A SOCIOMETRIC STUDY OF BULLYING / VICTIMIZATION AND PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS IN A CLASSROOM SETTING

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(Ms. Raiha Aftab)
Supervisor

Dedicated to

My Parents.

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ABSTRACT

The present study "Sociometric study of bullying/victimization and physical attractiveness in classroom setting" was designed to explore the relationship between sociometric status, bullying, victimization and physical attractiveness. The data was collected using "Global Physical attractiveness Scale", "Sociometric Questionnaire", "Victimization Index", and "Bullying Nomination Scale". The sample consisted of 25 children of 5th grade of Guidance Montessori School, Rawalpindi. The students belonged to the same section (class). The findings support the relationship between sociometric status, bullying/victimization and physical attractiveness. As expected the sociometric status of physical attractive children was higher as compared to the unattractive children ($\alpha = 0.05$). Moreover, the phenomenon of bullying/victimization was also found to be related to their social standing in peers.

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

Jim didn't fit the "macho" image required of him to fit in at his junior high school. He liked to read and played the piano instead of football. The "cool" kids teased him mercilessly. At least once a week, the "jocks" that lived in his neighborhood would gang up on him as he walked home from school. Sometimes they would tear his glasses off his face and toss them back and forth to each other over his head while shouting, "Hey, four-eyed wuss, where are your eyes?" Sometimes his glasses would get smashed in the process. He was on his fifth pair. He was afraid to tell his folks, afraid they wouldn't believe him or if they did, afraid of retaliation. He'd tell them he accidentally broke his glasses. After the first time, his mom and dad would lecture him endlessly on responsibility. He'd been grounded for a week each time and had to pay for the new glasses the last two times out of the money he'd saved for a new bike doing odd jobs for the neighbors (Middelton-Moz, & Zawadski, 2002).

Jim's problem shows that how children are victimized for bullying due to their peculiar physical features, that make them unattractive to other children. Early in life, children are classified and pigeonholed into subgroups or cliques in schools and neighborhoods according to looks, interests or behavior: "the popular kids," "the jocks," "the brains," "the preppies," "the geeks," "the freaks," "the nerds," "the outcasts," "the gooners," "the nobodies," "the faggots". The most significance of this kind of pressure is most evident with gender role identification. Boys live in fear of not complying with the unspoken rules of how to belong: act cool, don't show your feelings, act tough, macho, bully or get bullied, be good in sports, don't appear too sensitive or "bookish," look good, and never cry, ask for help, or appear to be too close to your mom. In *Real Boys' Voices*, William Pollack describes the survival techniques that boys learn early to subscribe to the "Boy Code," and the need they feel to wear a mask throughout their lives, "When boys wear this mask, they completely repress their inner emotional lives and instead act tough, composed, daring, unflappable, laughing off their pain. They may wax strong and silent or lash out with fists and fighting words" (Pollack, 2000, p. 33), cited in Middelton-Moz, and

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Zawadski, (2002). Without the mask, they run the risk of being bullied relentlessly. Often the mask requires that they bully or actively support their buddy who is bullying. Some can't take the constant pressure and abuse, see no way out, and become depressed and suicidal or strike out with fists and weapons.

The case is same with girls. Not all girls play with Barbies, dress like her or look like her. In fact, if Barbie was a real person, she probably couldn't stand up with her proportions. Yet, girls still are pressured to fit into a particular image of what it means to be female. Girls are under constant pressure to belong, to be part of a group, to be attractive (not too fat or too skinny), to wear the right clothes, and later attract the attention of boys. Girls that don't fit the image, are too shy to fight against group norms or can't find a group to belong to are often targets for bullies (Middelton-Moz, & Zawadski, 2002).

Physical Attractiveness

Physical attractiveness is the perception of the physical traits of an individual human person or a group, race, or type of people, as attractive or beautiful. Judgment of attractiveness of physical traits is partly universal to all human cultures, partly dependent on culture/society or time period, and partly a matter of individual preference. Physical attractiveness can have a significant effect on how people are judged, in terms of employment or social opportunities, friendship, sexual behavior, and marriage. In many cases humans attribute positive characteristics, such as intelligence and honesty, to attractive people without consciously realizing it (Wikipedia, 2006).

Strictly speaking, attractiveness is whatever the people of any given place and time find attractive. This, of course, varies. The western standards of beauty by which Miss Universe is judged are hardly true of the whole world, much less the universe. And even in a given place and time, there is (fortunately) some disagreement about who's attractive and who's not (Morse, & Gruzen, 1976).

But there is also some agreement. Generally, "attractive" facial and body features do not deviate too drastically from the average (Beck et al., 1976; Graziano et al., 1978).

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Nose, legs, or statures that are not unusually large or small tend to be percieved as relatively attractive. There are also sex-related differences in what makes for an attractiveface. Consistent with men's greater social power, women tend to be judged as more attractive if they have immature features, such as large eyes, that suggest nondominance. Men are judged as more attractive when their faces suggest maturity and dominance (Cunningham, 1986; Keating, 1985).

Young children are favorably biased toward attractive children much as adults are biased toward attractive adults (Dion, 1973; Dion & Brescheid, 1974; Langlois & Stephan, 1981). The finding points to a *physical-attractiveness stereotype:* What is beautiful is good. Children are taught the stereotype quite early. Snow White and Cinderellla are beautiful---- and kind; the witch and the stepsisters are ugly----and wicked. As one kindergarten girl put it when asked what it means to be pretty, "It's like to be a princess. Everybody loves you" (Dion, 1979).

Is the physical-attrctiveness stereotype accurate? Or was Leo Tolstoy correct when he wrote that it's "a strange illusion . . . to suppose that beauty is goodness"? There well might be a trace of truth to the stereotype. Children and young adults who are attractive tend to have slightly higher self-esteem and to be less prone to psychological disorders (Hatfield & Sprecher, 1986; Maruyama & Miller, 1981). They are more assertive, although they are aslo believed to be more egoistical (Jackson & Huston, 1975). They are neither more nor less accademically capable (contrary to the negative stereotype that "beauty times brains equals a constant") (Sparacino & Hansell, 1979). However, they are somewhat more socially polished. Surely these small average diffreences between attractive and unattractive people are the results of self-fulfilling prophecies. Attractive people are valued and favored, and so may develop more social self-confidence. Not only do we percieve attractive people as likable, but we also percieve likable people as physically attractive (Myers, 1988).

When a person is seen as attractive or unattractive, a whole set of assumptions are brought into play. Across cultures, what is beautiful is assumed to be good. Attractive people are assumed to be more extroverted, popular, and happy. There is truth in this —

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attractive people do tend to have these characteristics. However, this is probably due to self-fulfilling prophecy; from a young age attractive people receive more attention that helps them develop positive characteristics (Cash, Gillen, & Burns; 1977, Clark, & Mills, 1979).

Dr. Patzer (2006) in his book "The Power and Paradox of Physical Attractiveness" provides evidence that despite professed ideals, people do judge others by their looks. Physical attractiveness is a more powerful determinant of a person's fortune and misfortune in life than people admit. No matter the words, thoughts, and ideals proclaimed by people, these same people judge, assume, infer, believe, act, treat, decide, accept, reject, and behave toward or against individuals, in patterns consistent with their own physical attractiveness and that of others. While many dimensions define appearance, physical attractiveness predominates.

The physical attractiveness of a person impacts every individual throughout every community, across the United States and around the world. All people inherit and alter their physical attractiveness, which is determined by complex, interdependent, physical and non-physical factors. Hidden and not-hidden values drive thoughts and actions with significant effects and realities whereby higher physical attractiveness is beneficial, lower physical attractiveness is detrimental and associated pursuits are relentless (Patzer, 2006).

Both children and adults generally respond to physically attractive persons more favorably than they respond to unattractive persons (despite fairly strong socialization not to do so----"don't judge a book by its cover"). That there is a *physical attractiveness stereotype*------that people both as children and as adults attribute more socially desirable attributes to attractive than to unattractive persons-----is supported by a number of studies (e.g., Berschied & Walster, 1978). Among those reviewed by Adams, in Stormmen, McKinney, and Fitzgerald, 1983 were studies showing that teachers rate physically attractive children more positively than they do unattractive children, as well as other studies which show that children prefer physically attractive peers to unattractive peers. One study which compared 10- and 12-year-olds to 26-year-olds actually found that the

girls' evaluations were more stereotyped than the adult women's! (Dushenko, Peery, Schilling, & Smollarski, in Stormmen, McKinney, & Fitzgerald, 1983).

