

THE ROLE OF ATTRIBUTIONS IN THE CONNECTION BETWEEN
AUTHORITARIAN PARENTING AND PEER VICTIMIZATION

BY

STEPHANIE GUSLER

A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of

WAKE FOREST UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL OF ARTS AND SCIENCES

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for the Degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

Psychology

August 2015

Winston-Salem, North Carolina

Approved By:

Lisa Kiang, Ph.D., Advisor

Deborah L. Best, Ph.D., Chair

Steven Folmar, Ph.D.

Heath L. Greene, Ph.D.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First, I would like to thank my advisor Dr. Lisa Kiang for her mentorship and support. She was always willing to help me develop my research ideas, even if they were outside of her main topics of interest. Her advice and feedback has helped me develop as a student and researcher. I would also like to thank Dr. Kiang for always providing great restaurant recommendations which provided my friends and me with fun study breaks. Second, I would like to thank Dr. Debbie Best for chairing my committee and being a constant source of support. She has always been willing to listen to my concerns and offer great advice which I am incredibly grateful for. Next, I thank Dr. Heath Greene for being on my committee and providing me with practical clinical feedback on my research. I also would like to thank Dr. Steven Folmar for joining my committee and being willing to take time out of his summer to provide an outside prospect on my research. I thank Teresa Hill and Janice Jennings, the heart of the psychology department, who were always there to help, from answering our questions to providing us with chocolate pick-me-ups.

Additionally, I want to thank those who participated in study and the community organizations and schools that aided in participant recruitment. I also thank my family who has supported and encouraged me. They have pushed me to always try my hardest and go after my goals, even when I was afraid to do so. In particular, I would like to thank my mom who has been an incredible role model and my inspiration for continuing my education. I also thank my amazing friends who were there for all the laughter and tears, luckily it was mostly laughter. I thank them for the late night study sessions, basement nerf wars, and unwavering support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES	iv
LIST OF TABLES	v
ABSTRACT	vi
INTRODUCTION	1
METHODS	31
RESULTS	38
DISCUSSION	52
REFERENCES	62
APPENDIX	71
CURRICULUM VITAE	85

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1	Mediation model explaining the connection between authoritarian parenting and victimization from peers	27
Figure 2	Mediation model explaining the connection between authoritarian parenting and perpetration of peer victimization	29

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Correlation and Means among Primary Study Variables	41
Table 2	Means and Standard Deviations for Victimization, Perpetration, and Authoritarian Parenting.....	43
Table 3	Means and Standard Deviations for Attributions.....	44
Table 4	Summary of Mediational Regression Predicting Victimization	48
Table 5	Indirect Effects for Victimization	49
Table 6	Summary of Mediational Regression Predicting Perpetration.....	50
Table 7	Indirect Effects for Perpetration.....	51

ABSTRACT

Researchers have begun to examine both victims and perpetrators of peer victimization in order to understand and eliminate peer victimization at its source. One example of this research is on the connection between parent-child relationships at home and peer victimization at school, which has found that authoritarian parenting styles (e.g., strict and controlling) are associated with both being a victim and perpetrator of peer victimization (Georgiou, Fousiani, Michaelides, & Stavrinides, 2008; Georgiou & Stavrinides, 2008). The primary purpose of the current study was to dig deeper into the associations between children's experiences with their parents and their peers, and to identify possible mediators. More specifically, using data from 46 middle-school participants, this study explored the effect of children's attributions (i.e., causal interpretations) of parent-child conflict as mechanisms that mediate different pathways between authoritarian parenting and children's victimization and perpetration experiences. Results suggested that there is a great deal of overlap between being a victim of peer victimization and perpetrating peer victimization, and that although not as strong as anticipated, certain attributions for conflicts with parents are associated with both being a victim and a perpetrator. These study's findings raise new and interesting research questions and have implications for parents, school administrators, and those designing anti-bullying programs.

INTRODUCTION

Peer victimization is a major concern for school administrators, counselors, parents, and children themselves. As such, researchers have attempted to determine ways to prevent and intervene in situations of peer victimization, and relatively new research has focused on understanding why peer victimization occurs in the first place. Within the past 10 years, researchers have begun to shed light on this issue by drawing connections between home environments and children's school environments (Cole et al., 2014; Georgiou et al., 2013). In the context of peer victimization, it has become essential to understand how this negative childhood experience is related to home environments, in order to more effectively eliminate peer victimization from the start. The current study seeks to explore the established link between authoritarian parenting style and victimization (Georgiou et al., 2013), and to extend existing literature by identifying cognitive processes that may help explain this link and differentiate those who are victims from those who are perpetrators of peer victimization.

In order to explore these connections, it is important to review the relevant literature. First, the prevalence of childhood peer victimization, the negative outcomes associated with this experience, and recent research focusing on the perpetrators of peer victimization will be discussed. Second, studies which have found a connection between children's home environments and their relationships with their peers will be reviewed. In order to further explain this connection, this study will draw on theory and research on attributions (i.e., causal interpretations of events) and discuss the possible impact that attributions can have on emotions and behavior, particularly in the context of peer victimization.

Peer Victimization

Peer victimization has been defined in many ways (e.g., physical abuse, verbal abuse, emotional abuse from peers), and is often used synonymously with the term *bullying*. The current study uses Olweus's (1993) loose conceptualization of peer victimization as verbal, physical, and/or psychological abuse from peers which is intended to harm and take away power from the target of the abuse. This conceptualization of peer victimization was chosen based on its wide use with this study's targeted age group, use in practical implications such as anti-peer victimization programs, and comprehensiveness by examining multiple types of abuse from peers (e.g., verbal, physical, and psychological; Georgiou & Stavrinides, 2008; Olweus & Limber, 2010). Using this definition of peer victimization should help this research align with prior studies and aid in extending research to practical prevention and intervention efforts.

A major topic in peer victimization research is the prevalence of such experiences. However, there has been limited consistency in isolating an exact understanding of its frequency. For example, in a study of 2,000 children ages 2-17, Finkelhor, Ormrod, Turner, and Hamby (2005) found that approximately 20% of their sample had been bullied (i.e., experienced physical, verbal, or emotional peer victimization) in the last year. However, Jeong and Lee (2013) found even higher percentages of children being a victim of peer victimization. Specifically, in a national U.S. sample of 7,000 children in the sixth through tenth grades, 55% had experienced physical or emotional peer victimization within a one year time span. Conversely, Dinkes, Cataldi, Kena, and Baum's (2006) research found that only 4% of young adolescents, aged 12-18, were the victim of some form of victimization in their schools within the past six months.

One attempt at better understanding the overall prevalence of childhood peer victimization is retrospective research, which asks adults to recall such incidences from their childhood. For example, Elliott and colleagues (2009) found that, in a non-clinical sample of college aged women, 88% had experienced some form of peer or sibling victimization in their childhood. Similarly, in an undergraduate sample, Hoover, Oliver, and Hazler (1992) reported that 77% of their participants experienced peer victimization at some point in their childhood. Gusler and Kiang (2014) found that approximately 93% of their undergraduate participants experienced some form of verbal, physical, relational, or property peer victimization before the age of 18. These retrospective accounts have found significantly higher rates of peer victimization than concurrent studies with children, perhaps because they assessed the prevalence of *any* childhood peer victimization experience, rather than within a single year or specific time span.

Although no one study has empirically tested why the prevalence of peer victimization can differ so greatly from study to study, there are several explanations that could be put forth. For example, the differing percentages could be due to the fact that researchers define victimization in different ways (e.g., physical and relational, physical and verbal, or peer victimization occurring only within schools). Researchers also measure victimization occurring within different time frames (e.g., within the past six months, within the past year, retrospective reports of entire childhood) and with different age groups (e.g., 2-17 or 12-28). Another possible explanation is that the nature of peer victimization is changing and becoming more prevalent through the use of technology but less prevalent in person (Rigby & Smith, 2011). The change in the ways that bullying presents itself can impact the validity and reliability of questionnaires over time,

particularly if incidences of cyber bullying (i.e., bullying or harassment through the use of technology such as social media sites and cell phones) are not being clearly asked about or consistently recorded by both participants and researchers.

Taken together, clearly more research needs to be done in order to contribute to the field's understanding of the prevalence of various childhood peer victimization experiences. The current study seeks to build this literature by assessing the frequency at which middle school aged children were victims and/or perpetrators of peer victimization in school within a one year time-span, taking into account incidences of cyber bullying. The need for further knowledge on the prevalence of peer victimization is particularly urgent given the many negative outcomes, both in childhood and in adulthood, that are associated with experiencing peer victimization (Anderson & Hunter, 2012; Duncan, 1999; Huitsing, Veenstra, Siano, & Salmivalli, 2012; Hunter, Durkin, Heim, Howe, & Bergin, 2010).

Negative Outcomes Associated with being a Victim of Peer Victimization

One of the reasons why peer victimization research is important is because prior work has consistently found both short-term and long-term negative outcomes associated with being a victim of peer victimization. Most commonly, research has discovered psychological and academic maladjustment to be associated with these negative childhood experiences (Anderson & Hunter, 2012; Espinoza, Gonzales, & Fuligni, 2013; Ma & Bellmore, 2012). For example, Rueger and Jenkins (2014) found that being a victim of peer victimization in middle school was concurrently associated with academic (e.g., poor grades, attendance, and attitudes towards school) and psychological (e.g., anxiety, depression, and self-esteem) maladjustment. In fact, experiencing this form of

victimization has been found to be commonly associated with depression and low self-esteem in children as young as eight years old and with anger in young adolescents (Anderson & Hunter, 2012; Huitsing et al., 2012; Hunter et al., 2010). Additional concurrent research with participants in the fifth grade found that being a victim of peer victimization impacts daily feelings of sadness, anger, embarrassment, and nervousness (Morrow, Hubbard, Barhight, & Thomson, 2014). Although most of the research on negative outcomes associated with experiencing peer victimization has focused on psychological distress or poor psychological adjustment, research has found that victimization is also associated with externalizing problems, such as substance abuse. For example, in a sample of middle school students, Wormington, Anderson, Tomlinson, and Brown (2013) discovered that being a victim of peer victimization was associated with an increased likelihood of alcohol, cigarette, and marijuana use, particularly in cases where victims received little social support from their families.

Researchers have not only examined short-term and daily negative outcomes associated with experiencing peer victimization, they have also examined long-term negative outcomes. Much of this research has utilized retrospective reports of childhood peer victimization and linked these reports to current feelings or outcomes. In one study examining multiple types of childhood victimization and adult psychological distress in college aged women, researchers discovered that being a victim of peer or sibling victimization in childhood accounted for 3% to 7% of the variance in adult psychological distress (e.g., symptoms of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder: depression, dissociation, and anxiety; Richmond et al. , 2009). Similarly, in a sample of both men and women examining childhood victimization from peers exclusively, Duncan (1999) found that

experiencing peer victimization explained 10% of the variability in adult psychological distress (e.g., somatization, obsessive-compulsive, depression, anxiety, and hostility). Gusler and Kiang (2014) also found that being a victim of childhood peer victimization accounted for 4-10% of the variance in adult psychological adjustment, as measured by social anxiety, loneliness, depression, and self-esteem.

Longitudinal studies have also given credence to the notion that childhood peer victimization experiences can have long-term negative consequences (Gibb, Horwood, & Fergusson, 2011; Rigby, 2003). One such study examined peer victimization in the fifth grade, and then measured risk of violence, heavy drinking, and marijuana use at age 21. Results showed that being a victim of peer victimization in the fifth grade was positively associated with all three negative outcomes in adulthood (Kim, Catalano, Haggerty, & Abbott, 2011). These short-term and long-term consequences associated with being a victim of peer victimization illustrate the importance of understanding the precursors and processes of peer victimization, which could ultimately contribute to more targeted strategies to eliminate or reduce the impact of this negative childhood experience.

Perpetrators of Peer Victimization

As one step toward achieving a greater understanding, another topic which may provide important information about the etiology of peer victimization, is examining who the perpetrators are and what leads to perpetration. Much of the research focus on peer victimization has been on who the victimized are and less on who the perpetrators are. However, understanding peer victimization at its source is important in possibly eliminating these negative childhood experiences at the outset. Interestingly, some emerging work has found that many perpetrators are also victims of peer victimization

themselves; these children/adolescents are classified as bully-victims, or as in the current study, perpetrator-victims (Yang & Salmivalli, 2013). Solberg and Olweus (2003) found that in a sample of middle school children, approximately 7% were identified as bullies/perpetrators and 30% of these perpetrators were also victims. Studies with adolescents also illustrate that victims of peer victimization were not the only ones at risk for psychological distress, with perpetrators also experiencing psychological maladjustment. Specifically, research has found that perpetrators of peer victimization were more likely than non-perpetrators to experience psychological maladjustment (Hepburn, Azrael, Molnar, & Miller, 2012; Ttofi, Farrington, & Losel, 2014). Hence, it is critical not only to determine who the victims of peer victimization are but also who the perpetrators are.

Although there is not a great understanding of what characteristics differentiate victims and perpetrators, research has found differences among these groups in terms of psychological adjustment and coping strategies for stress. Vollink, Bolman, Dehue, and Jacobs (2013) found that victims were more likely than perpetrators to have internalizing symptoms such as depression, and to cope with stress through depressive and self-blaming strategies (e.g., it is my fault, I am worthless). Additional research has also found that victims were more likely than perpetrators to be anxious, although perpetrators were more likely than victims to be angry and unempathetic (Shieds & Cicchetti, 2001). Bullies or perpetrators of peer victimization were also more likely than victims or perpetrator-victims to have externalizing problems such as early alcohol and tobacco use (Kelly et al., 2015). Therefore, although there is still much lacking in the field's comprehension of what leads one to be a perpetrator rather than a victim of peer

victimization and vice versa, there is evidence to suggest that this differentiation is important, especially given the implications for adjustment and coping strategies. Specifically, although it is important to study both perpetration and victimization as they are both associated with psychological maladjustment, there is perhaps more importance in identifying different pathways to victimization from perpetration, as the nature of associated maladjustment might differ (e.g., externalizing problems, anger, and aggression versus internalizing symptoms such as anxiety and depression). In fact, as discussed later, these differences in maladjustment and trends in terms of the coping strategies of perpetrators versus victims provide some clues to suggest that individuals' cognitive attributions of conflict might play a role in differentiating these victimization experiences.

Parenting Styles and the Link with Peer Victimization

Parenting styles became a popular area of research in the early 1990s, when Baumrind (1991) proposed four distinct parenting typologies (i.e., authoritative, permissive, rejecting and neglectful, and authoritarian). Since then it has remained a popular topic, given that parenting styles have been found to be associated with children's behavior and adjustment (Georgiou et al., 2013; Kaufmann et al., 2000; Zhao & Wang, 2010). Over time, three of Baumrind's original four categories have largely remained the standard for describing parenting (i.e., authoritative, permissive, and authoritarian). An authoritative parenting style is thought to be the most supportive and adaptive style, given that it is defined by parents setting clear standards and expectations for their children, although also being responsive, compromising, and non-restrictive. Permissive parenting is described as parenting that is too lenient, in which children are

not given any set expectations or standards for behavior. Authoritarian parenting is quite opposite from permissive parenting in that it is defined by strict and controlling parenting where children are given clear expectations and expected to obey parents without explanations (Baumrind, 1991; Buri, 1991).

