & L. S. Wrightsman (Eds.), Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes (pp. 17-59). San Diego: Academic Press.

Peets, K., & Kikas, E.(2006). Aggressive strategies and victimization during adolescence; Grade and gender differences, and cross-informant agreement . Aggressive behaviour, 32, 68-79.

Pellegrini, A. D. and Long, J. (2002). A Longitudinal Study of Bullying, Dominance and   Victimization during the Transition from Primary school Through Secondary school. British Journal of Developmental Psychology, 20, 259-280.

Perakyla, A. (1997). Reliability and validity in research based on the tapes and transcripts. In D. Silverman (Ed.), Qualitative research; Theory, method and practice (pp 201-220) London; Sage.

Psalti, A., & Constantinou, K. (2007). Bullying in secondary schools. The influence of gender and ethnicity.Psychology, 14, 329 – 345.

Rigby, K. (2002). New perspectives on bullying. London: Jessica Kingsley

Rigby, K., & Bagshaw, D. (2003). Prospects of adolescent students collaborating with teachers in addressing issues of bullying and conflict in schools. Educational Psychology, 23, 535 – 546

Rios, V. M. (2011). Punished: Policing the lives of black and Latino boys. New York: New York University Press.

Rodkin, P. C. and Berger, C. 2008. Who bullies whom? Social status asymmetries by victim gender. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 32: 473–485. doi:10.1177/0165025408093667

Rothon, C., Head, J., Klineberg, E., & Stansfeld, S. (2011). Can social support protect bullied adolescents from adverse outcomes? A prospective study on the effects of bullying on the educational achievement and mental health of adolescents at secondary schools in East London. Journal of Adolescence, 34(3), 579-588.

Shafer, K., & Silverman, M. (2013). Applying a social learning theoretical framework to music therapy as a prevention and intervention for bullies and victims of bullying. The Arts in Psychotherapy, 40(5), 495-500.

Sidanius, J., & Pratto, F. (1999). *Social dominance: An intergroup theory of social hierarchy and oppression*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Slee, P. (2017). *How to Prevent and Tackle Bullying and School Violence: Evidence and Practices for Strategies for Inclusive and Safe Schools,* NESET II report (Vol. 9). Msida: European Centre for Educational Resilience and Socio-Emotional Health.

Smith L. (1992) Ethical issues in interviewing. Journal of Advanced Nursing 17(1), 98-103.

Smith, D. M. (2015). *Cyberbullying in South African and American Schools*: A Legal Comparative Study. South African Journal of Education, 35(2): 1–11

Smith, J. A., & 0sborn, M. (2003). *Interpretative phenomenological Analysis*. In J. A. Smith (Ed.), Qualitative psychology (pp. 51-80). London; Sage.

Smith, P. K. (2000). Bullying and harassment in schools and the rights of children. Children & Society, 14, 294 – 303.

Stewart, D.W., & Shamdashani, P.N. (1990). *Focus groups.* Theory and practice. London; Sage.

Suri, H. (2011). Purposeful sampling in qualitative research synthesis. *Qualitative research journal, 11*(2), 63.

Swearer, S. M., & Espelage, D. L. (2004). Introduction: A social-ecological framework of bullying among youth. In D. L. Espelage & S. M. Swearer (Eds.), Bullying in American schools: A social-ecological perspective on prevention and intervention (pp. 1–12). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Swearer, S. M., & Hymel, S. (2015). Understanding the psychology of bullying: Moving toward a social-ecological diathesis–stress model. *American Psychologist*, *70*(4), 344.

Tangi, F. (2010). *The perceptions of teachers and students on bullying and its management in secondary schools in Iringa region*. Dar es Salaam: University of Dar es Salaam.

Tangi, F. (2015). *The impact of bullying on students' classroom learning activities and on their learning outcomes* - A case study in Lake Zone Region in Tanzanian Secondary Schools. Vechta: University of Vechta.

Treece E.W. & Treece J.W. (1986) *Elements of Research in Nursing* 4th edn. C.V. Mosby, St Louis.

Tsitsika, A. K., Barlou, E., Andrie, E., Dimitropoulou, C., Tzavela, E. C., Janikian, M., & Tsolia, M. (2014). *Bullying behaviours in children and adolescents: "an ongoing story*". Frontiers in public health, 2, 7. doi:10.3389/fpubh.2014.00007

UNICEF (2011) *Violence against Children in Tanzania: Findings from a National Survey, 2009. Summary Report on the Prevalence of Sexual, Physical and Emotional Violence, Context of Sexual Violence, and Health and Behavioural Consequences of Violence Experienced in Childhood.* Dar es Salaam, Tanzania: UNICEF Tanzania, Division of Violence Prevention, National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, and Muhimbili University of Health and Allied Sciences, 2011.

