Universidad Miguel Hernández de Elche

Programa de Doctorado en Deporte y Salud

Acoso escolar: Desarrollo y evaluación de un programa de intervención e impacto de factores personales en su dinámica

Ana Martínez Martínez

Director de la Tesis

Dr. D. José Antonio Piqueras Rodríguez

Codirector de la Tesis

Dr. D. David Pineda Sánchez

Elche, julio de 2024

TESIS DOCTORAL POR COMPENDIO DE PUBLICACIONES

La presente Tesis Doctoral se articula bajo modalidad por compendio de publicaciones. Ha sido realizada según la Normativa de Estudios de Doctorado de la Universidad Miguel Hernández de Elche, aprobada el 31 de mayo de 2022 y establecida de acuerdo con el Real Decreto 99/2011 por el que se regulan las enseñanzas oficiales de doctorado. A continuación, se listan las referencias de los tres artículos científicos que conceden estructura y contenido como indicios de calidad:

Publicaciones

①. Martínez-Martínez, A., Pineda, D., Galán, M., Marzo, J. C., & Piqueras, J. A. (2021). Effects of the Action for Neutralization of Bullying Program on Bullying in Spanish Schoolchildren. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 18*(13), 6898. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18136898

Journal Impact Factor 2021 = 4.6 / Q1 Public, Environmental & Occupational Health / Posición: 45/182

SCImago Journal Rank 2021 = 0.8 / Q2 Public Health, Environmental and Occupational Health / Posición: 153/665

②. Pineda, D., Rico-Bordera, P., Martínez-Martínez, A., Galán, M., y Piqueras, JA (2022). Los rasgos de personalidad de la tétrada oscura también juegan un papel en la victimización por acoso escolar. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *13*, 984744. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.984744

Journal Impact Factor 2022 = 3.8 / Q1 Psychology, Multidisciplinary / Posición: 34/147

SCImago Journal Rank 2022 = 0.9 / Q2 Psychology (miscellaneous) / Posición: 90/310

③. Martínez-Martínez, A., Pineda, D., Rodriguez- Jimenez, T., Rivera, M., Furlong, M., & Piqueras, J. A. (En prensa). Assessment of Covitality in Spanish Primary School Children and Its Relationship with Bullying. *Revista de Psicopatología y Psicología Clínica.*

SCImago Journal Rank 2023 = 0.5 / Q3 Psychology, Clinical Psychology / Posición: 158/313

D. José Antonio Piqueras Rodríguez, Catedrático de Universidad, y D. David Pineda Sánchez, Ayudante Doctor, ambos pertenecientes al Departamento de Psicología de la Salud de la Universidad Miguel Hernández, como director y codirector de la tesis.

AUTORIZA

La presentación por compendio de publicaciones de la presente tesis doctoral titulada "Acoso escolar: Desarrollo y evaluación de un programa de intervención e impacto de factores personales en su dinámica" realizada bajo nuestra supervisión por Dña. Ana Martínez Martínez.

La tesis cumple con la Normativa de Estudios de Doctorado de la Universidad Miguel Hernández de Elche, aprobada el 31 de mayo de 2022 y establecida de acuerdo con el Real Decreto 99/2011 por el que se regulan las enseñanzas oficiales de doctorado y cuenta con dos artículos publicados en revistas situadas en Q1 de JCR.

En Elche, a 24 de mayo de 2024

Fdo.: Dr. José Antonio Piqueras Rodríguez

Fdo.: Dr. David Pineda Sánchez

D. Francisco Javier Moreno Hernández, coordinador del Programa de Doctorado en Deporte y Salud.

AUTORIZA

El depósito y la defensa ante el tribunal correspondiente de la tesis doctoral "Acoso escolar: Desarrollo y evaluación de un programa de intervención e impacto de factores personales en su dinámica" realizada por Dña. Ana Martínez Martínez, bajo la dirección del Dr. José Antonio Piqueras Rodríguez y la codirección del Dr. David Pineda Sánchez, para optar al grado de Doctor.

En Elche, a 24 de mayo de 2024

Fdo.: Dr. Francisco Javier Moreno Hernández

Dedicatoria

Dedico este trabajo a mi familia, cuyo amor, paciencia y comprensión han sido mi fortaleza durante todo el tiempo dedicado a la realización de esta tesis. Su apoyo incondicional y confianza en mí han sido esenciales para alcanzar este hito. Este trabajo es un esfuerzo conjunto, y os lo dedico con todo mi corazón.

A Nayara, estoy profundamente orgullosa de tu fortaleza, valentía y tesón al enfrentar y superar obstáculos. Transmites esos valores y principios cuidando de quienes más lo necesitan, y eso me inspira cada día.

A Adrián, tu manera de ver la vida siempre me saca una sonrisa. Me impulsas y motivas a terminar mis proyectos, y en este caso, ha sido una verdadera espuela al caballo con tu frase de "simple psicóloga", apelando a mi pundonor de una forma que me dio otro argumento más para finalizar mi proyecto.

Y, siguiendo con la metáfora de los animales, llegamos a ti, David. Encontrar un elefante blanco es un suceso extraordinario, una joya rara en un mundo de elefantes grises. Así es tu presencia en mi vida: excepcional y valiosa. Me siento inmensamente afortunada de tenerte a mi lado. Tu paciencia, apoyo incondicional y constante ayuda han sido fundamentales en este tiempo. Las palabras no pueden expresar adecuadamente mi gratitud, admiración y amor por ti.

Esta tesis es mi modesta aportación para crear un entorno seguro en el que los niños y niñas puedan crecer libre de abuso e intimidación, dedicándose a ser felices y disfrutando de su infancia, que es como debería ser. Espero que esta contribución les brinde, de algún modo, la oportunidad de convertirse en adultos saludables y realizados.

Ana Martínez Martínez

Agradecimientos

La presente tesis ha sido realizada bajo la dirección de D. José Antonio Piqueras Rodríguez y D. David Pineda Sánchez. Quiero expresarles a ambos mi agradecimiento más sincero por su confianza y orientación a lo largo de este trabajo.

A José Antonio, quiero agradecerle por su bondad, generosidad y sincera preocupación por los demás, sin esperar nada a cambio. Ha sido un verdadero privilegio cruzarme en el camino con él, y su influencia ha sido y será significativa en mi vida.

A David, quiero agradecerle por las horas invertidas, por su compromiso y esfuerzo desinteresado. Valoro mucho todo su trabajo y la forma en que siempre da lo mejor de él para y por mí.

Agradezco al colegio Salesianos San Rafael de Elche por brindarme su apoyo y facilidades para implementar el programa, y a los niños y niñas que participaron con tanto entusiasmo.

A mi familia y amigos, quienes han estado a mi lado en los momentos en que necesitaba desconectar y recargar energías.

A Mari y Antonio, por su inestimable ayuda y por estar siempre disponibles cuando los he necesitado.

A mis padres, especialmente a mi madre, porque todo esto comenzó por ella.

Muchas gracias a todos.

Índice

Índice

Resumen

El presente trabajo tiene como objetivo principal analizar y evaluar diversos factores y programas que influyen en la dinámica del acoso escolar en niños y adolescentes dentro del contexto educativo español. Este proyecto se compone de tres estudios interrelacionados que abordan distintos aspectos del acoso escolar: la eficacia de un programa de intervención, la influencia de los rasgos de personalidad de la tétrada oscura y la relación entre la covitalidad y el acoso escolar.

En el primer estudio, se evaluó la eficacia del programa "Action for Neutralization of Bullying". Este programa se implementó durante un año escolar, con sesiones semanales de una hora. A través de un diseño cuasi-experimental, se midió la frecuencia de victimización y perpetración de acoso escolar, así como la percepción del clima escolar y el bienestar emocional de los estudiantes antes, después de la intervención y a los tres meses. Los resultados mostraron una disminución significativa en los incidentes de acoso escolar y una mejora en la percepción del clima escolar y el bienestar emocional de los estudiantes. Sin embargo, la ausencia de un grupo de control y la dependencia de cuestionarios autoinformados representan limitaciones importantes del estudio.

El segundo estudio se centró en la influencia de los rasgos de personalidad de la tétrada oscura (narcisismo, maquiavelismo, psicopatía y sadismo) en la dinámica del acoso escolar (Pineda et al., 2022). Este estudio transversal correlacional involucró a estudiantes de diversas escuelas en España. Los hallazgos revelaron que los estudiantes con altos niveles de estos rasgos tenían más probabilidades de ser tanto perpetradores como víctimas de acoso escolar. Estos resultados subrayan la necesidad de incorporar evaluaciones de personalidad en los programas de prevención e intervención y desarrollar estrategias específicas para abordar las características de personalidad que contribuyen al acoso. La naturaleza transversal del estudio, no obstante, limita la capacidad de establecer relaciones causales.

El tercer estudio investigó la covitalidad, una combinación de bienestar psicológico y fortalezas socioemocionales, y su relación con la incidencia de acoso escolar en niños de primaria en España (Martínez-Martínez et al., en prensa). Utilizando un diseño transversal y el Social Emotional Health Survey (SEHS), se evaluó cómo la covitalidad impacta en la victimización por acoso escolar. Los resultados indicaron que los estudiantes con altos niveles de covitalidad reportaron menores incidencias de acoso y una mayor capacidad para manejar experiencias negativas. Estos hallazgos resaltan la importancia de fomentar el bienestar psicológico y las competencias socioemocionales como factores protectores contra el acoso escolar.

En conjunto, estos estudios proporcionan una comprensión integral de los factores que contribuyen al acoso escolar y las estrategias efectivas para su prevención. La implementación de programas como el "Action for Neutralization of Bullying" puede ser efectiva para reducir el acoso escolar. Además, la evaluación de rasgos de personalidad y la promoción de la covitalidad son enfoques prometedores para la prevención del acoso. Sin embargo, es crucial considerar las limitaciones de los estudios, como la dependencia de autoinformes y la necesidad de seguimientos a largo plazo, para mejorar la validez y la generalizabilidad de los resultados.

Las implicaciones para la práctica educativa incluyen la necesidad de desarrollar programas de intervención que no solo aborden directamente el comportamiento de acoso, sino que también promuevan el bienestar socioemocional y evalúen características de personalidad específicas. Futuras investigaciones deberían incorporar diseños longitudinales y métodos mixtos para obtener una visión más completa y precisa de la dinámica del acoso escolar y la eficacia de las intervenciones.

Abstract

This work aims to analyze and evaluate various factors and programs that influence the dynamics of school bullying among children and adolescents within the Spanish educational context. This project comprises three interrelated studies that address different aspects of bullying: the effectiveness of an intervention program, the influence of dark tetrad personality traits, and the relationship between covitality and bullying.

In the first study, the effectiveness of the "Action for Neutralization of Bullying" program was evaluated. This program was implemented over one school year, with weekly one-hour sessions. Using a quasi-experimental design, the frequency of bullying victimization and perpetration, as well as students' perceptions of the school climate and emotional well-being, were measured before, after the intervention, and at three months follow-up. The results showed a significant decrease in bullying incidents and an improvement in students' perceptions of the school climate and emotional well-being. However, the absence of a control group and reliance on self-reported questionnaires represent important limitations of the study.

The second study focused on the influence of dark tetrad personality traits (narcissism, Machiavellianism, psychopathy, and sadism) on the dynamics of school bullying (Pineda et al., 2022). This cross-sectional correlational study involved students from various schools in Spain. The findings revealed that students with high levels of these traits were more likely to be both perpetrators and victims of bullying. These results highlight the need to incorporate personality assessments into prevention and intervention programs and develop specific strategies to address personality characteristics that contribute to bullying. However, the cross-sectional nature of the study limits the ability to establish causal relationships.

The third study investigated covitality, a combination of psychological well-being and socio-emotional strengths, and its relationship with the incidence of bullying among primary school children in Spain (Martínez-Martínez et al., in press). Using a cross-sectional design and the Social Emotional Health Survey (SEHS), the impact of covitality on bullying victimization was assessed. The results indicated that students with high levels of covitality reported fewer bullying incidents and a greater capacity to handle negative experiences. These findings emphasize the importance of promoting psychological well-being and socio-emotional competencies as protective factors against bullying.

Together, these studies provide a comprehensive understanding of the factors contributing to school bullying and effective strategies for its prevention. Implementing programs like the "Action for Neutralization of Bullying" can effectively reduce bullying. Additionally, evaluating personality traits and promoting covitality are promising approaches for bullying prevention. However, it is crucial to consider the studies' limitations, such as reliance on self-reports and the need for long-term follow-ups, to improve the validity and generalizability of the results.

Implications for educational practice include the need to develop intervention programs that not only directly address bullying behavior but also promote socio-emotional well-being and assess specific personality characteristics. Future research should incorporate longitudinal designs and mixed methods to gain a more complete and accurate understanding of the dynamics of school bullying and the effectiveness of interventions.

Introducción

Acoso escolar

El acoso escolar es un fenómeno social que se refiere a una conducta de agresión y hostigamiento hacia un compañero o compañera de escuela, en el que existe una desigualdad de poder y se produce de manera repetida y sistemática. Aunque hay varias definiciones de acoso escolar en la literatura, las más conocidas y aceptadas son las de Dan Olweus y Peter K. Smith.

Dan Olweus es considerado uno de los pioneros en la investigación sobre el acoso escolar y define el acoso escolar como un comportamiento negativo e intencional por parte de un individuo o grupo, que se dirige de manera repetida y sistemática a otro individuo que se encuentra en una situación de desventaja o vulnerabilidad. Se destaca la importancia de la repetición y la sistematicidad en el acoso escolar, así como el desequilibrio de poder entre el acosador y la víctima (Olweus, 1994).

Por su parte, Peter K. Smith y Sonia Sharp definen el acoso escolar como "un comportamiento negativo e intencional, llevado a cabo por un grupo o un individuo, que se dirige de manera repetitiva a una persona que no puede defenderse fácilmente" (Sharp y Smith, 1994, p. 18). Esta definición destaca tres aspectos fundamentales en la conducta de acoso la intencionalidad del comportamiento, su naturaleza repetitiva y la vulnerabilidad de la víctima frente a estas agresiones. La repetición significa que el comportamiento no es un incidente aislado, sino que ocurre varias veces a lo largo del tiempo. Finalmente, la vulnerabilidad de la víctima resalta la desigualdad de poder, donde la víctima se encuentra en una posición en la que no puede defenderse eficazmente contra el agresor o agresores.

La definición del acoso escolar puede variar dependiendo de la fuente consultada, sin embargo, una de las definiciones más utilizadas y aceptadas a nivel internacional es la que proporciona la UNESCO, que caracteriza el acoso escolar como un comportamiento agresivo que implica acciones negativas no deseadas, se repite en el tiempo y en el que existe un desequilibrio de poder o fuerza entre el agresor o agresores y la víctima (UNESCO, 2017). Este comportamiento puede manifestarse en diversas formas, incluyendo acoso físico, verbal, social y, cada vez más, cibernético debido al uso extendido de dispositivos digitales.

En cuanto a diferentes formas de agresión que se pueden presentar en el acoso escolar se identifican las físicas, las verbales, las relacionales, a veces llamadas también sociales y el acoso a través de internet o ciberacoso (Bosworth et al., 1999; Olweus, 1994; Richardson et al., 2024). El acoso físico incluiría empujones, golpes, patadas, etc. El acoso verbal hace referencia a insultos, amenazas, burlas, etc. El acoso social incluye la exclusión social, la difamación, el rumor y otros comportamientos con el objetivo de dañar las relaciones sociales de la víctima. El ciberacoso incluiría todas las conductas de acoso realizadas mediante el uso de medios digitales (Holt et al., 2015; Reijntjes et al., 2010; Ttofi et al., 2012).

Las dinámicas de acoso escolar son complejas y multifacéticas, y suelen involucrar al menos tres roles: los acosadores, las víctimas y los observadores. Cada uno de estos roles desempeña una función específica en la perpetuación y el mantenimiento del acoso escolar, y entender estas dinámicas es crucial para desarrollar intervenciones efectivas. Es importante destacar que, los papeles de acosador, víctima y observador no siempre están claramente definidos, sino que pueden formar parte de un continuo (Bosworth et al., 1999; Olweus, 1994; Swearer et al., 2001).

Los acosadores son aquellos individuos o grupo de individuos que ejercen la conducta de acoso sobre la víctima. Sus motivaciones pueden variar desde la búsqueda de poder y control hasta la expresión de frustraciones personales. Pueden utilizar diferentes formas de acoso, como el físico, el verbal, el psicológico o el social, con el objetivo de causar daño, intimidar o humillar a la víctima. Suelen tener características como la necesidad de dominar, falta de empatía y habilidades sociales deficientes. En algunos casos ellos mismos puede ser víctimas de violencia en otros contextos, lo que puede influir en su comportamiento agresivo (Moura et al., 2011). Los acosadores pueden actuar individualmente o en grupo, y suelen tener una posición de poder o superioridad sobre la víctima, ya sea real o percibida (Kowalski et al., 2014; Olweus, 1994).

Las víctimas son aquellas personas que sufren la conducta de acoso, y que se encuentran en una posición de desventaja o vulnerabilidad frente a los acosadores, con dificultades para defenderse y una menor capacidad para buscar ayuda. Entre las carteristas de las víctimas pueden incluir la baja autoestima, síntomas de ansiedad, y en algunos casos diferencias visibles que las hacen destacar como la apariencia física, la orientación sexual el rendimiento académico o deportivo entre otros (Gini y Pozzoli, 2009; Holt et al., 2015). Pueden experimentar diferentes formas de acoso, y suelen sufrir daños físicos, psicológicos y/o sociales. Las víctimas pueden ser identificadas por los acosadores como personas diferentes, que no se ajustan a los estándares de grupo o que tienen características que les hacen vulnerables (Fuentes et al., 2020).

Los observadores o testigos son aquellos individuos que presencian la conducta de acoso, pero que no participan activamente en ella. Pueden ser compañeros de clase, amigos, profesores o cualquier otra persona que tenga contacto con la víctima y los acosadores. Aunque los observadores no ejercen la conducta de acoso directamente, su presencia puede tener un impacto importante en el mantenimiento o la reducción del acoso escolar. De hecho, la mayoría de los casos de acoso escolar ocurren en presencia de espectadores (Rigby, 2003).

La conducta de los observadores puede variar, desde la pasividad hasta la ayuda activa a la víctima, y su respuesta puede ser influenciada por diversos factores, como la percepción de riesgo, las normas sociales, el apoyo de los iguales o la empatía hacia la víctima (Salmivalli y Voeten, 2004). Pueden ser considerados cómplices pasivos si no hacen nada para intervenir o informar de la situación (Espelage y Swearer, 2003). El papel que juegan los observadores es por tanto bastante controvertido, pudiendo ser tanto un factor de riesgo como un factor de protección para el acoso escolar. Por un lado, la presencia de observadores pasivos puede reforzar la conducta de acoso y aumentar la sensación de impunidad de los acosadores, incrementado la probabilidad de que la conducta de acoso se repita. Mientras que, en el otro extremo, la intervención activa de los observadores puede llegar a detener la conducta de acoso o al menos reducir la probabilidad de futuras agresiones por miedo a las consecuencias (Pepler et al., 1994; Salmivalli y Nieminen, 2002).

Es importante destacar que los roles de acosadores, víctimas y observadores no son fijos ni inmutables, y pueden cambiar con el tiempo y las circunstancias. Además, las personas pueden desempeñar diferentes roles en diferentes situaciones, lo que hace que el acoso escolar sea un fenómeno complejo y difícil de abordar. En definitiva, el acoso escolar es un fenómeno que involucra diferentes formas de agresión y distintos roles en su dinámica. Es importante tener en cuenta estas definiciones y consideraciones para poder abordar adecuadamente el acoso escolar y prevenir su ocurrencia en las escuelas.

Epidemiología

Prevalencia

El acoso escolar es un fenómeno extendido que afecta a una parte significativa de la población estudiantil. Según un meta-análisis realizado por Reijntjesa et al. (2010), aproximadamente el 10% de los niños experimentan victimización crónica y regular por parte de sus compañeros, lo que subraya la magnitud del problema. Gini y Pozzoli (2009) también informan que una proporción considerable de estudiantes en edad escolar son víctimas de acoso, con tasas que varían según el contexto y la metodología del estudio. Las definiciones y los métodos de medición pueden influir significativamente en las tasas de prevalencia reportadas. Por ejemplo, cambiar el criterio de frecuencia de "semanalmente" a "2-3 veces al mes" aumentó la prevalencia del 1.0% al 3.7% en un estudio (Agervold, 2007).

En los Estados Unidos, una encuesta nacional reportó tasas de victimización por acoso escolar del 22.4% para niños de 6 a 11 años y del 21.0% para adolescentes de 12 a 17 años, con variaciones sustanciales a nivel estatal (Lebrun-Harris et al., 2022). Un estudio a gran escala en Rusia encontró que el 15.3% de los estudiantes de sexto a noveno grado experimentaron acoso escolar, siendo la prevalencia más alta entre los estudiantes de sexto grado (19.4%) y más baja entre los de noveno grado (11.1%). Aunque las tasas generales fueron similares para niños y niñas, los tipos de acoso experimentados diferían según el género (Ivaniushina et al., 2021).

Un estudio más reciente de Biswas et al. (2020) analiza la prevalencia global de la victimización por acoso escolar entre adolescentes de 12 a 17 años en 83 países, utilizando datos de la Encuesta Mundial de Salud Estudiantil (GSHS). Los resultados indican que el 30.5% de los adolescentes han sido víctimas de acoso en al menos un día en los últimos 30 días. La prevalencia más alta se observó en la Región del Mediterráneo Oriental (45.1%) y la Región Africana (43.5%), mientras que la más baja se encontró en Europa (8.4%). Asimismo, Eyuboglu et al. (2021) examinaron la prevalencia y los factores asociados con el acoso escolar, encontrando que aproximadamente el 33% de los estudiantes de primaria y secundaria habían experimentado acoso escolar en el último mes. Los factores asociados incluyeron el género masculino, menor edad y bajos niveles de apoyo parental y de los compañeros.

Además, Modecki et al. (2014) revisaron la prevalencia del acoso tradicional y cibernético entre adolescentes a través de un meta-análisis. Los resultados muestran que la prevalencia del acoso tradicional varía entre el 18% y el 31%, dependiendo del país y el contexto escolar. La prevalencia del ciberacoso fue más baja, con estimaciones que oscilan entre el 7% y el 15%. Por tanto, la literatura indica que las experiencias de acoso varían considerablemente entre los diferentes contextos culturales y educativos, situando la cifra de prevalencia en edad escolar entre un 10% y el 30% de los niños y los adolescentes, aunque estas cifras pueden variar mucho en función de cómo se mide el acoso (Nansel et al., 2001). A pesar de estos datos de prevalencia tan abultados, lo cierto es que las denuncias son mucho menos frecuentes con cifras que van desde el 4.8% al 18.8%

Factores de vulnerabilidad y protección

En los últimos años, ha habido un notable esfuerzo por predecir la ocurrencia del acoso escolar, identificando tanto predictores contextuales como individuales (Cook et al., 2010). Diversos estudios han identificado que los predictores contextuales del acoso escolar incluyen el entorno familiar, el clima escolar, los factores comunitarios, el estatus entre los compañeros y la influencia de los pares. Por otro lado, los predictores individuales abarcan el comportamiento internalizante y externalizante, las cogniciones relacionadas tanto con uno mismo como con los demás, y el rendimiento académico (Eyuboglu et al., 2021; Kowalski et al., 2014; Merrell et al., 2008).