Adams, in Stormmen, McKinney, and Fitzgerald (1983) goes on to argue that since the physical attractiveness stereotype affects the kind of social exchanges one receives from others----attractive individuals receive positive exchanges and unattractive individuals receive less positive exchanges---children differing in physical attractiveness will internalize different self-images, expectations for themselves, and interpersonal personality styles. As a result of their greater positive social experience, physically attractive people will be more likely to show self-confidence in interpersonal situations and perhaps in other positive attributes as well. Most of the supportive evidence for this scheme is based on responses of adolescents and adults, but where school-aged children have been studied, the phenomena are clearly applicable to them as well.

Impact of Physical Attractiveness on the Individual

Berscheid and Walster in Berkowitz (1974) maintained that physical attractiveness has a more profound effect on the following three areas especially among children:

1. Popularity: Studies have found even kindergarteners can distinguish between body types and have aversion to certain types (chubbiness). Direct evidence that physical attractiveness impacts on social acceptance has even been shown in nursery schools. Other evidence shows a correlation between quality of early social behavior and adult social adjustment. Studies show that the social value of attractiveness for females increases with age as children begin to absorb cultural stereotypes. For young pre-school males aggressiveness was associated with unattractiveness. Attractiveness and independence were also correlated. Thus, a person's early self-concept may be partly determined by their physical attractiveness.

2. Socialization: One study found that in attributing alleged bad behavior of a described child, adults were more likely to attribute the behavior as a unique event for

attractive children and evidence of a bad social trend for unattractive children. Thus children may receive different socialization based on their attractiveness.

3.Education: One study where 400 teachers analyzed the same school records of a child (with different pictures of attractive/unattractive children) found that teachers gave higher ratings of educational potential to attractive children and unattactive children. Another study by college men of writings by a college woman found the same effect of attractiveness on rating.

Sociometry

The word *sociometry* comes from the Latin "socius," meaning social and the Latin "metrum," meaning measure.   As these roots imply, sociometry is a way of measuring the degree of relatedness among people. Measurement of relatedness can be useful not only in the assessment of behavior within groups, but also for interventions to bring about positive change and for determining the extent of change. A useful working definition of sociometry is that it is a methodology for tracking the energy vectors of interpersonal relationships in a group.   It shows the patterns of how individuals associate with each other when acting as a group toward a specified end or goal (Criswell in Moreno, 1960). Moreno himself defined sociometry as "the mathematical study of psychological properties of populations, the experimental technique of and the results obtained by application of quantitative methods". Sociometry is based on the fact that people make choices in interpersonal relationships. Whenever people gather, they make choices--where to sit or stand; choices about who is perceived as friendly and who not, who is central to the group, who is rejected, who is isolated. As Moreno says, "Choices are fundamental facts in all ongoing human relations, choices of people and choices of things. It is immaterial whether the motivations are known to the chooser or not; it is immaterial whether [the choices] are inarticulate or highly expressive, whether rational or irrational. They do not require any special justification as long as they are spontaneous and true to the self of the chooser. They are facts of the first existential order." (Moreno, 1953).

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In its literal definition, this term embraces all techniques for measuring interpersonal relationships, but in practice the term is usually applied to techniques evolved from those developed by J. L. Moreno. These are essentially subjective report methods, but like attitude assessment procedures, they involve the expression of judgments and choices by the respondent rather than a mere verbal account of his experience.

The most frequently investigated sociometric dimension is that of *liking*, or simple interpersonal attraction. Although the applicability of sociometry is by no means restricted only to this dimension of interpersonal relationship, this variable accounts for the majority of research investigations that have used sociometric techniques.

In standard sociometric procedures, a verbal statement is provided to describe the particular dimension of interpersonal relationship to be investigated. This statement is called the *sociometric criterion*. In some investigations, a negative sociometric criterion may be provided to define the opposite pole of the dimension being studied.

Importance of Peer Interactions among children

Sullivan, in Stormmen, McKinney, and Fitzgerald, (1983) argued that as children approach school age they begin to feel a need for companions about their own age and to seek them out. Many children begin to invent imaginary playmates at about this age, and Sullivan suggests that the children who do so are those who have less contact with other children, and so provide themselves with a playmate in order to meet this new social need. He may be right, although there is no adequate documentation of the point.

The culture of childhood suggests another reason why peer acceptance is so important. Only when children are accepted do they gain access to this unique social world where there are so many interesting things to learn and do, and where they can gain self-validation through their own participation. (From a social learning point of view, the control of access to the world of childhood gives peers great power.) In addition, only peers can serve as effective models for how to act among other children. And they can be very effective models indeed (Stormmen, McKinney, & Fitzgerald, 1983).

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Peer relationships are not only important *to* children, they are also important *for* children. In addition to being influenced by what they see other children do, once accepted by peers, children become subject to other forms of influence as well. Peers provide a great deal of direct reinforcement to one another for such behaviors as assertiveness and cooperation. This is already true for preschool children; it becomes increasingly true when children enter school (Paterson, Littman, & Bricker, 1967). In addition, as groups interact overtime, group norms----shared values, goals, and motivations----develop. Such norms are not in much evidence among preschoolers. Hartup, in Stormmen, McKinney, and Fitzgerald, (1983) suggests that the early school years are the transition period during which group norms begin to become an important component of peer interactions (an argument which is congruent with Sullivan's description of peer the juvenile era). And there is the cognate matter of children's relative status within the peer group as it evolves, and the exceptions which the group may form. Once established, a given child's status may remain fairly stable, though it is certainly not fixed or unitary---the same child may have high status in one activity or situation, but not in others. Once status is established, however, group norms and expectations may continue to elicit behavior congruent with that status from the child. A child who is considered a leader may be turned to for leadership; a child who is seen as the group clown may be expected to clown and may comply by doing so, thus further reinforcing the group expectation.

Peer group status

One main approach to investigating children's peer group status is to use *sociometric techniques*-----instruments that ask the children in some identifiable group (a classroom, for example) to nominate the child or children who best fit some description, such as best friend, meanest, liked by everybody, and so forth. (Obviously, the relationships revealed depend in part on the particular questions asked.) The children's choices can then be tabulated to see who was nominated by many, who by few; which choices were reciprocal (two children name one another); and so forth. Simple frequencies of choice have been used in much research, but in recent years investigators have proposed more sophisticated (and, probably more meaningful) indices based on both positive and negative nominations (e.g., Peery; Newcomb & Bukowski; as cited in Stormmen,

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McKinney, & Fitzgerald, 1983). Both very-well-liked and much-disliked children are social forces to be reckoned with in a group of children; both have high social impact. But they differ in social preference---other children like to be with popular children but prefer not to be with the rejected children. Using these dimensions, one can differentiate stars, popular children who are high on both social impact and social preference; rejected children, disliked children who are high on social impact, but low on social preference; isolates, the socially "invisible" children who are low on both impact and preference; and average children, who are "in the middle" on both impact and preference (Stormmen, McKinney, & Fitzgerald, 1983)

Sociometric measures

Over the past 15 years there has been a resurgence of interest in children's relationships with peers. As a result of this interest, sociometric measurement techniques for assessing children's peer group status have also been revived and expanded. The current literature on peer adjustment reflects the use of a half dozen or more variants of sociometric methods for operationlizing peer status. A major distinction among sociometric methods is whether they are based on peer ratings or peer nominations.

i)   *Peer ratings:* In a peer ratings method (e.g., Asher & Haymel, 1981; French, 1988, 1990; Ladd, 1983; Roistacher, 1974; Singleton & Asher, 1977) members of the reference population, usually all classmates or same-sex classmates, rate each of their peers in terms of how much they like them or would like to play with them. These data are then transformed into mean peer rating scores for each member of the group, and these scores serve as an index of social status within that group.

ii)   *Peer nominations:* In a nomination-based system members of the reference population identify a small number of peers, usually three, whom they like most and a similar number of peers whom they like least. These nominations are totaled for all children in the reference group and are the basis for determining peer status in one of two ways. Either status is determined directly from these positive and negative nomination totals (e.g., Newcomb & Bukowski, 1983) or the two totals are combined to produce an

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index of social preference (like most scores minus like least scores) and an index of social impact (like most scores plus like least scores), which in turn are used to determine peer status (Coie, Dodge, & Coppotelli, 1982). Both of these nomination-based methods are two-dimensional, as opposed to the unidimensional peer rating method.

a) *Coie, Dodge, and Coppotelli (1982) System(CDC):* The Coie et al. system hereafter referred to as the CDC system is based on continuous normative model. The absolute frequencies of positive and negative nominations are calculated for each child and converted into standardized like most (z-LM) and like least (z-LL) acores within each grade. The social preference (SP) score is then computed as $LM - LL$ and the social impact (SI) acore as $LM + LL$. The SP and SI scores are then restandardized within each grade.