Although some cultural and group variations have been found, much of the research on Western middle-class samples has found that authoritative parenting is more beneficial to children than is authoritarian or permissive parenting, and that authoritarian parenting can be harmful to children's adjustment (Georgiou et al., 2013). For example, children whose parents are authoritative have shown fewer teacher reports of problem classroom behavior (e.g., disruptive, moody, and difficulties completing class assignments) and healthier adjustment (e.g., healthy friendships, ability to handle stress, and follows classroom instructions) than those whose parents are authoritarian (Kaufmann et al., 2000). Similarly, in a longitudinal study, researchers found that maternal approval of authoritarian discipline and parenting when their child was five years old was predictive of children's conduct problems at age 10 (Thompson, Hollis, & Richards, 2003). Likewise, both authoritarian and permissive parenting styles have been associated with internalizing and externalizing problems in children ages 8-12 in Pakistan (Akhter, Hanif, Tariq, & Atta, 2011). This same study also found that authoritative parenting styles were negatively associated with children's internalizing and externalizing problems; the more authoritative a parent was the less internalizing and externalizing problems their children reported. A similar pattern of results has been found in preschoolers from China, with the addition that authoritarian parenting was associated with peer rejection (Zhao & Wang, 2010).

Given these documented links between authoritarian parenting and poor mental health outcomes, such as children's internalizing and externalizing problem behavior, it is not surprising that this parenting style has also been associated with both victimization and perpetration of peer victimization. One body of literature has connected peer victimization at school with parent-child relationships at home by examining parent-child conflict and authoritarian parenting style (e.g., strict, conflictual, and controlling) as predictors of both being a victim and perpetrator of peer victimization (Georgiou & Stavrinides, 2008; Georgiou et al., 2013). Such existing research examining these associations has tended to focus on authoritarian parenting as a whole as well as in related parts (e.g., harsh parenting, parent-child conflict, and parental control) (Cole et al., 2014; Georgiou et al., 2013). However, prior research has been unable to fully explain the relation between authoritarian parenting and peer victimization experiences, or to determine factors that differentiate those who are at risk for being a victim from those who are at risk for perpetration.

As a few exceptions, some recent work has begun to untangle possible linking mechanisms between parenting and child outcomes. For example, although Georgiou and colleagues (2013) were unable to find a mediator for authoritarian parenting and victimization, they did find that vertical individualism defined as "striving for power and competition" mediated the relation between authoritarian parenting and perpetration (p. 17). Additional research also found that harsh parenting and being a victim of peer victimization were both positively associated with cognitive reactivity, which is when maladaptive thoughts come to mind more quickly than adaptive thoughts. Cognitive reactivity is highly associated with depression, thereby providing insights into a way that

both harsh parenting and victimization from peers might be associated with poor mental health (Cole et al., 2014). These collective findings also suggest that there might be different mechanisms or mediating pathways to explain links between authoritarian parenting and being a perpetrator of victimization or a victim.

Taken together, prior work has found a correlation between parenting styles and negative outcomes, such as peer victimization experiences. However, due to strong links that have been found between authoritarian parenting and children's conduct problems, internalizing symptoms, externalizing symptoms, and being a victim and/or perpetrator of peer victimization (Akhter et al., 2011; Georgiou & Stavrinides, 2008; Thompson et al., 2003; Zhao & Wang, 2010), the current study focused solely on authoritarian parenting. Furthermore, although these links between authoritarian parenting and negative outcomes have been found, many gaps in the literature remain. For example, it is not well understood what the mechanisms behind these links are, and prior work has struggled to differentiate the links between victims and perpetrators of peer victimization. Therefore, the current study seeks to fill these literature gaps by attempting to differentiate the path from authoritarian parenting to victimization from that of authoritarian parenting to perpetration through assessing children's attributions as a possible underlying mechanism.

Theoretical Foundations and Attributions of Negative Experiences

Social learning theory is a broad theoretical framework that can be used to help explain the association between authoritarian parenting and peer victimization and perpetration. Social learning theory states that behavior develops through observing and then imitating others (Bandura, 1977; Grusec, 1992). From this theoretical perspective, it

is possible that children who have authoritarian parents then learn behaviors associated with both victimization and perpetration, which carry over into peer relationships. For example, a child could observe their parent being a strict authority figure and imitate this behavior in their peer interactions, which could lead to perpetration of peer victimization. Or, a child could learn through their interactions with parents that their role in social relationships is to be submissive and take directions from others, which may put them at risk for being a victim of peer victimization.

By examining the influence of interactions with parents, the current study also draws largely from Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological model and from Bowen's family systems theory (1996). The ecological model was designed to help explain the role of social interactions on development. This model includes five different social environments in which people interact. The first two environments are pertinent to the current study—the microsystem, which includes close and direct interactions, such as those with family, peers, neighborhood/neighbors, health care/doctors, and school/teachers, and the mesosystem, which refers to interactions between microsystems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). For example, the current study is particularly interested in the mesosystem involving the parent-peer relationship (McIntosh et al., 2008). In order to explore this interaction, family systems theory must be taken into account (Bowen, 1996), which developed from the ecological model of systems and states that in order to understand individuals' behaviors and emotions one must examine the systems in which they live, in particular their family system. It is important to consider the family system, as family members are interdependent and as family interactions and relationships can

shape each other's behaviors, emotions, and ways of being from an early age (Bowen, 1966).

One example of the influence of familial interactions, which is pertinent to the current study, is the parent-child coercive cycle, which illustrates a predictive path for aggressive and delinquent behavior for children (Patterson, 1976). This cycle can begin with either the parent or the child initiating a conversation which results in one party verbally attacking or yelling at the other (e.g., the parent tells the child to do a chore and, after being ignored by the child, yells at them; the child asks for something that the parent ignores, resulting in the child yelling at the parent). Then, the parent and child begin going back and forth yelling at one another, escalating in severity, until the parent gives up and the child is reinforced for yelling at the parent and not doing what was asked of him or her (e.g., parent and child yell at each other over doing chores, the parent gives up and walks away, the child is reinforced for yelling with the parent by avoiding doing the chores; or parent and child yell at each other over the child wanting a new toy, parent gives up and gives into the child's demand, the child is reinforced for negative behavior by getting the toy). This reinforcement is predictive of children repeating negative behaviors and can lead to aggression and delinquency both inside and outside of the home (Patterson, 1976). The parent-child coercive cycle illustrates a way in which parent-child interactions can shape children's behavior outside of the home, particularly for the path to aggression; this coercive cycle appears to serve as the underlying mechanism.

Perspectives from social learning theory, ecological theory, and family systems theory all support links between parent-child interactions and their spillover into

children's peer relationships. More specifically, the current study predicts that children's conflict with parents will contribute to their experiencing victimization from peers and to perpetrating peer victimization. One key question, however, is what drives one child to imitate or carry-over such aggressive behavior into their peer relationship and what drives another to internalize their conflict and continue being a victim in their peer relationships. The current study builds on what these theoretical foundations would suggest and examines whether interactions with parents can shape the cognitive processes or attributions of children, which can in turn influence their interactions with peers.

Attributions were first examined in the 1950s, with the introduction of attribution theory (Heider, 1958). Attributions are defined as "the process of inferring or perceiving the dispositional properties of entities in the environment" (Kelley, 1967; p. 193). Attribution theory is often used in social psychology, as it focuses on the causal interpretations that people make for events in their social environments. These causal interpretations have been studied in the context of both positive and negative events. Initially, only two primary attributions were used to explain events in one's environment, internal and external. Internal attributions are defined by situations or circumstances in which the target interprets an event as occurring due to internal characteristics of the target (e.g., personality). For example, children who experience conflict with their parents could attribute such conflict as being their fault or due to them not being smart enough. External attributions are characterized by causes pertaining to the environment or situation, outside of the target's control (Heider, 1958). For instance, when parents and children argue, children could attribute the conflict as being due to their parents having a bad day at work.

Although these two attributions have remained a staple of attribution theory, as the theory developed, researchers began to see the value in exploring a wider range of attributions in a variety of situations, as attributions can be highly linked with emotions and cognitive processes (Lazarus, 1991; Seta, Seta, & Goodman, 1998). For example, in the context of negative events, depression has been linked with maladaptive attribution styles, often defined as internal, stable (i.e., due to unchanging factors and likely to persist), and global (i.e., consistent across different contexts or situations). Hence, in light of the negative experience of parent-child conflict, internal, stable, and global attributions can be considered maladaptive (e.g., children attribute conflict to being their fault because they let their parents down, or they were themselves too argumentative [internal], they think they will continue to argue with their parent over time [stable], and their conflict with their parents will cause them to have a bad relationship with their parents with respect to other topic areas or never get along with them overall [global]). Notably, the converse might be true for positive events in that internal, stable, and global attributions for such events have been associated with fewer social, emotional, and behavioral difficulties (Maras, Moon, & Gridley, 2014).

In addition to playing a role in positive versus negative emotions and behaviors, stable and global attributions have also been found to be important in the transference of attributions in one situation to behavior in a new or different situation. For example, Alloy, Peterson, Abramson, and Seligman (1984) tested attribution style in relation to learned helplessness, and they found that certain attributions transferred to new or different situations. In particular, global attributions (i.e., thinking the cause is consistent across different contexts or situations) and stable attributions (i.e., thinking the cause will

persist over time) for negative events in one situation were associated with behaviors related to learned helplessness in new situations. This was true even if the new situation was dissimilar to the original situation in which the global and stable attributions originated. This work is particularly important given that it shows that attributions do not only affect one's emotions and behaviors in the situation for which they were derived, but they can also affect one's emotions and behaviors in another situation. Hence, it is possible that children who have global and stable attributions of parent-child conflict could translate such cognitive explanations for these negative events into their subsequent thoughts, actions, or behaviors with peers.

Given the importance that attributions can have in shaping emotions and behavior, researchers have sought to understand the development of children's attribution processes. Although attribution development is not fully understood, it seems likely that negative parenting and various maladaptive attributions are linked (DeBoard-Lucas, Fosco, Raynor, & Grych, 2010; Raikes & Thompson, 2008; Rodriguez, 2011). For example, researchers have found that maternal use of harsh parenting practices, such as coercion and control, were related to children's internal attributions for conflicts they have with their mother and father (DeBoard-Lucas et al., 2010). Specifically, these children tended to blame themselves for the conflict. Similarly, when children perceived their parents as using harsh parental criticism, they were likely to have stable and external attributions about their parents, such as thinking that their parents are consistently selfishly motivated and blameworthy (Bodin, 2004). Brody, Arias, and Fincham (1996) also found that ineffective parent-child communication, reported by both the child and the parent, were associated with children's external conflict-promoting attributions about their parents

(e.g., “My parents’ behavior was due to something about him or her,” “My parents criticize me on purpose to hurt my feelings,” and “My parents should be blamed for criticizing me”).

In addition to exploring the connection between parenting and children’s attributions about their parents or home environment, some researchers have explored how parenting can impact children’s attributions about their peers. For example, Rodriguez (2011) found that mothers’ stress was related to children’s negative attribution styles for various negative events outside of the home context, such as those related to academics or peer relations. More specifically, maternal stress was associated with children having internal, stable, and global attributions for hypothetical events such as failing a test or being teased by a peer. This study also found that children’s internalizing symptoms (e.g., depression and anxiety) were directly connected with maternal stress, and this relationship was partially explained by children’s negative attribution style. Similar to the results found for maternal stress, maternal depression has also been found to be associated with children’s negative attribution bias towards their peers (i.e., perceiving negative intent of a peer in an ambiguous situation; Raikes & Thompson, 2008). Likewise, researchers have found that, in children ages 9-11, perceptions of maternal control were associated with hostile intent attributions of peers, which are generally considered to embody an external attribution style (i.e., perceiving ambiguous interactions with peers as being related to a peer purposely meaning to cause them harm or distress; Gomez, Gomez, DeMello, & Tallent, 2001).

In summary, research shows that parenting styles and behaviors can have a large impact on children’s attributions about their parents and home environment, and that

these attributions can extend to peer relationships as well. Authoritarian parenting practices that are high in control have been found to be associated with children's internal or self-blaming attributions for their observed arguments among their mother and father (DeBoard-Lucas et al., 2010). Similarly, maternal control and stress has also been associated with maladaptive external attributions such as hostile intent attributions in the context of peer relationships (Gomez et al., 2001; Raikes & Thompson, 2008). In addition to external attributions, maternal stress has been also associated with maladaptive internal attributions for academic and peer related failures (Rodriguez, 2011). Lastly, criticism and poor parent-child communication has been related to children's negative external attributions about parents, such as parents being selfish and blameworthy (Bodin, 2004; Brody et al., 1996).

Therefore, the theoretical and empirical literature on attributions suggests that attributions could be critical in understanding children's interpretations of events and the way in which they ultimately react to such events. Moreover, depending on the event itself, certain attributions could be more or less negative. The current study focuses on the maladaptive internal attribution, self-blame, and the maladaptive external attribution, hostile intent, for children's conflicts with their parents. Although both of these attributions for conflict are viewed as maladaptive, they have been associated with different outcomes. For example, external attributions such as hostile intent are associated with conflict promotion (Deboard-Lucas et al., 2010), suggesting that external attributions for conflict may lead one to be more likely to lash out and potentially become a perpetrator of peer victimization. Conversely, internal attributions such as self-blame for conflict have been associated with one having more internalizing symptoms such as

anxiety and depression (Anderson & Hunter, 2012; Hunter et al., 2010; Perren, Ettekal, & Ladd, 2013), and perhaps pave the way towards becoming a victim. As such, the current study predicted that children's cognitive attributions of parent-child conflict will help explain and differentiate pathways from authoritarian parenting to being a victim of peer victimization and authoritarian parenting to being a perpetrator.

Attributions as Pathways to Peer Victimization

Although, no study has examined if different attributions for parent-child conflict are associated with being a victim versus being a perpetrator, as the current study plans to do, research has examined associated attributions of peer victimization. This research has tended to focus on how attributions of peer victimization are linked with maladjustment. Within this prior work, perhaps the two most common attributions that have been examined are self-blame and hostile intent attributions. Self-blame attributions are an internal attribution in which individuals attribute a negative event to be caused by something about them or to be their own fault. Among middle school children who were victims of peer victimization, self-blame attributions have been associated with greater internalizing problems (e.g., depression and anxiety) than other attributions for victimization (Hunter et al., 2010; Perren et al., 2013). Additionally, after traumatic experiences, self-blame attributions have been found to be predictive of PTSD and depression (Feiring & Cleland, 2007). Similar patterns of results have been shown in children who had self-blame attributions for physical abuse (Brown & Kolko, 1999). Therefore, self-blame attributions for negative events or trauma have clearly been shown to be maladaptive to children's and adolescents' mental health, due to the strong connection between these self-blaming attributions and internalizing processes that often

lead to anxiety and depression (Browns & Kolko, 1999; Feiring & Cleland, 2007; Perren et al., 2013).

Another commonly researched attribution of peer victimization that is associated with maladjustment is a type of external attribution called hostile intent attributions (i.e., attributing being victimized or bullied by peers as being due to the bully or victimizer purposely and maliciously intending to cause harm). One study found that victims' hostile intent attributions for peer victimization were associated with greater externalizing problems (e.g., aggressive and delinquent behavior) than were any other attributions (e.g., self-blame; Hunter et al., 2010; Perren et al., 2013). In fact, there appears to be a strong connection between hostile intent attributions and aggressive behavior in both children and adults, perhaps because perceiving someone to purposely act with mal-intent influences if or how one would retaliate (Dodge, 2006; Margie, 2007). For example, Werner (2012) found that hostile intent attributions for hypothetical scenarios with peers were predictive of relational aggression (e.g., gossiping or trying to ruin friendships) towards peers.