Predictores Contextuales

En un estudio meta-analítico de revisión (Cook et al., 2010) encontraron que la influencia de los pares y los factores comunitarios son los predictores más poderosos para ser acosador. Específicamente, los adolescentes que tienen amigos que también participan en el acoso tienen más probabilidades de convertirse en acosadores ellos mismos. Además, los factores contextuales, como vivir en un barrio con altos niveles de delincuencia o desorganización social, también aumentan la probabilidad de que un niño se convierta en acosador. Por otro lado, el estatus entre los compañeros mostró el mayor tamaño del efecto al predecir la victimización. Los niños que son percibidos negativamente por sus compañeros, o que tienen un bajo estatus social, tienen más probabilidades de ser víctimas de acoso.

Predictores Individuales

En cuanto a los predictores individuales, se ha encontrado que problemas como la baja autoestima, los problemas familiares y las dificultades académicas pueden aumentar la probabilidad de ser víctima de acoso. La baja autoestima puede hacer que los niños sean más vulnerables al acoso, ya que pueden tener menos confianza para defenderse o buscar ayuda. Asimismo, los problemas familiares, como la violencia doméstica o la falta de apoyo parental, incrementan el riesgo de victimización.

Las dificultades académicas también pueden llevar a que los niños sean vistos como diferentes o inferiores por sus compañeros, lo que puede aumentar su riesgo de ser acosados (Kowalski et al., 2014). Adicionalmente, problemas emocionales y sociales, y un entorno escolar poco seguro, donde no se aplican las políticas contra el acoso y los profesores no brindan apoyo adecuado, también aumentan el riesgo de acoso (Merrell et al., 2008).

Según Cook et al. (Cook et al., 2010), los problemas externalizantes, las cogniciones relacionadas con los demás y el bajo rendimiento académico son los predictores más potentes para ser acosador. Los problemas externalizantes incluyen comportamientos como la agresión, la hiperactividad y los problemas de conducta. Las cogniciones relacionadas con los demás se refieren a cómo un individuo percibe y se relaciona con las otras personas, especialmente en términos de empatía y perspectiva.

El bajo rendimiento académico también está asociado con un mayor riesgo de convertirse en acosador, posiblemente debido a la frustración y la baja autoestima resultantes de las dificultades escolares (Kowalski et al., 2014). Para ser víctima, los problemas internalizantes y la falta de competencia social parecen ser los mejores predictores. Los problemas internalizantes incluyen la ansiedad, la depresión y la baja autoestima (Eyuboglu et al., 2021). La falta de competencia social implica dificultades para establecer y mantener relaciones saludables con los compañeros, lo que puede llevar a un aislamiento social y aumentar la vulnerabilidad a ser victimizados por el acoso. Estos estudiantes pueden tener problemas para interpretar y responder adecuadamente a las señales sociales, lo que a su vez puede dificultar la formación de amistades y redes de apoyo, esenciales para protegerse contra el acoso (Cook et al., 2010; Holt et al., 2015; Jiménez-Barbero et al., 2016; Polanin et al., 2012).

El género, la edad y el apoyo parental y de los compañeros también juegan un papel crucial en la predicción del acoso escolar. Los niños más jóvenes y los varones tienen más probabilidades de ser víctimas de acoso. La falta de apoyo de los padres y los compañeros puede dejar a los niños sin los recursos necesarios para defenderse contra el acoso, incrementando su vulnerabilidad (Eyuboglu et al., 2021).

Por otro lado, aunque se ha encontrado una débil asociación entre el bajo estatus socioeconómico y el acoso escolar, esta relación no es lo suficientemente fuerte como para ser utilizada en la formulación de intervenciones, ya que se suelen encontrar acosadores y víctimas en todos los niveles socioeconómicos (Tippett y Wolke, 2014).

Competencias socioemocionales como factores de protección

En el contexto de la prevención del acoso escolar, es fundamental no solo identificar y abordar los factores de vulnerabilidad, sino también resaltar y promover los factores de protección. En oposición a la visión patologicista que se centra exclusivamente en los riesgos y deficiencias, los factores de protección, como las competencias socioemocionales, desempeñan un papel crucial en la resiliencia de los estudiantes frente al acoso. Las competencias socioemocionales desempeñan un papel crucial como factores de protección en el desarrollo de los jóvenes. Estas competencias incluyen habilidades como la autoeficacia, la regulación emocional, la empatía, y el autocontrol, que permiten a los individuos manejar mejor las interacciones sociales y los desafíos emocionales. Según Furlong et al., (2014), las competencias socioemocionales no solo contribuyen al bienestar general de los estudiantes, sino que también actúan como barreras contra comportamientos negativos como el acoso escolar. Los estudiantes con mayores habilidades socioemocionales tienen menos probabilidades de ser víctimas o perpetradores de acoso debido a su capacidad para manejar el estrés y las interacciones conflictivas de manera constructiva (Furlong et al., 2013, 2014; Varela et al., 2024).

El Modelo de Covitalidad

El modelo de covitalidad, desarrollado por Furlong, se refiere a la interacción sinérgica de múltiples competencias psicológicas y sociales que contribuyen al bienestar general de los jóvenes. Este modelo incluye cuatro dimensiones principales: creencia en uno mismo, creencia en los demás, competencia emocional y compromiso con la vida. Cada una de estas dimensiones se compone de subcomponentes específicos, como la autoeficacia, el apoyo de los compañeros, la regulación emocional y el optimismo. La combinación de estos rasgos positivos en el constructo de covitalidad predice niveles más altos de compromiso escolar y comportamiento prosocial en niños de primaria (Wilkins et al., 2015). El modelo de covitalidad ha sido validado a nivel internacional, en muestra con distintos niveles de desarrollo evolutivo y adaptado a diversos contextos culturales, demostrando su relevancia y aplicabilidad en diferentes poblaciones estudiantiles (Furlong et al., 2013, 2014; Iida et al., 2024; Ito et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2016; Telef, 2016; Wang et al., 2017; You et al., 2014).

Relación de la Covitalidad y el Bienestar

La covitalidad ha demostrado ser un predictor significativo del bienestar psicológico y la reducción de síntomas depresivos. Más específicamente, los componentes de la covitalidad, como el compromiso con la vida y la creencia en los demás, parecen ser los predictores más fuertes del bienestar y la reducción de la depresión en adolescentes (Boman et al., 2017; Pennell et al., 2015; Wilkins et al., 2015). Además, los estudiantes con altos niveles de covitalidad reportan menores niveles de soledad y mayores niveles de bienestar subjetivo, incluso en presencia de experiencias negativas como la victimización (Wang et al., 2021). Estos hallazgos subrayan la importancia de promover la covitalidad en las escuelas para mejorar la salud mental y el bienestar de los estudiantes (Lebrun-Harris et al., 2022; Pennell et al., 2015; Renshaw y Bolognino, 2016).

Competencias Socioemocionales como Factores de Protección en el Acoso
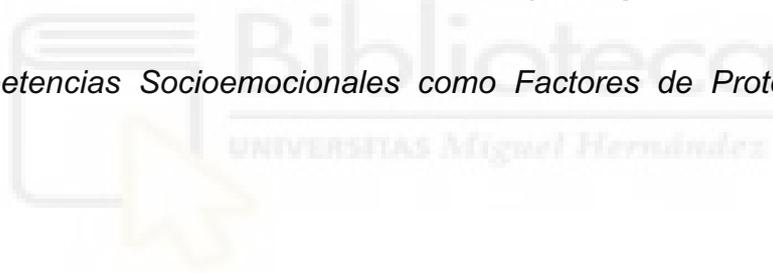
Las competencias socioemocionales no solo mejoran el bienestar general, sino que también actúan como factores protectores específicos contra el acoso escolar. Los estudiantes con mayores habilidades socioemocionales tienen menos probabilidades de ser víctimas o perpetradores de acoso. Esto se debe a que estas competencias permiten a los estudiantes manejar mejor el estrés y las interacciones sociales negativas. Además, puede mitigar los efectos negativos de la victimización, reduciendo la soledad y mejorando el bienestar emocional de los estudiantes que han experimentado acoso (Furlong et al., 2014; You et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2022). Estos hallazgos ponen de manifiesto la importancia de incorporar el desarrollo de competencias socioemocionales en los programas de prevención del acoso escolar (Larson, 2021; Varela et al., 2024).

Acoso y rasgos de personalidad

La investigación sobre el acoso y la personalidad ha revelado asociaciones significativas entre ciertos rasgos de personalidad y los comportamientos de acoso. Las personas con niveles más bajos de amabilidad y responsabilidad, y niveles más altos de neuroticismo y extraversión, son más propensas a participar en comportamientos de acoso (Mintert y Tran, 2020; Wilson y Nagy, 2017). La impulsividad se ha vinculado tanto con la victimización como con la perpetración del acoso entre adolescentes (Kelly et al., 2017). Estudios en el lugar de trabajo han demostrado que la responsabilidad puede proteger contra la victimización, mientras que el neuroticismo aumenta el riesgo (Nielsen y Knardahl, 2015; Wilson y Nagy, 2017).

Es interesante notar que las experiencias de acoso también pueden influir en los rasgos de personalidad con el tiempo, ya que la victimización se asocia con cambios en la amabilidad, la responsabilidad y la apertura a la experiencia (Nielsen y Knardahl, 2015). Los rasgos de la tríada oscura (i.e., narcisismo, maquiavelismo y psicopatía) también se han relacionado con un aumento en los comportamientos de acoso (Mintert y Tran, 2020). Estos hallazgos sugieren que las evaluaciones de personalidad podrían ser valiosas en los esfuerzos de prevención del acoso (Wilson y Nagy, 2017; Kelly et al., 2018).

Consecuencias del acoso escolar

El acoso escolar no solo afecta a las víctimas, sino que también tiene repercusiones significativas para los acosadores y los observadores. Cada grupo experimenta diferentes tipos de consecuencias y con distintos niveles de impacto. Mientras que las víctimas sufren principalmente efectos negativos en su salud mental y bienestar emocional, los acosadores también enfrentan riesgos importantes, como problemas de salud mental y comportamientos autodestructivos. Por su parte, los observadores, aunque no están directamente involucrados, pueden experimentar sentimientos de impotencia, culpa y miedo, lo que puede afectar su bienestar emocional y contribuir a un ambiente escolar negativo. La participación en el acoso ya sea como acosador, víctima o ambos, se asoció significativamente con resultados negativos en la salud mental y una mayor frecuencia de comportamientos autolesivos.

Los acosadores, al igual que las víctimas, enfrentan consecuencias negativas significativas para su salud mental. Estas incluyen una mayor prevalencia de problemas de ansiedad, depresión, dificultades psicosociales y comportamientos autolesivos. Además, se observó una relación dosis-respuesta entre la frecuencia del acoso y los problemas de salud mental, indicando que una mayor frecuencia de participación en el acoso se asocia con peores resultados en términos de salud mental (Eyuboglu et al., 2021).

Ser testigo de acoso puede llevar a sentimientos de impotencia, culpa y miedo, lo que puede afectar negativamente su bienestar emocional y psicológico. Los observadores pueden sentir miedo de convertirse ellos mismos en víctimas o pueden experimentar estrés al no saber cómo intervenir de manera segura y efectiva. Además, ser testigo regular de comportamientos agresivos puede normalizar la violencia y la intimidación, contribuyendo a un ambiente escolar negativo general. Estos efectos subrayan la importancia de involucrar a los observadores en las estrategias de intervención y de proporcionarles herramientas para actuar de manera efectiva y segura cuando presencian acoso (Eyuboglu et al., 2021).

El acoso escolar tiene consecuencias profundas y duraderas en la vida de las víctimas, afectando su bienestar psicológico, emocional y social. Las víctimas pueden experimentar graves problemas psicológicos como depresión, ansiedad y, en casos extremos, pensamientos suicidas (Kowalski et al., 2014). Además, el acoso escolar está asociado con una disminución en el rendimiento académico y una mayor propensión a conductas autodestructivas (Polanin et al., 2012).

A largo plazo, el acoso escolar tiene un impacto negativo en la salud mental de las víctimas, incluyendo la persistencia de problemas como la depresión y la ansiedad, afectando su integración social y desempeño académico (Holt et al., 2015). Las víctimas también tienden a experimentar problemas psicosomáticos como dolores de cabeza, dolor de estómago y dificultades para dormir, reflejo de los elevados niveles de estrés (Gini y Pozzoli, 2009).

La victimización por pares está estrechamente relacionada con problemas internalizantes significativos, como depresión y ansiedad, que pueden persistir y afectar la salud mental a largo plazo (Reijntjes et al., 2010). Por otro lado, parece que la exposición prolongada al acoso escolar puede llevar a una disminución significativa en la autoestima y aumentar el riesgo de aislamiento social, exacerbando los problemas de salud mental a largo plazo y aumentado el riesgo de suicidio (Richardson et al., 2024).

Finalmente, la investigación ha demostrado que la perpetración del acoso escolar es un predictor significativo de violencia futura, lo que subraya la importancia de abordar este comportamiento temprano para prevenir futuras conductas violentas. La victimización escolar también predice un aumento en la violencia futura, aunque en menor medida (Ttofi et al., 2012).

Programas anti-acoso

La implementación de programas de prevención del acoso escolar ha demostrado ser una estrategia clave para mitigar el impacto del acoso y mejorar el ambiente escolar. A lo largo de los años, diversos programas han sido desarrollados y evaluados, mostrando variaciones en su efectividad dependiendo de sus componentes, duración y enfoque (Jiménez-Barbero et al., 2016). A continuación, se presentan algunos de los programas más relevantes, destacando sus componentes, tiempo de implementación, número de sesiones y los tamaños del efecto al finalizar el programa y durante el seguimiento. Estos programas incluyen KiVa, Olweus, Steps to Respect, Second Step y Friendly Schools, cada uno con enfoques específicos y resultados de eficacia que proporcionan valiosas lecciones para futuras intervenciones en la prevención del acoso escolar (Gaffney et al., 2021).

Programa KiVa

El programa KiVa (Salmivalli et al., 2011) es uno de los más reconocidos a nivel internacional. Diseñado en Finlandia, se implementa durante un año escolar e incluye 20 lecciones distribuidas en tres unidades, dirigidas a estudiantes de primaria y secundaria. Los componentes incluyen lecciones en el aula, juegos en línea y capacitación para los docentes. El tamaño del efecto reportado al final de la intervención fue de 0.33 para la reducción de la victimización y de 0.25 para la reducción de la perpetración de acoso. Los efectos se mantuvieron estables durante un seguimiento de un año (Jiménez-Barbero et al., 2016; Polanin et al., 2012).

Programa Olweus

El Programa contra el Acoso Escolar de Olweus (OBPP; 1994) es uno de los programas más antiguos y ampliamente utilizados. Se implementa durante un año escolar completo y consta de reuniones semanales en el aula, formación para el personal y reuniones con padres. Los componentes clave incluyen el establecimiento de normas claras contra el acoso y la formación en habilidades de intervención para los estudiantes. Los tamaños del efecto informados al final de la intervención fueron de .21 para la reducción de la victimización y de .17 para la reducción de la perpetración. Los efectos se mantuvieron, aunque ligeramente disminuidos, en el seguimiento de dos años (Jiménez-Barbero et al., 2016).

Programa Steps to Respect

El programa *Steps to Respect* (Frey et al., 2005) está diseñado para estudiantes de primaria y se implementa durante cinco meses, con sesiones semanales de 60 minutos. Los componentes incluyen lecciones sobre habilidades socioemocionales, resolución de conflictos y actividades de intervención del espectador. Los estudios han mostrado un tamaño del efecto de .24 para la reducción de la victimización y de .19 para la reducción de la perpetración al final del programa. Estos efectos se mantuvieron, aunque disminuidos, en un seguimiento de un año (Jiménez-Barbero et al., 2016)

Programa Second Step

El programa *Second Step* (Dell et al., 2006) es una intervención basada en el aula que abarca tanto la prevención del acoso escolar como la promoción de habilidades sociales y emocionales. Se implementa durante un año escolar con sesiones semanales de 50 minutos. Los componentes incluyen lecciones sobre empatía, control de impulsos y manejo de la ira. Los tamaños del efecto informados fueron de .27 para la reducción de la victimización y de .22 para la reducción de la perpetración. Los efectos se mantuvieron moderadamente en el seguimiento de seis meses (Gaffney et al., 2021).

Programa Friendly Schools

El programa *Friendly Schools* (Cross et al., 2011) se centra en la prevención del acoso escolar a través de la creación de un entorno escolar positivo y de apoyo. Se implementa durante un año escolar e incluye capacitación para el personal, actividades de participación comunitaria y lecciones en el aula. Los estudios han mostrado un tamaño del efecto de .30 para la reducción de la victimización y de .26 para la reducción de la perpetración al final del programa. Los efectos se mantuvieron estables en un seguimiento de un año (Chen et al., 2023).

Componentes más eficaces de los programas

Numerosos estudios han evaluado la eficacia de los programas de prevención del acoso escolar, mostrando que diversas intervenciones pueden tener impactos positivos significativos. Aunque la mayoría de los programas anti-acoso tienen un impacto positivo, los efectos suelen ser modestos, siendo más efectivos aquellos que combinan componentes psicosociales y capacitación para los docentes (Jiménez-Barbero et al., 2016). Las intervenciones de menos de un año escolar y dirigidas a niños menores de 10 años tienen un mayor impacto en la reducción del acoso y la victimización. Los programas que combinan componentes psicosociales y la capacitación para los docentes son especialmente efectivos para mejorar el clima escolar y reducir la frecuencia del acoso (Jiménez-Barbero et al., 2016).

Centrarse en el comportamiento de intervención de los observadores es crucial, ya que programas que promueven la intervención de los espectadores pueden aumentar significativamente la probabilidad de que estos intervengan en situaciones de acoso, reduciendo la victimización en más del 50% de las ocasiones (Polanin et al., 2012). Esta misma revisión meta-analítica ha destacado que los programas que no abordan específicamente el comportamiento de los observadores tienden a ser menos efectivos en contextos donde la cultura escolar no fomenta la intervención activa de los compañeros. Los estudios mostraron que los programas que enfatizan la intervención de los espectadores son significativamente más exitosos en reducir la victimización cuando los estudiantes se sienten empoderados para intervenir (Polanin et al., 2012).

Las intervenciones que involucrar a la comunidad y al entorno escolar en la prevención del acoso, incluyendo a padres y profesores en la implementación de políticas claras, también muestra resultados positivos en la reducción de la incidencia del acoso escolar (Heyeres et al., 2020). Los programas de intervención más efectivos son aquellos que abordan múltiples niveles, incluyendo el nivel individual, de pares, escolar y comunitario, fortaleciendo el apoyo y las habilidades de las víctimas y observadores (Merrell et al., 2008). Las intervenciones educativas que incluyen formación en habilidades sociales, desarrollo emocional y uso seguro de internet son efectivas para reducir la incidencia de acoso y ciberacoso, promoviendo un ambiente escolar más positivo y seguro (Ng et al., 2020). Los programas que incluyen componentes de formación emocional y desarrollo de habilidades de afrontamiento son efectivos para reducir tanto la victimización como la perpetración del acoso, ayudando a los estudiantes a manejar mejor sus emociones y a desarrollar relaciones más saludables (Yeager et al., 2015).

Adaptación al contexto

Sin embargo, a pesar de lo esperanzador de estos datos, lo cierto es que los programas de prevención del acoso escolar no siempre funcionan igual de bien en todos los contextos educativos y requieren adaptaciones significativas para ser efectivos en diferentes entornos sociales y culturales. La heterogeneidad en los resultados de los estudios sugiere que los contextos locales juegan un papel crucial en la eficacia de estos programas. Es decir que, aunque los programas de prevención del acoso escolar muestran resultados beneficiosos, estos son moderados y a menudo discretos. Además, los programas que se implementan en contextos sociales y culturales variados pueden necesitar adaptaciones para abordar las especificidades de cada entorno, como las normas culturales, el clima escolar y las dinámicas familiares (Jiménez-Barbero et al., 2016). En esta misma línea, Ttofi et al. (2012) señalaron que las intervenciones deben adaptarse para ser culturalmente sensibles y relevantes. Las diferencias en la estructura familiar, las normas comunitarias y las expectativas escolares pueden influir en la forma en que los estudiantes responden a las intervenciones. Por lo tanto, la adaptación cultural y contextual de los programas es esencial para maximizar su efectividad (Polanin et al., 2012).

En conclusión, la efectividad de los programas de prevención del acoso escolar depende en gran medida de su capacidad para adaptarse a las características únicas de los contextos educativos en los que se implementan. Los programas deben ser flexibles y culturalmente sensibles para abordar eficazmente el acoso escolar en diferentes entornos sociales (Jiménez-Barbero et al., 2016; Polanin et al., 2012).

Retos de investigación en acoso escolar

La investigación sobre el acoso escolar ha avanzado significativamente en las últimas décadas, proporcionando una comprensión más profunda de sus dinámicas, causas y consecuencias. Sin embargo, aún existen varios retos que deben ser abordados para mejorar la efectividad de las intervenciones y las políticas educativas.

Las competencias socioemocionales, como la autoeficacia, la regulación emocional y la empatía, no solo mejoran el bienestar general, sino que también actúan como barreras contra el acoso escolar (Furlong et al., 2014). El modelo de covitalidad, que integra múltiples competencias psicológicas y sociales, ha demostrado ser un predictor significativo del bienestar psicológico y la reducción de la depresión y la soledad en estudiantes (Boman et al., 2017; Ito et al., 2015). Incorporar estos enfoques en los programas de prevención podría aumentar su eficacia, pero se requiere más investigación para entender cómo implementarlos mejor en diferentes contextos educativos.

Estudios meta-analíticos han concluido que la mayoría de los programas evaluados hasta la fecha no han producido resultados significativos en las medidas de victimización y acoso autoinformados, y, aunque algunos de estos programas muestran un tamaño del efecto leve (r = .12; Vos et al., 2015), este no alcanza el umbral adoptado para la significancia práctica. Además, estos resultados parecen estar influenciados por el sesgo de publicación por lo que la estimación podría estar sobredimensionada (Jiménez-Barbero et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2004). En este sentido, los estudios incican que los programas que enfatizan la intervención de los espectadores son significativamente más exitosos en reducir la victimización cuando se sienten empoderados para intervenir (Polanin et al., 2012).