Sociometric status according to CDC System

Once the z-SP and z-SI score are calculated, a two-dimensional system of status classification, based on normal distribution theory, results in the following six groups:

(a) *Popular*, children with a z-SP score greater than 1.0, a z-LM score greater than 0, and a z-LL score less than 0;

(b) *Rejected*, children with a z-SP score less than -1.0, a z-LL score greater than 0, and a z-LM score less than 0;

(c) *Neglected*, children with a z-SI score less than -1.0, and an absolute frequency of positive nominations of 0;

(d) *Controversial*, children with a z-SI score greater than 1.0 and both z-LM and z-LL scores greater than0;

(e) *Average*, children who receive both a z-SP score and a z-SI score between -0.5 and 0.5; and

(f) *Other*, all remaining children. This group corresponds to those children who could not be classified by the Coie et al. (1982) system.

b) *Newcomb and Bukowski (1983) system(NB):* In Newcomb and Bukowski system, hereafter referred to as the NB system, on the basis of a discrete normative model,

the absolute frequencies of positive nominations and negative nominations are computed for each child. Standardized like most and like least scores, as well as a social impact score, were then calculated.

Sociometric status according to NB system

A two-dimensional status classification system, based no binomial distribution theory, resulted in the following five status groups:

(a)   *Popular,* children who received seven (changes as a function of group size) or more positive nominations and a z-LL score less than 0;

(b)   *Rejected,* children who received at least seven negative nominations and a z-LM score less than 0;

(c)   *Neglected,* children who received a z-SI score of 2 or less;

(d)   *Controversial,* children who received at least seven on both LM and LL nominations or more LM nominations and a z-LL score greater than 0 or seven or more LL nominations and a z-LM score less than 0;

(e)   *Average,* all remaining children.

NB system is mutually exhaustive in that no children were left as unclassified.

Sociometric analysis

Empirical observations collected by the sociometric procedures described above may be subjected to several kinds of analysis. They may be represented in *graphic form,* or they may be converted to various *numerical indices.* Several kinds of standard methods of handling the analysis of sociometric data have been developed.

i)   *Sociomatrix:* It is a two-way representation of each individual's pattern of sociometric choices or rejections.

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ii)   *Sociogram*: The graphic representation of sociometric observations is called a *sociogram*. In the sence that "one picture is worth a thousand words," a sociogram may serve to condense a vast amount of information about interpersonal relationships within a group into concise form. Conventional sociograms represent individual people by small circles, from which arrows are drawn to designate each individual's expressed sociometric choices or rejections.

iii) Numerical Sociometric indices: Sociometric data may be converted to numerical form and organized to provide indices of measurement that represent particular qualities of an individual's position within a group, or of the group itself. The simplest kind of numerical index is simply an absolute number representing the frequency of choices (or of rejections) received by an individual.

Bullying

Repeated aggressive acts against someone who cannot easily defend themselves:

- Farrington (1993): Bullying is repeated oppression of a less powerful person, physical or psychological, by a more powerful person.
- Smith and Sharp (1994): The systematic abuse of power.
- Rigby (2002): Bullying involves a desire to hurt + a harmful action + a power imbalance + (typically) repetition + an unjust use of power + evident enjoyment by the aggressor and generally a sense of being oppressed on the part of the victim.
- Olweus as cited in Smith and Sharp (1994), has defined bullying as :

  "A child or a young person is being bullied, or picked on, when another child or a young person, or a group of young children or people, say nasty or unpleasant things to him or her. It is also bullying when a child or a young person is hit, kicked, threatened, locked inside a room, sent nasty notes, when no one ever talks to them and things like that. These things can happen frequently and it is difficult for the child or young person being bullies to defend him or herself. It is also bullying when a child or young person is teased repeatedly in a nasty way."

Bullying happens when one person or a group of people tries to upset another person by saying nasty or hurtful things to him or her again and again. Sometimes bullies hit or kick people or force them to hand over money; sometimes they tease them again and again. The person who is being bullied finds it difficult to stop this happening and is worried that it will happen again. It may not be bullying when two people of roughly the same strength have a fight or disagreement.

Types of Bullying

Bullying occurs, both in direct or indirect form. In direct bullying the child or victim is mostly physically harmed e. g., hitting, kicking, stealing or damaging things etc. indirect bullying can occur in the form of spreading of rumors, manipulation of friendship and social isolation. Underlying most bullying behavior is an abuse of power and desire to intimidate and dominate. Bullying takes many forms.

According to Smith & Sharp (1994) bullying can be:

1. *Physical:* physical bullying includes hitting, kicking, taking or damaging belongings.
2. *Verbal:* Verbal bullying includes name-calling, threatening, insulting, repeated teasing and racist remarks.
3. *Indirect:* Spreading nasty rumors, excluding someone of the social group and making faces and obscene gestures are included in indirect bullying.

Theories of Bullying

1. Developmental Theory: Some explanations of bullying draw upon an understanding of child development. They point out that bullying begins in early childhood when individuals begin to assert themselves at the expense of others in order to establish their social dominance. They tend at first to do so crudely, for instance by hitting out at others, especially those less powerful than themselves, in an attempt to intimidate them. But as Hawley (1999) points out, as children develop they begin to employ less socially

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reprehensible ways of dominating others. Verbal and indirect forms of bullying become more common than physical forms. In time, the kind of behavior that is generally labeled as "bullying" becomes relatively rare. Consistent with this view is evidence that physical bullying is much more common in early childhood than later, and that what is identified as bullying gradually becomes less and less apparent as children become older (Smith & Sharp, 1994). However as a comprehensive explanation of bullying this view fails to take into account that although there is a general diminution in reported victimization over time, the trend is temporarily reversed when children move from primary to secondary school and find themselves in a new environment which is less benign (Rigby, 1996). Clearly, social environmental factors must also be taken into account. Nevertheless the developmental perspective is useful in providing guidance as to how bully/victim problems can be tackled. For example, older children are thought to be more likely to respond positively to problem-solving approaches which require a more sophisticated appreciation of the options available to them (Stevens et al., 2000).

2. Attributions to Individual Differences: Broad explanations in terms of developmental processes and environmental influences fail to take into account individual differences between people that may lead to interactions that result in one person bullying another. For example, children who repeatedly bully others at school tend to be low in empathic regard for others and inclined towards psychoticism (Slee & Rigby, 1993). Children who are frequently targeted as victims at school are inclined to be psychologically introverted, to have low self-esteem and lack social skills, especially in the area of assertiveness (Rigby, 2002). How such qualities arise has been subject to considerable debate. Currently, it is generally acknowledged that genetic influences play a part and these may interact with adverse social conditions to which children may be exposed. For example, dysfunctional family life in which children do not feel loved and/or feel over-controlled by parents can lead to them acting aggressively at school (Rigby, 1994), especially if the school ethos does not discourage aggressive behavior. There are limitations in this approach. In some relatively benign environments introverted children with low self-esteem are not bullied; being aggressive and generally unempathic does not invariably lead a child to bully others. There is, for example, evidence that bullying is relatively rare in Steiner schools, which provide a highly supportive social environment and respect for

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individual differences (Rivers & Soutter, 1996). Moreover, individuals who are dissimilar in personality may belong to the same sociocultural group and seek collectively to impose on those they regard as outsiders.