Taken together, existing research does illustrate which attributions tend to be associated with aggression and behaviors affiliated with perpetration of peer victimization (e.g., hostile intent) and which attributions are associated with being a victim of peer victimization (e.g., self-blame; Hunter et al., 2010; Margie, 2007; Vollink et al., 2013). However, no research has measured if attributions for the different context of parent-child conflict can be associated with victimization and perpetration. As an extension of prior work on attributions of peer victimization and associated maladjustment, this study predicted that just as hostile intent attributions for peer

interactions are predictive of aggressive behavior (Margie, 2007; Werner, 2012), it is also likely that hostile intent for conflict with parents might be linked to aggression with peers in the form of perpetration of peer victimization. Similarly, if self-blame in the light of being a victim of peer victimization is associated with internalizing symptoms (Hunter et al., 2010; Perren et al., 2013), it seems likely that self-blame for parent-child conflict could be associated with internalizing symptoms and being a victim in negative peer relationships. This research will therefore draw on and extend prior literature and suggest that attributions in one situation (e.g., parent-child conflict) may affect behavior in other situations (e.g., peer interactions), and stresses the importance of examining how parent-child interactions might serve as one contributor of negative peer interactions.

Individual or Demographic Differences

Many of the variables of interest in the current study are likely to be impacted by demographic variables, such as gender, race, Socioeconomic Status (SES), and personality, and as such these variables were explored for possible inclusion as covariates.

The prevalence of peer victimization has been found to differ based on gender and race, with boys experiencing higher levels of physical, verbal, and property peer victimization than girls, and with those of a racial minority background experiencing higher levels of peer victimization than those of the racial majority (Gusler & Kiang, 2014). Research has also found children's perceptions of their parents' parenting style to differ based on both race and gender (Rudasill et al., 2013). Specifically, girls and non-White children have been found to be more likely to perceive their mother's parenting style as authoritarian.

Additionally, parenting styles as defined as authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive may exemplify a Westernized concept that does not fully capture parenting styles of other cultures such as those found in Asian American or other ethnic minority groups (Chao, 1994). It is also important to note that the authoritarian parenting style specifically may be more strongly linked with negative outcomes in one race than in another and that this parenting style has also been linked to some positive outcomes. For example, authoritarian parenting in Asian cultures has been positively associated with academic achievement motivation (Watabe & Hibbard, 2014). It has also been found that authoritarian parenting is more strongly linked with lower perceptions of maternal warmth for White adolescents than for African American adolescents. This illustrates that African American adolescents may not perceive authoritarian parenting as negative or maladaptive, although White adolescents do view authoritarian parenting as negative and associate it with worse perceptions of their mothers' warmth (Jackson-Newsom, Buchanan, & McDonald, 2008).

Another important demographic variable to consider is SES. SES has been shown to be associated with parents' choice of discipline, with lower income parents being more likely than high income parents to use harsh discipline, characterized by aggressive behavior towards their children (Pinderhughes et al., 2000). Additionally, SES has also been found to be associated with peer victimization experiences. Specifically, Wade, Shae, Rubin, and Wood (2014) found that low SES children experience frequent peer victimization experiences at school, more so than high SES children.

Lastly, personality differences should be considered as they might be associated with differences in attribution styles. Mitchell (2001) found that, in a sample of

undergraduate and graduate students, personality variables were highly correlated with internal, stable, and global attributions for negative events. Specifically, extroversion was negatively correlated with internal and stable attributions; emotional stability was negatively correlated with internal attributions; and activity was negatively correlated with internal attributions. This pattern of results suggests that more internal attributions for negative events were associated with lower extroversion, lower emotional stability, and lower activity, and that more stable attributions were associated with lower extroversion. Additionally, in a study with adults suffering from depression, it has also been found that pathological personality variables such as anxiety and fearfulness were strongly related to maladaptive attributions for negative life events, such as perceiving the events as internal, stable, and global (Ilardi & Craighead, 1999). As Dodge (2006) points out, personality and cognitive variables such as attributions may be highly intertwined as children and adolescents develop, and it is hard to tease apart if personality is influencing cognitions or if cognitions are influencing personality. In combination, this research illustrates the importance of viewing children's attributions and interactions with parents and peers as developmental processes influenced by individual characteristics and differences.

In fact, it is important to consider the developmental context in which the current study's participants are. The targeted participants were all middle school students, in the developmental period of young adolescence. Young adolescence includes the ages 10-14 and is a time of great social and emotional change (Feldstein, 1988; Pellegrini & Long, 2002). This period is often characterized by an increase in the importance of peers, as young adolescents begin utilizing the support of their peers more and the support of their

parents less, which is often accompanied by an increase in parent-child conflict (Furman & Buhrmester, 1992). Unfortunately, as the importance of peers increases so too do opportunities for experiencing victimization from peers. For example, Gusler and Kiang (2014) found that young adults reported experiencing verbal, physical, and relational peer victimization more frequently in middle school than in any other time (e.g., elementary or high school). Similarly, additional research has found that the experience of being both a perpetrator and victim, rather than just a perpetrator or just a victim, increases significantly from elementary to middle school, and that overt aggression (e.g., cruelty/bullying, threatening others, and fighting) and emotional dysregulation (e.g., jealousy, rapid mood changes, and irritability) significantly increase during this period of development as well (Olson et al., 2013; Williford et al., 2011). Therefore, early adolescence is clearly an important developmental period in which to explore both parent-child and peer relationships.

Current Study

The current study sought to integrate parenting, peer victimization, and attribution literatures. Each of these bodies of research has been linked in various ways, but the model of connection hypothesized by the current study is novel. The primary purpose of this study was to explore the effect of attributions as mechanisms that mediate pathways between parenting and children's experiences as victims or perpetrators of peer victimization. Although prior work has identified basic links between authoritarian parenting and peer victimization, little work has differentiated or addressed why some children end up on the receiving end of peer victimization experiences and others end up as perpetrators themselves. In order to find this differentiating link this study focused on

self-blame and hostile intent attributions although other attributions were examined as well (e.g., stable and global). These attributions were chosen given that prior research has found a strong connection between victims' hostile intent attributions for peer victimization and physical aggression, delinquency, and relational aggression, and a strong connection between victims' self-blame attributions for peer victimization and depression and anxiety (Anderson & Hunter, 2012; Hunter et al., 2010; Margie, 2007; Perren et al., 2013; Werner, 2012). Additionally, these attributions were chosen given that self-blame is an internal attribution and hostile intent is a type of external attribution. Internal and external attributions are at the core of attribution theory and have a long history of differentiating people's thinking styles and associated emotions and behavior (Kelley, 1967). Stable and global attributions were also examined, as additional predictors to explain how attributions in one situation concerning parent-child conflict can be translated into situations and behaviors with peers (Alloy et al., 1984)

The current study is novel in that it (a) explored the connection between individual differences, such as gender, race, SES, and personality, and processes of peer victimization, parenting, and attributions; (b) explored children's attributions for parent-child conflict, which has received very little attention in prior research; (c) looked at the connection between children's attributions for parent-child conflict and peer relations and behaviors, rather than examining the often researched connection between attributions of peer interactions and peer related behavior (Anderson & Hunter, 2012; Hunter et al., 2010; Perren et al., 2013; Werner, 2012); (d) examined how parenting style is associated with children's parent-child related attributions rather than peer related attributions (Gomez et al., 2001; Raikes & Thompson, 2008); (e) attempted to differentiate the link

between authoritarian parenting and being a victim of peer victimization from the link between authoritarian parenting and being a perpetrator.

There were three primary research aims. First, individual differences as covariates of peer victimization, authoritarian parenting, and attributions were explored. Within this aim, the current study predicted that there would be several differences based on demographic variables/individual differences: (1) males would report higher levels of both victimization and perpetration than would females; (2) racial minority participants would report higher levels of victimization from peers than White, racial majority, participants; (3) SES would be significantly negatively correlated with authoritarian parenting; (4) the big five personality variables (i.e., openness, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) would be significantly correlated with attributions. Specifically, openness, conscientiousness, extroversion, and agreeableness were expected to be negatively correlated with self-blame, stable, global, and hostile intent attributions, and neuroticism was expected to be positively correlated with self-blame, stable, global, and hostile intent attributions. These expectations were driven by previous research which found that males experienced higher frequencies of victimization from peers than females, which they reported was most often perpetrated by someone of the same gender (Gusler & Kiang, 2014). This past work also found that those of a racial minority reported higher levels of victimization from peers than those who were White (Gusler & Kiang, 2014). Additional research has found that lower SES parents were more likely than high SES parents to display strict discipline behaviors that are characteristic of authoritarian parenting (Pinderhughes et al., 2000), and that there are associations

between internal, stable, and global attributions and personality characteristics (Mitchell, 2001).

After potential individual differences were explored as covariates, the second research aim was to examine the mediating role of attributions in the links between authoritarian parenting and victimization from peers and perpetration of peer victimization. Specific hypotheses, as seen in Figure 1, were that authoritarian parenting would be associated with being a victim of peer victimization and that children's internal/self-blame, stable, and global attributions for parent-child conflicts would be directly associated with a child being a victim, as well as explain the relationship between authoritarian parenting and being a victim.

Figure 1

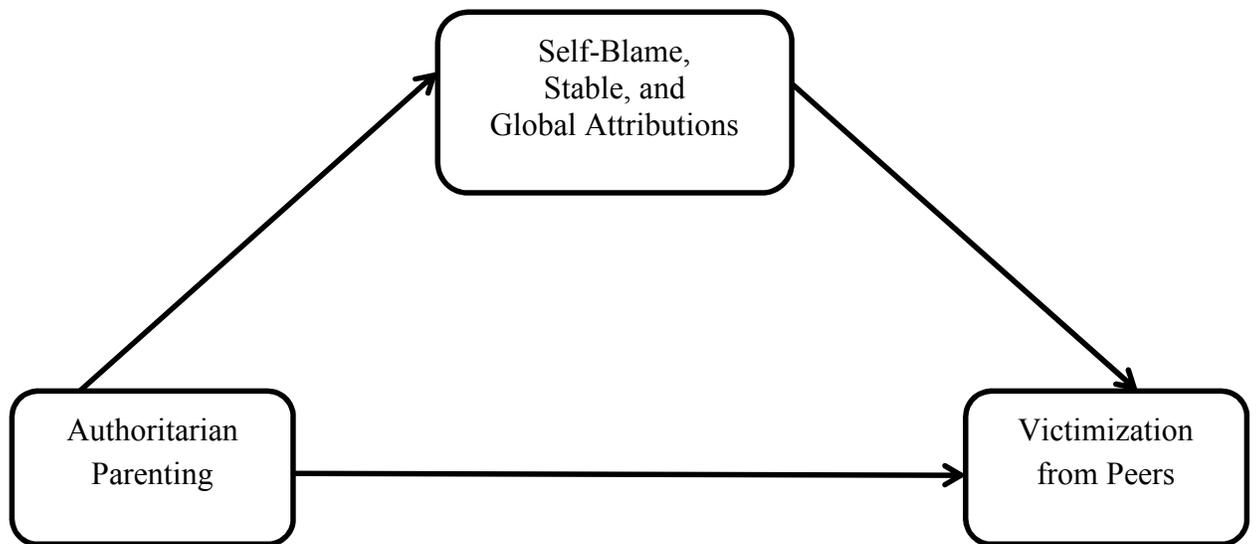


Figure 1. The mediational model explaining the connection between authoritarian parenting and victimization from peers.

These hypotheses stemmed from the fact that experiencing victimization from peers has been linked with attributions of self-blame, and self-blame was related to depressive symptoms and feelings of helplessness which were also often associated with victimization (Anderson & Hunter, 2012; Hunter et al., 2010; Perren et al., 2013). Therefore, self-blame in situations of parent-child conflict may lead to depression and be predictive of behaviors, such as helplessness, that predisposes one to be a victim of peer victimization. It was also predicted that stable and global attributions would mediate the pathway between authoritarian parenting and being a victim of peer victimization, as these two attributions have been found to be associated with attributions in one situation transferring to behavior or emotions in another situation (Alloy et al., 1984).

In contrast, as seen in Figure 2, this study also examined whether authoritarian parenting would also be associated with perpetration of peer victimization, and whether children's external/hostile intent, stable, and global attributions for parent-child conflicts would be associated with a child being a perpetrator, as well as explain the relationship between authoritarian parenting and perpetration of peer victimization. These predictions stemmed from research which has found hostile intent attributions to be associated with aggressive behavior (Margie, 2007; Perren et al., 2013; Werner, 2012), as well as from research which has found hostile intent attributions of peers to mediate the relationship between parental control and aggressive behaviors (Gomez & Gomez, 2000; Gomez et al., 2001). Similar to Figure 1, it was predicted that stable and global attributions would also mediate the pathway between authoritarian parenting and perpetration, as these two attributions have been found to be associated with attributions in one situation transferring to behavior in another situation (Alloy et al., 1984).

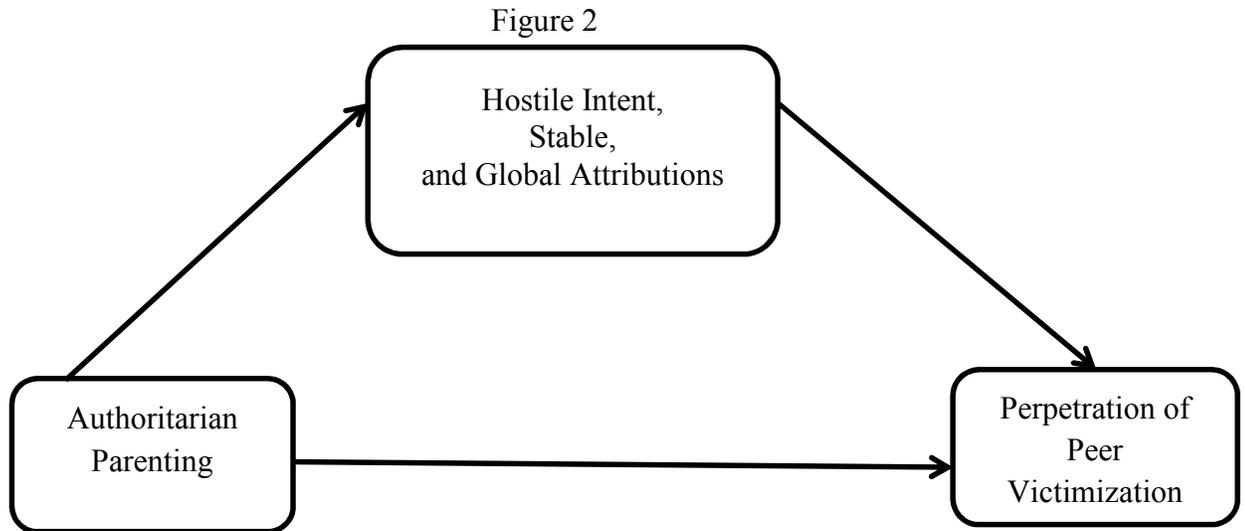


Figure 2. The mediational model explaining the connection between authoritarian parenting and perpetration of peer victimization.