Incorporar en un programa de intervención la perspectiva de los observadores, especialmente aquellos que ostentan poder como los profesores, puede contribuir significativamente a la eficacia del programa. Los observadores juegan un papel crucial en la dinámica del acoso escolar, y su participación activa y comprometida es esencial para el éxito de las intervenciones. Desde la perspectiva motivacional hacia el profesorado, y considerando la teoría de la motivación autodeterminada de Ryan y Deci, satisfacer las necesidades psicológicas básicas de autonomía, competencia y relación facilitaría la implementación de los programas (Ryan y Deci, 2000b). Por ejemplo, permitir que los profesores tengan la libertad de desarrollar los materiales del programa de intervención o elegir las dinámicas que utilizarán para abordar ciertas sesiones, puede promover su percepción de autonomía y competencia. Cuando los profesores sienten que tienen el control y la capacidad para manejar situaciones de acoso (autonomía), están seguros de sus habilidades para intervenir eficazmente (competencia) y experimentan un sentido de conexión con sus estudiantes y colegas (relación), es más probable que se involucren de manera activa y efectiva en la prevención y respuesta al acoso escolar (Ryan y Deci, 2000a). La investigación ha demostrado que los contextos de enseñanza que apoyan la autonomía están relacionados con una mayor internalización de los valores prosociales y una menor incidencia de acoso (Roth y Bibi, 2009). Además, los estudios indican que la implementación de prácticas de apoyo a la autonomía por parte de los profesores puede reducir el acoso al fomentar una identificación más profunda con los valores prosociales (Roth et al., 2011). El comportamiento controlador percibido de los profesores está negativamente

relacionado con la satisfacción de las necesidades de autonomía, competencia y relación de los estudiantes, lo que a su vez se asocia con mayores niveles de acoso escolar (Hein et al., 2015). Asimismo, los estudiantes que perciben un mayor apoyo a la autonomía están más motivados intrínsecamente para defender a sus compañeros, lo que se traduce en una mayor frecuencia de comportamientos de defensa (Jungert et al., 2016; Longobardi et al., 2020). Por lo tanto, diseñar programas que consideren y apoyen estas necesidades psicológicas básicas puede aumentar la motivación intrínseca de los profesores para participar y contribuir al éxito del programa (Longobardi et al., 2020; Roth et al., 2011; Roth y Bibi, 2009; Ryan y Deci, 2000b).

Objetivos

El objetivo general de esta tesis ha sido analizar y evaluar factores que influyen en la dinámica del acoso escolar en niños, el desarrollo e implementación de un programa anti acoso y la evaluación de su eficacia. Esto incluye:

Evaluar la Eficacia de Programas de Intervención: Determinar el impacto del programa "Action for Neutralization of Bullying" en la reducción del acoso escolar y en la mejora del clima escolar y el bienestar emocional de los estudiantes.

Investigar la Influencia de Rasgos de Personalidad: Examinar cómo los rasgos de personalidad de la tétrada oscura (narcisismo, maquiavelismo, psicopatía y sadismo) afectan la victimización y perpetración en situaciones de acoso escolar.

Evaluar la Covitalidad y su Relación con el Acoso Escolar: Explorar la covitalidad en niños de primaria y cómo ésta combina el bienestar psicológico y las fortalezas socioemocionales para actuar como factor de protección contra el acoso escolar.

Al integrar estos enfoques, esta tesis busca proporcionar una comprensión holística de los mecanismos y factores que pueden ser utilizados para desarrollar y mejorar programas de prevención e intervención contra el acoso escolar.

Los objetivos específicos que se plantean en la presente tesis han sido:

Objetivos del estudio 1

Evaluar los efectos del programa "Action for Neutralization of Bullying" en la reducción del acoso escolar entre los escolares españoles.

Analizar la eficacia del programa en diferentes dimensiones del acoso escolar, incluyendo la victimización y la perpetración.

Determinar el impacto del programa en la percepción de los estudiantes sobre el clima escolar y su bienestar emocional.

Objetivos de estudio 2

Examinar la relación entre los rasgos de personalidad de la tétrada oscura (narcisismo, maquiavelismo, psicopatía y sadismo) y la victimización por acoso escolar.

Analizar cómo estos rasgos de personalidad influyen en la dinámica del acoso escolar, tanto en el rol de víctima como de perpetrador.

Investigar si existen diferencias significativas en la prevalencia de estos rasgos entre los estudiantes que participan en situaciones de acoso y aquellos que no lo hacen.

Objetivos del estudio 3

Evaluar la covitalidad (una combinación de bienestar psicológico y fortalezas socioemocionales) en niños de primaria en España.

Investigar la relación entre la covitalidad y la incidencia de acoso escolar entre los estudiantes de primaria.

Identificar los factores de protección que la covitalidad proporciona contra el acoso escolar y cómo puede ser utilizada en programas de prevención e intervención.

Método

Participantes

Los tres estudios involucraron a estudiantes de educación primaria y secundaria. En total, participaron aproximadamente 750 estudiantes de diversas escuelas públicas y privadas, con edades comprendidas entre los 8 y los 16 años. La muestra fue seleccionada por conveniencia de los centros que aceptaron participar en el proyecto aprobado por Conselleria de Educación.

Procedimiento

Estudio 1: Evaluación del Programa "Action for Neutralization of Bullying"

Diseño: Se utilizó un diseño cuasi-experimental con grupo de intervención.

Intervención: El programa "Action for Neutralization of Bullying" se implementó durante dos meses, con sesiones semanales de 1 hora.

Medición: Se administraron cuestionarios antes de aplicar el programa, al concluir y tres meses después de la intervención para evaluar la frecuencia de acoso escolar, la percepción del clima escolar y el bienestar emocional de los estudiantes.

Estudio 2: Influencia de los Rasgos de Personalidad de la Tétrada Oscura

Diseño: Estudio correlacional transversal.

Medición: Se utilizaron cuestionarios estandarizados para evaluar los rasgos de personalidad de la tétrada oscura (narcisismo, maquiavelismo, psicopatía y sadismo) y la victimización por acoso escolar.

Procedimiento: Los cuestionarios fueron administrados durante el horario escolar y se garantizó la confidencialidad de las respuestas.

Estudio 3: Evaluación de la Covitalidad y su Relación con el Acoso Escolar

Diseño: Estudio transversal.

Medición: Se administraron cuestionarios para evaluar la covitalidad, que incluye medidas de bienestar psicológico y fortalezas socioemocionales, y la incidencia de acoso escolar.

Procedimiento: Los cuestionarios fueron distribuidos y completados en el aula bajo la supervisión de los investigadores y los profesores, asegurando un ambiente controlado para la recolección de datos.

Instrumentos

Cuestionarios de Acoso Escolar: Se aplicó el Cuestionario de Acoso entre Iguales (CAI), construido y validado para la población española, este cuestionario evalúa la frecuencia y tipo de acoso.

Cuestionarios de Personalidad: Instrumentos estandarizados como el Inventario de Personalidad para la Tétrada Oscura (Short Dark Triad; SD3) para evaluar los rasgos de narcisismo, maquiavelismo y psicopatía, complementados con medidas específicas para el sadismo (Assement of Sadistic Personality; ASP).

Cuestionarios de Covitalidad: Basados en el Social Emotional Health Survey (SEHS) para evaluar las fortalezas socioemocionales y el bienestar psicológico.

TEique: El TEique (Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire) fue utilizado para medir la inteligencia emocional rasgo, proporcionando información sobre la capacidad de los estudiantes para reconocer, entender y gestionar sus emociones.

SENA: El Sistema de Evaluación de Niños y Adolescentes (SENA) fue empleado para evaluar diversos aspectos del comportamiento, las emociones y el funcionamiento social y académico de los estudiantes.

Análisis de Datos

Se emplearon técnicas de análisis estadístico adecuadas para cada tipo de estudio:

Estudio 1: Análisis de varianza (ANOVA) para evaluar las diferencias pre, post y seguimiento de la intervención.

Estudio 2: Correlaciones de Pearson y modelos de regresión lineal para examinar las relaciones entre los rasgos de personalidad y la victimización por acoso escolar.

Estudio 3: Análisis Factorial Confirmatorio para valorar la bondad de ajuste del modelo factorial; Análisis de correlación y regresión múltiple para investigar la relación entre la covitalidad y la incidencia de acoso escolar, controlado por variables sociodemográficas.

Consideraciones Éticas

Todos los estudios cumplieron con los estándares éticos internacionales para la investigación con seres humanos. Se obtuvo el consentimiento informado de los centros educativos, los padres o tutores y de los estudiantes. Los datos se trataron de forma confidencial y anónima, y se garantizó el derecho de los participantes a retirarse del estudio en cualquier momento sin repercusiones. Todos los procedimientos fueron aprobados por el Comité de Ética de la Universidad Miguel Hernández de Elche con número de referencia ADH.DES.JPR.AMM.23.

Estudio 1

Article

Effects of the Action for Neutralization of Bullying Program on Bullying in Spanish Schoolchildren

Ana Martínez-Martínez, David Pineda * , **Manuel Galán** , **Juan C. Marzo** and **José A. Piqueras**

Department of Health Psychology, Faculty of Social and Health Sciences, Forensic Psychology Unit, Center for Applied Psychology, Campus of Elche, Miguel Hernandez University (UMH), 03202 Elche, Spain; ana.martinezm@umh.es (A.M.-M.); galanmorillomanuel@gmail.com (M.G.); jc.marzo@umh.es (J.C.M.); jpiqueras@umh.es (J.A.P.)

* Correspondence: dpineda@umh.es; Tel.: +34-965-222-293

Abstract: Bullying can have serious physical and emotional consequences. In recent years, interest in this phenomenon has been growing, becoming a public health problem in the first world. The aim of this study was to evaluate the effects of the Action for Neutralization of Bullying Program (ANA) in Spanish children. This study used a quasi-experimental design that included a pre-test evaluation, 2 months of intervention, a post-test, and 3 months of follow-up. A sample of 330 children aged 7–12 years (M = 9.27; SD = 1.09) from third to sixth grade participated in the study. One hundred and fifty-nine were girls (48.2%). The program consisted of eight group sessions in which empathy, assertiveness, communication skills, conflict resolution, and group cohesion were worked on. The results showed statistically significant reductions in verbal abuse behaviors ($t = 4.76$, $p < 0.001$), direct social exclusion ($t = 3.53$, $p < 0.001$), threats ($t = 2.04$, $p = 0.042$), aggression with objects ($t = 3.21$, $p < 0.001$), and physical abuse ($t = 4.41$, $p < 0.001$). The differences were not statistically significant for indirect social exclusion behaviors ($t = 1.86$, $p = 0.065$) or cyberbullying ($t = 0.31$, $p = 0.756$). The effects in the reduction of the bullying behaviors decreased after the implementation of the program, achieving even greater reduction in victimization behaviors after 3 months than immediately after the end of the program. These results indicate that the ANA program is effective in reducing bullying behaviors in a group of children. Implications for practice and future research are discussed.

Keywords: bullying; schoolchildren; bullying program; effectiveness evaluation

1. Introduction

Bullying has been defined as a distinct type of aggression characterized by repeated and systematic abuse of power [1,2]. This abuse can include physical, verbal, and relational violence, and cyberbullying [3]. In the dynamics of bullying, at least three roles have been identified: bully (i.e., a person who actively perpetrates the physical and/or psychological harassment against the victim), victim (i.e., a person who is physically or/and psychologically harmed and who suffers by being continuedly intimidated), and observer or bystander (i.e., a person who passively witnesses and who can have some influence in the bullying behaviors). These roles are not always distinct from one another, as they tend to be more of a continuum rather than three separate categories [1,4–6]. However, bullying is an extremely harmful aggressive behavior that can begin in early childhood and continue over time throughout the school years [7]. Research suggests that between 10% and 30% of children and youth are involved in bullying, although prevalence rates vary significantly depending on how the bullying is measured and by gender [7–9].

1.1. Effects of Bullying on Well-Being and Health

Acknowledging and knowing the effects of bullying is vital to understand the necessity to implement programs to prevent it from happening. Bullying is a detrimental factor against mental health and well-being at physical, mental, and social-emotional levels in

children [10,11]. Children who are bullied can be affected by it in later stages of life, such as adolescence and adulthood [10,12]. The social-emotional consequences suffered by victims of bullying can be divided into internalizing and externalizing problems [11,13]. Among the internalizing problems suffered by victims of bullying, depressive symptoms, anxiety, and feelings of loneliness can lead to suicidal thoughts and behaviors [13–15]. Externalizing problems include aggressive behavior or conduct disorders, substance abuse, or self-injurious behaviors, among others [11,16]. It is very important to note that some of these negative consequences of bullying not only arise in those who are victims of bullying, but also in those who commit it, with even higher prevalence rates observed in minors who both bully and are bullied by others [16].

1.2. Anticipating Bullying

In recent years, there has been growing awareness of the need to anticipate the occurrence of this type of school violence. Many studies have focused on identifying the important contextual and individual factors [17]. Some important contextual factors are family environment, school climate, community, peer status, and peer influence, and some important individual factors are internalized and externalized behavior, cognitions, and academic performance. Special attention must be given to the contextual factors, and it has been proposed that the most powerful factors for bullying are parental and peer influences, as well as community factors. This contextual aspect relies on the fact that previous research has shown how antisocial behaviors (including bullying) are enhanced by a context with pro-criminal attitudes that has developed some degree of tolerance to these delinquent behaviors. Thus, due to this normalization, this lifestyle remains [6,17,18].

On the other hand, peer status has been found to have the greatest effect size as a risk factor for bullying victimization. In terms of the individual factors, for bullies, it has been found that externalized problems, related cognitions, and low academic performance are the most powerful risk factors for bullying perpetration. However, for victims, internalized problems and lack of social competence appear to be the strongest risk factors [17]. Socioemotional competencies are defined as the set of knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to understand, express, and appropriately regulate emotional phenomena [19]. Deficiencies in these social-emotional competencies are closely related to aggressive bullying behaviors [10,20].

1.3. Effectiveness of Anti-Bullying Programs in Schools

Much of the meta-analytical work has not been particularly optimistic about the results offered by previous intervention programs, concluding that the effect sizes of the interventions are generally small or very small [21,22]. Some of these effect sizes fall short of clinical significance ($r = 0.12$) for self-reported victimization and bullying measures [23]. Furthermore, this measure may be influenced by publication bias, that is, the tendency of journals and researchers to publish only statistically significant results, so the size of the expected effect for these programs may be even smaller [24,25]. The main problems encountered in the effectiveness of these programs have been related to their implementation. Specifically, students have doubts about the credibility of a program when those who present it are external to the context of the situation. Another relevant factor is the fact that the people in charge of the program's implementation will be in the center for a limited time, which means that many episodes of bullying will not be detected or will not have a response, or the response will not be fast enough [26]. This greatly affects student engagement in the project and, therefore, its effectiveness.

1.4. The Action for Neutralization of Bullying Program

The Action for Neutralization of Bullying program (ANA, for its Spanish acronym: *Acción para la Neutralización del Acoso*) applies components that have been shown to be effective in previous research; specifically, it promotes the development of empathy [27], assertiveness [28], communication skills [29], conflict resolution [30], group cohesion [31],

and values in favor of coexistence and nonviolence [32]. This intervention was developed by the authors and is based on previous theoretical and research work. As a whole, the program's components focus on changing attitudes toward violence and promoting the development of values that support coexistence. The program tries to solve the implementation problems reported by previous studies, giving special weight to observers, with special emphasis on observers who maintain a certain degree of authority in the school and who interact with the children, such as the educational community (teachers, administration, and service workers). This special weight given to the observers relies on the fact that they are the ones constantly in contact with the children and consequently the ones that might be able not only to apply the program effectively over the years or the different generations, but also to maintain it. Moreover, this role given to the observers offers the possibility to, albeit following the program, adapt it to specific necessities of the children [33]. The intervention applied in this study consisted of eight group sessions delivered over two months and was aimed mainly at mobilizing the observers. Three training sessions were held for the educational community and two were held for the parents. Both trainings were conducted before the start of the children's training program. In both cases, the objective was to present the training program to be carried out with the children, to explain the measures that would be taken and to ask for their collaboration in condemning violence in any of its manifestations. Children were not allowed to attend these sessions. The sessions were organized as follows:

Session 1. Theme: Psychoeducation. Activities: Introduction to the program, guidelines and norms, definition of bullying, agents involved in bullying, the dynamics of bullying, recognizing bullying situations (group dynamics), and thought and closure.

Session 2. Theme: Empathy. Activities: What empathy is and what it is for, how would I feel if..., identifying emotions (group dynamics), and thought and closure.

Session 3. Theme: Empathy. Activities: summary of the previous session, identifying situations (group dynamics), I congratulate my classmates (group dynamics), and thought and closure.

Session 4. Theme: Assertiveness. Activities: what is assertiveness? What is assertiveness good for? What happens if I am not assertive? I am assertive, I control what happens to me, I congratulate my classmates (group dynamics), and thought and closure.

Session 5. Theme: Communication skills. Activities: What are communication styles? Practicing assertive communication (role paying): eye contact, volume and tone of voice, verbal fluency, posture, gestures, and verbal content of the message. I congratulate my classmates (group dynamics) and thought and closure.

Session 6. Theme: Conflict resolution. Activities: What is a problem? Solving problems, the 5-step method (clarify the problem, look for solutions, evaluate each solution, choose the best solution, and implement the chosen solution), practice classroom situations 1 (role playing), I congratulate my classmates (group dynamics), and thought and closure.

Session 7. Theme: Conflict resolution. Activities: Remembering the 5-step troubleshooting, "Brave people wanted!" (group dynamics), practice classroom situations 2, 3, 4, and 5 (role playing), I congratulate my classmates (group dynamics), to prevent bullying, we expect you to "be brave", and thought and closure.

Session 8. Theme: Group cohesion. Activities: The ball of wool (group dynamics), revision of topics worked on throughout the program, and thought and closure.

1.5. Objectives and Hypotheses

This study aimed to evaluate the effects of the ANA program in a sample of Spanish children. Its hypotheses were as follows: (I) the implementation of the program would reduce the bullying behaviors perceived by the victims, (II) the active involvement of teachers in the implementation of the program would help to maintain the results in the long term, (III) the implementation of the program would improve the social-emotional competencies of the participants, and finally, (IV) the implementation of the program would improve the general welfare of the participants.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Design

This study used a quasi-experimental design and included a pre-test evaluation, 2 months of intervention, a post-test, and 3 months of follow-up. The sample was selected by convenience. Given that the application of the program in its entirety, including follow-up, covered a complete academic year, it was not possible to establish a control group (waiting list) because it would mean that this group would not eventually receive the treatment.

2.2. Ethical Concerns

This study was approved by the Bioethics Commission of the University Miguel Hernandez of Elche. The program was presented to the educational center and obtained approval from the center's administrators. The center obtained informed consent from the parents. At the end of the study, the results were presented to the center's administrators and to the teachers, children, and parents.

2.3. Participants and Procedure

A total of 330 children aged 7–12 years (*M* = 9.27; *SD* = 1.09) from third to sixth grade participated in the study: 159 were girls (48.2%) and 171 were boys (51.8%). Participants were recruited from a school located at Elche. Socioeconomic status of the school students (obtained at a different time point) is rated between intermediate and high according to the Family Affluence Scale (FAS [34]) and between medium and mid–high in the Hollingshead Four-Factor Index of Socioeconomic Status (SES [35]) Data were collected at three time points: prior to the application of the ANA program, at the end of the program, and at the 3-month follow-up. The program was carried out for 2 months.

2.4. Instruments

To assess the program's effectiveness in reducing bullying behavior, the self-reported Peer Bullying Questionnaire was used [36]. Although the Peer Bullying Questionnaire includes several scales that assess different aspects of bullying among peers, this study only used the scale related to bullying behavior. That scale consists of 39 items on the various forms of bullying that the child or youth might have experienced from their peers. The scale separately evaluates the following forms of peer bullying: verbal abuse (11 items, e.g., "I am insulted by other children"), direct social exclusion (5 items, e.g., "They tell others not to be or not to talk with me"), threats (4 items, e.g., "They threaten to beat me"), cyberbullying (4 items, e.g., "When I chat with other children, they mess with me"), indirect social exclusion (4 items, e.g., "They forbid others to play with me"), object-based aggression (3 items, e.g., "They throw things at me (class objects, paper balls, rocks, etc.)"), and physical abuse (8 items, e.g., "They pull my hair"). Answers are based on a three-point frequency scale that ranges from 0 ("Never") to 2 ("Many times"). The scale has demonstrated adequate psychometric properties in past research [36]. In the present sample, the following Cronbach's alpha coefficients were obtained: 0.84 for verbal abuse, 0.72 for direct social exclusion, 0.57 for threats, 0.62 for cyberbullying, 0.61 for indirect social exclusion, 0.50 for object-based aggression, and 0.79 for physical abuse, showing values very similar to those previously reported by the authors [36].

To assess the extent to which the application of the program can improve participants' social-emotional competencies, the Spanish version of the Social Emotional Health Survey-Primary-Revised was applied [37,38]. The scale is a self-reported, 29-item instrument with 6-point Likert scale responses ranging from 1 ("no") to 6 ("always"). The scale measures five areas related to youth well-being and school participation. The five subscales are gratitude, zest, optimism, persistence, and prosocial behavior. Some representative items from the subscales are: "I am lucky to go to my school" for gratitude, "I expect good things to happen at my school" for optimism, "I get excited when I learn something new at school" for zest, and "I keep working until I get my schoolwork right" for persistence. The

total score from the first four subscales provides a score of co-vitality (a multidimensional, higher-order construct, which includes a range of social and emotional psychological dispositions that are hypothesized to be associated with positive youth development) for students. Previous studies have reported reliability coefficients of the Spanish version ranging from $\alpha = 0.73$ to $\alpha = 0.84$ for the five factors and $\alpha = 0.91$ for the co-vitality factor. The reliability coefficients obtained in this study were $\alpha = 0.82$ for gratitude, $\alpha = 0.70$ for optimism, $\alpha = 0.83$ for zest, $\alpha = 0.70$ for persistence, $\alpha = 0.84$ for prosocial behavior, and $\alpha = 0.88$ for the co-vitality factor.

To assess the program's effect on the overall well-being of the children, the KIDSCREEN-10 index [39] was applied. The KIDSCREEN-10 index is a 10-item questionnaire that assesses the subjective health-related quality of life and well-being of children and adolescents aged 8 to 18 years. Dimensions of the scale include affective symptoms of depressed mood, cognitive symptoms of disturbed concentration, psycho-vegetative aspects of vitality, energy, and feeling well, and psychosocial aspects correlated with mental health, such as the ability to experience fun with friends or getting along well at school. Some examples of KIDSCREEN-10 items are "Thinking about the last week, have you felt full of energy?" or "Thinking about the last week, have you felt lonely?". In this study, the internal consistency was 0.79.

2.5. Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics such as mean (*M*) and standard deviation (*SD*) were calculated. To find differences, Student's and Fisher's tests were applied. Following Cohen's [40] suggestions, we assume that small, medium, and large effects would be reflected in values of partial η^2 equal to 0.009, 0.059, and 0.138, respectively.

3. Results

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the different bullying behaviors evaluated by gender and for the group as a whole. Differences between genders can be seen in the pre-test, with higher scores for boys in all bullying behaviors, except for indirect social exclusion, where girls score slightly higher. However, these differences were only statistically significant for direct social exclusion ($F_{(1, 328)} = 4.42$; $p = 0.03$; $\eta^2 = 0.014$) and physical abuse ($F_{(1, 328)} = 24.36$; $p < 0.001$; $\eta^2 = 0.074$).

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of bullying behaviors in the pre-test, post-test, and follow-up [a].