3. Bullying as a Sociocultural Phenomenon: A further perspective seeks to explain bullying as an outcome of the existence of specified social groups with different levels of power. The focus is typically on differences which have a historical and cultural basis, such as gender, race or ethnicity and social class. Major emphasis has been placed upon differences associated with gender. Society is seen as essentially patriarchal. Males are seen as generally having more power than females as a consequence of societal beliefs that males should be the dominant sex. In order to maintain their dominance, boys feel justified in oppressing girls. Numerous studies have, in fact, indicated that boys are more likely than girls to initiate bullying (Olweus, 1993c; Smith & Sharp, 1994). Moreover, it is clear that boys are more likely to bully girls than vice versa. For example, in a large-scale Australian study of some 38,000 children (Rigby, 1997) a much higher proportion of girls claimed to be bullied exclusively by boys (22.1 per cent) than boys reporting being bullied only by girls (3.4 per cent). With cross- gender bullying it is clearly mostly one-way traffic, and this may derive, in part, from the way in which some boys have come to think about how they should behave in the company of girls. The process according to which boys come to develop characteristics which lead to them engaging in oppressive behaviour is sometimes described as "the construction of hegemonic masculinity" (Connel, 1995; Gilbert & Gilbert, 1998). This is held not only to account largely for boys bullying girls, but also for boys bullying boys who do not possess stereotypical masculine qualities. Such children are commonly referred to as "gay" and may include children whose sexual orientation is homosexual. The use of language with sexual connotations to insult children regarded as "gay" is certainly widely prevalent in schools (Duncan, 1999), although the extent to which it occurs has surprisingly not, as yet, been investigated. Explaining the bullying of girls by girls can invoke the notion of the construction of femininity, with girls deviating from an idealized conception of what it is to be feminine being more readily targeted. It is sometimes claimed that bullying tends to be associated with racial or ethnic divides. It is argued that some ethnic groups are more powerful than others whom they seek to dominate. Typically, the less powerful are the victims of colonialism. For example,

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Indigenous communities in Australia in the late eighteenth century were subjected to British colonialism. Aboriginal people were seen by many as inferior— and this perception still lingers in the minds of people who retain racist beliefs. Through a process of cultural transmission, non-Indigenous children may feel justified in bullying their Aboriginal peers. Evidence from Australian studies suggests that indeed Aboriginal students are more likely than other students to be the recipients of verbal abuse (Rigby, 2002b). However, some studies conducted outside Australia have not found that race or ethnicity is significantly associated with peer victimization (for example, Junger-Tas, 1999; Losel & Bliesener, 1999). Despite claims that children are at risk of being bullied at school by peers of a higher social class, research evidence is not supportive (Olweus, 1993c; Ortega & Mora-Merchan, 1999; Almeida, 1999). The sociocultural perspective on bullying can have striking implications for how a school approaches the problem of bullying. Attention is directed towards how the school curriculum in its broadest sense can influence children to accept and respect sociocultural differences. It is suggested that not only should the school curriculum explicitly and directly address issues related to differences in gender, race or ethnicity and social class in order to counter prejudice and discrimination, but importantly the mode of delivery of the curricula should indirectly address bullying through the stimulus it provides to cooperative problem-solving, emotional sensitivity and independent critical thinking. Some writers embracing a sociocultural perspective, in which gender considerations are pre-eminent, have suggested that schools need to abandon their current emphases upon "rationality", which is characteristic of masculinity, in favour of exploring with students their expressive and emotional worlds (Kenway & Fitzclarence, 1997). The use of strict codes of behaviour governing bullying and the use of counseling methods to deal with individual cases are equally abhorred. Both are seen as based on an underlying faith in rationality and, as such, essentially counterproductive. This view emphasises the use of the school curriculum as a means of developing emotional understanding and positive interpersonal relations rather than controlling undesirable behaviour through the use of negative sanctions and/or counselling methods that impose authoritarian solutions to bully/victim problems.

4. Bullying as a Response to Group and Peer Pressures within the School

This approach has something in common with the sociocultural approach in that it conceives bullying as understandable in a social context. However, the context is not defined according to sociocultural categories such as gender, race and class. There is first a broad social context consisting of the behaviours and attitudes of members of the entire school community. Individuals are seen as influenced to a degree by their perceptions of what may be called the school ethos, and student welfare polices may be systematically directed towards its improvement (Soutter & McKenzie, 2000). Secondly, students are powerfully influenced by a smaller group of peers with whom they have relatively close association. Such groups are typically formed within a school on the basis of common interests and purposes, and provide support for group members. They may also constitute a threat to outsiders, sometimes to ex-members, whom they may bully. Situations commonly arise in a school whereby children are members of, and supported by, a group that is, in some situations, more powerful than an individual or smaller group that they wish to bully in some way. The motive may be a grievance or imagined grievance, a prejudice (explicable in sociocultural terms) or simply a desire to have fun at the expense of another person. Importantly, the acts of bullying are seen as typically sustained by a connection with a group rather than by individual motives such as personal malevolence. This view presupposes that bullying is typically a group phenomenon. Early studies of bullying in Scandinavia adopted the term "mobbing" suggesting that children are bullied by mobs (Olweus, 1993c). While this may sometimes occur, more commonly the bullying is carried out by one or two people with the passive support of others (Pepler & Craig, 1995). When students are asked whether they have bullied others as individuals or as members of a group, among those who have bullied others about half admit to bullying alone; others say they have acted as part of a group (Rigby, 2002b). The implications for schools are that they must be aware of the roles played by groups as distinct from individuals. They need to identify groups and work with them. Several methods have been devised for working with groups of children who have bullied or are suspected of bullying others. One, the "no blame approach" (Maines & Robinson, 1992), involves a teacher or counselor meeting with the group of children identified as having bullied someone, in the company of some other children. The teacher describes to the group the suffering that has been endured by the victim, and the group is expected to consider ways in which the situation can be improved.

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The "non-bullies" in the group are expected to exert positive peer pressure, that is, influence the "bullies" to act more benevolently towards the victim. An alternative method, generally used with older children, called the "method of shared concern" (Pikas, 2002) involves working initially with individuals suspected of being in a group that is bullying someone. The teacher's aim here is to communicate his/her concern for the victim and invite (and then monitor) responsible individual action—and in so doing to lessen the influence the group may have on each individual's actions.

5. Bullying from the Perspective of Restorative Justice

This perspective recognizes that some children are more likely than others to be involved in bully/victim problems as a consequence of the kind of character they have developed. Children who bully others typically feel little or no pride in their school and are not well integrated into the community (Morrison, 2002). They mishandle their emotional reactions to the distress they cause by not experiencing appropriate feelings of shame; in fact, they tend to attribute unworthy characteristics to those they victimise. By contrast, victims are prone to experience too much inappropriate shame. To some extent, this perspective is one that emphasizes individual differences, as in (2) above. But in addition, an important role is ascribed to the school community and to significant people who are implicated in the problem. These can include family and friends of both bullies and victims; that is, significant others who care about them. It is believed that appropriate feelings of shame can and should be engendered in those who bully others through exposing them to condemnation by those they have offended. This, it is thought, can be done constructively in the presence of those whom they care about and who care for them. Success is seen as greatly dependent on the support provided by those who care about the perpetrator as a person and the readiness of the community to forgive and provide sincere acceptance (Morrison, 2002). This approach is concerned with "violations against people" and the restoration of positive relationships rather than applying punishment for breaking rules (Cameron & Thorsborne, 2001). Some schools have applied the ideas of restorative justice in a preventative way through a Responsible Citizens Program that encourages students to develop relationships with their peers that are characterized by respect and consideration (Ahmed et al., 2001). Students have been helped through role- playing to resolve conflicts

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with peers and identify and manage inappropriate feelings of shame. There is some evidence that the program can increase students' feelings of safety and the use of more adaptive means of shame management (Morrison 2002). No reports, however, have yet been received on whether the incidence of bullying has been reduced using this program. When serious cases of bullying occur, they may be resolved through the use of a community conference in which victims are encouraged to express their sense of hurt while perpetrators listen, become contrite, and agree to compensate the victim.