In testing these two mediational models, an additional goal was to determine what differentiates the path between authoritarian parenting and being a victim of peer victimization from the path between authoritarian parenting and perpetration. Although it was predicted that stable and global attributions would mediate both pathways across the two models, this study hypothesized that self-blame and hostile intent attributions would be the variables to differentiate between these paths. Indeed, self-blame has often been linked with victimization but not perpetration, and hostile intent attributions have often been linked with aggressive behaviors characteristic of being a perpetrator but not a victim of peer victimization (Hunter et al., 2010; Margie, 2007; Perren et al., 2013). This research aim was a unique feature of the current study, as no study has been able to find the differentiating link between authoritarian parenting and being a victim versus being a perpetrator of peer victimization. Finding this differentiating link could have important practical implications in determining different risk factors for being a victim versus a

perpetrator, as they have been associated with different problems in adjustment (e.g., externalizing versus internalizing problems), thereby providing key information that could be used in future research, counseling, or school wide prevention efforts.

METHODS

Participants

Participants were 46 middle school students, ages 11-14 years ($M = 12.48$; $SD = .98$). Among participants about 39% were male and 61% were female; 50% were sixth grade students, 19.6% were 7th grade, and 30.4% were 8th grade students. The majority of participants were White (87%), followed by African American (6.5%), Multiracial (4.3%), and Hispanic (2.2%). The majority of the participants lived with both parents who were married (78.3%), 15.2% of participants' parents were divorced or separated, and 4.3% of participants' parents were never married.

Procedure

Participants were recruited through community organizations such as local YMCAs and religious youth groups. They were also recruited through three middle schools in the Winston Salem/Forsyth County school district. Regardless of the recruitment site, parents were given a contact letter briefly explaining the study and why their child was being asked to participate. Along with this contact letter, parents were also given the parental consent form with a more detailed explanation of the research study, and an addressed envelope with which to mail the signed consent form back to the principal investigator. When the consent from parents was received, parents were mailed a questionnaire packet, child assent form, and a debriefing form that they were to distribute to their child. Completed questionnaires were then mailed back to the principal investigator via a provided addressed and stamped envelope. Out of 92 consent forms received, 50 of the questionnaire packets were completed and returned, resulting in a 54% response rate. However, four of the participants did not complete the attribution

questions and were therefore not included in the analyses. The questionnaire packet took participants approximately 30 minutes to complete and can be seen in the Appendix.

As compensation for this research study, participants who returned their parental consent forms were placed into a lottery drawing to win one of five \$10 movie theatre gift cards. Those who won in the lottery drawing were mailed a gift card to their local movie theater, based on the address which was provided on the parental consent form.

Materials

Peer victimization. The Olweus Bullying Questionnaire (Olweus, 1996) is a measure of both being bullied and of bullying others, which has often been used to assess middle school students' bullying/peer victimization experiences (Georgiou & Stavrinides, 2008; Georgiou et al., 2013). Participants were first given a brief description of what bullying is (e.g., other students saying mean and hurtful things, ignoring or excluding you, hitting you, pushing you, telling lies or spreading rumors about you, or doing other hurtful things). They were then asked how often they were bullied, on a scale from 1 "I have not been bullied at school in past couple of months" to 5 "Several times a week." Next, participants were asked 10 questions concerning incidences where they may have been bullied (e.g., "I was hit, kicked, pushed, shoved around, or locked indoors," "Other students left me out of things on purpose"). These questions are not meant to be broken into different types of bullying for analyses, but they cover verbal (e.g., "I was called mean names, was made fun of, or teased in a hurtful way"), relational (e.g., "Other students left me out of things on purpose, excluded me from their group of friends, or completely ignored me"), physical (e.g., "I was hit, kicked, pushed, or shoved around"), property (e.g., "I had money or other things taken away from me or damaged"), racial

(e.g., “I was bullied with mean names or comments about race or color”), and cyber bullying (e.g., “I was bullied with mean or hurtful messages, calls or pictures, or in other ways on my cell phone or over the internet”). Participants responded to these questions on a five-point scale ranging from 1 “It has not happened in the past couple of months” to 5 “Several times a week.” Victimization was scored by averaging the responses to the one global victimization question (e.g., “How often have you been bullied at school in the past year”) and the other 10 victimization questions. The Cronbach’s alpha for the victimization subscale was .92.

Then, participants were given a description of bullying behaviors and asked about bullying other students. To measure bullying behaviors, participants were asked, “How often have you taken part in bullying another student(s) at school in the past couple of months,” which they responded to on a scale of 1 “I have not bullied another student(s) at school in the past couple of months” to 5 “Several times a week.” They then answer 10 questions mirroring those asked about being bullied, but these questions were about their bullying behaviors toward their peers (e.g., “I hit, kicked, pushed, and shoved him or her around, or locked him or her indoors,” “I kept him or her out of things on purpose”). For these questions, participants responded on a five-point scale from 1 “It has not happened in the past couple of months” to 5 “Several times a week.” Similar to victimization, perpetration was scored by averaging the responses to the one global perpetration question (e.g., “How often have you taken part in bullying another student(s) at school in the past couple of months”) and the other 10 perpetration/bullying questions. The Cronbach’s alpha for the perpetration subscale was .57.

Child's perception of parenting. The Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ; Buri, 1991) is a widely used measure of children's perceptions of their parents' parenting style. This measure has 30 items, 10 that are descriptive of Authoritative parenting styles (e.g., my mother [father] discusses the reasoning behind their rules with the children in the family), 10 that are descriptive of Permissive parenting styles (e.g., my mother [father] seldom gives me expectations and guidelines for my behavior), and 10 that are descriptive of Authoritarian parenting styles (e.g., my mother [father] does not allow me to question any decision they make). For the purposes of this study, we only assessed the Authoritarian parenting subscale, as this was the parenting style that has been shown in prior work to be most relevant to victimization and perpetration and perpetration of peer victimization (Georgiou et al., 2013). For each of the 10 Authoritarian subscale items, participants responded on a scale of 1 "Strongly disagree" to 5 "Strongly agree" to indicate how the statement applies to them and their parents. In order to make this measure more age appropriate and more understandable for participants and for both parents rather than just the mother or the father, the wording of items was sometimes changed (e.g., "My mother [father] does not feel that I need to obey rules and regulations of behavior simply because someone in authority had established them" was changed to "My parents do not feel that I need to obey the rules simply because someone told me to"; "I know what my mother [father] expects of me in the family and she [he] insists that I conform to those expectations simply out of respect for authority" was changed to "I know what my parents expect of me in the family and they insist that I do what they tell me to do"). Altering of the wording of items to be consistent with the study's research question and population has been done in prior research without compromising the

reliability of the measure (Georgiou et al., 2013). The Cronbach's alpha for the Authoritarian subscale was .79.

Attributions of parent-child interactions. An adaptation of Markel and Wiener's (2014) Parent-Adolescent Attribution Questionnaire (PAAQ) was used to measure children's attributions for parent-child conflict or disagreement. As in the original questionnaire, students first completed the Issues Checklist abridged version (Prinz, Foster, Kent, & O'Leary, 1979; Robin & Foster, 1989). The Issues Checklist consists of 44 items that list issues that parents and young adolescents may have disagreed about in the past four weeks. For the current study, only 26 items/issues were used to assess parent-child conflicts. Because this study aimed to assess attributions for relatively common or everyday parent-child conflicts, issues regarding sex and drug and alcohol use were omitted, which might not be as salient for middle-school students. As done in prior research (Markel & Wiener, 2014), redundant issues were also omitted (e.g., multiple questions concerning cleanliness, such as brushing teeth, putting feet on furniture, and messing up the house), and issues that were out-of-date were deleted or updated (e.g., buying records, taking care of records, and telephone calls). These alterations were primarily for the sake of parsimony and comprehension. One item was added in which students could write in any issue not listed. For each issue, participants were asked to indicate "Yes" or "No" as to if they have disagreed with their parents in the past four weeks, and then they were asked how often they disagreed with their parents about each issue on a scale from 1 "Never" to 3 "A lot."

Then, participants were asked to choose and write down the three topics that stuck out in their mind as a particularly salient issue in their relationship with their parents. For

each of these three issues, participants were asked why they disagreed with their parents. Each reason corresponds to a particular attribution. For example, “it is my fault, it is due to something about me” is an internal attribution; “we are likely to continue to have this conflict for a long time” is a stable attribution; “affects other areas of our relationship” is a global attribution; “my parents/guardians do this on purpose to pick a fight with me/to make me angry or upset” is a hostile intent attribution. Participants responded to each of the four reasons corresponding to an attribution on a scale of 1 “Strongly disagree” to 4 “Strongly agree.” Attribution scores were created by averaging attributions across the three conflicts. Therefore, self-blame, stable, global, and hostile intent attribution scores were calculated for each participant. Cronbach’s alphas for these attributions were as follows: self-blame = .89, stable = .78, global = .87, and hostile intent = .90.

Personality. The Big Five Inventory-10 (BFI-10: Rammstedt & John, 2007) was used to measure personality based on the big five personality traits (e.g., openness, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism). This measure consists of 10 statements (two items for each personality trait) to which participants responded on a five-point scale from 1 "Disagree strongly" to 5 "Agree strongly." This short measure has shown convergent validity with other longer measures of the big five personality traits, and was developed from the 44 item Big Five Inventory, which has successfully been used with children. The BFI-10, has also been used successfully with children and adolescents, ages 10-17 (Back et al., 2010; Hanson et al., 2013).

Correlations between the two personality variables that comprise each trait were as follows: openness $r = .12$, conscientiousness $r = .26$, extroversion $r = .39$, agreeableness $r = .03$, and neuroticism $r = .33$. These low correlations suggest that

caution should be taken in drawing strong conclusions from any of the results that include these personality scores. Also, due to these low correlations, analyses with individual items were explored. Such preliminary analyses did not seem to clarify or strengthen any results; therefore, the common convention of combining the two items for each personality variable to create five personality subscales, openness, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism was followed (Rammstedt & John, 2007).

Background information. Sociodemographic characteristics, such as child gender (Male was coded as 1 and Female was coded as 2), were also considered in analyses. Parents' level of education was used as a proxy for participants' socioeconomic status (SES) by standardizing responses to mother/stepmother and father/stepfather education levels and then averaging them (the higher the score indicated the more education their parents had completed, which we used to be indicative of higher SES). Among participants, the mean father/stepfather education level was 4.67 ($SD = 1.81$), which falls between "some college or technical school" and "associate's degree," and the mean mother/stepmother education level was 6.93 ($SD = 1.74$), which is closest to "bachelor's degree from a four year university." Due to limited ethnic/racial diversity, the originally proposed analyses and comparisons based on race were unable to be conducted.

RESULTS

Descriptives

First, in order to get a general understanding of the data and primary variables of interest (e.g., peer victimization, authoritarian parenting, and attributions) descriptive statistics in the form of means, standard deviations, and Pearson r correlations were examined. As seen in Table 1, victimization and perpetration were not frequently experienced with average responses toward the low end of the scale. As such, skew and kurtosis values were examined, which showed that participants' reports of victimization (skewness = 2.23; kurtosis = 6.30) and perpetration (skewness = 6.15; kurtosis = 39.32) were not normally distributed. Therefore, these variables were transformed by taking the inverse of the variable (i.e., $1/\text{variable}$), in order to achieve a more normal distribution and in order to run inferential statistics on these variables. After transformations, victimization had a skewness of -.55 and kurtosis of -.835 and perpetration had a skewness of -3.18 and kurtosis of 12.90. These transformations resulted in more normally distributed data and allowed for more accurate t -tests and ANOVAs without harshly violating the assumption of normality. Notably, means and standard deviations that are shown in Table 1 are non-transformed and all correlations were run with non-transformed variables. Given that inverse transformation reverses the order among values, the means that are listed reflect non-transformed values in order to ease interpretation.

A paired samples t -test revealed that participants experienced significantly more incidences of victimization than perpetration, $t(45) = 6.64, p < .001, d = .65$. Table 1 lists the means for each variable. Despite the overall low frequency of peer victimization experiences, 76% of participants had experienced at least one incident of being

victimized by their peers within the past school year, and 37% of participants reported perpetrating peer victimization at least once. Also, correlations show that higher incidents of victimization were significantly correlated with higher reports of perpetration ($r = .73$). Correlations also show that victimization ($r = .42$) and perpetration ($r = .59$) were significantly correlated with hostile intent attributions with parents, indicating that participants attributing conflict with parents to the parents purposely picking fights to try to make them angry or upset was associated with higher reports of victimization and perpetration.

Also, as seen in Table 1, authoritarian parenting had a mean of 3.32 ($SD = .57$), which falls in the middle of the continuous scale, showing that participants' perceptions of their parents' parenting style were not strongly authoritarian or non-authoritarian. However, it appears that authoritarian parenting was significantly associated with victimization from peers ($r = .41$) and perpetration ($r = .35$). These correlations indicate that as ratings of authoritarian parenting increased so too did reported incidences of victimization from peers and perpetration of peer victimization. Authoritarian parenting was also significantly correlated with hostile intent attributions ($r = .44$), which indicates that higher reports of authoritarian parenting were associated with the tendency for one to attribute conflict with parents as being due to the parent purposely picking a fight and trying to make one angry or upset.

Among attributions, self-blame was the most frequently reported ($M = 2.80$, $SD = .69$), followed by stable ($M = 2.49$, $SD = .67$), global ($M = 1.83$, $SD = .75$), and hostile intent ($M = 1.38$, $SD = .59$). In fact, using a series of paired samples t -tests it was found that reports of self-blame attributions were significantly higher than reports of stable, $t(45)$

= 2.47, $p = .02$, $d = .46$, global, $t(45) = 6.75$, $p < .001$, $d = 1.35$, and hostile intent, $t(45) = 10.18$, $p < .001$, $d = 2.21$ attributions. Stable attributions were also significantly higher than global, $t(45) = 5.07$, $p < .001$, $d = .93$, and hostile intent, $t(45) = 10.70$, $p < .001$, $d = 1.76$ attributions. Lastly, global attributions were reported at significantly higher frequencies than hostile intent attributions, $t(45) = 3.76$, $p < .001$, $d = .67$. There was also a significant correlation between hostile intent and stable attributions, indicating that increases in hostile intent attributions were associated with stable attributions (i.e., thinking that they will continue to have that conflict for a long time) for conflict with parents.

Another descriptive that is important to note is that the three most common parent-child conflicts for which participants reported their attributions was fighting with brothers and sisters ($M = 2.41$, $SD = .66$), talking back to parents ($M = 2.18$, $SD = 1.60$), and getting up in the morning ($M = 2.12$, $SD = .82$).

Exploring Individual Differences and Possible Covariates

Before creating the mediation models, a series of preliminary analyses was conducted to explore the possible role of key variables of individual differences (e.g., gender, grade, SES, personality) in order to determine which, or if any, variable should be included as a covariate. As done before, all t -tests and ANOVAs with victimization and perpetration as a test variable were done with the transformed inverse of the variable, as to not violate assumptions of normality. Again, although this study originally intended to examine the possible effect of race, such tests were not possible due to the small

Table 1

Correlations and Means among Primary Study Variables (N = 46)

Variables	Correlations							Mean (SD)
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
(1) Victimization	—	.73**	.41**	-.10	.08	.11	.42**	1.59 (.80)
(2) Perpetration		—	.35*	-.18	.08	-.06	.59**	1.15 (.53)
(3) Authoritarian Parenting			—	.09	.20	.29	.44**	3.32 (.57)
(4) Self-Blame Attribution				—	.21	.09	-.08	2.80 (.69)
(5) Stable Attribution					—	.24	.38**	2.49 (.67)
(6) Global Attribution						—	.29	1.83 (.75)
(7) Hostile Intent Attribution							—	1.38 (.59)

Note. The means and standard deviations for victimization from peers and perpetration of victimization are non-transformed and correlations were run with non-transformed variables.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

number of racial minorities who participated in this study. Future research, with a larger and more diverse sample, would be helpful in addressing possible racial differences in the processes examined here.