Scale	Number of Items	Range	Girls M (SD)	Boys M (SD)	Total M (SD)
Verbal abuse [a]			3.64 (0.33)	4.44 (0.35)	4.56 (3.90)
Verbal abuse [b]	11	[0–22]	2.77 (0.29)	3.51 (0.35)	3.56 (3.72)
Verbal abuse [c]			2.53 (0.29)	3.18 (0.33)	3.23 (3.80)
Direct social exclusion [a]			1.18 (0.14)	1.81 (0.18)	1.64 (1.85)
Direct social exclusion [b]	5	[0–10]	0.82 (0.13)	1.47 (0.17)	1.30 (1.78)
Direct social exclusion [c]			0.78 (0.13)	1.27 (0.16)	1.17 (1.79)
Threats [a]			0.29 (0.05)	0.42 (0.09)	0.43 (0.90)
Threats [b]	4	[0–8]	0.12 (0.03)	0.39 (0.08)	0.33 (0.87)
Threats [c]			0.06 (0.02)	0.27 (0.07)	0.29 (0.93)
Cyberbullying [a]			0.06 (0.03)	0.14 (0.05)	0.12 (0.49)
Cyberbullying [b]	4	[0–8]	0.00 (0.00)	0.12 (0.04)	0.09 (0.50)
Cyberbullying [c]			0.01 (0.01)	0.05 (0.03)	0.06 (0.38)
Indirect social exclusion [b]			1.01 (0.12)	0.95 (0.12)	1.17 (1.47)
Indirect social exclusion [c]	4	[0–8]	0.81 (0.10)	1.00 (0.13)	0.98 (1.35)
Indirect social exclusion [d]			0.71 (0.09)	0.73 (0.11)	0.84 (1.28)
Object-based aggressions [b]			0.19 (0.04)	0.26 (0.06)	0.33 (0.77)
Object-based aggressions [c]	3	[0–6]	0.09 (0.03)	0.20 (0.05)	0.17 (0.49)
Object-based aggressions [d]			0.14 (0.04)	0.21 (0.06)	0.22 (0.70)

Table 1. *Cont.*

Scale	Number of Items	Range	Girls M (SD)	Boys M (SD)	Total M (SD)
Physical abuse [a]			1.25 (0.16)	2.31 (0.24)	1.97 (2.32)
Physical abuse [b]	8	[0–16]	0.73 (0.13)	1.81 (0.21)	1.43 (2.06)
Physical abuse [c]			0.56 (0.12)	1.35 (0.19)	1.28 (2.24)

Note. *M* = Mean, *SD* = standard deviation. [a] Evaluated with the Peer Bullying Questionnaire [36]. [b] Pre-treatment measure. [c] Post-treatment measure. [d] 3-month follow-up.

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics of the social-emotional competencies and the levels of subjective well-being of the participants.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of levels of subjective well-being and social-emotional competencies from the pre-test, post-test, and follow-up [a, b].

Scale	Range	Girls M (SD)	Boys M (SD)	Total M (SD)
Optimism [c]		21.38 (3.02)	20.66 (3.57)	21.13 (3.26)
Optimism [d]	[6–24]	21.78 (2.88)	20.99 (4.13)	21.46 (3.53)
Optimism [e]		22.34 (2.61)	20.64 (4.32)	21.76 (3.22)
Gratitude [c]		22.68 (2.33)	22.66 (3.60)	22.22 (3.03)
Gratitude [d]	[6–24]	22.77 (2.10)	21.80 (3.60)	22.37 (2.85)
Gratitude [e]		23.01 (1.80)	21.68 (3.81)	22.51 (2.88)
Zest [c]		17.07 (5.33)	16.02 (5.14)	16.54 (5.38)
Zest [d]	[6–24]	17.90 (5.57)	16.78 (5.57)	17.41 (5.59)
Zest [e]		18.01 (5,80)	17.14 (5.64)	17.65 (5.72)
Persistence [c]		21.14 (3.40)	20.57 (3.52)	20.98 (3.36)
Persistence [d]	[6–24]	21.49 (3.18)	20.75 (3.83)	21.28 (3.35)
Persistence [e]		22.51 (3.04)	20.78 (4.20)	21.33 (3.49)
Prosociality [c]		22.26 (2.68)	21.17 (3.31)	21.72 (3.02)
Prosociality [d]	[6–24]	22.71 (2.18)	21.15 (3.60)	22.05 (2.96)
Prosociality [e]		22.74 (2.09)	21.26 (3.95)	22.22 (3.11)
Co-vitality [c]		82.65 (11.55)	79.21 (12.33)	81.65 (11.71)
Co-vitality [d]	[30–120]	84.07 (11.01)	80.74 (14.12)	83.27 (12.06)
Co-vitality [e]		85.19 (10.65)	80.38 (15.78)	84.61 (11.53)
Subjective well-being [c]		41.24 (4.31)	40.07 (5.41)	40.76 (4.89)
Subjective well-being [d]	[5–50]	41.90 (4.53)	41.01 (5.52)	41.86 (4.8)
Subjective well-being [e]		42.84 (3.76)	42.02 (4.73)	42.82 (4.00)

Note. *M* = Mean, *SD* = standard deviation. [a] Subjective well-being evaluated with the Spanish version of the Social-Emotional Health Survey-Primary-Revised [37]. [b] Social-emotional competencies evaluated with the KIDSCREEN-10 index [39]. [c] Pre-treatment measure. [d] Post-treatment measure. [e] 3-month follow-up.

3.1. Program Effects

To assess the effects of the program (hypothesis I), the differences between the pre-test and post-test were calculated for each of the bullying behaviors. There were statistically significant reductions in verbal abuse behaviors ($t = 4.76$, $p < 0.001$), direct social exclusion ($t = 3.53$, $p < 0.001$), threats ($t = 2.04$, $p = 0.042$), aggression with objects ($t = 3.21$, $p < 0.001$), and physical abuse ($t = 4.41$, $p < 0.001$). The differences were not statistically significant for indirect social exclusion behaviors ($t = 1.86$, $p = 0.065$) or cyberbullying ($t = 0.31$, $p = 0.756$). No significant differences were found for the Spanish version of the Social-Emotional Health Survey-Primary-Revised ($p < 0.001$). The differences were statistically significant for the KIDSCREEN-10 index ($F = 12.95$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.05$).

3.2. Maintaining Results

Figure 1 shows that levels of bullying decreased after the application of the program for all behaviors evaluated and had decreased further by the 3-month follow-up in all behaviors except aggression, which remained at the same level. Figure 2 shows that levels

of subjective well-being increased after the program and had increased further by the 3-month follow-up. Finally, Figure 3 shows the changes in social-emotional competencies in the participants across the three time points. Some minimal improvements can be observed in these values.
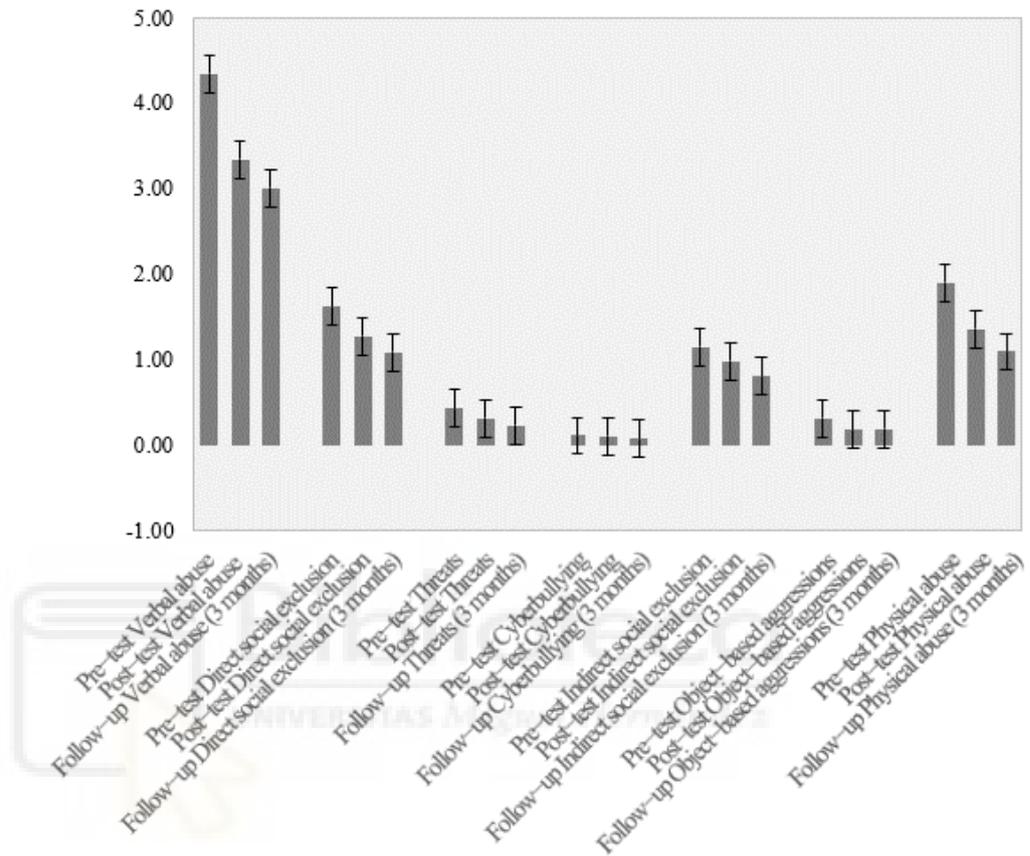

Figure 1. Mean scores in different bullying victimization behaviors for the pre-test, post-test, and 3-month follow-up.
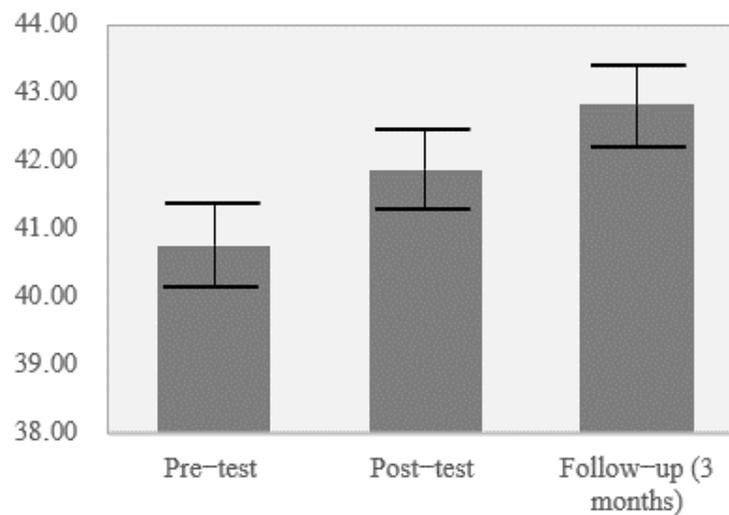

Figure 2. Mean scores in health and subjective well-being for the pre-test, post-test, and 3-month follow-up.
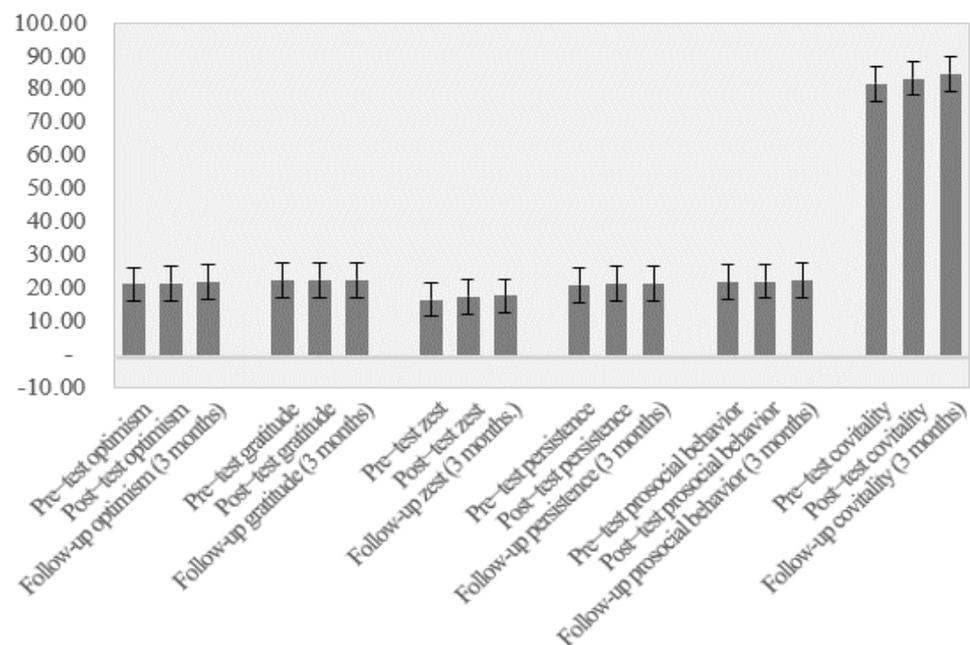
Figure 3. Mean scores for the subscales of the Spanish version of the Social-Emotional Health Survey-Primary-Revised for pre-test, post-test, and the 3-month follow-up.

To assess the "maintenance effect" that teachers might have had on the maintenance of these results, it was determined whether the changes in the observed variability of the mean scores for the three measured time points were statistically significant. For the subscales of the Peer Bullying Questionnaire, the results were as follows: verbal abuse: $F_{intra\ (1,\ 328)} = 18.49$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.12$; direct social exclusion: $F_{intra\ (1,\ 328)} = 12.28$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.075$; threats: $F_{intra\ (1,\ 328)} = 7.37$, $p = 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.05$; cyberbullying: $F_{intra\ (1,\ 328)} = 1.59$, $p = 0.21$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$; indirect social exclusion: $F_{intra\ (1,\ 328)} = 7.08$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.05$; object-based aggression: $F_{intra\ (1,\ 328)} = 4.79$, $p = 0.009$, $\eta^2 = 0.03$; physical abuse: $F_{intra\ (1,\ 328)} = 18.87$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.11$. For the subjective health and well-being variable measured with the KIDSCREEN-10 index, the results were $F_{intra\ (1,\ 328)} = 12.29$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.10$. Finally, for the variables of the Spanish version of the Social-Emotional Health Survey-Primary-Revised, the results were as follows: optimism: $F_{intra\ (1,\ 328)} = 7.16$, $p = 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.05$; gratitude: $F_{intra\ (1,\ 328)} = 1.15$, $p = 0.310$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$; zest: $F_{intra\ (1,\ 328)} = 3.98$, $p = 0.020$, $\eta^2 = 0.03$; persistence: $F_{intra\ (1,\ 328)} = 1.15$, $p = 0.320$, $\eta^2 = 0.010$; prosociality: $F_{intra\ (1,\ 328)} = 2.20$, $p = 0.113$, $\eta^2 = 0.02$; co-vitality: $F_{intra\ (1,\ 328)} = 4.69$, $p = 0.010$, $\eta^2 = 0.04$.

4. Discussion

The present study evaluated the effectiveness of the ANA program in children between 7 and 12 years of age, ranging from third to sixth grade. After the implementation of the program, a significant reduction in bullying victimization was observed in the participants.

Observable improvements in other programs generally have not been sustained over time [22]; therefore, one of the main objectives of the ANA program is long-term maintenance of the program's effects on bullying behavior and related victimization. In this study, the ANA program achieved this "maintenance effect" 3 months after implementation, achieving even greater reduction in victimization behaviors after 3 months than immediately after the program. One possible explanation for this "maintenance effect" may be the active involvement of teachers and other observers in the educational community during and after the application of the program [33], given the special importance of the program to them. Among the reductions, the decreases after 3 months of reported values of physical and verbal abuse are especially relevant, since these two components of the bullying tend to be the ones with the most weight or more general in these kinds of behaviors [36].

With respect of the direct changes produced after the application of the ANA program, the results show the main reductions in verbal abuse behaviors, threats, aggression with objects, physical abuse, and direct social exclusion behaviors. However, no differences were found in indirect social exclusion and in cyberbullying. This contrast in the changes observed between the first bullying practices mentioned and indirect social exclusion might be explained by the nature of these behaviors. Since the first ones make reference to more observable or direct components of bullying, the second one indicates an indirect component which could be less conscious for the children and thus, more difficult to change [36]. The lack of changes in the cyberbullying behaviors are possibly explained by the low rates of this type of victimization before the implementation of the program, making it very difficult to draw any conclusions from them.

The differences observed in the different types of bullying behavior, based on gender, are consistent with previous literature that also found that boys generally have higher bullying victimization scores, which would imply bigger reductions in these scores [21].

In addition to the reductions observed in victimization, there was also clear improvement in the subjective well-being of the children, which could have been a direct or indirect effect of the decrease in victimization. This effect may be influenced by a decrease in the levels of stress or emotional distress typically reported by children involved in bullying behaviors, both as victims and as aggressors [12,13,16]. Previous studies have found that the long-term effect of this reduction of bullying coupled with improved subjective levels of well-being is related to better adaptation and may help in avoiding or reducing anxiety or depressive symptoms in both the current stage of development and later stages of adolescence or adulthood [16].

Finally, it is worth noting that there were no significant changes in social-emotional competencies. Training in social-emotional competencies, although desirable, is not the main objective of the program. The results suggest that for the improvement of well-being, it is not necessary to provide victims with more coping skills and that it is enough to stop the bullying. However, a slight improvement in these skills was observed, and was most likely due to the relationship between bullying behaviors and these skills [10,20].

5. Conclusions

These results indicate that while implementing the ANA program, the bullying behaviors in children decreased at the same that their subjective well-being was increased. One of the strengths of the program is the demonstrated long-term maintenance of its effects after implementation. However, these interesting results achieved by the ANA program have to be interpreted with caution due to some weaknesses related with the study design, as further discussed in the following section.

Limitations

This study had several limitations. First, because the sample was composed of 330 students from the same center, the results may not be generalizable to other schools with differences in environmental variables (e.g., schools without the high group cohesion of the center, and the high and consistent participation of the observers throughout the program). Second, considering the quasi-experimental design of the study, the effectiveness of the program requires more research due to the lack of a control group. With this design, albeit it leads to some valuable conclusions, it leaves open many alternative explanations for the changes observed in the sample, therefore not allowing to treat the program as the certain causal explanation for the observed changes. Nevertheless, the gains and positive effects produced by the program must be considered. Future research on the program that includes the group of observers in the data collection would allow comparison of the self-reported and perceived levels of bullying and subjective well-being, at least by the observers. In line with the observers, a more contextual approximation would be optimal. Since the problem of the bullying is partially explained by family context, it would be interesting to also assess the prosocial or antisocial tendencies of the children's families

Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health **2021**, *18*, 6898

10 of 12

to evaluate their influence in the program changes [6,18]. Additionally, following current trends [33], the inclusion of booster sessions after the end of the program and after an extended period of time has elapsed would be of relevant interest in order to consolidate the gains previously achieved through the program. In addition, longer follow-up would allow further evaluation of the effects of the program. Moreover, it would be interesting to test the individual influence of each of the different ANA program sessions, pursuing a reduction of its length without losing its effectiveness

Another issue that is a general problem of these types of program evaluation research studies, based solely on survey instruments, is that these instruments have the problem that they lack reliability across contexts [41]. In this sense, we believe that this limitation is partially controlled by the fact that the measure used has been validated in the same context as the present research [36].

References

1. Olweus, D. Bullying at School: Basic Facts and Effects of a School Based Intervention Program. *J. Child Psychol. Psychiatry* **1994**, *35*, 1171–1190. [CrossRef]
2. Sharp, S.; Smith, P.K. Tackling Bullying in Your School: A Practical Handbook for Teachers. In *Bullying School Psychology*; Routledge: London, UK, 1994.
3. Patchin, J.W.; Hinduja, S. Measuring cyberbullying: Implications for research. *Aggress. Violent Behav.* **2015**, *23*, 69–74. [CrossRef]
4. Espelage, D.L.; Simon, T.R.; Bosworth, K. Factors Associated with Bullying Behavior in Middle School Students. *J. Early Adolesc.* **1999**, *19*, 341–362.
5. Espelage, D.L.; Bosworth, K.; Simon, T.R. Examining the Social Context of Bullying Behaviours in early adolescence. *J. Couns. Dev.* **2000**, *78*, 326–333. [CrossRef]
6. Knauf, R.; Eschenbeck, H.; Hock, M. Bystanders of bullying: Social-cognitive and affective reactions to school bullying and cyberbullying. *Cyberpsy J. Psychosocial Res.* **2018**, *12*, 4. [CrossRef]
7. Zych, I.; Baldry, A.C.; Farrington, D.P. School bullying and cyberbullying: Prevalence, characteristics, outcomes, and prevention. In *Handbook of Behavioral Criminology*; Springer International Publishing: Cham, Switzerland, 2017; pp. 10–25. [CrossRef]
8. Salmon, S.; Turner, S.; Taillieu, T.; Fortier, J.; Afifi, T.O. Bullying victimization experiences among middle and high school adolescents: Traditional bullying, discriminatory harassment, and cybervic-timization. *J. Adolesc.* **2018**, *63*, 29–40. [CrossRef]
9. Jadambaa, A.; Thomas, H.J.; Scott, J.G.; Graves, N.; Brain, D.; Pacella, R. Preva-lence of traditional bullying and cyberbullying among children and adolescents in Australia: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Aust. N. Z. J. Psychiatry* **2019**, *53*, 878–888. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
10. Bond, L.; Carlin, J.B.; Thomas, L.; Rubin, K.; Patton, G. Does bullying cause emotional problems? A prospective study of young teenagers. *BMJ* **2001**, *323*, 480–484. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
11. Camerini, A.L.; Marciano, L.; Carrara, A.; Schulz, P.J. Cyberbullying perpetration and victimization among children and adolescents: A systematic review of longitudinal studies. *Telemat. Informatics* **2020**, *49*, 101362. [CrossRef]

12. De Lara, E.W. Consequences of childhood bullying on mental health and relationships for young adults. *J. Child. Fam. Stud.* **2019**, *28*, 2379–2389. [CrossRef]

13. Reijntjes, A.; Kamphuis, J.H.; Prinzie, P.; Telch, M.J. Peer victimization and internalizing problems in children: A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Child. Abus. Negl.* **2010**, *34*, 244–252. [CrossRef]

14. Lara-Ros, M.R.; Rodríguez-Jiménez, T.; Martínez-González, A.E.; Piqueras Rodríguez, J.A. Relación entre el bullying y el estado emocional y social en niños de educación primaria. *Rev. Psicol. Clínica con Niños y Adolesc* **2017**, *4*, 59–64.

15. Holt, M.K.; Vivolo-Kantor, A.M.; Polanin, J.R.; Holland, K.M.; DeGue, S.; Matjasko, J.L.; Wolfe, M.; Reid, G. Bullying and Suicidal Ideation and Behaviors: A Meta-Analysis. *Pediatrics* **2015**, *135*, e496–e509. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

16. Husky, M.M.; Delbasty, E.; Bitfoi, A.; Carta, M.G.; Goelitz, D.; Koç, C.; Lesinskiene, S.; Mihova, Z.; Otten, R.; Kovess-Masfety, V. Bullying involvement and self-reported mental health in elementary school children across Europe. *Child. Abuse Negl.* **2020**, *107*, 104601. [CrossRef]

17. Cook, C.R.; Williams, K.R.; Guerra, N.G.; Kim, T.E.; Sadek, S. Predictors of bullying and victimization in childhood and adolescence: A meta-analytic investigation. *Sch. Psychol. Q.* **2010**, *25*, 65–83. [CrossRef]

18. Besemer, S.; Ahmad, S.I.; Hinshaw, S.P.; Farrington, D.P. A systematic review and meta-analysis of the intergenerational transmission of criminal behavior. *Aggress. Violent Behav.* **2017**, *37*, 161–178. [CrossRef]

19. Bisquerra Alzina, R. Educación emocional y competencias básicas para la vida. *Rev. Investig. Educ.* **2003**, *21*, 7–43.