Extent of bullying

Recent research regarding youth victimization suggests that bullying by peers is a common experience (Cash, 1995; Crick & Grotpeter, 1996; Hoover, Oliver, & Hazier, 1992; Olweus, 1994). Peer victimization (also referred to in the literature as bullying and teasing) has been described as an unprovoked attack that causes hurt of a psychological, social, or physical nature (Smith, 1991). These behaviors have social, academic, and psychological consequences that impact the well being of both the victim and the bully (Crick & Grotpeter, 1996; Grilo, Wifley, Brownell, & Rodin, 1994; Hazier, Hoover, & Oliver, 1992; Salmivalli, Kaukiainen, Kaistaniemi, & Lagerspetz, 1999; Shapiro, Baumeister, & Kessler, 1991; Sharp, 1996). In addition, bullying has negative impact on the overall school climate (Roberts & Coursol, 1996). Most middle-school children report having experienced victimization, with attacks happening more frequently at school than elsewhere (Clarke & Kiselica, 1997). School counselors have an obligation to assess whether bullying is a problem for their students, to intervene appropriately, and to be proactive in preventing bullying behavior (Smith, 1991).

As many as 81% of school-aged males and 72% of school-aged females report having been bullied, with younger children (i.e., ages 10 to 13) experiencing greater levels of victimizing behavior (Cash, 1995; Hazier et al., 1992). Most research has focused on severe physical attacks such as threatening bodily harm or weapons, with fewer studies of nonphysical or less severe types of attacks like mocking or social isolation (Bosworth, Espelage, & Simon, 1999; Clarke & Kiselica, 1997; Crick, Bigbee, & Howe, 1996; Olweus, 1994). Boys identify being the aggressor more often than do girls, in particular for

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overtly aggressive behaviors such as kicking or hitting (Shapiro et al., 1991). Some authors have suggested that girls engage as frequently in aggressive behaviors as boys, but that girls use more covert forms of aggression such as telling lies about or socially isolating a peer (Bosworth et al., 1999; Clarke & Kiselica, 1997; Shapiro et al., 1991). Crick and Grotpeter (1996) found that both boys and girls report similar levels of victimization; however, boys report significantly more overt victimization than do girls, and girls report significantly more relational victimization or socially hurtful behaviors than do boys (Crick, Casas, & Ku, 1999; Crick & Grotpeter, 1995).

Effects of bullying

Studies of the outcomes of both relational and overt forms of aggression have revealed negative effects on academic, social, and psychological functioning. Repeated bullying has been associated with negative school outcomes like absenteeism and poor academic performance (Roberts & Coursol, 1996). Excessive teasing has also been related to depression, social anxiety, decreased self-esteem, anger, and sadness (Crick & Grotpeter, 1996; Grilo et al., 1994; Hazier et al., 1992; Salmivalli et al., 1999; Shapiro et al., 1991). These difficulties are likely to negatively affect the immediate experience of a student in the classroom as well as the student's long-term adjustment.

The victims may also feel stupid, ashamed and unattractive and gradually begin to view themselves as failure (Olweus, 1993a).

A questionnaire survey (Eslea & Mukhtar 2000) of Hindu, Indian Muslims and Pakistani children in Preston and Boston area of Lancaster, was carried out. Results show that bullying was widespread (57% of the boys and 43% of the girls had been bullied in the schools) and all three Ethnic groups suffered equally. No single factor makes children more susceptible to being bullied, although excuses for bullying generally identified a point of differences as the impetus physical appearance, religion, race, sign of poverty and wearing the 'wrong gear' were all identified as a 'weak spot'.

The National School Safety Center of Canada calls bullying "the most enduring and underrated problem in American schools." "As many as 8 percent of schoolchildren miss a day of class monthly for fear of being bullied. And in a nationwide survey, 43 percent of children said they were afraid to go to a bathroom for fear of being harassed" Mulrine, cited in Middelton-Moz, & Zawadski, (2002).

Social skills of bullies

Researchers disagree about the social skills of children who bully (Crick & Dodge, 1994; Sutton, Smith, & Swettenham, 1999a; 1999b). Sutton et al. (1999a) argue that these children are often stereotyped and portrayed as "usually... male, physically powerful yet intellectually simple or backward, resorting to violence and aggression in their interactions almost because they know no other way" (Sutton et al., 1999a, p.118).

Indeed, other researchers such as Randall (1997, p.23) focused on deficiencies: "bullies do not process social information accurately and seem unable to make realistic judgments about the intentions of other people ... fail to understand the feelings of others ... [and] have little awareness of what other children actually think of them." Accordingly, a social-information processing theory of aggression provides an explanation for the deficits in social skills of children who bully. Aggression may result from deficits in social-information processing such as attending to and interpreting social cues, and generating responses (Crick & Dodge, 1994). Aggressive children may misinterpret their peers' intentions, not recognize or respect their feelings, and exert harm against them.

Conversely, it has been suggested that the social skills of children who bully have been underestimated (Sutton et al., 1999a). In fact, children who bully often target children using methods in social (eg, group) settings. In consideration of this social framework in which bullying occurs, it is reasonable to expect that to exert power over peers, it may be "highly adaptive to possess good social skills: many bullies may in fact be skilled manipulators, not social inadequates" (Sutton et al., 1999a, p.117-118). Thus, given the social nature of bullying, it may be important to posses a repertoire of socially skilled behaviours to exert control over others. For example, indirect bullying such as excluding

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another child from the peer group requires both an understanding of exclusion and the ability to convince other students to accept the exclusion. In other words, when social skills are well developed, children may be able to bully their peers using circuitous methods (eg, spreading rumours, systematically excluding) without relying on physical methods to cause harm (Björkqvist & Niemelä, 1992; Lagerspetz, Björkqvist, & Peltonen, 1988). Moreover, bullying using indirect methods may require well-developed social skills to manipulate others (Sutton et al., 1999a). These social skills may also include prosocial behaviours towards peers who agree to support the bullying behaviours. For example, a student who tells a group of peers to ignore a particular student, is more likely to gain compliance if cooperative and friendly behaviours are also shown (eg, "If you ignore her, I'll introduce you to all my friends").

Three categories of junior high school students were established on the basis of sociometric choices by peers; socially-accepted, socially rejected, and socially neglected (smallest choices). The socially-accepted students were characterized by their peers as physically good-looking, tidy, friendly, enthusiastic, cheerful, possessing a sense of humor, and similar socially desirable characteristics. Socially rejected students were generally described as possessing opposite attributes, while the socially-neglected students received relatively few mentions on either positive or negative characteristics (Gronlund & Anderson, 1957).

That physical attributes should be related to psychological or behavioral measures is just what one would expect if physical-biological and psychological processes interact as the psychobiological orientation suggests. In the case of peer interactions, the correlation between physical attractiveness and popularity is one such relationship. The more attractive others find a child, the more popular the child is likely to be; and this is true from at least about age six or seven on (Staffieri; Cavior & Lombardi; Cavior & Dokecki, in Stormmen, McKinney, & Fitzgerald, 1983). Beautiful people, even if of the same sex, are assumed to possess certain desirable traits. Other things being equal, they are guesssed to be happier, more intelligent, more sociable, more successful, and less socially deviant (Hatfield & Sprecher, 1986). Attractive children have a distinct social advantage with their peers. Even

in nursery school children, attractive children were popular children (Berschied in Myers, 1988).

A twelve-year-old girl killed herself after being teased, threatened and bullied relentlessly for a significant length of time by sixteen- and seventeen-year-old girls. The twelve-year-old died after taking one hundred painkillers. Another girl, fourteen, hung herself after similar attacks by female schoolmates. Neither girl retaliated or confided in another. They just took the abuse until they couldn't take it anymore. Both girls were singled out because they were overweighting, passive and shy (Middelton-Moz, & Zawadski, 2002).

In a study on prevalence of bullying and its relation with social status, by Schuster (1999), a positive correlation between rejection and bullying was found, reflecting the fact that almost all bullied students were simultaneously rejected. In contrast, not all rejected students were victimized. That is, two subgroups of rejected individuals were identified: `Victimized-Rejected' and `Nonvictimized-Rejected'.

From a sociometric perspective, rejection is presented as associated with bullying and especially linked to victimization, and acceptance is associated with those pupils not involved in bullying (Cerezo, & Ato, 2005).