Gender. First, a two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was used to examine gender differences in peer victimization, authoritarian parenting, and attributions. As seen in Table 2, there were no significant gender differences in peer victimization, neither in reports of being victimized or reports of perpetrating victimization. There were also no significant gender differences in reports of authoritarian parenting. Results in Table 3 show that there were also no significant gender differences in self-blame, stable, global, or hostile intent attributions.

Grade level. Second, potential differences based on grade were explored using a one-way ANOVA. Although no predictions were made based on grade level, this test was conducted to determine whether grade should be included as a possible covariate for the mediation models. As seen in Table 2, there were no significant grade level differences in experiencing victimization from peers, perpetrating victimization, or authoritarian parenting. Differences in attributions are shown in Table 3. There were no significant grade level differences in self-blame, stable, global, or hostile intent attributions.

SES. Third, in order to determine if SES should be included as a covariate, Pearson *r* correlations between SES and the primary variables of the mediation models were examined. There was a significant negative correlation between SES and victimization ($r = -.30, p < .05$), indicating that lower SES was associated with higher reports of victimization from peers. However, there were no significant correlations

Table 2

*Means and Standard Deviations for Victimization, Perpetration, and Authoritarian**Parenting (N = 46)*

	Victim.	<i>t/F</i> (df)	Perp.	<i>t/F</i> (df)	Authoritarian Parenting	<i>t/F</i> (df)
Gender						
Male	1.75 (1.01)	-.90	1.25 (.83)	-.30	3.27 (.49)	-.52
Female	1.50 (.64)	(44)	1.09 (.14)	(44)	3.36 (.62)	(44)
Grade						
6th	1.43 (.48)	.71	1.06 (.11)	1.14	3.40 (.44)	.94
7th	1.52 (.71)	(2, 43)	1.09 (.16)	(2, 43)	3.40 (.37)	(2, 43)
8th	1.92 (1.92)		1.34 (.94)		3.15 (.80)	

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

between SES and perpetration ($r = -.24$) or authoritarian parenting ($r = -.28$), and there were also no significant correlations between SES and self-blame attributions ($r = .02$), stable attributions ($r = .06$), global attributions ($r = -.14$), or hostile intent attributions ($r = .01$), at an alpha of .05.

Personality. Fourth, correlations between the five personality variables and the primary variables of the mediation model were explored. Again, interpretation of these results should be cautious, given the question of measurement validity and low correlations between personality items. However, results show that agreeableness was significantly negatively correlated with victimization ($r = -.32, p < .05$) and perpetration

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for Attributions (N = 46)

	Self- Blame	<i>t/F</i>	Stable	<i>t/F</i>	Global	<i>t/F</i>	Hostile Intent	<i>t/F</i>	
Gender									
Male	2.63 (.77)	-1.38	2.37 (.44)	-.99	1.98 (.80)	1.07	1.41 (.71)	.20	
Female	2.92 (.63)	(44)	2.57 (.78)	(44)	1.74 (.72)	(44)	1.37 (.51)	(44)	
Grade									
6th	2.77 (.73)	.21	2.35 (.71)	1.11	1.83 (.85)	.39	1.22 (.37)	1.93	
7th	2.74 (.72)	(2, 43)	2.59 (.62)	(2, 43)	1.67 (.44)	(2, 43)	1.56 (.47)	(2, 43)	
8th	2.90 (.64)		2.67 (.63)		1.95 (.77)		1.55 (.85)		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

($r = -.34, p < .05$), indicating that those who scored higher on agreeableness reported fewer incidents of being a victim and a perpetrator of peer victimization. Similarly, conscientiousness was significantly negatively correlated with victimization ($r = -.50, p < .05$) and perpetration ($r = -.33, p < .05$), showing that those who scored high on conscientiousness reported fewer incidences victimization from peers and perpetration of peer victimization. None of the personality variables were significantly correlated with authoritarian parenting ($p > .05$). However, agreeableness ($r = -.45, p < .01$) and conscientiousness ($r = -.35, p < .05$) were both significantly negatively correlated with hostile intent attributions, indicating that higher scores on agreeableness and conscientiousness were associated with fewer hostile intent attributions for conflicts with parents. No other personality variables were associated with self-blame, stable, global, or hostile intent attributions ($p > .05$).

Summary of covariates. Preliminary analyses of individual differences showed that there were no significant differences in reports of victimization, perpetration, authoritarian parenting, or attributions based on gender or grade level, and racial differences could not be addressed. However, there was a significant negative correlation with SES and victimization. There were also significant negative correlations between agreeableness and victimization, perpetration, and hostile intent attributions and between conscientiousness and victimization, perpetration, and hostile intent attributions.

These analyses were helpful in determining which variables to control for as covariates in the mediation models. The outcome variables in the mediation models were victimization and perpetration; therefore, the variables which were associated with these outcome variables were included as controls. As such, in the mediation model with

victimization as the outcome, covariates included SES, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. In the mediation model with perpetration as the outcome variable, agreeableness and conscientiousness were included as covariates.

Data Analysis Plan

Although the Olweus Bullying Questionnaire is usually used to categorize participants as bullies or victims, due to the statistical problems of making a continuous measure categorical (e.g., can reduce power, effect size, and reliability of the measure; Abrahams & Alf, 1978; Preacher, Rucker, MacCallum, & Nicewander, 2005) and due to the relatively low frequency of victimization and perpetration in the sample, the measure was kept on a continuous scale and linear rather than logistic regression analyses were used to determine associations between primary study variables and victimization and perpetration experiences.

In order to test both hypotheses concerning the mediational power of self-blame, stable, global and hostile intent attributions, two regression analyses were run using the bias corrected bootstrapping method to test for mediation. Bootstrapping uses resampling and replacement (which we did 1,000 times, per standard convention), and using the bias corrected bootstrap aids in the issue of low power due to a small sample size (Hayes & Scharkow, 2013). Bootstrapping is also ideal to help minimize chances of error due to skewed victimization and perpetration variables (Russell & Dean, 2000). These mediational tests were done using the SPSS plug-in PROCESS (Hayes, 2013).

In the first step/model of the regression analyses, authoritarian parenting is examined as a predictor of victimization or perpetration, controlling for possible covariates (e.g., agreeableness, conscientiousness, and SES). The second step/model of

the regression analyses examines whether the anticipated mediators are predictive of victimization or perpetration, also controlling for authoritarian parenting and the covariates. In order to determine if the mediators were significant, the bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect of authoritarian parenting on victimization or perpetration through the proposed mediators was examined. If zero did not fall within this confidence interval it could be concluded that the mediation was significant (Hayes & Scharkow, 2013).

Mediation Analyses

The first mediational analysis examined self-blame, stable, global, and hostile intent attributions as mediators for the connection between authoritarian parenting and victimization from peers. As seen in Table 4, in model one, controlling for agreeableness, conscientiousness, and SES, authoritarian parenting was significantly associated with experiencing peer victimization ($b = .48, p < .05$). However, none of the other variables in model one were significantly associated with victimization ($ps > .05$). In model two, the only proposed mediator that was significantly associated with victimization was hostile intent attributions ($b = .55, p < .05$) and authoritarian parenting was no longer significantly associated with victimization, when controlling for the mediators. As seen in Table 5, the bootstrapped mediation results revealed that neither self-blame (95% CI [-.12, .05]), stable (95% CI [-.20, .06]), global (95% CI [-.29, .07]), nor hostile intent attributions (95% CI [-.19, .85]), were significant mediators of the link between authoritarian parenting and being victimized by peers.

Table 4
Summary of Mediation Regression Predicting Victimization (N = 46)

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE b</i>
Model 1		
Authoritarian Parenting	.48*	.21
Agreeableness	.06	.15
Conscientiousness	.00	.17
SES	-.19	.14
Model 2		
Authoritarian Parenting	.24	.24
Agreeableness	.15	.15
Conscientiousness	.11	.17
SES	-.24	.14
Self-Blame	-.13	.19
Stable	-.06	.19
Global	-.09	.16
Hostile Intent	.55*	.24
<i>R</i> ²		.33
<i>F</i>		2.23*

p* < .05 *p* < .01

Table 5

Indirect Effects for Victimization (N = 46)

Bootstrap results for indirect or mediation effects				
Mediators	Mediation Effect	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower	Upper
Self-Blame	.00	.05	-.12	.05
Stable	-.02	.06	-.20	.06
Global	-.03	.09	-.29	.07
Hostile Intent	.29	.27	-.19	.85
Total Effect	.24	.24	-.14	.77

The second mediational analysis examined self-blame, stable, global, and hostile intent attributions as mediators for the connection between authoritarian parenting and perpetration. As seen in Table 6, in model one, authoritarian parenting ($b = .39, p < .01$) and agreeableness ($b = -.26, p < .01$) were significantly associated with perpetration of peer victimization. The negative coefficient for agreeableness indicates that higher scores on agreeableness were associated with fewer incidences of perpetration. As expected, more authoritarian parenting was associated with more reported experiences of perpetration. In model two, neither authoritarian parenting nor agreeableness remained significantly associated with perpetration ($p > .05$), but global ($b = -.20, p < .05$) and hostile intent ($b = .46, p < .01$) attributions were significantly associated with perpetration.

Table 6

Summary of Mediation Regression Predicting Perpetration (N = 46)

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>
Model 1		
Authoritarian Parenting	.39**	.13
Agreeableness	-.26**	.09
Conscientiousness	-.13	.08
Model 2		
Authoritarian Parenting	.18	.13
Agreeableness	-.06	.09
Conscientiousness	-.10	.08
Self-Blame	-.08	.10
Stable	-.06	.11
Global	-.20*	.09
Hostile Intent	.46**	.15
<i>R</i> ²		.48
<i>F</i>		5.01**

p* < .05 *p* < .01

The negative coefficient for global attributions indicates that more global attributions for conflict with parents were linked with fewer incidences of perpetration. More hostile intent attributions were associated with more instances of perpetration. However, as seen in Table 7, the bootstrapped mediation results revealed that neither self-blame (95% CI [-.13, .00]), stable (95% CI [-.11, .01]), global (95% CI [-.33, .00]), nor hostile intent attributions (95% CI [-.02, .49]) were significant mediators.

Table 7

Indirect Effects for Perpetration (N = 46)

Bootstrap results for indirect or mediation effects				
Mediators	Mediation Effect	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower	Upper
Self-Blame	-.01	.02	-.13	.00
Stable	-.01	.02	-.11	.01
Global	-.07	.07	-.33	.00
Hostile Intent	.18	.15	-.02	.49
Total Effect	.09	.12	-.05	.45

DISCUSSION

Peer victimization is a salient developmental concern and the goal of the current study was to shed light on processes by which the authoritarian parenting style at home is associated with being a victim and perpetrator of peer victimization at school. Although the predicted mediational effects were not shown to be significant, the current study does extend research on the prevalence of victimization by peers and perpetration in middle school children and further confirms the link between authoritarian parenting and peer victimization experiences (Georgiou & Stavrinides, 2008). Specifically, the results from this study suggest that even though peer victimization in middle school may not often occur at high frequencies, the prevalence still remains high with about 76% of participants experiencing at least one incidence of being a victim of peer victimization at school within the past year. Similarly, although not a frequent occurrence, perpetration of peer victimization was reported by 37% of participants. These results further illustrate that there is a high correlation (e.g., over .70 in the current study) between being victimized by peers and perpetrating victimization, which provides more evidence to suggest that it is important to examine perpetrator-victims as a unique group (Yang & Salmivalli, 2013). Lastly, the current study illustrates children's attributions of conflicts with their parents, although not as strong as anticipated, do play a role in whether or not they experience victimization and perpetrate peer victimization.

More specifically, this study's first research aim was to explore differences in peer victimization, perceptions of authoritarian parenting, and attributions based on demographic variables/individual differences. Related hypotheses were broken into four parts, and in totality were only partially supported. First, it was predicted that males

would report higher levels of both victimization and perpetration than would females, which was not supported, as there were no significant differences based on gender. This result was contrary to prior retrospective work in which boys were more likely to experience and perpetrate peer victimization at some point in their childhood (Gusler & Kiang, 2014). These differences may be due to prior work being retrospective and asking about experiences throughout childhood rather than the current study which asked only about experiences in middle school, occurring within the last year. Also contrary to prior research, gender differences in perceptions of parenting style as authoritarian were not found (Rudasill et al., 2013).

It was also predicted that SES would be significantly negatively correlated with authoritarian parenting. This prediction was not supported, which is contrary to prior research that has found that low income parents are more likely than high income parents to use harsh discipline for their children (Pinderhughes et al., 2000). Nonetheless, further exploration of SES differences revealed that lower SES was associated with children experiencing higher frequencies of victimization from peers. This finding is consistent with work that has found low SES children to be exposed to a variety of and higher levels of victimization experiences, particularly peer victimization at school (Wade, Shea, Rubin, & Wood, 2014).

The big five personality variables were also expected to be significantly correlated with attributions. This prediction was partially supported, with agreeableness and conscientiousness being negatively correlated with hostile intent attributions. This result does not support prior work which has found stronger and more consistent associations between personality traits and internal, stable, and global attributions for

negative events (Ilardi & Craighead, 1999; Mitchell, 2001). However, the results do give some credence to Dodge's (2006) claim that personality and attributions can become intertwined throughout development. Higher scores on agreeableness and conscientiousness were associated with less hostile intent attributions for conflicts with parents as well as fewer incidences of victimization from peers and perpetration. Nonetheless, these results should be interpreted with caution, as the unexpectedly weak correlations between individual personality items calls into question the reliability and validity of the personality measure used in this study.

An additional research aim was to determine whether authoritarian parenting is associated with victimization from peers. Also, whether children's internal/self-blame, stable, and global attributions for parent-child conflicts are linked with a child being a victim, as well as explain the relationship between authoritarian parenting and victimization. These hypotheses were partially supported. Authoritarian parenting was associated with experiencing victimization from peers. However, when adding attributions to regression model, the effect of authoritarian parenting was no longer significant, and self-blame, stable, and global attributions were not significantly associated with victimization experiences and did not explain the relationship between authoritarian parenting and victimization. These results, in part, support prior research showing a predictive path from authoritarian parenting to victimization from peers (Georgiou & Stavrinides, 2008; Georgiou et al., 2013). However, results failed to support the prediction that self-blame, stable, and global attributions would explain this path. There could be several possible explanations for this hypothesis not being supported. One is the lack of power due to a small sample size, which could have reduced chances of

finding statistically significant effects. Another possible explanation is that victims' self-blame attributions for peer victimization, which are linked with feelings of hopelessness, are not as similar to self-blame attributions for parent-child conflict as was predicted (Anderson & Hunter, 2012; Hunter et al., 2010; Perren et al., 2013). It is also possible that stable and global attributions were not significant mediators because attributions for parent-child conflict do not transfer to actions of behaviors with peers.