20. Healy, S.R.; Valente, J.Y.; Caetano, S.C.; Martins, S.S.; Sanchez, Z.M. Worldwide school-based psychosocial interventions and their effect on aggression among elementary school children: A systematic review 2010–2019. *Aggress. Violent Behav.* **2020**, *55*, 101486. [CrossRef]

21. Kennedy, R.S. Gender differences in outcomes of bullying prevention programs: A meta-analysis. *Child. Youth Serv. Rev.* **2020**, *119*, 105506. [CrossRef]

22. Ng, E.D.; Chua, J.Y.X.; Shorey, S. The Effectiveness of Educational Interventions on Traditional Bullying and Cyberbullying among Adolescents: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Trauma Violence Abus.* **2020**, 152483802093386. [CrossRef]

23. Vos, T.; Barber, R.M.; Bell, B.; Bertozzi-Villa, A.; Biryukov, S.; Bolliger, I.; Charlson, F.; Davis, A.; Degenhardt, L.; Dicker, D.; et al. Global, regional, and national incidence, prevalence, and years lived with disability for 301 acute and chronic diseases and injuries in 188 countries, 1990-2013: A systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2013. *Lancet* **2015**, *386*, 743–800. [CrossRef]

24. Jiménez-Barbero, J.A.; Ruiz-Hernández, J.A.; Llor-Zaragoza, L.; Pérez-García, M.; Llor-Esteban, B. Effectiveness of anti-bullying school programs: A meta-analysis. *Child. Youth Serv. Rev.* **2016**, *61*, 165–175. [CrossRef]

25. Ferguson, C.J.; Kilburn, J.C. The Effectiveness of School-Based Anti-Bullying Programs A Meta-Analytic Review. *SAGE J.* **2007**, *32*, 401–414.

26. Cunningham, C.E.; Mapp, C.; Rimas, H.; Cunningham, L.; Mielko, S.; Vaillancourt, T.; Marcus, M.; Cunningham, C.E.; Mapp, C.; Rimas, H.; et al. Psychology of Violence What Limits the Effectiveness of Antibullying Programs? A Thematic Analysis of the Perspective of Students What Limits the Effectiveness of Antibullying Programs? A Thematic Analysis of the Perspective of Students. *Psychol. Violence* **2016**, *6*, 596–606. [CrossRef]

27. Zych, I.; Ttofi, M.M.; Farrington, D.P. Empathy and Callous–Unemotional Traits in Different Bullying Roles: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Trauma Violence Abus.* **2019**, *20*, 3–21. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

28. Avşar, F.; Ayaz Alkaya, S. The effectiveness of assertiveness training for school-aged children on bullying and assertiveness level. *J. Pediatr. Nurs.* **2017**, *36*, 186–190. [CrossRef]

29. Irshad, E.; Atta, M. Social competence as predictor of bullying among children and adolescents. *J. Indian Acad. Appl. Psychol.* **2013**, *39*, 35–42.

30. Levine, E.; Tamburrino, M. Bullying Among Young Children: Strategies for Prevention. *Early Child. Educ. J.* **2014**, *42*, 271–278. [CrossRef]

31. Wachs, S.; Bilz, L.; Fischer, S.M.; Schubarth, W.; Wright, M.F. Students' willingness to intervene in bullying: Direct and indirect associations with classroom cohesion and self-efficacy. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health.* **2018**, *15*, 2577. [CrossRef]

32. Menesini, E.; Nocentini, A.; Camodeca, M. Morality, values, traditional bullying, and cyberbullying in adolescence. *Br. J. Dev. Psychol.* **2013**, *31*, 1–14. [CrossRef]

33. Kovalenko, A.G.; Abraham, C.; Graham-Rowe, E.; Levine, M.; O'Dwyer, S. What Works in Violence Prevention among Young People? A Systematic Review of Reviews. *Trauma Violence Abus.* **2020**, 152483802093913. [CrossRef]

34. Currie, C.; Inchley, J.; Molcho, M.; Lenzi, M.; Veselska, Z.; Wild, F. *Health Behaviour in Schoolaged Children (HBSC) Study Protocol: Background, Methodology and Mandatory Items for the 2013/14 Survey*; Child and Adolescent Health Research Unit (CAHRU): St. Andrews, Scotland, UK, 2014.

35. Hollingshead, A.A. (Yale University, New Haven, CT, USA). Unpublished Work, 1975.

36. Magaz, A.M.; Chorot, P.; Santed, M.A.; Valiente, R.M.; Sandín, B. Evaluación del bullying como victimización: Estructura, fiabilidad y validez del Cuestionario de Acoso entre Iguales (CAI). *Rev. Psicopatol. y Psicol. Clin.* **2016**, *21*, 77–95. [CrossRef]

37. Piqueras, J.A.; Martínez-Martínez, A.; Pineda, D.; Rodríguez-Jiménez, T.; Rivera-Riquelme, M.; Furlong, M. Psychometric properties of the Spanish version of the Revised Social Emotional Health Survey–Primary. Unpublished Work, 2020.

38. Furlong, M.J.; You, S.; Renshaw, T.L.; O'Malley, M.; Rebelez, J. Preliminary development of the Positive Experiences at School Scale for elementary school children. *Child. Indic. Res.* **2013**, *6*, 753–775. [CrossRef]

Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health **2021**, *18*, 6898

12 of 12

39. Ravens-Sieberer, U.; Herdman, M.; Devine, J.; Otto, C.; Bullinger, M.; Rose, M.; Klasen, F. The European KIDSCREEN approach to measure quality of life and well-being in children: Development, current application, and future advances. *Qual. Life Res.* **2014**, *23*, 791–803. [CrossRef]
40. Cohen, J. *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences*, 2nd ed.; Lawrence Erlbaum Associates: New York, NY, USA, 1988.
41. Duckworth, A.L.; Yeager, D.S. Measurement Matters: Assessing Personal Qualities Other Than Cognitive Ability for Educational Purposes. *Edu. Res.* **2015**, *44*, 237–251. [CrossRef]

Estudio 2

Dark tetrad personality traits also play a role in bullying victimization

David Pineda[1], Pilar Rico-Bordera[1], Ana Martínez-Martínez[1]*, Manuel Galán[1,2] and José A. Piqueras[1]

[1]Forensic Psychology Unit, Department of Health Psychology, Centre of Applied Psychology, Miguel Hernández University of Elche, Elche, Spain, [2]Department of Psychology, Faculty of Health Sciences, Catholic University of Murcia, Murcia, Spain

Bullying refers to physical and/or psychological mistreatment or abuse by one individual or group toward another individual or group. Bullying is widespread in our society and carries considerable negative consequences. This phenomenon is caused by multiple factors, which include personality. Much more attention has been paid to the study of the perpetrators' negative personality traits than the victims. Several studies have examined the relationship between these traits—the Dark Triad or Dark Tetrad—and being a victim of bullying (or mobbing) in adults, especially in the workplace. However, only two studies have been located that have studied these relationships in adolescents. Therefore, this study aimed to analyze the relationship between being a victim of bullying and the ark Tetrad traits, delving into the specific contribution of Machiavellianism, narcissism, psychopathy, and sadism in victims of bullying in Spanish adolescents. A cross-sectional study was carried out by administering the Short Dark Triad, the Assessment of Sadistic Personality, and the Peer Bullying Questionnaire to 393 adolescents aged 12−18 years ($M = 14.18$; $SD = 2.52$; 53.7% male). The Dark Tetrad traits predicted the victimization variables in the seven models analyzed, with the verbal abuse model being the model with the largest contribution. Of the four dark traits, sadism stands out as the trait with the highest specific contribution. Our results indicate, despite not implying a causal relationship, that those people with high scores in the Dark Tetrad traits tend to be more victimized by bullying. Knowing the personality traits of the bullying perpetrators and their victims, practitioners will have a complete picture of the personality variables that play a role in preventing bullying and its associated victimization.

KEYWORDS

bullying, victimization, Dark Tetrad, narcissism, machiavellianism, psychopathy, sadism

Introduction

Bullying

Bullying, or peer bullying, is a type of aggression that refers to physical and/or psychological mistreatment or abuse by one individual or group toward another individual. This type of aggression can occur in different contexts (i.e., inside or outside the school, face-to-face, or online) and in many different ways (e.g., directly aggressing, threatening, or verbally abusing), making it a widespread phenomenon (Olweus, 1978; Magaz et al., 2016; Sorrentino et al., 2019). Therefore, with this variety of possibilities, the bullying prevalence rates are variable between studies depending on the measures used and the sample considered. However, the research on this topic states that up to 40% of children and youth have been involved in bullying behaviors as victims (e.g., Zych et al., 2016; Sorrentino et al., 2019; Biswas et al., 2020; Fuentes Chacón et al., 2020; Larrain and Garaigordobil, 2020).

Considering these high prevalence rates of bullying victimization, we must consider the consequences of being victimized by a bully. Suffering from bullying negatively affects the physical, mental, and socio-emotional health, as well as the wellbeing of the children who are bullied (Bond et al., 2001; Camerini et al., 2020). These consequences can range from depression or anxiety symptoms to behavioral disorders, substance abuse, or even suicidal behaviors (e.g., Reijntjes et al., 2010; Holt et al., 2015; De Lara, 2018).

Recent research has focused on analyzing the risk factors most associated with both experiencing and perpetrating bullying, which aids in the design of more targeted intervention programs (e.g., Huang et al., 2019; Ng et al., 2020; Martínez-Martínez et al., 2021). On the one hand, some of the risk factors that make someone more prone to suffering bullying are being male, having a disability or other health problems, having a low mood and poor self-perception, feeling lonely and having feelings of dissatisfaction with life, having few cognitive skills, having a poor relationship with peers or parents, having few economic resources and perceiving a lower quality of life, having a sexual orientation other than heterosexual, etc. (Puértolas Jiménez and Montiel Juan, 2017; Fuentes Chacón et al., 2020; Kahle, 2020).

On the other hand, the main characteristics that have been associated with the perpetration of bullying behaviors are high levels of anger and self-esteem, perceived high empathy, exposure to pornography, traditional masculinity, low levels of social and parental support, higher levels of school attachment, alcohol consumption, lack of emotional control, etc. (Leemis et al., 2019; Qian et al., 2020). Furthermore, individual personality differences have also been shown to play an important role in involvement in bullying situations, both as a bully and as a victim (e.g., Mitsopoulou and Giovazolias, 2015; Zhang et al., 2021).

Bullying and personality (the Dark Tetrad traits)

Personality traits like honesty-humility, emotionality, agreeableness, and openness to experience were negatively related to bullying perpetration (Pronk et al., 2021). However, different results have appeared while studying different populations. For example, Volk et al. (2018) pointed out that those participants with lower scores in honesty-humility and conscientiousness were more prone to perpetrating bullying, while those with lower scores in extraversion suffered from it. Notwithstanding, these authors also found a more complex relationship between personality and bullying in their Chinese sample, highlighting the importance of studying these connections in different cultures.

However, when personality is used to explain antisocial or criminal behaviors, a group of traits tends to predict these behaviors beyond general personality models. This is the Dark Tetrad of personality. First described as The Dark Triad by Paulhus and Williams (2002), three "dark" personality traits were described: subclinical psychopathy refers to a pattern of callousness and impulsivity; machiavellianism, which refers to the manipulation and lack of morality; and subclinical narcissism, which would broadly refer to a grandiose sense of identity with the necessity of admiration (Jones and Paulhus, 2014). With the increase of the investigation into these traits, the trait of everyday sadism was included. This trait would briefly describe a person who derives pleasure or joy from others' suffering (Chabrol et al., 2009; O'Meara et al., 2011).

On the one hand, studies that have analyzed the relationships between the negative personality traits of bullies have found positive connections. This indicates that those with high scores in the dark personality traits tend to be more involved in performance bullying behaviors (Goodboy and Martin, 2015). Specifically, the Dark Triad trait that predicted bullying the strongest was mainly psychopathy (Goodboy and Martin, 2015; Gul and Fatima, 2016). In contrast, while looking at cyberbullying behaviors, two of the three Dark Triad traits tend to predict them, with those with higher scores in machiavellianism and psychopathy being more involved in these behaviors (Aguilar Cumbicus and Resett, 2002). When looking at the four traits of the Dark Tetrad in conjunction with other sociodemographic variables and the Big Five traits, psychopathy, machiavellianism, and sadism appeared to predict bullying (Van Geel et al., 2017).

On the other hand, the negative personality traits have not only shown a predictive ability for the perpetration of antisocial and criminal behavior but from being bullied and

victimized by it (e.g., Hayes et al., 2021; Pineda et al., 2021a; Pineda et al.[1]). In the bullying context, most studies have been developed in work contexts to study mobbing victimization (i.e., bullying victimization in the workplace). Previous studies have found mixed results regarding the most decisive trait predicting workplace bullying victimization, but all of them agree that machiavellianism does predict this victimization (Linton and Power, 2013; Parker, 2019; Fernández-del-Río et al., 2021).

To our knowledge, only two studies have examined these relationships between dark personality traits and bullying victimization in adolescents. One of them (Gul and Fatima, 2016) was conducted with 479 Pakistani adolescents aged 13–18 years ($M = 15.11$; $SD = 1.24$; 245 male), and an instrument with three scales was used to assess victimization: social, physical, and verbal victimization. Gul and Fatima (2016) asserted that only psychopathy from the Dark Triad correlated positively with being a victim of bullying in adolescent girls. However, in this study, regression models showed that none of the three traits predicted bullying victimization in the sample of boys and girls. However, this finding might be explained by the lack of assessment of the direct predictive ability of the Dark Triad traits for victimization since not only are the three Dark Triad traits included in the regression model, but also the effect of bullying perpetration is included in this relationship.

The other study (Boele et al., 2017) was conducted with 1,108 adolescents, mostly Dutch; victimization was measured simply by asking by whom they were bullied. Its results showed no significant correlations with the three Dark Triad traits. As in the previous study, these results could be biased by the type of instrument used.

The present study

Most studies have focused on analyzing the "dark" personalities of bullies, leaving aside the possible presence of these traits in their victims. Knowing the characteristics of both bullies and victims can facilitate the design of more specific intervention programs, as well as the design of prevention programs to work with personality factors that may predispose to victimization and bullying (Gul and Fatima, 2016; Choi and Park, 2018; Reisen et al., 2019; Martínez-Martínez et al., 2021).

Studies analyzing the relationship between these traits and bullying victimization (in different contexts) suggest that the positive relationship discovered may be because some are also victims or become victims after being bullies (Fanti and Henrich, 2015; Choi and Park, 2018; Reisen et al., 2019). This relationship could also be due to the negative traits of those

who perpetrate bullying and do not consider the consequences of being victimized similarly (Foulkes, 2019).

In addition to focusing on victimization, as a particular strength of this study, it is noteworthy that the two studies described above (Gul and Fatima, 2016; Boele et al., 2017) did not measure the trait of everyday sadism, which has shown a crucial predictive ability in victimization situations (Pineda et al., 2020, 2021a). Moreover, none of them assessed the types of bullying victimization separately (i.e., being abused, excluded, threatened, and assaulted face-to-face or online), making it difficult to obtain more specific results.

To fill this gap, the main aim of this study was to analyze the influence of the Dark Tetrad traits on bullying victimization behaviors in a Spanish adolescent sample. Furthermore, we aimed to analyze the specific contributions of each of these four traits (i.e., machiavellianism, narcissism, psychopathy, and sadism) in being victimized by bullying in different ways (i.e., being abused, excluded, threatened, or aggressed) and in different contexts (i.e., face-to-face and online).

Therefore, this is the first study to analyze the predictive ability of the Dark Tetrad traits for adolescent victimization. Following previous literature (albeit with not very consistent results) that assessed these or similar relationships, we expect to obtain a positive correlation between psychopathy (H_1) and machiavellianism (H_2), and no significant correlation with narcissism (H_3). Regarding everyday sadism, although no studies have previously assessed this relationship specifically with adolescents, we hypothesize a positive relationship between scoring high in sadism and being victimized by bullying (H_4). This hypothesis appears since sadism has also been shown to be a personality predictor of victimization in other situations where the pleasure of inflicting pain can incur some costs (Pineda et al., 2020, 2021a). Finally, as being a perpetrator of bullying is related to suffering from it, we also anticipate that higher scores in the Dark Tetrad traits, mainly psychopathy and sadism, will predict higher victimization behaviors—in all the different victimization subtypes (H_5).

Materials and methods

Participants and procedure

The sample consisted of 393 adolescents (53.7% male and 46.3% female) from four high schools in the Province of Alicante. The mean age of the participants was 14.18 years ($SD = 1.30$, range 12–18 years), and they were students in the first, second, third, and fourth years of compulsory secondary education and the first year of high school. Participants were able to complete the survey in two ways: on paper or in an online format through the DetectaWeb platform (Piqueras et al.,

---

1 Pineda, D., Martínez-Martínez, A., Galán, M.; Rico-Bordera, P., Piqueras, J. A., The Dark Tetrad and Online Sexual Victimization: The Guilty Sadism, unpublished.

2017). The survey was carried out during the 2018–2019 and 2019–2020 academic years.

The project received approval from the university's ethics committee to carry out the study (Reference DPS.JPR.04.16). Participants were asked to submit an informed consent document signed by a parent.

Measures

Peer bullying questionnaire (CAI)

The CAI is a Spanish self-report that measures bullying behavior among peers (Magaz et al., 2016). It includes two scales, the Bullying Behavior Scale (CAI-CA) and the Gender Bullying Behavior Scale (CAI-CAG), but in this paper, only the CAI-CA was used. It comprises 39 items, with seven subscales: physical abuse (e.g., they kick me), verbal abuse (e.g., they insult me), direct social exclusion (e.g., they stop me from playing with them), indirect social exclusion (e.g., they stop talking to me), threats (e.g., they threaten to tell you things about my family or me), cyberbullying (e.g., they send me cell phone messages or emails to insult or threaten me), and object-based aggression (e.g., they hit me with objects, for example, with sticks, scissors, rocks, etc.).

This instrument is answered on a Likert-type scale from 0 = *never* to 2 = *many times*. The reliability of scales in the original study ranged from 0.45 and 0.83 (Cronbach's Alpha: physical abuse = 0.79, verbal abuse = 0.83, direct social exclusion = 0.77, indirect social exclusion = 0.58, threats = 0.70, cyberbullying =0.45, and object-based aggression = 0.56 (Magaz et al., 2016).

Short Dark Triad

The Short Dark Triad (SD3) is a short self-reported instrument that measures the three personality traits of the Dark Triad: machiavellianism (e.g., I tend to manipulate people to get what I want), narcissism (e.g., people see me as a leader), and psychopathy (e.g., I tend to have no remorse; Jones and Paulhus, 2014). It consists of 27 items, with nine items per trait, that are answered on a Likert-type scale from 0 = *strongly disagree* to 4 = *strongly agree*. It has been validated in Spain, showing good psychometric properties (Cronbach's alpha: Machiavellianism = 0.73, narcissism = 0.61, and psychopathy = 0.68) (Pineda et al., 2020).

Assessment of sadistic personality

The Assessment of Sadistic Personality (ASP) is a 9-item unidimensional scale that measures everyday sadism (I have made fun of other people to let them know I am in control). It is answered on a Likert-type scale from 0 = *strongly disagree* to 4 = *strongly agree* (Plouffe et al., 2017). The original version shows adequate consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.83. The validation with a Spanish sample also shows adequate internal

consistency indices, with a Cronbach's alpha and McDonald's Omega of 0.75 (Pineda et al., 2021b).

Data analysis

Descriptive statistics were calculated using the SPSS statistical software (version 23; https://www.ibm.com/es-es/analytics/spss-statistics-software). Means and standard deviations were obtained to know the scores on each instrument administered to the participants. For the calculation of the internal consistencies (reliability of the instruments), SPSS and the statistical program Jamovi (version 1.6.23; https://www.jamovi.org/) were used, which offered the values of Cronbach's alpha and McDonald's Omega.

Correlations were also calculated with SPSS to know both the magnitude and the direction (positive or negative) of the relationships between the different variables. Regression models were also calculated with this statistical program to determine the predictive ability of the Dark Tetrad traits for the seven factors of bullying as victimization (criterion variables). Therefore, seven regression models were calculated; in the first block, the specific contribution of the sociodemographic variables (sex and age) was considered. The four Dark Tetrad traits were added in the second block to determine their influence. The percentages of the total variance explained (SR^2) were calculated for each variable.

Results

Descriptive statistics and internal consistency of the instruments

Attending to the descriptive statistics (Table 1) of the Dark Tetrad traits, the sample of this study obtained the highest scores in narcissism and the lowest in sadism. In relation to the victimization variables, the sample obtained higher scores on the scales that measure victimization by physical and verbal aggression and lower scores on the scale that measures the possibility of being threatened.

All instrument factors showed acceptable and good internal consistency indices (with alphas and omegas ranging between 0.69 and 0.87), except for narcissism, threats, object-based aggression, and indirect social exclusion, with lower reliabilities (alphas and omegas between 0.53 and 0.63; see Table 1).

Association between bullying as victimization and Dark Tetrad traits

The four Dark Tetrad traits presented significant positive correlations with bullying as victimization

TABLE 1 Means and standard deviations for response rates.

	Total ($N = 393$)				
	Range of scores	*M*	*SD*	Cronbach's alpha	McDonald's omega
Dark Tetrad					
Machiavellianism	0–36	11.33	5.47	0.73	0.75
Narcissism	0–36	14.20	4.78	0.55	0.59
Psychopathy	0–36	9.54	5.33	0.69	0.73
Sadism	0–36	5.72	5.81	0.81	0.87
Bullying as victimization					
Physical abuse	0–16	1.02	2.18	0.85	0.86
Verbal abuse	0–22	2.33	3.28	0.85	0.86
Direct social exclusion	0–10	0.46	1.25	0.78	0.80
Indirect social exclusion	0–8	0.59	1.11	0.53	0.73
Threats	0–8	0.09	0.45	0.60	0.63
Cyberbullying	0–8	0.12	0.59	0.73	0.76
Object-based aggression	0–6	0.16	0.57	0.59	0.60

factors (see Table 2). Machiavellianism presented significant positive correlations with being physically and verbally abused and with being directly and indirectly excluded; narcissism, on the other hand, correlated positively with being physically abused ($p < 0.05$); and finally, sadism and psychopathy showed significant ($p < 0.01$) direct correlations with all the bullying as victimization dimensions.

Predictive ability of the Dark Tetrad traits on bullying as victimization

Regarding the predictive ability of the Dark Tetrad traits for bullying as victimization, the interest lies in analyzing the influence of the traits for each of the seven bullying factors separately (see Table 3). The results showed that the sociodemographic variables (age and gender) in all seven models presented a null contribution (0%) of the total explained variance of bullying as a victimization factor. However, when Dark Tetrad traits were included in the models, the models became significant. These traits explained up to 14.00% ($p = 0.001$) of bullying victimization behaviors, with verbal abuse being the model with the highest contribution. Of the four dark traits, sadism stands out as the trait with the highest specific contribution (reaching $SR^2 = 7.67\%$).

More specifically, sadism is significantly (and positively) associated with six of the seven victimization variables (it predicts all variables except indirect social exclusion). In contrast, psychopathy is significantly associated (also positively) with only two of the victimization variables (it predicts verbal abuse and direct social exclusion). Narcissism is significantly

associated with only one of the variables (it predicts indirect social exclusion), but, unlike the previous traits, it does so in a negative sense. Finally, machiavellianism is not significantly associated with any of the seven variables.