Bully/victim children were rejected more by their peers, and victim children are located more in rejected status than neglected status, bully/victim children are located more in rejected status than all sociometric status and non-involved children were located more in popular and average status than other sociometric status (Pekel-uluda/li, & Uçanok, 2005)

In a study carried out on self-esteem and bullying by Moore, and Kirkham, (2001), the pure bullies, in contrast to the pure victims, placed the same value on their physical attractiveness and attributes and on their popularity as did their peers who had not bullied others or been bullied, also the data suggested that bullying behavior reflects popularity and popularity is a main source of self-esteem for adolescents.

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Twelve-year old children drawn from different schools in different areas of a large city were divided into two socioeconomic status groups: high (essentially middle-class) and low. Sociometric choice patterns indicated that in both groups popularity was related to sex typed behavior, but expressed in different ways. Among the lower-class children, popularity for boys was positively related to sociability, a sense of humor, and frequently, aggressiveness; for lower class girls, popularity was positively related to tidiness, friendliness, and being a good student, or rowdiness, attention-getting, and aggressiveness. Studious and classroom-conforming boys were generally rejected as "sissies". For boys of higher socioeconomic status, popularity was positively related to friendliness, good looks, and scholastic achievement, while aggressiveness and untidiness were not, for the higher-class girls, popularity was related to good looks, friendliness, and tidiness, but not for rowdiness & aggressiveness (Pope, 1953).

There are certain characteristics specific to victims or children who experience bullying. These include being less powerful or low in strength, somewhat helpless, usually alone, more anxious and insecure, cautious, sensitive and quite, non-aggressive, suffering from low self-esteem and they generally do not have a good friend in class. Some young children are bullied for no particular reason, and only because they are different in some way, may be because the color of their skin, the way they talk, the size of their name etc (A report by New Zealand Police, 2006).

Rationale of the study

In the light of above literature, it is very much clear that bullying is a frequently observed phenomenon (Eslea & Mukhtar 2000; Middelton-Moz, and Zawadski, 2002Cash, 1995; Hazier et al., 1992; Crick & Grotpeter, 1996; Hoover, Oliver, & Hazier, 1992; Olweus, 1994). And that bullying is a very unhealthy practice, causing a lot of harm, both physical and psychological, to both the victim and bully, and that it destroys the environment of the school as well (Roberts & Coursol, 1996; Crick & Grotpeter, 1996; Grilo et al., 1994; Hazier et al., 1992; Salmivalli et al., 1999; Shapiro et al., 1991; Cannon, Hayward, and Gowen, K., 2001; Olweus, 1993a). Therefore, this phenomenon must be studied in detail. There are a lot of studies indicating a strong relationship between physical

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appearance of the child and bullying/victimization (A report by New Zealand Police, 2006; Middelton-Moz, and Zawadski, 2002) but no such studies have been conducted in Pakistan, moreover the literature reviewed provides ample evidence about the relationship between sociometric status and bullying or victimization (Pope, 1953; Moore, and Kirkham, 2001; Schuster, 19999; Cerezo, and Ato, 2005; Pekel-uluda/li, and Uçanok, 2005), therefore a study must be carried out in this regard in Pakistan, locating the relationship between Physical attractiveness, Sociometric status, and bullying/victimization. So that suggestions could be given in order to promote a bullying free class environment. Several authors have recommended school-based assessments, interventions, and policies that have been found effective for reducing bullying behavior and increasing student feelings of safety (Clarke & Kiselica, 1997; Hazler et al., 1992; Nuttall & Kalesnik, 1987; Olweus, 1993b; Roberts & Coursol, 1996; Smith, 1991). To assist in implementing these programs, it is critical to understand the nature and extent of bullying in schools. There's a need to know how youth interpret bullying experiences and how the experiences affect the way students feel about their relationships with other students.

In this research 5th grade children were selected, because children at this stage are well aware of the phenomenon of bullying, and they are able to nominate bullies, also they can report the victimizing being done. 5th grade students of Guidance Montessori school were selected, as the main purpose of the study was to conduct a sociometric study, therefore, taking sample from two or three different schools would take a lot of time, taking into consideration the time we had, this school was selected. Other reasons of selecting this sample include convenience in data collection, also it is the best representative of the children of the surrounding areas, and the children of this school mostly belonged to the middle class.

METHOD

METHOD

Objectives

1) To conduct a Sociometric study of physical attractiveness and bullying/victimization in a classroom setting.
2) To investigate the relationship between physical attractiveness and bullying/victimization.

Hypothesis

1. Sociometric status of physically attractive children will be higher than the sociometric status of physically unattractive children.
2. Physically unattractive children will tend to be victims of bullying more often than the physically attractive children.

Operational definitions of variables

Physical attractiveness: The standardized z-scores of peer ratings for physical attractiveness of every student along nine point "Global Physical Attractiveness scale". On the basis of these score two categories of children were made:

i) *Physically Attractive children:* Those children having a z-PA score value (z-PA) more than "0" on Global Physical Attractiveness Scale.

ii) *Physically Unattractive children:* Those children having a z-PA score value (z-PA) less than "0" on Global Physical Attractiveness Scale.

Sociometric Status: The Sociometric status (SS) of every student of the class was calculated according to Coie et al (1982) system (CDC), after the administration of

"Sociometric Questionnaire". Once the z-SP and z-SI scores were calculated, a two-dimensional system of status classification, based on normal distribution theory, results in the following six groups:

(g) *Popular*, children with a z-SP score greater than 1.0, a z-LM score greater than 0, and a z-LL score less than 0;

(h) *Rejected*, children with a z-SP score less than -1.0, a z-LL score greater than 0, and a z-LM score less than $\tilde{0}$;

(i) *Neglected*, children with a z-SI score less than -1.0, and an absolute frequency of positive nominations of 0;

(j) *Controversial*, children with a z-SI score greater than 1.0 and both z-LM and z-LL scores greater than 0;

(k) *Average*, children who receive both a z-SP score and a z-SI score between -0.5 and 0.5; and

(l) *Other*, all remaining children. This group corresponds to those children who could not be classified by the CDC system. For convenience such children were classified into two groups on the basis of their z-sp scores.

    i)   *Above Average,* children with a z-SP score greater than 0;

    ii)   *Below Average,* children with a z-SP score less than 0.

Bullying/Victimization

Bully: Students having a standardized z-B score value greater than 0 on the "Bully Nomination Scale".

Victim: Students having a standardized z-V score value greater than 0 on "Victimization Index".

Bully/Victim: Students having both standardized z-B score value on "Bully Nomination Scale", and standardized z-V score value on "Victimization Index" greater than 0.

Not Involved (NI): Students having both standardized z-B score value on "Bully Nomination Scale" and standardized z-V score value on "Victimization Index" less than 0.

Research design

The study was correlational, as the purpose was to explore the relationship between sociometric status of bullies/victims and physical attractiveness. It was a quantitative as well as qualitative research. As scales/questionnaires were used to measure physical attractiveness, sociometric status, and categorization as bullies/victims, moreover the Sociometric data was analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively using score indices, sociomatrix, and sociogram.

Instrument

In order to measure the "physical attractiveness" and "sociometric status" of "victims", and "bullies", following scales/questionnaires were used.

Global Physical Attractiveness Scale (Appendix-B): Nine point Global Physical Attractiveness Scale was used as a peer rating measure of Physical attractiveness of every student of the class.

Sociometric Questionnaire (Appendix-C): Sociometric Questionnaire was constructed on the basis of interpersonal attraction among children. It comprised 12 items, in which, six odd numbered items were positive and six even numbered items were negative. The questions asked the name of the students with whom the student who was filling in the questionnaire would like to/would not like to do an activity like "playing", "studying", "seating with", "be friends with", and also to name the students whom they "like most and least", and who are the "stars/bad kids of the class", three nomination choices were given for every question. The absolute frequencies of positive and negative nominations were calculated for each child and converted into standardized like most (zLM) and like least (zLL) acores within each grade. The social preference (SP) score was then computed as $LM - LL$ and the social impact (SI) score as $LM + LL$. The SP and SI scores are then restandardized within each grade.

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Victimization Index (Appendix-D): "Victimization Index", devised by Rigby and Slee, (1991) was used. It is a self-report measure of victimization. The response categories were *"never", "once in a while", "pretty often",* and *"very often".* The responses were scored by assigning values from 0 to 3 to these categories respectively. These categories were used to gauge the extent to which the children reported being bullied in four specific ways: being called names, picked on, hit or pushed around, and made fun of. The reported alpha coefficient of reliability of this measure was 0.87.