The hypotheses that authoritarian parenting would also be associated with perpetration of peer victimization, and that children's external/hostile intent, stable, and global attributions for parent-child conflicts would be linked to a child being a perpetrator, as well as explain the relationship between authoritarian parenting and perpetration of peer victimization were partially supported. Authoritarian parenting was indeed associated with perpetration of peer victimization and, when added to the regression model, hostile intent and global attributions were associated with a child perpetrating peer victimization. Again, the addition of these attributions to the model reduced the significance of authoritarian parenting. However, bootstrapped mediation analyses showed that none of these tested attributions significantly explained the relationship between authoritarian parenting and perpetration. Again, these results generally supported prior work that found a predictive path from authoritarian parenting to perpetration of peer victimization (Georgiou & Stavrinides, 2008; Georgiou et al., 2013). These results are also consistent with Bronfenbrenner's (1979) theory of the mesosystem and Bowen's family systems theory (1996). Specifically, these results show that parenting style can impact or be associated with peer relations.

Similarly to the mediational tests with victimization as the outcome, it is possible that the lack of mediation found was due to the small sample size and limited statistical power. This possibility seems even more likely for these analyses given that hostile intent attributions for conflict with parents was significantly associated with perpetration of peer victimization. In fact, when running a traditional Sobel test for mediation, hostile intent was shown to be a significant mediator ($z = 2.10, p = .04$). However, the results from the bootstrap analysis were reported as this test is more conservative and corrects for the skewed victimization and perpetrator variables. Additionally, bootstrap confidence intervals showed that self-blame and global attributions may have been close to significant with the upper interval being .00. These findings suggest that the included mediators may have been significant given a larger sample, but it is also possible that hostile intent, stable, and global attributions for conflicts with parents do not transfer to aggressive behavior with peers. Additionally, it is important to note that while global attributions were associated with perpetration, it was in the opposite direction from what was predicted. This suggests that thinking that one's conflict with parents will affect other aspects of one's relationship is predictive of fewer incidences of perpetration. One possible explanation for this pattern of results could be that those with global attributions turn to their peers for support and are therefore less likely to perpetrate peer victimization. In fact, research has found that those who report lower levels of maternal support often report higher levels of peer support (Holt & Espelage, 2007).

One of the main goals of the current study was to determine whether self-blame and hostile intent attributions would be the variables to differentiate the paths between authoritarian parenting and victimization from peers and authoritarian parenting and

perpetration of victimization. The hypotheses related to this research aim were not supported. Correlations showed that self-blame did not appear to be strongly related to either victimization or perpetration, and given a larger sample self-blame may have mediated the path between authoritarian parenting and perpetration. These results suggest that self-blame for conflict with parents may be different than self-blame for being the victim in peer victimization experiences (Anderson & Hunter, 2012; Hunter et al., 2010; Perren et al., 2013). Additionally, both in correlational and regression analyses, hostile intent attributions for conflict with parents were significantly associated with both victimization and perpetration. This finding could be due to the strong correlation between victimization and perpetration, but could also suggest that viewing conflicts with parents as being purposeful and due to the parent intending to cause upset, can be associated negative peer interaction, both in the form of being a victim and/or perpetrator of peer victimization. These results also illustrate that it may be hard to find a differentiating link for victimization and perpetration for peer victimization, and stress the importance of further examining those who are both perpetrators and victims.

Limitations and Future Research

There were several limitations of the present study that should be discussed. Most notable was the small sample size and low response rate. Having a small sample size significantly reduced analytical power, in that it reduced the likelihood of finding significant results when or if significance did exist. The current study sought to recruit a diverse sample of participants, but an overall low response rate consisted of primarily white, middle class children, from two parent homes. This significantly limits the generalizability of results, particularly in terms of SES and race. In totality, the sample of

the current study appeared to be a well-functioning group, which calls into question what the predicted processes might look like in a different sample of children. Additionally, while reported frequencies were low, overall rates of victimization (76%) and perpetration (37%) were slightly higher than those found in prior research (Dinkes et al., 2006; Finkelhor et al., 2005), which could be due to children self-selecting into the study, with primarily only those who were victims or perpetrators being interested in and completing the study. Similarly, participant recruitment was done primarily through the parents, with them receiving the questionnaire, being responsible for providing consent for their child to participate, and returning the questionnaire, which could have also biased the sample.

Another limitation of the present study was that it was entirely self-report. The participants' responses could have been biased by social desirability, especially for the questions regarding perpetration of peer victimization. Likewise, self-report data are always limited by the possibility of participants not reporting accurately or truthfully. In addition to social desirability limiting this study's measure of perpetration, another limitation was the low Cronbach's alpha for the perpetrator subscale, which could indicate that the questions were not fully measuring what they were intended to measure. Indeed, it might be particularly challenging to reliably assess perpetration given the potentially implications of admitting to being aggressive or acting like a bully towards others. Another major limitation of the current study was the low correlations between personality items that were used to create the five personality subscales. These correlations drawn into question the validity and reliability of the measure in this study and greatly limit the conclusions that can be made based on participants' personality.

Although, no other study appears to have similarly low internal consistencies, the values obtained here could be due to the measure being infrequently used with young adolescents and, when it was used with younger participants, it was with a much larger sample than in the current study (Back et al., 2010; Hansen et al., 2013).

Future research would benefit from exploring this study's predictions in a more racially and economically diverse sample. This could yield differing results or could strengthen the generalizability of these results. In fact, the original intent to examine racial differences could not be fulfilled because of the lack of diversity in the current sample. Due to the limitations of some of this study's measures, additional research should also look at different methods for measuring parenting style, peer victimization, and personality, such as measures that are observational, done through interview, or parent or peer report, and see how these measures align with these results using measures of children's self-reports.

Given that high percentages of children being victims and/or perpetrators of peer victimization were found, but the average frequency of these experiences were low, future research should address whether or not these low frequency experiences are harmful to psychological adjustment. Little work has examined the threshold of victimization and perpetration that leads one to experience negative outcomes such as poor adjustment. Future research should explore if one incident of peer victimization is enough to cause a child distress and be associated with negative outcomes or if it is the frequency of peer victimization experiences that is associated with poor adjustment and distress. Perhaps, in some cases, experiences of victimization could be character-building and could serve to strengthen social ties as victims cope and rally for support.

Additionally, it is important for further studies to continue to explore potential differentiators for being a victim versus being a perpetrator of peer victimization, as prior research has found differences in psychological adjustment between those who are victims but not perpetrators and those who are perpetrators but not victims (Anderson & Hunter, 2012; Espinoza et al., 2013; Ma & Bellmore, 2012; Shieds & Cicchetti, 2001; Vollink et al., 2013). Therefore, finding the differentiating variables can still have implications for counselors and anti-bullying programs. Another topic for further study is how attributions for conflicts with parents differ from attributions for conflicts with peers, in regards to both emotional and behavioral outcomes. Such work could help support and speak to theoretical perspectives that suggest meaningful overlap between different contexts in adolescents' lives (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Future research should also consider different attributions for parent-child conflict and explore the mechanisms that drive the development of attributions themselves. Lastly, it is important to future explore the mechanism behind the association between hostile intent attributions for conflicts with parents and both victimization and perpetration. Finding these mechanisms is essential to understanding how parenting style and family relationships impact other relationships and behaviors outside of the home, as seen in the research on the parent-child coercive cycle which found a mechanism explaining the connections between parenting and aggressive and delinquent behavior for children (Patterson, 1976).

Conclusions and Implications

The current study further demonstrated the connection between authoritarian parenting and victimization and perpetration. Although it failed to find explanations for these pathways, results stress the negative consequences of authoritarian parenting. Results also show that lower SES children experience more victimization from peers in middle school than higher SES children. This has important implications for counselors and school administrators because it highlights a group of children who are more likely to experience high levels of victimization from peers. Additionally, the current study demonstrated that experiences of victimization are correlated with perpetration. This results does not negate the need to differentiate between these experiences, but does illustrate that finding differentiation may be difficult, as these experiences can be highly intertwined. Nonetheless, understanding the high correlation between victimization and perpetration could have important implications for those designing anti-bullying programs.

The current study also strengthens previous research by illustrating a connection between authoritarian parenting and both victimization and perpetration of peer victimization, and the current results add to existing research in finding that hostile intent attributions for conflicts with parents were associated with both victimization and perpetration. Lastly, the finding that authoritarian parenting was associated with hostile intent attributions for conflicts with parents is a first step in exploring the mechanism of attribution development, which is not greatly understood. In totality, the current study raises many new and interesting research questions that future research on parent and peer relationships can build upon.

REFERENCES

- Abrahams, N. M., & Alf, E. F., Jr. (1978). Relative costs and statistical power in the extreme groups approach. *Psychometrika*, *43*, 11–17.
- Akhter, N., Hanif, R., Tariq, N., & Atta, M. (2011). Parenting styles as predictors of externalizing and internalizing behavior problems among children. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research*, *26*(1), 23-41.
- Alloy, L. B., Peterson, C., Abramson, L. Y., & Seligman, M. E. (1984). Attributional style and the generality of learned helplessness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *46*(3), 681-687. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.46.3.681
- Anderson, S., & Hunter, S. C. (2012). Cognitive appraisals, emotional reactions, and their associations with three forms of peer-victimization. *Psicothema*, *24*(4), 621-627.
- Back, M. D., Stopfer, J. M., Vazire, S., Gaddis, S., Schmukle, S. C., Egloff, B., & Gosling, S. D. (2010). Facebook profiles reflect actual personality, not self-idealization. *Psychological Science*, *21*(3), 372-374. doi:10.1177/0956797609360756
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *51*(6), 1173.
- Baumrind, D. (1991). The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and substance use. *The Journal of Early Adolescence*, *11*(1), 56-95. doi:10.1177/02724316911111004
- Bodin, S. D. (2004). Children's attributions about parenting: Origins and implications for child adjustment. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A*, *64*, 2818.
- Bowen, M. (1966). The use of family theory in clinical practice. *Comprehensive Psychiatry*, *7*(5), 345-374.
- Brody, G. H., Arias, I., & Fincham, F. D. (1996). Linking marital and child attributions to family processes and parent–child relationships. *Journal of Family Psychology*, *10*(4), 408-421. doi:10.1037/0893-3200.10.4.408
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Buri, J. R. (1991). Parental Authority Questionnaire. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *57*(1), 110-119. doi:10.1207/s15327752jpa5701_13

- Brown, E. J., & Kolko, D. J. (1999). Child victims' attributions about being physically abused: An examination of factors associated with symptom severity. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 27(4), 311-322.
- Chao, R. K. (1994). Beyond parental control and authoritarian parenting style: Understanding Chinese parenting through the cultural notion of training. *Child Development*, 65(4), 1111-1119. doi:10.2307/1131308
- Cole, D. A., Martin, N. C., Sterba, S. K., Sinclair-McBride, K., Roeder, K. M., Zelkowitz, R., & Bilsky, S. A. (2014). Peer victimization (and harsh parenting) as developmental correlates of cognitive reactivity, a diathesis for depression. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 123(2), 336-349. doi:10.1037/a0036489
- DeBoard-Lucas, R. L., Fosco, G. M., Raynor, S. R., & Grych, J. H. (2010). Interparental conflict in context: Exploring relations between parenting processes and children's conflict appraisals. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, 39(2), 163-175. doi:10.1080/15374410903532593
- Dinkes, R., Cataldi, E. F., Kena, G., & Baum, K. (2006). Indicators of school crime and safety: 2006. NCES 2007-003. *National Center for Education Statistics*.
- Dodge, K. A. (2006). Translational science in action: Hostile attributional style and the development of aggressive behavior problems. *Development and Psychopathology*, 18(3), 791-814.
- Duncan, R. D. (1999). Maltreatment by parents and peers: The relationship between child abuse, bully victimization, and psychological distress. *Child Maltreatment*, 4(1), 45-55. doi:10.1177/1077559599004001005
- Elliott, A. N., Alexander, A. A., Pierce, T. W., Aspelmeier, J. E., & Richmond, J. M. (2009). Childhood victimization, poly-victimization, and adjustment to college in women. *Child Maltreatment*, 14(4), 330-343. doi:10.1177/1077559509332262
- Espinoza, G., Gonzales, N. A., & Fuligni, A. J. (2013). Daily school peer victimization experiences among Mexican-American adolescents: Associations with psychosocial, physical and school adjustment. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 42(12), 1775-1788. doi:10.1007/s10964-012-9874-4
- Feiring, C., & Cleland, C. (2007). Childhood sexual abuse and abuse-specific attributions of blame over 6 years following discovery. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 31(11-12), 1169-1186. doi:10.1016/j.chiabu.2007.03.020
- Feldstein, D. I. (1988). Psychological characteristics of personality development in adolescence. *Voprosy Psichologii*, 631-41.

- Finkelhor, D., Ormrod, R., Turner, H., & Hamby, S. L. (2005). 'The victimization of children and youth: A comprehensive, national survey': Errata. *Child Maltreatment, 10*(2), 207.
- Furman, W., & Buhrmester, D. (1992). Age and sex differences in perceptions of networks of personal relationships. *Child Development, 63*(1), 103-115. doi:10.2307/1130905
- Georgiou, S. N., Fousiani, K., Michaelides, M., & Stavrinides, P. (2013). Cultural value orientation and authoritarian parenting as parameters of bullying and victimization at school. *International Journal of Psychology, 48*(1), 69-78. doi:10.1080/00207594.2012.754104
- Georgiou, S. N., & Stavrinides, P. (2008). Bullies, victims and bully-victims: Psychosocial profiles and attribution styles. *School Psychology International, 29*(5), 574-589. doi:10.1177/0143034308099202
- Gibb, S. J., Horwood, L., & Fergusson, D. M. (2011). Bullying victimization/perpetration in childhood and later adjustment: Findings from a 30 year longitudinal study. *Journal of Aggression, Conflict and Peace Research, 3*(2), 82-88.
- Gomez, R., & Gomez, A. (2000). Perceived maternal control and support as predictors of hostile-biased attribution of intent and response selection in aggressive boys. *Aggressive Behavior, 26*(2), 155-168. doi:10.1002/1098-2337
- Gomez, R., Gomez, A., DeMello, L., & Tallent, R. (2001). Perceived maternal control and support: Effects on hostile biased social information processing and aggression among clinic-referred children with high aggression. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 42*(4), 513-522. doi:10.1111/1469-7610.00745
- Grusec, J. E. (1992). Social learning theory and developmental psychology: The legacies of Robert Sears and Albert Bandura. *Developmental Psychology, 28*(5), 776-786. doi:10.1037/0012-1649.28.5.776
- Gusler, S., & Kiang, L. (2014, July). *Childhood peer victimization experience: Exploring prevalence, moderators, and links with later adjustment*. Poster presented at the International Family Violence and Child Victimization Research Conference, Portsmouth, NH.
- Hanson, V., Liu, S.S., Schrader, S.M., Dean, J.A., & Stewart, K.T. (2013). Personality traits as a potential predictor of willingness to undergo various orthodontic treatments. *Angle Orthodontist, 83*(5), 899-905. doi: 10.2319/07212-545.1
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis : A regression-based approach*. New York: Guilford Publications.