Discussion

The main aim of this paper was to analyze the relationship between being victimized by bullying and the Dark Tetrad traits, delving into the specific contributions of machiavellianism, narcissism, psychopathy, and sadism in different ways of bullying victimization in Spanish adolescents.

Firstly, the results obtained regarding the relationships between the traits of the Dark Tetrad and the different factors of bullying as victimization report interesting findings. Even though the four traits are considered negative or antisocial, significant positive relationships have been found. This finding might be explained since some bullies are or can also be victims and vice versa. Some authors conclude that this may be due to the tendency of some victims to react to the aggressions suffered. Moreover, on many occasions, victims may not perceive themselves as aggressors when, in fact, they do engage in bullying behaviors (e.g., Lopes-Neto, 2005; Silva et al., 2012; Choi and Park, 2018; Reisen et al., 2019). A recent study concludes that another possible cause is the cognitive restructuring and moral disengagement that victims of bullying may undergo. Thus, these individuals might learn that aggression is an effective behavior, which would eventually cause them to also perform the bullying behaviors, but they might also misinterpret their own victimization, considering the aggressive behaviors as normal (Falla et al., 2022).

TABLE 2 Bivariate correlations between dark tetrad personality traits and seven types of bullying victimization behaviors.

	Machiavellianism	Narcissism	Psychopathy	Sadism
Physical abuse	0.16**	0.11*	0.20**	0.23**
Verbal abuse	0.16**	0.06	0.24**	0.33**
Direct social exclusion	0.10*	−0.01	0.20**	0.26**
Indirect social exclusion	0.17**	0.01	0.21**	0.24**
Threats	0.04	0.02	0.13**	0.19**
Cyberbullying	0.05	0.05	0.13**	0.27**
Object-based aggression	0.04	0.04	0.13**	0.19**

$^*p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$.

Regarding the links between the traits and the bullying dimensions, positive correlations were obtained between the seven factors that make up bullying victimization and psychopathy and sadism, supporting H_1 and H_4. Therefore, those who score high on psychopathy or sadism tend to also present higher scores in all the bullying victimization subtypes. In the case of machiavellianism, this positive correlation is found with fewer subtypes of bullying victimization. Therefore, H_2 is partially supported. Finally, narcissism was correlated with one of the victimization subtypes (physical abuse), so H_3 is rejected.

These results confront the findings of Gul and Fatima (2016), in which the only Dark Triad trait correlated with being a victim of bullying in a sample of girls was psychopathy. Similarly, they are also contrary to those found by Boele et al. (2017), who obtained no significant correlations with any of the Dark Triad traits. Moreover, the results are also inconsistent when comparing our results with those found in other studies with different sample populations (e.g., young adults or workers). Some studies have found correlations with the three traits of the Dark Triad (Parker, 2019; Hayes et al., 2021), while others only with Machiavellianism when analyzing the traits of the Dark Tetrad (Fernández-del-Río et al., 2021). In turn, other studies that have analyzed these relationships with some of the traits separately have also found positive correlations between presenting high scores in psychopathy or narcissism and being a victim of bullying (e.g., Fanti and Henrich, 2015; Backe and Dankvardt, 2018; Antoniadou et al., 2019; Despoti et al., 2021). In the case of the positive relationship between being a victim and having narcissistic traits, one study concluded that perhaps people with these traits become victims after having been bullies. They consider that they may have engaged in bullying behaviors to increase their social status, which would eventually have a counterproductive effect and, over time, place them in a victimized position (Fanti and Henrich, 2015). This could explain the positive relationship found in this study between narcissism and one of the factors of victimization (being a victim of physical abuse).

Secondly, regression models conducted to determine the predictive ability of the personality traits composing the Dark Tetrad for bullying as victimization factors also partially presented the expected results (H_5). Overall, these personality traits explain up to 14.00% of bullying victimization behaviors, contrary to the findings presented by Gul and Fatima (2016). Although it is impossible to establish the causality of the relationship, it can be affirmed that some people who suffer certain bullying behaviors (especially verbal abuse and cyberbullying) tend to present higher scores in the Dark Tetrad personality traits. The Dark Tetrad trait that tends to predict the possibility of being victimized by bullying the most is everyday sadism. This finding replicates previous pointing to the everyday sadism trait as a personality factor that tends to be present in those who suffer from different antisocial behaviors (Pineda et al., 2021a,b). It might be explained due to the pleasure that people with high punctuations in sadism obtain from perpetrating these behaviors, which makes them not consider the consequences of being victimized in the same way (Foulkes, 2019).

Mixed results have been found regarding the predictive ability of the other Dark Tetrad traits. While psychopathy tends to be a positive predictor of all victimization behaviors, narcissism and Machiavellianism present different relationships. Previous studies have also shown psychopathy as a possible predictor of bullying victimization (Linton and Power, 2013; Parker, 2019). Perhaps, the callous personality of those with higher scores in psychopathy makes them less disturbed by suffering from bullying. Thus, they also continue their common behaviors as perpetrators in a dyadic relationship. On the other hand, although very weak, narcissism tends to predict not being victimized by almost all the bullying subtypes, which is congruent with the study by Fernández-del-Río et al. (2021). Narcissism, as in other contexts studied (e.g., with emotional intelligence, wellbeing, or civic engagement), is associated in the opposite direction to psychopathy and machiavellianism due to the way of behaving associated with their sense of entitlement or grandiosity

TABLE 3 The predictive capacity of the Dark Tetrad for bullying as victimization.

Criterion variable	Predictor variable	Step 1				Step 2			
		β	t	$r_{x.y}$	sr^2	β	t	$r_{x.y}$	sr^2
Physical abuse	Age	−0.07	−1.23	−0.07	0.48%	−0.13	−2.31*	−0.13	1.56%
	Gender	0.10	1.8	0.10	1.04%	0.12	2.10*	0.11	1.28%
	Machiavellianism					0.07	0.94	0.05	0.26%
	Narcissism					−0.06	−0.94	−0.05	0.26%
	Psychopathy					0.14	1.88	0.01	1.04%
	Sadism					0.16	2.47*	0.13	1.77%
	R^2		0.01				0.09		
	F		2.21				5.27***		
Verbal abuse	Age	0.02	0.37	0.02	0.04%	−0.05	−0.94	−0.05	0.24%
	Gender	0.10	1.74	0.10	0.94%	0.12	2.22*	0.12	1.37%
	Machiavellianism					−0.01	−0.11	−0.01	0.00%
	Narcissism					−0.10	−1.63	−0.09	0.74%
	Psychopathy					0.15	2.08*	0.11	1.21%
	Sadism					0.28	4.46***	0.24	5.52%
	R^2		0.01				0.14		
	F		1.66				8.09***		
Direct social exclusion	Age	−0.04	−0.66	−0.04	0.14%	−0.09	−1.52	−0.08	0.69%
	Gender	0.01	0.21	0.01	0.01%	0.03	0.55	0.03	0.09%
	Machiavellianism					−0.07	−0.99	−0.05	0.29%
	Narcissism					−0.12	−1.9	−0.10	1.08%
	Psychopathy					0.18	2.43*	0.13	1.77%
	Sadism					0.18	2.73**	0.15	2.22%
	R^2		0.01				0.07		
	F		0.23				3.95**		
Indirect social exclusion	Age	−0.01	−0.07	−0.01	0%	−0.05	−0.97	−0.05	0.28%
	Gender	0.09	1.52	0.09	0.72%	0.10	1.79	0.10	0.96%
	Machiavellianism					0.10	1.4	0.08	0.58%
	Narcissism					−0.14	−2.21*	−0.12	1.46%
	Psychopathy					0.14	1.86	0.10	1.04%
	Sadism					0.10	1.59	0.09	0.74%
	R^2		0.01				0.07		
	F		1.52				3.85**		
Threats	Age	0.05	0.82	0.05	0.21%	0.01	0.15	0.01	0.01%
	Gender	0.04	0.67	0.04	0.14%	0.05	0.92	0.05	0.26%
	Machiavellianism					−0.12	−1.62	−0.09	0.81%
	Narcissism					−0.03	−0.50	−0.03	0.07%
	Psychopathy					0.13	1.66	0.09	0.83%
	Sadism					0.19	2.87**	0.16	2.5%
	R^2		0.01				0.06		
	F		0.63				3.04**		
Cyberbullying	Age	0.09	1.52	0.09	0.72%	0.04	0.74	0.04	0.16%
	Gender	0.07	1.21	0.07	0.45%	0.08	1.51	0.08	0.66%
	Machiavellianism					−0.13	−1.86	−0.10	1.00%
	Narcissism					0.02	0.34	0.02	0.03%
	Psychopathy					0.01	0.09	0.01	0.00%

(Continued)

TABLE 3 (Continued)

Criterion variable	Predictor variable	Step 1				Step 2			
		β	t	$r_{x.y}$	sr^2	β	t	$r_{x.y}$	sr^2
	Sadism					0.34	5.16***	0.28	7.67%
	R^2			0.01				0.11	
	F			2.09				6.1***	
Object-based aggression	Age	0.12	1.87	0.10	1.08%	0.08	1.32	0.07	0.53%
	Gender	0.06	1.18	0.07	0.44%	0.08	1.36	0.08	0.56%
	Machiavellianism					−0.09	−1.23	−0.07	0.46%
	Narcissism					−0.02	−0.34	−0.02	0.04%
	Psychopathy					0.10	1.35	0.08	0.56%
	Sadism					0.14	2.16*	0.12	1.44%
	R^2			0.02				0.05	
	F			2.7				2.61*	

$^*p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, $^{***}p < 0.001$.

(Rico-Bordera et al., unpublished[2]; Schreyer et al., 2021; Van Groningen et al., 2021). Finally, machiavellianism presents mixed findings with regard to the different victimization subtypes. Again, weak links were found. In summary, people with high scores in machiavellianism, convergent with their nature and with previous studies, tend to be slightly more involved in less observable behaviors such as indirect social exclusion and not be involved in more visible ones like threats or cyberbullying (Jones and Paulhus, 2014; Parker, 2019).

The results obtained in this study highlight the need for further research in this field, especially in adolescents. When an intervention is proposed, both bullies and victims are targeted (e.g., Ng et al., 2020; Martínez-Martínez et al., 2021). Thus, we propose that controlling or at least considering the personality traits that might be maintaining the victim's condition would be interesting.

To date, to our knowledge, only two studies have analyzed the traits of the Dark Triad (i.e., psychopathy, Machiavellianism, and narcissism) in adolescent victims of bullying (Gul and Fatima, 2016; Boele et al., 2017). In contrast to these studies, we have analyzed the association between Dark Tetrad traits (including every day sadism) and different victimization behaviors. Moreover, we analyzed it directly (i.e., without introducing other variables in the regression model). In the study by Gul and Fatima (2016), the association was controlled for the effect of bullying perpetration. In that study, bullying perpetration explains most of the variance because being a victim and perpetrating these behaviors tend to appear together (e.g., Choi and Park, 2018; Reisen et al., 2019) without

considering the effect on the victimization of the personality variables alone.

Limitations and future lines of research

This study presents several limitations. A first limitation implies, as previously stated, the low internal consistency of some of the factors (around 0.60). Specifically, the low internal consistency reliabilities are found in the dimensions measuring the narcissistic trait and those measuring being a victim of threats and object-based aggression. This could be due to the limitations that the scales used in this study could present (for example, problems in the wording or interpretation of the items). In addition, it is essential to note that self-reports, as is well known, have biases in their measurement, such as social desirability. Therefore, the participants may have slightly modified their answers due to social desirability (Abernethy, 2015; Althubaiti, 2016).

A second limitation relates to the low scores obtained in relation to having experienced bullying behaviors. Stronger relationships between the different constructs might be obtained by replicating this study with a larger sample of adolescents who have experienced bullying. Future research should replicate the present study with larger sample size and include more diverse samples to account for differences in negative personality traits by gender, race, socioeconomic status, and sexual orientation. As mentioned earlier in this study, certain groups of people may be more prone to bullying, such as people with low economic resources or people with a sexual orientation other than heterosexual (Fuentes Chacón et al., 2020; Kahle, 2020).

Likewise, it is likely that our findings cannot be generalized to other samples of different ages since. As mentioned throughout the discussion, our results differ from those obtained in other studies on young people or adults. Similarly, it may

2 Rico-Bordera, P., Piqueras, J. A., Soto-Sanz, V., Rodríguez-Jiménez, T., Marzo, J. C., Galán, M., et al. (2021). Civic engagement and personality: the influence of the Big Five personality traits and the Dark Triad on engagement in civic behaviours. unpublished.

not be generalizable to other cultures since our results differ from those obtained in the two localized studies that analyzed these relationships with adolescents as we did (Gul and Fatima, 2016; Boele et al., 2017). In addition, Volk et al. (2018) already mentioned the importance of analyzing these relations in different cultures.

Finally, regarding these points, there is the last limitation of not having a longitudinal study, which would allow the establishment of the direction of causal relationships. As with the current design, it is not possible to state whether personality traits are a cause or consequence of bullying behaviors. For these reasons, it is considered necessary to replicate the study with a larger sample, which would guarantee the generalizability of the results. Furthermore, it would also be interesting to include a measure of bullying perpetration to help practitioners develop programs that consider the differences in personality of the agents involved in this behavior.

Conclusion

Bullying remains a problem of great social relevance. For this reason, professionals in the field of psychology keep studying both the predictors of this problem and how to eradicate it. Knowing the personality traits of the people who carry out the bullying behaviors and those who suffer them is also an obvious need. Given this importance and the scarcity of studies that address it—especially those that analyze the personalities of bullied people—this is the first study that analyses the relationship between the darkest personality traits (i.e., the Dark Tetrad) and suffering from bullying in a Spanish sample.

A sociocultural shared belief is that "being bad" or presenting negative or dark personality tendencies usually determines malevolent behaviors, such as bullying, but it is less usual to expect that these same traits are related to suffering victimization. Given the cross-sectional nature of this study, it cannot be concluded with certainty whether victimization caused individuals to develop dark personalities or whether victims were already predisposed to these darker traits, but the need to know the personality of these victims is just as relevant as knowing the personality of bullies in order, for example, to design prevention and intervention programs aimed at all actors in bullying (perpetrators and victims). For now, this study shows that some of the traits of the Dark Tetrad, mainly sadism and psychopathy, are related to being a victim of bullying.

Data availability statement

The datasets and analysis scripts used for this study can be found in the OSF repository: https://osf.io/ej74h/?view_only= 8b0697f31f294479bd2e658ebee9bf97.

Ethics statement

The studies involving human participants were reviewed and approved by Miguel Hernández University (reference DPS.JPR.04.16). Written informed consent was obtained from all participants' legal guardian/next of kin for their participation in this study.

Author contributions

DP designed the study and oversaw all aspects of study implementation. JP acquired permissions for the research. AM-M and MG collected the data. MG managed the database. PR-B and JP performed the statistical analyses. PR-B wrote the first draft of the article. All authors reviewed the last version and approved the final manuscript.

Funding

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Publisher's note

All claims expressed in this article are solely those of the authors and do not necessarily represent those of their affiliated organizations, or those of the publisher, the editors and the reviewers. Any product that may be evaluated in this article, or claim that may be made by its manufacturer, is not guaranteed or endorsed by the publisher.

References

Abernethy, M. (2015). Self-reports and observer reports as data generation methods: an assessment of issues of both methods. *Univ. J. Psychol.* 3, 22–27. doi: 10.13189/ujp.2015.030104

Aguilar Cumbicus, J. G., and Resett, S. A. (2002). *Cyberbullying, trollying y su relación con los rasgos de la personalidad oscura en adolescentes de educación secundaria [Cyberbullying, trollying and their relationship with dark personality*

traits in secondary school adolescents] (Master's Thesis). Buenos Aires, Germany: Universidad Argentina de la Empresa.

Althubaiti, A. (2016). Information bias in health research: Definition, pitfalls, and adjustment methods. *J. Multidis. Healthcare* 9, 211–217. doi: 10.2147/JMDH.S104807

Antoniadou, N., Kokkinos, C. M., and Fanti, K. (2019). Traditional and cyber bullying/victimization among adolescents: Examining their psychosocial profile through latent profile analysis. *Int. J. Bully. Prev.* 1, 85–98. doi: 10.1007/s42380-019-00010-0

Backe, D., and Dankvardt, J. (2018). *Can psychopathic traits predict different roles in bullying: Perpetration or victimization* (Master's Thesis) Örebro, Sweden: Örebro University.

Biswas, T., Scott, J. G., Munir, K., Thomas, H. J., Huda, M. M., Hasan, M. M., et al. (2020). Global variation in the prevalence of bullying victimisation amongst adolescents: role of peer and parental supports. *EClinicalMedicine* 20, e100276. doi: 10.1016/j.eclinm.2020.100276

Boele, S., Sijtsema, J. J., Klimstra, T. A., Denissen, J. J. A., and Meeus, W. H. J. (2017). Person-group dissimilarity in personality and peer victimization. *Eur. J. Pers.* 31, 220–233. doi: 10.1002/per.2105

Bond, L., Carlin, J. B., Thomas, L., Rubin, K., and Patton, G. (2001). Does bullying cause emotional problems? A prospective study of young teenagers. *BMJ.* 323, 480–484. doi: 10.1136/bmj.323.7311.480

Camerini, A., Marciano, L., Carrara, A., and Schulz, P. (2020). Cyberbullying perpetration and victimization among children and adolescents: a systematic review of longitudinal studies. *Telematics Info.* 49, e101362. doi: 10.1016/j.tele.2020.101362

Chabrol, H., Leeuwen, N. V., Rodgers, R., and Séjourn,é, N. (2009). Contributions of psychopathic, narcissistic, Machiavellian, and sadistic personality traits to juvenile delinquency. *Pers. Ind. Diff.* 47, 734–739. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2009.06.020

Choi, B., and Park, S. (2018). Who becomes a bullying perpetrator after the experience of bullying victimization? The moderating role of self-esteem. *J. Youth Adol.* 47, 2414–2423. doi: 10.1007/s10964-018-0913-7

De Lara, E. W. (2018). Consequences of childhood bullying on mental health and relationships for young adults. *J. Child Family Stu.* 28, 2379–2389. doi: 10.1007/s10826-018-1197-y

Despoti, G., Kokkinos, C. M., and Fanti, K. A. (2021). Bullying, victimization, and psychopathy in early adolescents: the moderating role of social support. *Eur. J. Dev. Psychol.* 18, 747–764. doi: 10.1080/17405629.2020.1858787

Falla, D., Ortega-Ruiz, R., Runions, K., and Romera, E. M. (2022). Why do victims become perpetrators of peer bullying? Moral disengagement in the cycle of violence. *Youth Soc.* 54, 1–22. doi: 10.1177/0044118X20973702

Fanti, K. A., and Henrich, C. C. (2015). Effects of self-esteem and narcissism on bullying and victimization during early adolescence. *J. Early Adol.* 35, 5–29. doi: 10.1177/0272431613519498

Fernández-del-Río, E., Ramos-Villagrasa, P. J., and Escartín, J. (2021). The incremental effect of Dark personality over the Big Five in workplace bullying: evidence from perpetrators and targets. *Pers. Ind. Diff.* 168, 110291. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2020.110291

Foulkes, L. (2019). Sadism: review of an elusive construct. *Pers. Ind. Diff.* 151, 109500. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2019.07.010

Fuentes Chacón, R. M., Simón Saiz, M. J., Garrido Abejar, M., Díaz Valentín, M. J., Yubero Jiménez, S., Serrano Parra, M. D., et al. (2020). Ser víctima de bullying: Prevalencia y factores de vulnerabilidad en adolescentes [Being a victim of bullying: Prevalence and vulnerability factors in adolescents]. *Rev. ROL Enfermería* 43, 32–39.

Goodboy, A. K., and Martin, M. M. (2015). The personality profile of a cyberbully: examining the dark triad. *Comput. Hum. Behav.* 49, 1–4. doi: 10.1016/j.chb.2015.02.052

Gul, E. S., and Fatima, I. (2016). Dark Triad personality traits as predictors of bullying and victimization in adolescents. *J. Behav. Sci.* 26, 51–65.

Hayes, N. L., Marsee, M. A., and Russell, D. W. (2021). Latent profile analysis of traditional and cyber-aggression and victimization: associations with Dark Triad traits and psychopathology symptoms. *J. Psycho. Behav. Assess.* 43, 399–412. doi: 10.1007/s10862-020-09835-2

Holt, M. K., Vivolo-Kantor, A. M., Polanin, J. R., Holland, K. M., DeGue, S., Matjasko, J. L., et al. (2015). Bullying and suicidal ideation and behaviors: a meta-analysis. *Pediatrics* 135, e496–e509. doi: 10.1542/peds.2014-1864

Huang, Y., Espelage, D. L., Polanin, J. R., and Hong, J. S. (2019). A meta-analytic review of school-based anti-bullying programs with a parent component. *Int. J. Bully. Prev.* 1, 32–44. doi: 10.1007/s42380-018-0002-1

Jones, D. N., and Paulhus, D. L. (2014). Introducing the short dark triad (SD3): a brief measure of dark personality traits. *Assessment* 21, 28–41. doi: 10.1177/1073191113514105

Kahle, L. (2020). Are sexual minorities more at risk? Bullying victimization among lesbian, gay, bisexual, and questioning youth. *J. Int. Viol.* 35, 4960–4978. doi: 10.1177/0886260517718830

Larrain, E., and Garaigordobil, M. (2020). El bullying en el país vasco: Prevalencia y diferencias en función del sexo y la orientación-sexual [Bullying in the Basque Country: Prevalence and differences according to gender and sexual orientation]. *Clínica Salud* 31, 147–153. doi: 10.5093/clysa2020a19

Leemis, R. W., Espelage, D. L., Basile, K. C., Mercer Kollar, L. M., and Davis, J. P. (2019). Traditional and cyber bullying and sexual harassment: a longitudinal assessment of risk and protective factors. *Agg. Behav.* 45, 181–192. doi: 10.1002/ab.21808

Linton, D. K., and Power, J. L. (2013). The personality traits of workplace bullies are often shared by their victims: is there a dark side to victims? *Pers. Ind. Diff.* 54, 738–743. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2012.11.026

Lopes-Neto, A. A. (2005). Bullying: aggressive behavior among students. *J. Pediatr.* 81, S164–S172. doi: 10.2223/JPED.1403

Magaz, A. M., Chorot, P., Germán, M. A. S., García, R. M. V., and Sandín, B. (2016). Evaluación del bullying como victimización: Estructura, fiabilidad y validez del Cuestionario de Acoso entre Iguales (CAI) [Assessment of bullying as victimization: Structure, reliability and validity of the Peer Abuse Questionnaire (CAI)]. *Rev. Psicopatología Psicología Clínica* 21, 77–95. doi: 10.5944/rppc.vol.21.num.2.2016.16990

Martínez-Martínez, A., Pineda, D., Galán, M., Marzo, J. C., and Piqueras, J. A. (2021). Effects of the action for neutralization of bullying program on bullying in Spanish schoolchildren. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Pub. Health* 18, 6898. doi: 10.3390/ijerph18136898

Mitsopoulou, E., and Giovazolias, T. (2015). Personality traits, empathy and bullying behavior: a meta-analytic approach. *Agg. Violent Behav.* 21, 61–72. doi: 10.1016/j.avb.2015.01.007

Ng, E. D., Chua, J. Y. X., and Shorey, S. (2020). The effectiveness of educational interventions on traditional bullying and cyberbullying among adolescents: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Trauma Violence Abuse* 23, 132–151. doi: 10.1177/1524838020933867

Olweus, D. (1978). *Aggression in the Schools: Bullies and Whipping Boys*. Washington, DC: Hemisphere.