Bully Nomination Scale (Appendix-E): Statements of bullying devised by Smith, and Levan, (1995) for experiences of bullying in younger pupils were used as a measure of bully nomination. Six statements were selected whose percentage agreement as the acts of bullying was above 75%. The students were given three nomination choices to nominate the pupils involved in the kinds of bullying mentioned in the statements.

Sample

A sample of all the 5th grade children was taken from Guidance Montessori School, Rawalpindi. The children essentially belonged to the same section (classroom), and they were 25 in number. The children came mainly from middle-class families. The sampling technique was purposive and convenient sampling.

Procedure

The data was collected from 5th grade students of Guidance Montessori School, Rawalpindi. Before conducting the research consent was taken from the principal of Guidance Montessori School. After that the sample was approached wholly. They were briefed about the purpose of the study prior to their participation in the study. The subjects were assured of complete confidentiality of their questionnaire responses. The questionnaires/Scales were administered in a proper sequence, starting from getting filled the Global Physical attractiveness rating forms, then the sociometric study was conducted using sociometric questionnaire, then the victimization index was administered, and the

bully nomination scale was administered in the end. The questionnaires were then scored to carry out the analysis in order to test the proposed hypotheses.

RESULTS

RESULTS

Table 1

Correlation of Physical Attractiveness and Bullying and Victimization (N=25)

Scale	Physical Attractiveness
Bullying	-0.127
Victimization	-0.404*

*p<0.05

Table 1 shows that victimization is negatively correlated with physical attractiveness, however the correlation between bullying and physical attractiveness is non significant.

Table 2

Correlation of Physical Attractiveness and Sociometric Social Preference(N=)

Scale	Physical Attractiveness
Social Preference	0.6177**

**p<0.01

Table 2 shows a significant positive correlation between physical attractiveness and sociometric social preference.

Table 3

Correlation of Bullying and Sociometric Social Preference and Sociometric Social Impact (N=25)

Scale	Bullying
Social Preference	-0.716**
Social Impact	0.799**

**p<0.01*

Table 3 shows that there's a significant negative correlation between sociometric social preference and bullying and sociometric social impact is positively correlated with bullying.

Table 4

Correlation of Victimization and Sociometric Social Preference and Sociometric Social Impact (N=25)

Scale	Victimization
Social Preference	0.148
Social Impact	-0.68**

**p<0.01*

Table 4 shows that the correlation between victimization and sociometric social preference is non significant, however there's significant negative correlation between social impact and victimization.

Table 5

Sociometric Ratings of the children (N=25)

Name	z-PA	z-V	z-B	z-LM	z-LL	z-SP	z-SI	SS	Bully/Victim
Shina	1.38	-0.12	-0.37	2.82	-0.15	1.17	1.05	Popular	NI
Kisna	0.66	-0.12	-0.37	1.6	-0.15	0.72	0.54	Abv Avg	NI
Maha	0.98	-0.82	-0.46	0.83	-1.04	0.76	-0.16	Abv Avg	NI
Jia	1.38	-0.47	-0.54	0.53	-1.69	0.89	-0.56	Abv Avg	NI
Khalida	0.72	1.27	0.043	-0.31	-1.26	0.42	-0.74	Abv Avg	B/V
Anna	0.66	0.22	-0.420	-0.47	-0.61	0.11	-0.53	Abv Avg	Victim
Emma	-0.72	1.27	-0.37	-0.85	-0.83	0.057	-0.78	Abv Avg	Victim
Mesha	0.26	-0.82	-0.420	-0.85	-0.83	0.057	-0.78	Abv Avg	NI
Rebeca	-0.92	0.57	-0.54	-0.7	0.03	-0.2	-0.35	Average	Victim
Teena	-0.52	0.22	-0.42	-0.85	-0.4	-0.1	-0.60	Blw Avg	Victim
Katrina	1.25	-1.17	1.55	-0.54	1.766	-0.79	0.44	Rejected	Bully
Max	-1.58	0.57	-0.42	-0.92	1.55	-0.85	0.19	Rejected	Victim
Ben	-1.32	-0.82	2.39	-0.47	8.69	-3.35	3.41	Rejected	Bully
Bash	-1.25	-1.17	3.23	-0.39	5.66	-2.19	2.16	Rejected	Bully
Shaw	-0.98	1.62	-0.46	-0.77	0.46	-0.39	-0.20	Rejected	Victim
Moulder	0.46	-1.17	-0.42	-0.39	0.18	-0.15	-0.16	Average	NI
Sam	-1.05	1.97	-0.37	-0.31	0.03	-0.06	-0.19	Average	Victim
Aaron	-0.39	0.22	-0.62	-0.31	-0.15	0.005	-0.27	Average	Victim
Micheal	-0.13	-0.47	-0.29	-0.009	-0.83	0.37	-0.42	Average	NI
Brian	-0.59	-1.17	0.21	-0.7	-0.83	0.11	-0.72	Abv Avg	Bully
Herald	0.066	0.92	-0.62	-0.77	-1.96	0.41	-1.12	Abv Avg	Victim
Mike	-0.33	-0.47	-0.37	-0.09	-1.26	0.5	-0.64	Abv Avg	NI
Zeus	-1.05	1.62	-0.54	0.45	-0.83	0.54	-0.23	Abv Avg	Victim
Kelvin	1.38	-1.17	-0.29	1.21	-1.04	0.9	0.00	Abv Avg	NI
Henry	1.64	-0.47	1.13	2.29	-0.4	1.07	0.72	Popular	Bully

	Shina	Kisna	Maha	Jia	Khalida	Anna	Katrina	Rebeca	Emma	Mesha	Teena	Max	Ben	Bash	Shaw	Herald	Brian
Shina		+3	+3	+3	-1		+2	-2	+1		-1		-2	-1			
Kisna	+6		+4	+3		-2	+1	-1		-2			-2				
Maha	+6	+4		+2			+2	-2			-2		-2	-1			
Jia	+6	+6	+3		+3		-2				-1		-3	-3			
Khalida	+6	+4	+5	+1			-6	-3	-2				-2				
Anna	+2	-1	+2	+1	+3		-1	+3	-1	+1	-2		-2				
Katrina	+6	+5	+3	+2							+1						
Rebeca	+3	+1	-2	+3	-1	+6	-2			-2			-1	-1			
Emma	+5	+5	-1	+2		-2	-4										
Mesha	+4	+2	+1	+1	+2	-1	-1		-1				-2				
Teena	+5	+3	+2	+1									-6				
Max														-1			
Ben	-1											-6		-6	-1		
Bash															+2		
Shaw													-6				
Herald												-3	-1		-1		-1
Brian														-5			
Moulder													-1	+6	-2		
Sam													-5	-3	-1		+2
Aaron												-1	-3	+1		+1	+1
Mike													-5	-1			
Micheal													+3	-1			
Zeus													-2	-1	-2		-2
Kelvin												-4	-3	-6	-2	+1	
Henry												-1	+3	-4	-1		-1

Figure 1: Sociomatrix
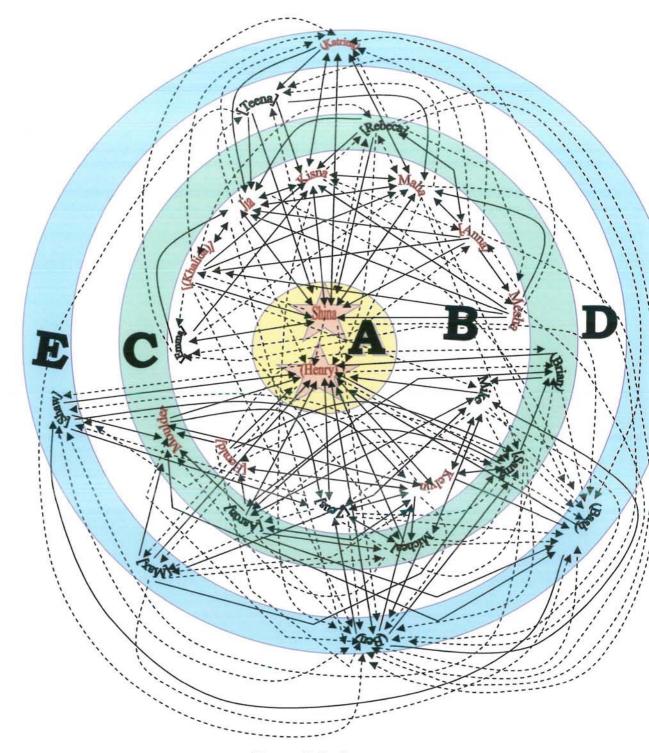
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Figure 2: Sociogram