Watson, S. W. (2007). Boys, masculinity and school violence: Reaping what we sow. Gender and Education, 19, 729-737

Welton, E., Vakil, S., & Ford, B. (2014). *Beyond Bullying*: *Consideration of Additional Research for the Assessment and Prevention of Potential Rampage School Violence in the United States*. Education Research International, 2014, 1-9.

Wilkinson, S. (2003). Focus groups. In J. A. Smith (Ed.), Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods (pp.185 – 204). London: Sage.

Williams, K. R., & Guerra, N. G. (2011). Perceptions of collective efficacy and bullying perpetration in schools. Social Problems, 58, 126–143.

Willig, C. (2001). Introducing qualitative research in psychology. Adventures in theory and method. Berkshire: Open University Press.

Wolke, D., Woods, S., Bloomfield, L., & Karstadt, L. (2001). Bullying involvement in primary school and common health problems. Archives of Disease in Childhood, 85, 197-201.

Yen, C., Liu, T., Ko, C., Wu, Y., & Cheng, C. (2014). *Mediating effects of bullying involvement on the relationship of body mass index with social phobia, depression, suicidality, and self-esteem and sex differences in adolescents in Taiwan*. Child Abuse & Neglect, 38(3), 517-526.

Yin, R. K. (1989). Case study research; Design and methods. Newbury Park; Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2003). Case study research; Design and methods. Newbury Park; Sage.

Yubero, S., & Navarro, R. (2006). Students' and teachers' views of gender-related aspects of aggression. School Psychology International, 27, 488 – 512.

APPENDIX 1

Focus Group interview

Hypothetical scenarios of school bullying

- In a school like yours, one girl spread rumours and say bad things about you, and most students starts to make fun of you, and you end spending much of your time alone and isolated.

- In a school like yours, john and his friends wait for Dennis at the school highway almost every day, they surround him, scare him, push him and throw his bag on the floor.

Predetermined research questions for interviews.

1 . How would you feel?

 2.How would you describe this incidence?

Prompts; have you ever heard about bullying? What is bullying to you?

1. Have you ever seen or notice or anything like that happen to you or here at your school?

Prompts; does bullying occur at this school? How often? And where does it take place?

2. Why do you think some people bully others?

Prompts; what are the reasons for bullying? What are the characteristics of bullies?

3. How is likely to engage in bullying between boys and girls?

Prompts; are there differences between boys and girls in bullying? If so why? Who is likely to engage in bullying more often and why?

4. Do you think teachers and parents are aware about bullying in your school?

Prompts; have you ever spoken to teachers and parents about bullying? If not, why not? If yes, what are their responses? Do you think that teachers or parents are involved in bullying? If yes how? Measures taken.

APPENDIX 2

Interview Consent form

The University of Gothenburg

Faculty of Education

Department of Education & Special Education

Mailbox 40530

<u>Parental Consent Form</u>

The interpretations and experience of bullying behaviour among secondary school students in Mwanza- Tanzania.

Student X has been invited to participate in a research study conducted by the University of Gothenburg that will take place in the coming week at school. Please read the following information about the study.

Aim; Studies shows that bullying is still an issue especially in schools especially in secondary schools were students go through two major transition at this stage. Most students undergo puberty at this stage, also it's a new level of education where most students meet new peers and develop new behaviours. Bullying has impacted students in different ways such as increased depression,

low self-esteem and anxiety. Therefore, the aim of the study is to examine how secondary school students interpret and experience bullying in school. The study will be used to inform policy makers, teachers and parents for intervention program for better learning environment.

 The study will involve an interview which will last about 30 to 45 minutes. Questions about gender, grade and age will be asked so that to identify participants. Nonparticipants will be having private study when the study will be conducted.

The study is not associated with any risk and identity of the participant will be kept confidential. Your child has the right to withdraw from the study at any time during the process, and all the information gathered in the interview will be used for research purpose only. If you consent your child to participate in this study, please fill in the last page and return the last page of this form.

Your child's participation in this study will be highly appreciated.

Irene G kakuru

Email; irenekakuru27@gmail.com

Phone number; xxxx

Study Supervisor; Sally Windsor

Email; xxxxx

CONSENT:

My child's participation in this study is entirely voluntary and I allow to have

him/her participate in this study, and he/she may withdraw from study any

time he or she want.

- o I DO consent my child's participation

  Name of the child_____

  Your name_____

  Signature _____   Date_____