O'Meara, A., Davies, J., and Hammond, S. (2011). The psychometric properties and utility of the Short Sadistic Impulse Scale (SSIS). *Psychol. Assess.* 23, 523–531. doi: 10.1037/a0022400

Parker, J. N. (2019). *Examining the relationship between workplace victimization, the Dark Triad, and workplace behavior* (Master's Thesis) Tennessee, United States: Middle Tennessee State University.

Paulhus, D. L., and Williams, K. M. (2002). The dark triad of personality: narcissism, machiavellianism, and psychopathy. *J. Res. Pers.* 36, 556–563. doi: 10.1016/S0092-6566(02)00505-6

Pineda, D., Galán, M., Martínez-Martínez, A., Campagne, D. M., and Piqueras, J. A. (2021a). Same personality, new ways to abuse: how dark tetrad personalities are connected with cyber intimate partner violence. *J. Int. Viol.* 37, 886260521991307. doi: 10.1177/0886260521991307

Pineda, D., Piqueras, J. A., Galán, M., and Martínez-Martínez, A. (2021b). Everyday sadism: psychometric properties of three Spanish versions for assessing the construct. *Curr. Psychol.* 1–9. doi: 10.1007/s12144-021-01434-y

Pineda, D., Sandín, B., and Muris, P. (2020). Psychometrics properties of the spanish version of two dark triad scales: the dirty dozen and the short dark triad. *Curr. Psychol.* 39, 1873–1881. doi: 10.1007/s12144-018-9888-5

Piqueras, J. A., Garcia-Olcina, M., Rivera-Riquelme, M., Rodriguez-Jimenez, T., Martinez-Gonzalez, A. E., Cuijpers, P., et al. (2017). Detectaweb project: study protocol of a web-based detection of mental health of children and adolescents. *BMJ Open* 7, e017218. doi: 10.1136/bmjopen-2017-017218

Plouffe, R. A., Saklofske, D. H., and Smith, M. M. (2017). The assessment of sadistic personality: preliminary psychometric evidence for a new measure. *Pers. Ind. Diff.* 104, 166–171. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2016.07.043

Pronk, J., Olthof, T., Vries, D. E., and Goossens, R. E. (2021). HEXACO personality correlates with adolescents' involvement in bullying situations. *Agg. Behav.* 47, 320–331. doi: 10.1002/ab.21947

Puértolas Jiménez, A., and Montiel Juan, I. (2017). Bullying en la educación secundaria: Una revisión sobre las características de las víctimas y las víctimas-acosadores y las consecuencias de su victimización [Bullying in secondary education: A review on the characteristics of victims and victim-bullies and the consequences of their victimisation]. *Rev. Victimol.* 5, 85–128. doi: 10.12827/RVJV.5.04

Qian, Y., Yang, Y., Lin, P., Xiao, Y., Sun, Y., Sun, Q., et al. (2020). Risk factors associated with school bullying behaviors: A Chinese adolescents case-control study, 2019. *J. Int. Violence* 37, 0886260520976218. doi: 10.1177/0886260520976218

Reijntjes, A., Kamphuis, J. H., Prinzie, P., and Telch, M. J. (2010). Peer victimization and internalizing problems in children: a meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Child Abuse Neglect* 34, 244–252. doi: 10.1016/j.chiabu.2009.07.009

Reisen, A., Viana, M. C., and Santos-Neto, E. T. (2019). Bullying among adolescents: are the victims also perpetrators? *Braz. J. Psychiatry* 41, 518–529. doi: 10.1590/1516-4446-2018-0246

Schreyer, H., Plouffe, R. A., and Wilson, C. A. (2021). What makes a leader? Trait emotional intelligence and Dark Tetrad traits predict transformational leadership beyond HEXACO personality factors. *Curr. Psychol.* 1–10. doi: 10.1007/s12144-021-01571-4

Silva, C. E., Oliveira, D. E., Bandeira, R. V., and De Souza, D. R. D. O. (2012). Violence among peers: a case study in a public school in Esteio/RS-Brazil. *Psicol. Escolar Educ.* 16, 83–93. doi: 10.1590/S1413-85572012000100009

Sorrentino, A., Baldry, A. C., Farrington, D. P., and Blaya, C. (2019). Epidemiology of cyberbullying across Europe: Differences between countries and genders. *Educ. Sci. Theor. Prac.* 19, 2. doi: 10.12738/estp.2019.2.005

Van Geel, M., Goemans, A., Toprak, F., and Vedder, P. (2017). Which personality traits are related to traditional bullying and cyberbullying? A study with the Big Five, Dark Triad and sadism. *Pers. Ind. Diff.* 106, 231–235. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2016.10.063

Van Groningen, A. J., Grawitch, M. J., and Lavigne, K. N. (2021). Every cloud has a silver lining: narcissism's buffering impact on the relationship between the Dark Triad and well-being. *Pers. Ind. Diff.* 171, 110549. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2020.110549

Volk, A., Schiralli, K., Xia, X., Zhao, J., and Dane, A. (2018). Adolescent bullying and personality: a cross-cultural approach. *Pers. Ind. Diff.* 125, 126–132. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2018.01.012

Zhang, Y., Li, Z., Tan, Y., Zhang, X., Zhao, Q., Chen, X., et al. (2021). The influence of personality traits on school bullying: a moderated mediation model. *Front. Psychol.* 12, 650070. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2021.650070

Zych, I., Ortega-Ruiz, R., and Marín-López, I. (2016). Cyberbullying: a systematic review of research, prevalence, and assessment issues in Spanish studies. *Psicol. Educ.* 22, 5–18. doi: 10.1016/j.pse.2016.03.002

Estudio 3

Revista de Psicopatología y Psicología Clínica

CERTIFICADO

Dr. Bonifacio Sandín Ferrero, Director de la REVISTA DE PSICOPATOLOGÍA Y PSICOLOGÍA CLÍNICA, revista oficial de la Asociación Española de Psicología Clínica y Psicopatología (AEPCP),

CERTIFICA

Que el artículo titulado "*Assessment of covitality in Spanish primary school children and its relationship with bullying*", cuyos autores son Ana Martínez-Martínez, David Pineda, Tíscar Rodríguez-Jiménez, María Rivera-Riquelme, Michael Furlong, y José A. Piqueras, ha sido aceptado para su publicación en la *Revista de Psicopatología y Psicología Clínica / Journal of Psychopathology and Clinical Psychology*, editada por la Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia (UNED) y la Asociación Española de Psicología Clínica y Psicopatología (AEPCP).

Y para que así conste, firma el presente certificado en Madrid, a 19 de julio de 2024.

Atentamente,

Prof. Bonifacio Sandín
Director
Revista de Psicopatología y Psicología Clínica
http://revistas.uned.es/index.php/RPPC

*Publicada por la Asociación Española de Psicología Clínica y Psicopatología
y la Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia*

Assessment of Covitality in Spanish Primary School Children and Its Relationship with Bullying

Ana Martínez-Martínez[1], David Pineda[1], Tíscar Rodríguez-Jiménez[2], María Rivera-Riquelme[1], Michael Furlong[3], and José A. Piqueras[1]

[1]*Centro de Psicología Aplicada, Universidad Miguel Hernández de Elche, Alicante, Spain*

[2]*Universidad de Zaragoza, Zaragoza, Spain*

[3]*University of California Santa Barbara, California*

Running head: Covitality and Bullying in Spanish Primary Schools

Correspondence: Ana Martínez Martínez, Centro de Psicología Aplicada, Universidad Miguel Hernández de Elche, avenida de la Universidad s/n, 03202 Elche, Alicante, Spain. E-mail: ana.martinezm@umh.es

Abstract: The Social Emotional Health Survey-Primary (SEHS-P) assesses positive psychological traits in primary students, comprising four first-order factors (gratitude, enthusiasm, optimism, and persistence), and one second-order factor (covitality). This study aimed to evaluate the social emotional competences from the covitality model in Spanish primary school children, as well as the association between covitality and bullying experiences. The sample consisted of 882 children (M_{age} = 9.62; SD = 1.17). Confirmatory factor analysis and measurement invariance validated the SEHS-P, replicating the original US sample's factor structure. Concurrent validity analyses examined the relationship between covitality and a comprehensive overview of child's psychological and behavioral functioning, including bullying. The findings reinforce the relevance of SEHS-P and applicability in assessing elementary students' well-being in Spain. Implications for theory, practice, and future research are discussed, highlighting the utility of SEHS-P as a social-emotional health assessment tool and its relationship with bullying experiences.

Keywords: Positive psychological traits, Positive psychology, School psychology, Well-being, Strengths.

Evaluación de la Covitalidad en Niños de Educación Primaria y su Relación con el Acoso Escolar

Resumen: El Cuestionario de Salud Socioemocional-Primaria (SEHS-P) evalúa los rasgos psicológicos positivos en estudiantes de primaria, comprendiendo cuatro factores de primer orden (gratitud, entusiasmo, optimismo y persistencia) y un factor de segundo orden (covitalidad). Este estudio tuvo como objetivo evaluar las competencias socioemocionales desde el modelo de Covitalidad en niños de primaria en España, así como analizar la asociación entre la covitalidad y las experiencias de acoso escolar. La muestra consistió en 882 niños (M_{edad} = 9.62; DT = 1.17). El análisis factorial confirmatorio y la invarianza de medida indicaron evidencias de validez para el SEHS-P, replicando la estructura factorial de la muestra original de EE.UU. Los análisis de validez concurrente examinaron la relación entre la covitalidad y una visión integral del funcionamiento psicológico y conductual del niño, incluyendo el acoso escolar. Los hallazgos refuerzan la relevancia del SEHS-P y su aplicabilidad en la evaluación del bienestar de los estudiantes de primaria en España. Se discuten las implicaciones para la teoría, la práctica y futuras investigaciones, destacando la utilidad del SEHS-P como herramienta de evaluación de la salud socioemocional y su relación con las experiencias de acoso escolar.

Palabras clave: Rasgos psicológicos positivos, Psicología positiva, Psicología escolar, Bienestar, Fortalezas.

Traditionally, research in mental health has focused mainly on the development of conceptions that explain psychopathology in terms of psychological distress, neglecting health aspects such as well-being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). However, since 1948, the World Health Organization (WHO) has defined mental health by highlighting its positive dimension, taking into account the physical, mental and social well-being of the person, understanding mental health as a global state, and not only as the absence of illness. According to the WHO (2014), mental health is "the state of well-being in which the individual is aware of his or her own abilities, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to his or her community".

Therefore, in recent years, evidence has been provided in favour of a two-dimensional model of mental health, which conceptualizes discomfort and well-being as related yet distinct continuums that, when considered together, offer a more complete understanding of the mental state (Keyes, 2006). This model has a number of advantages: it is applicable to all individuals and promotes the development of strong and successful people, rather than preventing psychological problems (Keyes, 2006). In addition, to measure mental health, both the presence of emotional distress and well-being must be taken into account (Keyes, 2002, 2006).

In children and adolescents, this model has been supported by different authors (Eryilmaz, 2012; Kelly et al., 2012; Suldo et al., 2011), finding that both the presence of psychological distress and the absence of psychological well-being are associated with school deterioration; therefore, considering both indicators provides greater predictive value in the adaptation to the school environment. All this leads us to emphasize that the two-dimensional model of mental health suggests that efforts aimed at improving positive mental health deserve shared attention with traditional efforts focused on decreasing psychological deterioration and symptoms (Furlong et al., 2014).

Recently, researchers have begun using this alternative definition of mental health in school mental health practice (Kim et al., 2019). Some authors have suggested that school-based mental health assessment should optimally consider both positive and negative indicators of mental health, a balanced model that explains students' psychological well-being better than traditional deficit-oriented assessment (Kim et al., 2014).

According to Kim et al. (2019), despite the interest in positive mental health, there is a substantial need for the promotion of the positive dimensions of mental health and specifically in the development of empirically validated assessment tools. Due to the traditional focus on repairing harm rather than building strengths, a greater number of instruments have been developed and used for mental health distress indicators compared to strengths-based instruments (LeBuffe & Shapiro, 2004). Widely used mental health screening and assessment tools are now predominantly deficit focused instruments, such as those focusing on risk behaviours (e.g., tobacco, alcohol and other drug use, sexual risk behaviours and violence; e.g., Kann et al., 2014). Population-based screening surveys that focus on negative indicators of youth development have the benefit of raising awareness among education and public health policymakers to justify investing resources in prevention and intervention services that promote the health of high-risk children and adolescents (Kann et al., 2014). However, data from screening surveys alone do not provide information about the living conditions and experiences of most young people, who report limited participation in risk behaviours or rarely evidence symptoms of psychological distress (You et al., 2014). These surveys also fail to capture and assess the positive indicators of youth development (e.g., gratitude) that are known to be associated with students' overall well-being and quality of life (Huebner et al., 2012), which include students who are successfully and productively participating in their schoolwork and school life.

Due to the lack of appropriate strengths-based assessment instruments to identify positive psychological functioning in youth, Furlong et al. (2014) created the Social Emotional Health Survey (SEHS) to provide a more complete picture of youth mental health. Researchers with a positive perspective on youth development have started to design and validate various strengths-based assessments. The SEHS was developed within the covitality model framework, a positive psychology-based model established in the last decade at the International Center for School-Based Youth Development at the University of California, led by Michael Furlong (Furlong et al., 2014). This model examines positive psychology constructs to assess well-being. Covitality represents the synergy of positive constructs that foster strength and resilience, countering psychopathological comorbidity. It involves developing positive intra- and interpersonal self-schemas, which shape psychosocial adjustment and prevent mental health issues (Paz & Kim, 2022). The SEHS demonstrates advanced understanding of the social-emotional well-being of young people (Furlong et al., 2014; for updated research, see Paz & Kim, 2022).

Specifically, the SEHS measures not only isolated, individual social-emotional constructs but also the multidimensional higher-order construct of covitality, which encompasses various psychological, social, and emotional traits associated with positive youth development (Renshaw et al., 2014). As a counterpart to "comorbidity", which has been commonly used in psychopathology, "covitality" is defined as the "synergistic effect of positive mental health resulting from the interplay among multiple positive psychological building blocks" (Furlong et al., 2013, p. 3). This concept indicates that positive traits often coexist in individuals, solidifying and interacting together. Weiss and Luciano (2015) explored the theoretical and empirical foundations of covitality in the areas of genetics, evolution and personality, supporting its potential universality across cultures. To validate this universality, researchers must examine the invariance of SEHS measures in different cultural contexts (Furlong et al., 2009).

For the use of this scale with young children in schools, Furlong et al. (2013) developed the Social Emotional Health Survey- Primary (SEHS-P). Based on research on positive psychology, the SEHS-P was developed as a brief self-report measure to assess four particular attributes (gratitude, enthusiasm, optimism, and persistence) that are related to children's well-being (Furlong et al., 2013).

Social Emotional Health Survey-Primary research

Compared to the SEHS-Secondary (Furlong et al., 2014), the version of the SEHS Primary (SEHS-P; originally called Positive Experiences at School Scale (PEASS); Furlong et al., 2013) is much less studied. SEHS-P is a brief, self-reported assessment scale appropriate for application to elementary school students. This scale is composed of subscales that measure four positive psychological traits: persistence, gratitude, zest, and optimism, all of which have been shown to be associated with youth well-being, life satisfaction, academic achievement, and school engagement (Furlong et al., 2013). SEHS-P has been used as a universal school mental health assessment tool in combination with deficit based symptom measures to identify students who report low covitality (these students are not always identified with deficit focused assessment tools alone) and who report high symptoms of psychological distress (Kim et al., 2014). Furlong and colleagues (2013) found that the second-order latent trait of covitality was associated with increased reports of feeling safe at school, while lower covitality scores were associated with increased reports of bullying at school. Furlong and colleagues also added another component to SEHS-P, namely "prosocial behaviour".

Previous studies of SEHS-P have supported its psychometric properties with elementary students in Turkey (Telef, 2016), United States (Chan et al., 2019; Furlong et al., 2013), China (Chan et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018; Xie et al., 2018), South Korea (Kim et al., 2019), Japan (Iida et al., 2021), and United Kingdom (Castro-Kemp et al., 2019). In addition, others validation studies with diverse cultural samples supported the psychometric properties of the SEHS-P. Specifically, the alpha for the SEHS-P total covitality score was .88 for a sample of Chinese youth (Wang et al., 2018), .93 for a sample of Australian youth (Wilkins et al., 2015), and an omega coefficient of .91 for a Californian sample (Wagle et al., 2021). In addition, the SEHS-P has demonstrated strong internal reliability and convergent validity with other indicators of youth well-being. SEHS-P was significantly correlated with prosocial school behavior (r = .65 to .66) and school participation (r = .66) among Australian youth (Wilkins et al., 2015), and was significantly (p < .001) correlated with final exam scores (r = .13 to .18), and negatively correlated with depressive symptoms (r = - .15) and victimization and perpetration (r = - .32 to - .15) among Chinese youth (Chan et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2016; Xie et al., 2018), and associations with measures of psychological distress and satisfaction with classroom life with coefficients from moderate to large size (.37 to .57) in Japanese children (Iida et al., 2021) or concurrent validity in US and UK school belonging studies (Moffa et al., 2019). The SEHS-P has also demonstrated invariance across a Chinese and an US sample (Chan et al., 2019). Additionally, the SEHS-P has been useful in evaluating the effectiveness of interventions programs to reduce bullying. Thus, an eight-week Growth Psychoeducation Intervention program, aimed at

enhancing primary school students' covitality, showed successful improvement in covitality and school belonging, as well as a reduction in bullying victimization among Chinese children (Fang et al., 2021). In Spain, Martinez-Martinez and colleagues (2021) evaluated the effectiveness of the Action for Neutralization of Bullying Program (ANA), which aims to enhance empathy, assertiveness, communication, conflict resolution, and group cohesion. Their study demonstrated significant reductions in verbal abuse, direct social exclusion, threats, aggression with objects, and physical abuse. Additionally, an improvement in covitality levels was observed, albeit with a small effect size. These findings, along with other studies, provide empirical support for using the SEHS-P to identify both positive and negative school outcomes in various countries.

Overall, validation of SEHS-P in different cultural groups is still limited (Furlong et al., 2013). To fill this gap, the aim of this study is to examine the psychometric properties of SEHS-P in a sample of Spanish elementary school students as well as examinate the association between covitality and bullying-related experiences and behaviors.

Method

Sample

The sample was composed by 445 boys (50.45%) and 437 girls (49.55%), which represents a total of 882 children from 8 to 12 years old, whose average age was 9.62 (*SD* = 1.17) years. Educational level ranged of 3rd to 6th degree from primary school.

Procedure

Participants were recruited from a several primary school in Alicante, Spain. Parents and participants were both informed that it was voluntary and anonymous, consisted in filling out a battery of questionnaires as part of a longer assessment. Approval for the study was obtained from the ethics committee of the Miguel Hernandez University (Reference DPS.JPR.01.16). To examining the test-retest reliability of the SEHS-P, participants refilled the questionnaire after a 6-month interval.

Instruments

Revised Social Emotional Health Survey-Primary-Spanish Version (SEHS-P-S). The SEHS-P (Furlong et al., 2013) initially named as Positive Experiences at School Scale (PEASS), is a 20-item self-report questionnaire to assess four school-anchored positive-psychological traits that are linked with youth well-being and school engagement: gratitude, zest, optimism, and persistence. The total score of the four subscales is a measure of the student covitality. One of the drawbacks finded during the translation process was the gratitude means in the Spanish context. Grammatical constructions such as "¿Te sientes agradecido de ir a tu colegio?" aren't really often among children. Trying to solve this trouble, three additional items referred to the gratitude concept were added. Currently, is carried out a process of revision of the instrument by the author of the test. Although this process is not finished, six additional items have been added for this revision. Therefore, the final version we used contained 29 items. We employed the SEHS-P instructions and response categories that assess level of agree with the sentence on a six-point scale (1 = no, never, 6 = yes, always). The Spanish version of SEHS-P was developed in accordance with the guidelines of the International Test Commission (Muñiz et al., 2013) using the iterative-translation method which began with several independent translations, which were reviewed by a joint committee which included, in addition to translators with knowledge of Spanish and Argentinean languages and culture, specialists in the field of evaluation who analysed the adequacy of the adapted version. The discrepancies arising were discussed and the appropriate corrections made to the SEHS-P-S.

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Child Short Form (TEIQue-CSF; Mavroveli et al., 2008). This questionnaire is designed to measure global trait emotional intelligence (trait EI) for children aged 8 to 12 years and includes 36 items responded to on a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). The total score indicates global trait EI. This questionnaire is available, free of charge for academic research purposes, from the London Psychometric Laboratory. We used the Spanish adaptation by Benito and González-Perez, which is in the process of adaptation by them and our research team.

Child and Adolescent Assessment System (*Sistema de Evaluación de Niños y Adolescentes*; SENA; Fernández-Pinto et al., 2015a, 2015b) consists of a total of 9 questionnaires aimed at three age levels: Infant (3-6 years), Primary (6-12 years) and Secondary (12-18 years). In this study, the self-report of Primary 6-12 years old was used. In this scale, the child should assess the frequency of occurrence of the described behavior by means of a five-option Likert scale: Never or almost never, Rarely; Sometimes; Often; Always or almost always. The questionnaire offers the block of internalizing problems including the scales Depression (DEP), Anxiety (ANS), Social Anxiety (ASC), Somatic Complaints (SOM), Post-Traumatic Symptomatology (PST) and Obsession-Compulsion (OBS). In the group of externalizing problems are included the scales of Inattention (ATE), Hyperactivity-impulsivity (HIP), Anger control problems (IRA), Aggression (AGR), Challenging behavior (DES) and Antisocial behavior (ANT). In a third block, several scales are included to assess other types of specific problems, such as Eating Disorders (ALI), Developmental Delays (RET), Learning Disabilities (APR), Schizotyping (ESQ), Substance Use (SUS) and Unusual Behavior (INU). The last block is made up of the Contextual Problems Scales: Family Problems (FAM), Problems with School (ESC) and Problems with Peers (COM). In addition to the problem scales, SENA includes others to evaluate some relevant variables for the understanding of the case and to guide possible interventions. The block of vulnerability scales allows for the evaluation of aspects such as Emotional Regulation Problems (ER), Rigidity (IGR), Isolation (ISA), Attachment Difficulties (APE) and Sensation Seeking (BUS). The last block is formed by the scales of personal resources, which include Self-esteem (AUT),

Integration and Social Competence (SOC), Emotional Intelligence (IEM), Problem Awareness (CNC) and Study Readiness (EST). From the combination of the above scales, the SENA allows us to obtain several indexes: Global Index of Problems, Index of Emotional Problems, Index of Behavioral Problems, Index of Problems in Executive Functions, Index of Contextual Problems and Index of Resources. Different studies have supported the reliability and validity of the measure (Sánchez-Sánchez et al., 2016).

For this study, we used specially scores from SENA scales like Aggression, with items such as "Threaten others to get what I want," "Take advantage of others if I can," "Mock other people for fun," or "Deliberately break or damage other people's things," among other items; the "Peer Problems scale", with items like "Some classmates force me to do things I don't want to do," "They insult me at school," "They hit me at school," or "I'm afraid of a classmate"; and the "School Problems scale", with items such as "My teachers only see what I do wrong" or "I hate school." There are also standalone items like "I have a hard time at school."