Key: A: Popular children   ⟶ = "Positive Nominations"
       B: Above Average children   ----▶ = "Negative Nominations"
       C: Average   ◀⟶ = "Reciprocated Positive choices"
       D: Below Average   ◀--▶ = "Unreciprocated Negative choices"
       E: Rejected   [ ] = Victim,   ( ) = Bully
       ▮ = Physically Attractive Children,   ▮ = Physically Unattractive Children

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DISCUSSION

DISCUSSION

The present study assessed physical attractiveness and the sociometric status of bullies/victims among children in a classroom setting. For this purpose four instruments, the Global Physical Attractiveness Scale, Sociometric Questionnaire, Bully Nomination Scale and Victimization Index were used. Data was collected from Guidance Montessori School. All the students (25) of class five were selected for this purpose.

The basic aim was to find out the sociometric status of bullies/victims, and physically attractive children. Results show a fairly positive correlation (see Table 2) between the scores of physical attractiveness and social preference of children on sociometric questionnaire. This supports our assumption that the sociometric status of physically attractive children is higher than physically unattractive children. Moreover a strong correlation was found out between bullying and sociometric status. A highly negative correlation (see Table 3) was found out between social preference on sociometric questionnaire and bullying on bullying nomination scale pointing toward low sociometric preference of bullies, also a significantly high positive correlation of was found between social impact on sociometric questionnaire and bullying on bullying nomination scale, pointing toward the great social impact that bullies have in a class. Correlation of social preference and victimization was not significant; however, victimization was negatively correlated with social impact, pointing toward weak social impact of victims (See table 4).

Moreover, 60 % of the rejected children were found out to be bullies, and 40% were victims, these results point to the high prevalence of bully/victim problems among the group of sociometrically rejected children. However 50 % of the popular children were nominated as bullies and 50% were not involved in any significant bully/victim issues. Among sociometrically average children 60 % were victims and 40 % were not involved in bully/victim problems. In sociometrically above average group 50 % were not involved in bully/victim issues, 33 % were victims, 8.3 % were bullies and 8.3 % were nominated as

comprised solely the victims of bullying. As a whole, 64 % children were involved in bullying, 20 % being bullies, 40 % were the victims of bullying, 36 % were not involved in bully/victim problems and 4 % were both bullies and victims at the same time. This sociometric analysis of bullying/ victimization reveals that bullies mostly belong to the rejected sociometric group, however average and below average group mostly fall victim to the bullying.

The second objective was to find out the relationship between physical attractiveness and bullying/victimization. The results show a non significant correlation between bullying and physical attractiveness (see Table 1). However, there's a significant negative correlation (-0.404; see Table 1) between victimization and physical attractiveness, supporting our second hypothesis that physically unattractive children tend to be victims more often than the physically attractive children.

Thorough analysis of and sociogram (see Figure 2) reveals another thing about the bully/victim issues, that is among bullies, 80 % were the boys and 20 % were girls, and among victims also, 60 % were boys and 40 % were girls, and about non involved children, 45 % of girls were not involved in any significant bully/victim issue, and only 28 % of boys were not involved in bully/victim issues, these findings point to high prevalence of the phenomenon of bullying among boys.

Looking at the sociomatrix (see Figure 1) it becomes evident that there are a very few cross gender nominations, and where there are any cross gender nominations, they are just negative nominations, and there's not a single positive nomination, moreover boys are often nominated negatively by girls, and only a single nomination was made against girls by boys, pointing toward a strong sociometric rejection of boys as compared to girls, among rejected children 80 % were boys, and 20 % were girls, this may be because of more involvement of boys in bullying/victimization issues as compared to girls, but nothing can be said with surety, because this was a correlational study. Further investigation, using causal procedures can reveal this issue in detail.

Conclusion

Overall the results show a significantly positive relationship between sociometric status, and physical attractiveness. A major determinant of sociometric status i.e., social preference is positively correlated with physical attractiveness. Thus it can be concluded that physically attractive children are more liked by other children and are preferred in interpersonal interactions over unattractive children. Moreover a significant negative correlation exists between social preference and bullying, pointing toward the dislike of bullies among children. Also the correlation between social impact and bullying is significantly high leading to the conclusion that bullies have a strong social impact within a classroom setting.

This leads to the conclusion that where physically attractive children are advantaged at sociometric popularity, physically unattractive children are disadvantage as being sociometrically rejected and involved in bullying/victimization issues. This involvement in bully/victim issues is harmful both for the children and for the environment of the classroom. Therefore, the children should be taught from the beginning, not to judge others by physical appearance, and to stay away from bullying/victimization issues, in order to avoid negative consequences.

Elementary level is the time when children are not very objective in their judgment of others, even though this objectivity might linger for a greater period of time, but it might be the rejection of certain children that might lead them to bully/victim problems, therefore, these things must not be left unnoticed and children from an early age should be taught to avoid such judgments, a grooming at an early age can lead the children to stay away from bully/victim issues. The practical application of the present study are needed and should be stressed upon, they take special meaning especially in view of Pakistan.

Limitations of the Study

The present study had certain limitations as well. First of all, the sample size was very small, and the findings cannot be generalized to a great extent. Earlier it was thought

that two or three classroom settings would be studied for the sake of sociometric analysis, but sociometry is a time taking procedure and needs a lot of efforts and expertise, therefore, taking into consideration the time that was available, the idea of larger sample was dropped.

Secondly, due to the shortage of time only some variables were focused and others such as demographic variables were ignored in the study.

Thirdly, some students did not fill the questionnaires honestly, and as the sample was young children, some of them took it as fun, although the number of such students was very limited, and it did not greatly affect the results, but it accounts for the limitation of this study.

Suggestions

1. The study opens the avenues to carry out further researches aimed at sociometric analysis of certain issues and problems of children.
2. The study might include larger sample to increase the generalizability of the findings.
3. The practical utility of the sociometric studies must be ensured for the betterment of classroom environment for children.

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ANNEXURE

INSTRUCTIONS

I am a student of National Institute of psychology, Centre of Excellence, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad. I am conducting a sociometric study in classroom setting.

For the sake of this study some scales/questionnaires are given. Read each statement carefully and respond accordingly. You are required to answer each statement honestly. And don't leave any statement unanswered.

The information obtained will be kept confidential and will be used for research purpose only.

Name: _____

Class: _____ School's Name: _____

GLOBAL PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS SCALE

Note: rate the following students according to Physical Attractiveness

Sr. No.	Name	Physical Attractiveness Rating								
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Aasher									
2	Aqsa									
3	Asma									
4	Badar									
5	Bilal									
6	Bilal Yasin									
7	Hammad									
8	Hamza									
9	Jawaria									
10	Khansa									
11	Khurram									
12	Kinza									
13	Kiran									
14	Ma'az									
15	Marriya									
16	Minahil									
17	Mohsin									
18	Mudasar									
19	Murattib									
20	Rimsha									
21	Saad									
22	Shiza									
23	Shoaib									
24	Tahreem									
25	Zeeshan									

SOCIOMETRIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Sr. No.	Question	Name of the Kid		
1	Whom you like the most in the class?			
2	Whom you like the least in the class?			
3	Whom would you like to study with?			
4	Whom you won't like to study with?			
5	Whom would you like to be friends with?			
6	Whom you won't like to be friends with?			
7	Whom would you like to play with?			
8	Whom you won't like to play with?			
9	Whom would you like to be seated with in the classroom?			
10	Whom you won't like to be seated with in the class room?			
11	Who is the "Star" of the class?			
12	Who is the "Bad kid" of the class?			

BULLY NOMINATION SCALE

he **Students** who are frequently involved in the following things

ient	Name of the kid		
s hurting someone			
nasty stories about			
ng someone			
neone			
ing			