- Hayes, A. F., & Scharkow, M. (2013). The relative trustworthiness of inferential tests of the indirect effect in statistical mediation analysis: Does method really matter? *Psychological Science, 24*, 1918-1927. doi:10.1177/0956797613480187
- Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. New York: Wiley.
- Hepburn, L., Azrael, D., Molnar, B., & Miller, M. (2012). Bullying and suicidal behaviors among urban high school youth. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 51*(1), 93-95. doi:10.1016/j.jadohealth.2011.12.014
- Holt, M. K., & Espelage, D. L. (2007). Perceived social support among bullies, victims, and bully-victims. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 36*(8), 984-994. doi:10.1007/s10964-006-9153-3
- Hoover, J. H., Oliver, R., & Hazler, R. J. (1992). Bullying: Perceptions of adolescent victims in the Midwestern USA. *School Psychology International, 13*(1), 5-16. doi:10.1177/0143034392131001
- Huitsing, G., Veenstra, R., Sainio, M., & Salmivalli, C. (2012). 'It must be me' or 'it could be them?': The impact of the social network position of bullies and victims on victims' adjustment. *Social Networks, 34*(4), 379-386. doi:10.1016/j.socnet.2010.07.002
- Hunter, S. C., Durkin, K., Heim, D., Howe, C., & Bergin, D. (2010). Psychosocial mediators and moderators of the effect of peer-victimization upon depressive symptomatology. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 51*(10), 1141-1149. doi:10.1111/j.1469-7610.2010.02253.x
- Ilardi, S. S., & Craighead, W. E. (1999). The relationship between personality pathology and dysfunctional cognitions in previously depressed adults. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 108*(1), 51-57. doi:10.1037/0021-843X.108.1.51
- Jackson-Newsom, J., Buchanan, C. M., & McDonald, R. M. (2008). Parenting and perceived maternal warmth in European American and African American adolescents. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 70*(1), 62-75. doi:10.1111/j.1741-3737.2007.00461.x
- Jeong, S., & Lee, B.H. (2013). A multilevel examination of peer victimization and bullying preventions in schools. *Journal of Criminology, 2013*, 1-10. doi:10.1155/2013/735397
- Judd, C. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1981). Process analysis: Estimating mediation in treatment evaluations. *Evaluation Review, 5*(5), 602-619. doi:10.1177/0193841X8100500502

- Kaufmann, D., Gesten, E., Santa Lucia, R. C., Salcedo, O., Rendina-Gobioff, G., & Gadd, R. (2000). The relationship between parenting style and children's adjustment: The parents' perspective. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, *9*(2), 231-245. doi:10.1023/A:1009475122883
- Kelley, H. H. (1967). Attribution theory in social psychology. In D. Levine (Ed.), *Nebraska symposium on motivation* (vol. 15, pp. 192-238). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Kelly, E. V., Newton, N. C., Stapinski, L. A., Slade, T., Barrett, E. L., Conrod, P. J., & Teesson, M. (2015). Suicidality, internalizing problems and externalizing problems among adolescent bullies, victims and bully-victims. *Preventive Medicine: An International Journal Devoted To Practice And Theory*, *73*100-105. doi:10.1016/j.ypmed.2015.01.020
- Kim, M., Catalano, R. F., Haggerty, K. P., & Abbott, R. D. (2011). Bullying at elementary school and problem behaviour in young adulthood: A study of bullying, violence and substance use from age 11 to age 21. *Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health*, *21*(2), 136-144. doi:10.1002/cbm.804
- Lazarus, R. S. (1991). Cognition and motivation in emotion. *American Psychologist*, *46*(4), 352.
- Ma, T., & Bellmore, A. (2012). Peer victimization and parental psychological control in adolescence. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, *40*(3), 413-424. doi:10.1007/s10802-011-9576-50061
- Maras, P. F., Moon, A., & Gridley, N. (2014). Attribution style of adolescents with school-reported social, emotional and behavioural difficulties. *Emotional & Behavioural Difficulties*, *19*(4), 426-439. doi:10.1080/13632752.2014.913760
- Markel, C., & Wiener, J. (2014). Attribution processes in parent-adolescent conflict in families of adolescents with and without ADHD. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science / Revue Canadienne Des Sciences Du Comportement*, *46*(1), 40-48. doi:10.1037/a0029854
- Margie, N. G. (2007). Bullying and exclusion in intergroup contexts: The relation between social reasoning, social information processing, and personal experience. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, *68*, 26-87.

- McIntosh, J. M., Lyon, A. R., Carlson, G. A., Everette, C. B., & Loera, S. (2008). Measuring the mesosystem: A survey and critique of approaches to cross setting measurement for ecological research and models of collaborative care. *Families, Systems, & Health*, 26(1), 86-104. doi:10.1037/1091-7527.26.1.86
- Mitchell, J. V. (2000). Personality correlates of attributional style. *The Journal of Psychology*, 123(5), 447-462
- Morrow, M. T., Hubbard, J. A., Barhight, L. J., & Thomson, A. K. (2014). Fifth-grade children's daily experiences of peer victimization and negative emotions: Moderating effects of sex and peer rejection. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, doi:10.1007/s10802-014-9870-0
- Olson, S. L., Sameroff, A. J., Lansford, J. E., Sexton, H., Davis-Kean, P., Bates, J. E., Pettit, G.S., & Dodge, K. A. (2013). Deconstructing the externalizing spectrum: Growth patterns of overt aggression, covert aggression, oppositional behavior, impulsivity/inattention, and emotion dysregulation between school entry and early adolescence. *Development and Psychopathology*, 25(3), 817-842
- Olweus, D. (1993). *Bullying at school: What we know and what we can do*. Malden: Blackwell Publishing.
- Olweus, D. (1996). Bullying at school: Knowledge base and an effective intervention programa. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 794(1), 265-276.
- Patterson, G. R. (1976). The aggressive child: victim and architect of a coercive system. In E. J. Mash, L. A. Hamerlynck, & L. C. Handy (Eds.), *Behavior modification and families* (pp.267-316). New York: Brunner/Mazel.
- Pellegrini, A. D., & Long, J. D. (2002). A longitudinal study of bullying, dominance, and victimization during the transition from primary school through secondary school. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 20(2), 259-280. doi:10.1348/026151002166442
- Perren, S., Ettekal, I., & Ladd, G. (2013). The impact of peer victimization on later maladjustment: Mediating and moderating effects of hostile and self-blaming attributions. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 54(1), 46-55. doi:10.1111/j.1469-7610.2012.02618.x
- Pinderhughes, E. E., Dodge, K. A., Bates, J. E., Pettit, G. S., & Zelli, A. (2000). Discipline responses: Influences of parents' socioeconomic status, ethnicity, beliefs about parenting, stress, and cognitive-emotional processes. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 14(3), 380-400. doi:10.1037/0893-3200.14.3.380

- Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., MacCallum, R. C., & Nicewander, W. A. (2005). Use of the extreme groups approach: A critical reexamination and new recommendations. *Psychological Methods, 10*, 178-192.
- Prinz, R. J., Foster, S., Kent, R. N., & O'Leary, K. D. (1979). Multivariate assessment of conflict in distressed and nondistressed mother-adolescent dyads. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 12*, 691-700. doi:10.1901/jaba.1979.12-691
- Raikes, H. A., & Thompson, R. A. (2008). Attachment security and parenting quality predict children's problem-solving, attributions, and loneliness with peers. *Attachment & Human Development, 10*(3), 319-344. doi:10.1080/14616730802113620
- Rammstedt B., & John O.P. (2007). Measuring personality in one minute or less: A 10-item short version of the Big Five Inventory in English and German. *Journal of Research in Personality, 41*, 203-212.
- Richmond, J. M., Elliott, A. N., Pierce, T. W., Aspelmeier, J. E., & Alexander, A. A. (2009). Polyvictimization, childhood victimization, and psychological distress in college women. *Child Maltreatment, 14*(2), 127-147. doi:10.1177/1077559508326357
- Rigby, K. (2003). Consequences of bullying in schools. *The Canadian Journal of Psychiatry / La Revue Canadienne De Psychiatrie, 48*(9), 583-590.
- Rigby, K., & Smith, P. K. (2011). Is school bullying really on the rise? *Social Psychology of Education, 14*(4), 441-455. doi:10.1007/s11218-011-9158-y
- Robin, A. L., & Foster, S. L. (1989). *Negotiating parent-adolescent conflict: A behavioral-family systems approach*. New York: Guilford Press
- Rodriguez, C. M. (2011). Association between independent reports of maternal parenting stress and children's internalizing symptomatology. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 20*(5), 631-639. doi:10.1007/s10826-010-9438-8
- Rudasill, K. M., Adelson, J. L., Callahan, C. M., Houlihan, D. V., & Keizer, B. M. (2013). Gifted students' perceptions of parenting styles: Associations with cognitive ability, sex, race, and age. *Gifted Child Quarterly, 57*(1), 15-24. doi:10.1177/0016986212460886
- Rueger, S., & Jenkins, L. N. (2014). Effects of peer victimization on psychological and academic adjustment in early adolescence. *School Psychology Quarterly, 29*(1), 77-88. doi:10.1037/spq0000036

- Russell, C. J., & Dean, M. A. (2000). To log or not to log: Bootstrap as an alternative to parametric estimation of moderation effects in the presence of skewed dependent variables. *Organizational Research Methods*, 3, 167-185.
- Seta, C. E., Seta, J. J., & Goodman, C. (1998). Social identity orientation and the generation of compensatory expectations. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 20, 285-291.
- Shields, A., & Cicchetti, D. (2001). Parental maltreatment and emotion dysregulation as risk factors for bullying and victimization in middle childhood. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 30(3), 349-363. doi:10.1207/S15374424JCCP3003_7
- Solberg, M. E., & Olweus, D. (2003). Prevalence estimation of school bullying with the Olweus Bully/Victim Questionnaire. *Aggressive Behavior*, 29(3), 239-268. doi:10.1002/ab.10047
- Thompson, A., Hollis, C., & Richards, D. (2003). Authoritarian parenting attitudes as a risk for conduct problems: Results from a British national cohort study. *European Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 12(2), 84-91. doi:10.1007/s00787-003-0324-4
- Ttofi, M. M., Farrington, D. P., & Lösel, F. (2014). Interrupting the continuity from school bullying to later internalizing and externalizing problems: Findings from cross-national comparative studies. *Journal of School Violence*, 13(1), 1-4. doi:10.1080/15388220.2013.857346
- Völlink, T., Bolman, C. W., Dehue, F., & Jacobs, N. L. (2013). Coping with cyberbullying: Differences between victims, bully-victims and children not involved in bullying. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*, 23(1), 7-24. doi:10.1002/casp.2142
- Wade, R. J., Shea, J. A., Rubin, D., & Wood, J. (2014). Adverse childhood experiences of low-income urban youth. *Pediatrics*, 134(1), e13-e20. doi:10.1542/peds.2013-2475
- Watabe, A., & Hibbard, D. R. (2014). The influence of authoritarian and authoritative parenting on children's academic achievement motivation: A comparison between the United States and Japan. *North American Journal of Psychology*, 16(2), 359-382.
- Werner, N. E. (2012). Do hostile attribution biases in children and parents predict relationally aggressive behavior? *The Journal of Genetic Psychology: Research and Theory on Human Development*, 173(3), 221-245. doi:10.1080/00221325.2011.600357

- Williford, A. P., Brisson, D., Bender, K. A., Jenson, J. M., & Forrest-Bank, S. (2011). Patterns of aggressive behavior and peer victimization from childhood to early adolescence: A latent class analysis. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *40*(6), 644-655. doi:10.1007/s10964-010-9583-9
- Wormington, S. V., Anderson, K. G., Tomlinson, K. L., & Brown, S. A. (2013). Alcohol and other drug use in middle school: The interplay of gender, peer victimization, and supportive social relationships. *The Journal of Early Adolescence*, *33*(5), 610-634. doi:10.1177/0272431612453650
- Yang, A., & Salmivalli, C. (2013). Different forms of bullying and victimization: Bully-victims versus bullies and victims. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology*, *10*(6), 723-738. doi:10.1080/17405629.2013.793596
- Zhao, J., & Wang, M. (2010). Relationships among mother's parenting style and preschoolers' behavior problems, peer interaction. *Chinese Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *18*(5), 664-666.

APPENDIX

Demographics

1. How old are you? _____

2. What is your gender? Male Female

3. What grade are you in? 6th 7th 8th

4. How would you describe yourself (please check as many boxes as you wish)?
 White Black or African American
 Hispanic, Latino, or Latin American Asian or Asian American
 American Indian or Alaska Native Multiracial
 Other _____

5. How much education did your father/stepfather complete? If you have a father and a stepfather, circle the education level of the one who lives in your home. If neither a father nor stepfather lives with you, you can skip this question and go to the next question. Give your best guess if you are not sure.
 - a. Elementary or middle school
 - b. Some high school
 - c. High school graduate or GED
 - d. Some college or technical school
 - e. Associate's degree
 - f. Bachelor's degree from a four year university
 - g. Some Graduate or professional school (for example, MA, PhD, MBA, MD)
 - h. Graduate or professional degree (for example, MA, PhD, MBA, MD)

6. How much education did your mother/stepmother complete? If you have both a mother and a stepmother, circle the education level of the one who lives in your home. If neither a mother nor stepmother lives with you, you can skip this question and go to the next question. Give your best guess if you are not sure.

- a. Elementary or middle school
- b. Some high school
- c. High school graduate or GED
- d. Some college or technical school
- e. Associate's degree
- f. Bachelor's degree from a four year university
- g. Some Graduate or professional school (for example, MA, PhD, MBA, MD)
- h. Graduate or professional degree (for example, MA, PhD, MBA, MD)

7. Are your parents _____?

- Married Divorced Separated Never Married

8. Please list all of the people who live in your house with you (for example, mom, dad, older/younger sister, brother, grandmother, grandfather).

9. Please list all of the people in your house who give you rules and punish or discipline you when you break the rules.

Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ: Buri, 1991)

For each of the sentences, fill in the circle that best describes how that sentence applies to you and your parents or guardians (the people who give you rules that you listed in the last question).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Even if I don't agree with my parents, they think it is for my own good if I am forced to do what they think is right.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Whenever my parents tell me to do something, they expect me to do it right away without asking any questions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. My parents do not allow me to question any decisions they make.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. My parents feel that force should be used to get children to behave.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. My parents feel that parents should teach their children early who is the boss in the family.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. My parents get very upset if I try to disagree with them.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. My parents let me know what behavior is expected of me, and if I don't meet those expectations, they will punish me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. My parents feel that parents should strictly and harshly deal with their children when the children don't do what they are supposed to.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. My parents tell me exactly what they want me to do and how they expect me to do it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. I know what my parents expect of me in the family and they insist that I do what they tell me to do.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Issues Checklist (Robin & Foster, 1989; Prinz, Foster, Kent, & O’Leary, 1979)

Below is a list of issues which children and their parents/guardians (the people you said give your rules in your home) often disagree about.

Circle “yes” for topics you have disagreed (argued about, gotten angry when parents discussed, or gotten in trouble) with your parents/guardians about during the last 4 weeks. For each issue that you answer “yes” to, fill in the circle that describes how often you disagreed about that issue.

Have you disagreed with your parents/guardians about...			How often do you disagree with your parents/guardians about this issue?		
			Never	Sometimes	A lot
1. Cell phone use/texting	yes	no	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Bedtime	yes	no	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Cleaning bedroom	yes	no	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Doing homework	yes	no	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Putting away clothes	yes	no	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Watching television	yes	no	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. Clothing/what you wear	yes	no	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. Making too much noise at home	yes	no	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. Fighting with brothers and sisters	yes	no	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. Swearing/cursing	yes	no	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. How money is spent	yes	no	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. Picking books, movies, or games	yes	no	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. Allowance	yes	no	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Have you disagreed with your parents/guardians about...			How often do you disagree with your parents/guardians about this issue?			
				Never	Sometimes	A lot
14. Going places without parents (shopping, movies, etc.)	yes	no		<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15. Taking care of electronics	yes	no		<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16. Going on dates	yes	no		<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17. Who friends should be	yes	no		<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
18. Getting low grades in school	yes	no		<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
19. Getting in trouble at school	yes	no		<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
20. Lying	yes	no		<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
21. Helping out around the house	yes	no		<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22. Talking back to parents	yes	no		<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
23. Getting up in the morning	yes	no		<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24. How to spend free time	yes	no		<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
25. Internet/Computer use	yes	no		<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
26. Other _____	yes	no		<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Adapted Parent-Adolescent Attribution Questionnaire (PAAQ: Markel & Wiener, 2014)

Of the issues you circled “yes” to, please pick and write one issue that sticks out in your mind (is the most common, intense, or worst):

(please write issue here): _____

This can be an issue you have argued about, gotten in trouble for, or gotten angry when you’ve discussed it with your parents/guardians.

Thinking about the topic you just wrote down, please fill in the circles to indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following reasons for this issue or conflict with your parents/guardians.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. It is <u>my fault</u> , it is due to something <u>about me</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. We are likely to <u>continue</u> to have this conflict for a <u>long time</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. <u>It affects</u> other areas of <u>our relationship</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. My parents/guardians do this <u>on purpose</u> to <u>pick a fight</u> with me/to <u>make me</u> angry or upset	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Of the issues you circled “yes” to, please write another issue that sticks out in your mind (is the most common, intense, or worst):

(please write issue here): _____

This can be an issue you have argued about, gotten in trouble for, or gotten angry when your parents/guardians discussed with you.

Thinking about the topic you just wrote down, please fill in the circles to indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following reasons for this issue or conflict with your parents/guardians.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. It is <u>my fault</u> , it is due to something <u>about me</u>	○	○	○	○
2. We are likely to <u>continue</u> to have this conflict for a <u>long time</u>	○	○	○	○
3. It <u>affects</u> other areas of <u>our relationship</u>	○	○	○	○
4. My parents/guardians do this <u>on purpose</u> to <u>pick a fight</u> with me/to <u>make me angry</u> or upset	○	○	○	○

Of the issues you circled “yes” to, please write one more issue that sticks out in your mind (is the most common, intense, or worst):

(please write issue here): _____

This can be an issue you have argued about, gotten in trouble for, or gotten angry when your parents/guardians discussed it with you.

Thinking about the topic you just wrote down, please fill in the circles to indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following reasons for this issue or conflict with your parents/guardians.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. It is <u>my fault</u> , it is due to something <u>about me</u>	○	○	○	○
2. We are likely to <u>continue</u> to have this conflict for a <u>long time</u>	○	○	○	○
3. It <u>affects</u> other areas of <u>our relationship</u>	○	○	○	○
4. My parents/guardians do this <u>on purpose</u> to <u>pick a fight</u> with me/to <u>make me</u> angry or upset	○	○	○	○

The Olweus Bullying Questionnaire (Olweus, 1996)

Here are some questions about being bullied by other students. First we explain what bullying is. We say **a student is being bullied when another student, or several other students:**

- Say mean and hurtful things, or make fun of him or her, or call him or her mean and hurtful names
- Completely ignore or exclude him or her from their group of friends or leave him or her out of things on purpose
- Hit, kick, push, or shove around
- Tell lies or spread rumors about him or her or send mean notes and try to make other students dislike him or her

When we talk about bullying, these things happen **more than just once**, and **it is difficult for the student being bullied to defend himself or herself**. We also call it bullying when a student is teased more than once in a mean and hurtful way.

But we **do not call it bullying** when the teasing is done in a friendly and playful way. Also, it is not bullying when two students of about equal strength or power argue or fight. Bullies usually have more power and make others feel powerless.

1. How often have you been bullied at school in the past year?
 I have not been bullied at school in the past year About once a week
 It has only happened once or twice Several times a week
 2 or 3 times a month

Have you been bullied at school in the past year in one or more of the following ways?

2. I was called mean names, was made fun of, or teased in a hurtful way.
 It has not happened to me in the past year About once a week
 Only once or twice Several times a week
 2 or 3 times a month
3. Other students left me out of things on purpose, excluded me from their group of friends, or completely ignored me.
 It has not happened to me in the past year About once a week
 Only once or twice Several times a week
 2 or 3 times a month

4. I was hit, kicked, pushed, or shoved around.
- It has not happened to me in the past year About once a week
- Only once or twice Several times a week
- 2 or 3 times a month
5. Other students told lies or spread false rumors about me and tried to make others dislike me.
- It has not happened to me in the past year About once a week
- Only once or twice Several times a week
- 2 or 3 times a month
6. I had money or other things taken away from me or damaged.
- It has not happened to me in the past year About once a week
- Only once or twice Several times a week
- 2 or 3 times a month
7. I was threatened or forced to do things I did not want to do.
- It has not happened to me in the past year About once a week
- Only once or twice Several times a week
- 2 or 3 times a month
8. I was bullied with mean names or comments about race or color.
- It has not happened to me in the past year About once a week
- Only once or twice Several times a week
- 2 or 3 times a month
9. I was bullied with mean or hurtful messages, calls or pictures, or in other ways on my cell phone or over the internet (computer). (Please remember that it is not bullying when it is done in a friendly and playful way.)
- It has not happened to me in the past year About once a week
- Only once or twice Several times a week
- 2 or 3 times a month
10. If you were bullied on your cell phone or over the internet, how was it done?
- Only on the cell phone
- Only over the internet
- In both ways

11. I was bullied in another way. Please list: _____

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="radio"/> It has not happened to me in the past year | <input type="radio"/> About once a week |
| <input type="radio"/> Only once or twice | <input type="radio"/> Several times a week |
| <input type="radio"/> 2 or 3 times a month | |

The next set of questions will ask you about times when you may have bullied or been mean to other students.

We say a student is bullying another student, or several other students if they

- Say mean and hurtful things, or make fun of him or her, or call him or her mean and hurtful names
- Completely ignore or exclude him or her from their group of friends or leave him or her out of things on purpose
- Hit, kick, push, or shove around
- Tell lies or spread rumors about him or her or send mean notes and try to make other students dislike him or her

But we **do not call it bullying** when the teasing is done in a friendly and playful way. Bullies usually have more power than those they bully.

13. How often have you taken part in bullying another student(s) at school in the past year?

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="radio"/> It has not happened to me in the past year | <input type="radio"/> About once a week |
| <input type="radio"/> It has only happened once or twice | <input type="radio"/> Several times a week |
| <input type="radio"/> 2 or 3 times a month | |

Have you bullied another student(s) at school in the past year in one or more of the following ways?

14. I called another student(s) mean names and made fun of or teased him or her in a hurtful way.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="radio"/> It has not happened to me in the past year | <input type="radio"/> About once a week |
| <input type="radio"/> It has only happened once or twice | <input type="radio"/> Several times a week |
| <input type="radio"/> 2 or 3 times a month | |

15. I kept him or her out of things on purpose, excluded him or her from my group of friends, or completely ignored him or her.
- It has not happened to me in the past year About once a week
- It has only happened once or twice Several times a week
- 2 or 3 times a month
16. I hit, kicked, pushed, or shoved him or her around.
- It has not happened to me in the past year About once a week
- It has only happened once or twice Several times a week
- 2 or 3 times a month
17. I spread false rumors about him or her and tried to make others dislike him or her.
- It has not happened to me in the past year About once a week
- It has only happened once or twice Several times a week
- 2 or 3 times a month
18. I took money or other things from him or her or damaged his or her belongings.
- It has not happened to me in the past year About once a week
- It has only happened once or twice Several times a week
- 2 or 3 times a month
19. I threatened or forced him or her to do things he or she did not want to do.
- It has not happened to me in the past year About once a week
- It has only happened once or twice Several times a week
- 2 or 3 times a month
20. I bullied him or her with mean names or comments about his or her race or color.
- It has not happened to me in the past year About once a week
- It has only happened once or twice Several times a week
- 2 or 3 times a month
21. I bullied him or her with mean or hurtful messages, calls or pictures, or in other ways on my cell phone or over the internet (computer).
- It has not happened to me in the past year About once a week
- It has only happened once or twice Several times a week
- 2 or 3 times a month

22. If you bullied another student(s) on your cell phone or over the internet (computer), how was it done?

- Only on the cell phone
- Only over the internet
- In both ways

23. I bullied him or her in another way. Please list: _____

- It has not happened to me in the past year
- It has only happened once or twice
- 2 or 3 times a month
- About once a week
- Several times a week

The Big Five Inventory-10 (BFI-10: Rammstedt & John, 2007)

How well do the following sentences describe your personality?

I see myself as someone who...	Disagree strongly	Disagree a little	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree a little	Agree strongly
is reserved/shy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
is generally trusting of other people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
tends to be lazy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
is relaxed, handles stress well	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
is not interested in art	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
is outgoing, sociable, or talkative	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
tends to blame other people when bad things happen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
tries hard on and always completes their school work/does a thorough job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gets nervous easily	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
has an active imagination	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

CURRICULUM VITAE

STEPHANIE KAYE GUSLER

skgusler13@gmail.com

EDUCATION

August 2013-Present Candidate for M.A., Psychology, Wake Forest University,
May 2013 B.S., Psychology; Radford University
 Minors: Women's Studies; History

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

Thesis: The Role of Attributions in the Connection between Authoritarian Parenting and Peer Victimization; Fall 2014-Present, Faculty Mentor: Dr. Lisa Kiang

- Contacted schools and community organizations for recruitment of children ages 11-14
- Collected and Analyzed data and wrote up project for defense before committee members

Research Assistantship: Civic Development: A Follow-up Study of Democracy Fellows; Fall-2013-Present, Faculty Mentors: Dr. Christy Buchanan, Dr. Katy Harriger, & Dr. Jill McMillan

- Conducted over 40 hour-long interviews of alumni, through WebEx
- Executed procedural aspects of the research project: located participants, constructed and sent contact messages, managed responses and post-interview logistics
- Maintained research team calendar and timeline
- Served as liaison between the research team and transcription service
- Managed and analyzed quantitative and qualitative data using MAXQDA and SPSS

First Year Research Project: Childhood Peer Victimization Experiences and Adult Psychological Adjustment: Exploring Prevalence and Moderators; Fall 2013-Summer 2014, Faculty Mentor: Dr. Lisa Kiang

- Developed research questions and conducted a literature review on childhood peer victimization experiences and potential racial differences
- Collected and analyzed data from over 200 participants

Honors Research Capstone: Childhood Poly-victimization and Perceived Family Environment;

Fall 2012-Spring 2013, Faculty Mentor: Dr. Ann Elliott

- Managed and analyzed data using SPSS for the Juvenile Victimization Questionnaire and the Family Environment Scale

Independent Study: Childhood Poly-victimization and Psychological Distress in Women

Spring 2012, Faculty Mentor: Dr. Ann Elliott

- Collected and analyzed data from over 100 research participants using SPSS

Independent Study: Self-Compassion and Resilience in Men who Experienced Child Abuse

Spring 2011, Faculty Mentor: Dr. Sarah Hasting

MANUSCRIPTS

Gusler, S. K., Elliott, A. N., Aspelmeier, J., Pierce, T. W., & Clark S. (2013). Childhood poly-victimization and perceived family environment. *Modern Psychological Studies, 19*, p. 39-56.

MANUSCRIPTS IN PREPARATION

Gusler, S. K., & Kiang, L. (2014). Childhood peer victimization and adult psychological adjustment: Racial differences and the role of attribution.

PRESENTATIONS

Gusler, S. (2014, November). *Follow-up study with democracy fellows and class cohort: Integrative complexity results*. Talk given to a discussion group at the Kettering Foundation, Dayton, Ohio.

Gusler, S., & Kiang, L. (2014, July). *Childhood peer victimization experience: Exploring prevalence, moderators, and links with later adjustment*. Poster presented at the International Family Violence and Child Victimization Research Conference, Portsmouth, NH.

Gusler, S. (2014, May). *Childhood peer victimization experiences and adult psychological distress: The role of racial/ethnic attributions*. Talk given at Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, NC.

Gusler, S. (2014, May). *Follow-up study with democracy fellows and class cohort: Emerging themes in qualitative analysis*. Paper presented to a discussion group at the Kettering Foundation, Dayton, OH.

- Harriger, K., McMillan, J., Buchanan, C., & Gusler, S. (2014, April). *Using WebEx in data collection*. Poster presented at the Wake Forest University's Exploration Conference, Winston-Salem, NC.
- Gusler, S. K., Elliott, A. N., Aspelmeier, J., E., Pierce, T. W., & Clark, S. (2013, March). *Childhood poly-victimization and perceived family environment*. Poster presented at the 84th annual meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, New York City, NY.
- Latimer, E., Borling, K., Gusler, S. K., Washington, K., Elliott, A. N., Aspelmeier, J., & Pierce, T. W. (2013, March). *Childhood poly-victimization and trauma-related symptoms*. Poster presented at the 84th annual meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, New York City, NY.
- Gusler, S. K., Washington, K., Latimer, E., & Elliott, A. N. (2012, April). *Poly-victimization and psychological distress in college women*. Paper presented as part of a larger study at Radford University's Gender Conference, Radford, VA.
- Funston, M. E., Gusler, S. K., Knight, A. P., Hastings, S. L., & Cohn, T.J. (2011, April). *Self compassion and resilience in men*. Poster presented at Radford University's Gender Conference, Radford, VA.
- Anderson, H., Gusler, S. K., & King, J. S. (2010, October). *Developing an honors version of a core curriculum*. Paper presented at the National Honors Conference, Kansas City, MO.

AWARDS & HONORS/LEADERSHIP POSITIONS

Wake Forest Alumni Travel Grant, Fall 2014
Dean's Scholar for the Department of Psychology at Radford University, 2012-2013
Psi Chi; Vice President, Radford University 2012-2013
Radford University Honors Academy, 2009-2013
Radford University Ambassadors, the link between the students and alumni of Radford University; Community Service Outreach Chair, 2012-2013

RELEVANT CLINICAL EXPERIENCE

- Exchange SCAN:** Intern/Volunteer August 2014-Present
- Met with first time parents to provide information and resources, as part of a child abuse prevention program
- CONTACT Crisis Helpline:** Paid Intern May 2012-August 2012
- Responsible for over 150 hours answering the Helpline, and an additional 150 hours working in the office to learn the operation of a non-profit agency

- Against All Odds Clubhouse:** Volunteer October 2011-April 2012
- Participated in and led daily recreational activities for adults with severe and chronic psychopathology

- Rolling Ridge Riding:** Volunteer May 2011-August 2011
- Became familiar with equestrian therapy for children with physical and psychological disabilities
 - Worked closely with the children during therapeutic play and interaction with a trained therapy dog
 - Shadowed a School Psychologist as she administered the Children's Hope Scale

OTHER RELEVANT EXPERIENCE

- Twin City Pediatrics:** Medical Office Assistant July 2013-August 2013
- Worked with patient care coordinator to help parents find mental health resources for their children
 - Became familiar with diagnostic process of attention disorders

- Laugh and Learn Childcare:** Substitute June 2011-August 2013
- Responsible for the supervision, care, and educational instruction of children ranging in age from 6 months to 12 years

- Noah's Ark Daycare:** Childcare Provider March 2008- June 2009
- Responsible for the supervision and care of children ranging in age from 1-4 years

PROFICIENT IN

SPSS
Qualtrics
WebEx, online communication/meeting software
Integrative Complexity Scoring of Qualitative Data
MAXQDA, qualitative data analysis software