Statistical Analyses

An initial exploratory analysis was performed to examine the presence of atypical cases and missing values. Checks on the adequacy of the data for factor analysis were made. To obtain evidence of the instrument's construct validity in a Spanish sample, we tested the original model proposed by Furlong et al. (2013) using the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) procedure. In accordance with the ordinal nature of the items, the analyses were based on polychoric correlation matrix; the Unweighted Least Squares (ULS) was chosen as method to estimating parameters. Simulation studies have shown that this method provide more accurate and less variable parameter estimates, as well as more precise standard errors and better coverage rates (Forero et al., 2009). The fit of the model was determined by a combination of Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square (χ^2, *p* < .05), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA < .08) with its Confidence Interval, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR < .05) Comparative Fit Index (CFI > .95), and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI > .90) fit indices. Alpha and ordinal omega values were calculated to check the reliability of the SEHS-P and the different subscales. To analyse temporal stability, the correlations of scores after a 6-month interval were calculated.

The progressive evaluation of the factorial invariance (FI) or the step-up constraints method, following the procedure described by Dimitrov (2010), was conducted. More specifically, we check for configural invariance (Model 0), wear or metric invariance (Model 1), strong invariance (Model 2), strict invariance (Model 3), and structural invariance (Model 4) (see Table 1). In large samples cases, it has been suggested that changes on comparative fit index (CFI) could be the best indicator of invariance (Meade et al., 2008). Following the criteria proposed by (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002), we assume that differences between the values in the CFI less than -.01 are evidence of FI. Finally, the multi-trait correlation matrix was computed to assess convergent and discriminant validity.

The statistical analyses were performed using the statistical program R (R Core Team, 2016), the Lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012) and the syntax described by Beaujean (2014).

Table 1. Steps for checking the invariance between the sexes

Base model	Restricted parameters to equal the groups	Comparative models (ΔCFI)	Type of invariance
Model 0	None	-	Equivalence of the configural model
Model 1	Factorial loads	M1-M0	Weak Measurement Invariance
Model 2	M1+item intercepts	M2-M1	Strong measurement invariance
Model 3	M2+items residual variances/covariances	M3-M2	Strict measurement invariance
Model 4	M2+factor residual variances/covariances	M4-M2	Structural invariance

Results

In the initial exploratory analysis, 3 of the 885 participants were discarded because of missing values. No extreme scores were seen. The results of the analysis of the sample suitability of the data for factorial analysis are shown below. Bartlett's test for sphericity contrast allows us to reject the hypothesis that the population correlation matrix is identity (Bartlett $_{(gl = 406)}$ = 8188.75; $p < .001$). The value of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test (KMO = .95) suggests that the correlation matrix is appropriate for further factorial analysis.

The results of the CFA are showed in Table 2. These results confirmed the second-order factorial structure proposed by original authors, as well as the structure of the original SEHS-P.

Table 2. CFA adjustment indexes for the SEHS-P factor model (N = 882)

Tested model	S-B χ 2 (df)	RMSEA [90% CI]	SRMR	CFI	TLI
4+1 Hierarchical factors [a]	918.037(165)	.075 [.070 - .080]	.048	.986	.984

Note: a = Hierarchical model with 4+1 first-order factors and 1 higher-order factor (Furlong et al., 2013).

These results confirmed the second-order factorial structure proposed by original authors, as well as the structure of the original SEHS-P (see Figure 1).
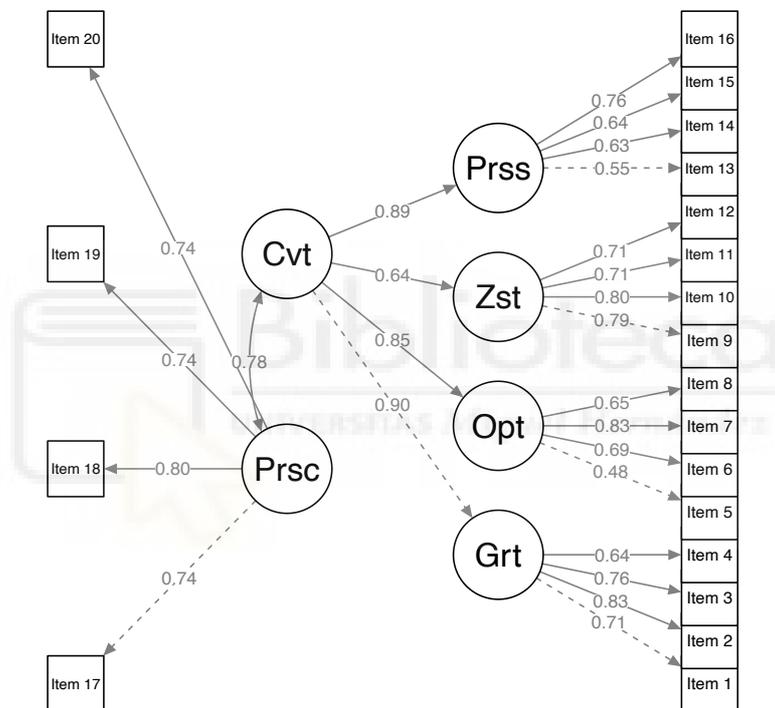
Note: Cvt = Covitality; Prss = Persistence; Zst = Zest; Opt = Optimism; Grt = Gratitude; Prsc = Prosociality.

Figure 1. SEHS-P Path diagrams of the standardized model.

Cronbach's alphas were between .73 and .84 for SEHS-P domains and .91 for covitality, while McDonald's omegas were between .73 and .84 for SEHS-P domains and .92, showing small differences between the two indexes (see Table 3).

Table 3. Reliability indexes for SEHS-P domains and covitality

	Factor	Cronbach's alpha	McDonald's omega
First order	Gratitude	.826	.826
	Optimism	.729	.733
	ZEST	.838	.838
	Persistence	.729	.736
	Prosociality	.838	.842
Second order	Covitality	.906	.924

Regarding de FI, we have found evidence of IF up to strict measurement invariance (see Table 4), this indicates that the same number of factors best represents the data for all (Model 0), the different groups respond to the items in the same way (Model 1), the individuals who have the same score on the latent construct would obtain the same score on the observed variable regardless of their group membership (Model 2), furthermore, we can say that measurement parameters are exactly the same across groups or measurement occasions (Model 3), Finally, we don't satisfy the criteria of structural invariance, so we cannot guarantee that all latent variables have the same scores and relationship across groups (Model 4).

Table 4. Results of the invariance analysis for sexes

Model	Description	Comparative models	CFI	ΔCFI
M0	None	-	.984	-
M1	Factorial loads	M1-M0	.974	-.010
M2	M1+item intercepts	M2-M1	.974	.000
M3	M2+items residual variances/covariances	M3-M2	.972	-.002
M4	M2+factor residual variances/covariances	M4-M2	.957	-.016

The standardized factor loadings for the SEHS-P-S items has been showed in Table 5.

Table 5. The items loaded satisfactorily to their considered factors, with no outstanding cross weights

	Gratitude	Optimism	Zest	Persistence	Prosociality
SEHS_02	.71				
SEHS_03	.83				
SEHS_04	.76				
SEHS_05	.64				
SEHS_07		.48			
SEHS_08		.69			
SEHS_09		.83			
SEHS_10		.65			
SEHS_11			.79		
SEHS_12			.80		
SEHS_15			.71		
SEHS_16			.70		
SEHS_17				.55	
SEHS_18				.63	
SEHS_19				.64	
SEHS_20				.76	
SEHS_22					.75
SEHS_23					.80
SEHS_24					.74
SEHS_25					.74

As can be seen, the Table 6 shows the bivariate correlations between the SEHS-P domains and other variables to evaluate convergent and discriminant validity. The higher direct connections were found between the second order factor covitality and Emotional Intelligence (r = .508**, p < .001) and SENA scale of "Integration and Social Competence" (r = 523**, p < .001). Conversely indirect correlations were found between the different SEHS-P-S domains and some of the SENA scales. As can be seen in Table 6, indicators most related to behaviors and experiences of school bullying, such as Aggression, Problems with Peers, and Problems with School, were mor associated with covitality.

Table 6. Bivariate correlations between the SEHS-P factors and other variables.

	Gratitude	Optimism	Zest	Persistence	Prosociality	Covitality
Emotion-expression	.264**	.345**	.290**	.271**	.237**	.380**
Emotion-perception	.211**	.272**	.096	.192**	.184**	.233**
Self-motivation	.355**	.301**	.184**	.295**	.360**	.338**
Self-esteem	.353**	.421**	.201**	.320**	.314**	.382**
Low impulsivity	.220**	.213**	.237**	.258**	.317**	.298**
Peer relations	.380**	.349**	.324**	.310**	.281**	.448**
Emotion regulation	.418**	.428**	.243**	.332**	.430**	.419**
Affective disposition	.238**	.273**	.105	.239**	.329**	.240**
Emotional Intelligence	.461**	.496**	.310**	.415**	.454**	.508**
Aggression	-.221**	-.275**	-.236**	-.263**	-.516**	-.281**
Anxiety	-.124	-.231**	-.161*	-.171*	-.196**	-.225**
Social Anxiety	-.078	-.228**	-.200**	-.171*	-.183**	-.229**
Inattention	-.181**	-.289**	-.331**	-.345**	-.418**	-.395**
Self-esteem	.205**	.310**	.224**	.062	.158*	.256**
Problems with Peers	-.273**	-.331**	-.296**	-.297**	-.409**	-.365**
Depression	-.305**	-.346**	-.328**	-.273**	-.409**	-.377**
Challenging behavior	-.178**	-.239**	-.203**	-.281**	-.424**	-.280**
Problems with School	-.252**	-.252**	-.338**	-.320**	-.369**	-.398**
Family Problems	-.056	-.142*	-.140*	-.107	-.257**	-.142*
Hyperactivity-impulsivity	-.190**	-.209**	-.184**	-.244**	-.432**	-.256**
Anger control problems	-.251**	-.301**	-.215**	-.222**	-.382**	-.289**
Post-Traumatic Symptomatology	-.120	-.224**	-.199**	-.162*	-.267**	-.253**
Emotion Regulation Problems	-.073	-.224**	-.147*	-.156*	-.173**	-.202**
Integration and Social Competence	.465**	.499**	.377**	.404**	.382**	.523**
Somatic Complaints	-.246**	-.304**	-.242**	-.249**	-.278**	-.320**

Note: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$.

Discussion

The present study provides further empirical support for the SEHS-P, demonstrating its robust psychometric properties and practical utility in diverse cultural contexts. Previous research has consistently validated the SEHS-P across various countries, including the United States, China, South Korea, Japan, and the United Kingdom (Chan et al., 2019; Castro-Kemp et al., 2019; Furlong et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2019; Iida et al., 2021; Moffa et al., 2019, Telef et al, 2016). Our findings align with these studies, reinforcing the internal reliability and convergent validity of SEHS-P.

Thus, the main aim of the current study was to assess the psychometric properties of the Spanish version of the SEHS-P. A good fit of the model proposed was shown by the confirmatory factor analyses. This model consists in a second-order factorial structure with gratitude, optimism, zest, persistence, and prosociality as first order factors and covitality as a second order factor. Furthermore, the factor loadings for all the factors were really high for all the items (.48 to .83). The model described for the Spanish version of the SEHS-P replicates the one described by the original authors (Furlong et al., 2013) and it is also similar to other adaptations of the instrument in different languages (i.e., Chan et al., 2019; Iida et al., 2021; Moffa et al., 2019, Telef et al, 2016; You et al., 2014).

Regarding the internal consistency of the instrument, our analysis reported acceptable to good reliability for the first order factors (i.e. gratitude, optimism, zest, persistence, and prosociality) and an excellent internal consistency for the second order factor, (i.e. covitality). These internal consistency reliabilities were also analogous to the ones reported in previous studies with different populations with high alpha and omega coefficients (Chan et al., 2019; Furlong et al., 2013; Iida et al., 2021; Moffa et al., 2019, Telef et al, 2016; Wagle et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2018; Wilkins et al., 2015; You et al., 2014). This consistency highlights the instrument's reliability in measuring covitality among elementary students in diverse cultural settings.

The analyses performed to assess the structural invariance between gender showed sufficient invariance between males and females, these results extend the ones given by Furlong et al. (2013) in the original instrument and in further analyses (Furlong et al., 2014). Thus, offering the SEHS-P as an appropriate measure of covitality for males and females.

In addition, regarding the convergent and discriminant validity evidences of the SEHS-P domains and total score —as expected due to the well-being orientation of the measure (Furlong., 2013; Keyes, 2006)— showed medium to large significant correlations with psychological strengths such as Emotional Intelligence and social competence and low to moderate with psychological problems such internalizing, externalizing symptoms and different risk factors for mental health. Notably, the strongest direct correlation was found between the second-order factor covitality and Emotional Intelligence (r = .508, *p* < .001). This indicates that higher levels of covitality are associated with better emotional intelligence, supporting the notion that positive psychological constructs synergistically enhance overall well-being. Conversely, negative correlations were observed between SEHS-P domains and several problematic behaviors and psychological symptoms, including aggression, anxiety, social anxiety, inattention, and depression. These findings highlight the SEHS-P's capacity to discriminate between positive psychological health and various indicators of maladjustment. In short, results were coherent with those reported by previous studies with samples formed by children and adolescents students with different cultural backgrounds (Furlong et al., 2014; Iida et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2018; Wilkins et al., 2015). Additionally, this study confirms previous findings by Furlong and colleagues (2013) reporting that the first and second-order latent trait of covitality were associated with increased reports of feeling safe at school, while lower covitality scores were associated with increased reports of bullying at school.

To our knowledge, this is the first study to examine the psychometric properties of a Spanish version of the SEHS-P, and a further aim of this study was to allow for cross cultural comparations with Spanish speaking populations. Overall, the Spanish version of the SEHS-P shows similar properties and factor structure compared to other versions. Additionally, this study supports the association between covitality and bullying experiences and behaviors.

Limitations and conclusion

In conclusion, the SEHS-P has proven to be a reliable and valid instrument for assessing social-emotional health among elementary students across different cultural contexts, specifically for a Spanish children sample in this study. Its ability to measure intervention outcomes, such as those demonstrated by the GPI (Fang et al., 2021) or Action for Neutralization of Bullying (ANA) Program (Martínez-Martinez et al., 2021), further solidifies its role in promoting positive youth development and reducing negative school experiences, such as bullying victimization. Future research should continue to explore the SEHS-P's applicability in other cultural settings and its potential in informing targeted interventions to enhance student well-being.

References

Beaujean, A. A. (2014). Latent variable modeling using R: A step-by-step guide. Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315869780

Castro-Kemp, S., Palikara, O., Gaona, C., Vasiliki, E., & Furlong, M. J. (2019). The Role of Psychological Sense of School Membership and Postcode as Predictors of Profiles of Socio-emotional Health in Primary School Children in England. *School Mental Health*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12310-019-09349-7

Chan, M., Yang, C., Furlong, M. J., Dowdy, E., & Xie, J. S. (2019). Association between social-emotional strengths and school membership: A cross-cultural comparison. International *Journal of School & Educational Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1080/21683603.2019.1677539

Cheung, G. W., & Rensvold, R. B. (2002). Evaluating goodness-of-fit indexes for testing measurement invariance. *Structural Equation Modeling, 9*(2), 233–255. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15328007SEM0902_5

Eryilmaz, A. (2012). A model of subjective well-being for adolescents in high school. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *13*(2), 275-789.

Fang, M., Zhang, L., Pan, D., & Xie, J. (2021). Evaluating a psychoeducation program to foster Chinese primary school students' covitality. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 18*(16), 8703. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18168703

Sánchez-Sánchez, F., Fernández-Pinto, I., Santamaría, P., Carrasco, M. A., & del Barrio, V. (2016). SENA, Sistema de Evaluación de Niños y Adolescentes: proceso de desarrollo y evidencias de fiabilidad y validez. *Revista de Psicología clínica con Niños y Adolescentes, 3*(2), 23-34.

Fernández-Pinto, I., Santamaría, P., Sánchez-Sánchez, F., Carrasco, M. A., & del Barrio, V. (2015a). SENA. Sistema de Evaluación de Niños y Adolescentes. Manual técnico. Madrid: TEA Ediciones.

Fernández-Pinto, I., Santamaría, P., Sánchez-Sánchez, F., Carrasco, M. A., & del Barrio, V. (2015b). SENA. Sistema de Evaluación de Niños y Adolescentes. Manual de aplicación, corrección e interpretación. Madrid: TEA Ediciones.

Forero, C. G, Maydeu-Olivares, A. & Gallardo-Pujol, D. (2009). Factor analysis with ordinal indicators: A monte Carlo study comparing DWLS and ULS estimation. *Structural Equation Modeling, 16*, 625-641.

Furlong, M. J., Ritchey, K. M., & O'Brennan, L. M. (2009). Developing norms for the California Resilience Youth Development Module: Internal assets and school resources subscales. *California School Psychologist, 14*, 35–46. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03340949

Furlong, M. J., You, S., Renshaw, T. L., O'Malley, M. D., & Rebelez, J. (2013). Preliminary development of the Positive Experiences at School Scale for elementary school children. *Child Indicators Research*, *6*, 753–775. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12187- 013-9193-7

Furlong, M. J., You, S., Renshaw, T. L., Smith, D. C., & D O'Malley, M. (2014). Preliminary development and validation of the Social and Emotional Health Survey for secondary school students. *Social Indicators Research*, *117*(3), 1011-1032.

Huebner, E. S., Antaramian, S. P., & Heffner, A. L. (2012). Perceived quality of life research on children and youth: Implications for a system of national indicators. In K. Land (Ed.), *The wellbeing of America's children* (Vol. 6, pp. 121–141). Heidelberg, DE: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-4092-1_5

Iida, J., Ito, A., Aoyama, I., Sugimoto, K., Endo, H., Chan, M., & Furlong, M. J. (2021). Validation of a social emotional wellness survey among Japanese elementary school students. *The Educational and Developmental Psychologist,* *38*(1), 121-130. https://doi.org/10.1080/20590776.2021.1899748

Kann, L., Kinchen, S., Shanklin, S., Flint, K. H., Hawkins, J., Harris, W. A. ... Zaza, S. (2014). Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance—United States, 2013. *MMWR, Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report*, *63*(4). Retrieved from www. cdc.gov/mmwr/pdf/ss/ss6304.pdf

Kelly, R. M., Hills, K. J., Huebner, E. S., & McQuillin, S. D. (2012). The longitudinal stability and dynamics of group membership in the dual-factor model of mental health: Psychosocial predictors of mental health. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology*, *27*(4), 337-355.

Keyes, C. L. (2002). The mental health continuum: From languishing to flourishing in life. Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 207-222.

Keyes, C. L. (2006). Mental health in adolescence: is America's youth flourishing?. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, *76*(3), 395.

Kim, E., Dowdy, E., & Furlong, M. J. (2014). An exploration of using a dual-factor model in school-based mental health screening. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology*, *29*, 127– 140. https://doi.org/10.1177/0829573514529567

Kim, E. K., Dowdy, E., Furlong, M. M., & You, S. (2019). Complete mental health screening: Psychological strengths and life satisfaction in Korean students. *Child Indicators Research*, *12*(3), 901-915.

Liu, H., Han, B., Li, X., Wang, L., & Xiao, Q. (2016). Reliability and validity of Social Emotional Health Survey–Elementary in Chinese children. *Chinese Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *24*, 450–454. https://doi.org/10.16128/j. cnki.1005-3611.2016.03.015

Martínez-Martínez, A., Pineda, D., Galán, M., Marzo, J.C., & Piqueras, J. A. (2021). Effects of the Action for Neutralization of Bullying Program on Bullying in Spanish Schoolchildren. I*nternational Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health,* *18*(13): 6898. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18136898

Mavroveli, S., Petrides, K. V., Shove, C., & Whitehead, A. (2008). Investigation of the construct of trait emotional intelligence in children. *European Child & Adolescent Psychiatry, 17*(8), 516-526. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00787-008-0696-6

Meade, A. W., Johnson, E. C., & Braddy, P. W. (2008). Power and sensitivity of alternative fit indices in tests of measurement invariance. *The Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(3), 568–592. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.3.568

Moffa, K., Wagle, R., Dowdy, E., Palikara, O., Castro, S., Dougherty, D., & Furlong, M. J. (2019). The me and my school questionnaire: Examining the cross-cultural validity of a children's self-report mental health measure. *International Journal of School and Educational Psychology, 9*(1), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1080/21683603. 2019.1650858

Muñiz, J., Elosua, P., & Hambleton, R. K. (2013). Directrices para la traducción y adaptación de los tests: Segunda edición. *Psicothema, 25*(2), 151–157. https://doi.org/10.7334/psicothema2013.24

Paz, J. L., & Kim, E. K. (2022). Covitality: Cultivating Psychosocial Strengths and Well-Being. In K. Allen, M. J. Furlong, D. Vella-Brodrick, & S. M. Suldo (Eds.), *Handbook of Positive Psychology in Schools: Supporting Process and Practice* (pp. 38-55). Routledge.

R Core Team. (2016). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing. Vienna, Austria.

Renshaw, T. L., Furlong, M. J., Dowdy, E., Rebelez, J., Smith, D. C., O'Malley, I., ... Strom, I. F. (2014). Covitality: A synergistic conception of adolescents' mental health. In M. J. Furlong, R. Gilman, & E. S. Huebner (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology in the schools* (2nd ed., pp. 12–32). New York, NY: Routledge/Taylor & Francis.

Rosseel, Y. (2012). lavaan: An R Package for Structural Equation Modeling. *Journal of Statistical Software, 48*(2), 1–36. https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v048.i02

Ryff, C. D., & Keyes, C. L. M. (1995). The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *69*(4), 719-727.

Sánchez-Sánchez, F., Fernández-Pinto, I., Santamaría, P., Carrasco, M. A., & del Barrio, V. (2016). SENA, Sistema de Evaluación de Niños y Adolescentes: proceso de desarrollo y evidencias de fiabilidad y validez. *Revista de Psicología clínica con Niños y Adolescentes, 3*(2), 23-34.

Suldo, S., Thalji, A., & Ferron, J. (2011). Longitudinal academic outcomes predicted by early adolescents' subjective well-being, psychopathology, and mental health status yielded from a dual factor model. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, *6*(1), 17-30.

Telef, B. B. (2016). Validity and reliability study of Positive Experiences at School Scale. *Journal of Human Sciences, 13* (2), 2475–2487. https://doi.org/10.14687/jhs.vl3i2.3562

Wagle, R., Dowdy, E., Nylund-Gibson, K., Sharkey, J. D., Carter, D., & Furlong, M. J. (2021). School belonging constellations considering complete mental health in primary schools. *Educational and Developmental Psychologist, 38*(2), 173-185. https://doi.org/10.1080/20590776.2021.1964071

Weiss, A., & Luciano, M. (2015). The genetics and evolution of covitality. In A. Weiss (Ed.), *Genetics of psychological well-being: The role of heritability and genetics in positive psychology* (pp. 146–160). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Wilkins, B., Boman, P., & Mergler, A. (2015). Positive psychological strengths and school engagement in primary school children. Cogent Education, 2(1), 1095680.

World Health Organization (2014). Mental health: A state of well being. Retrieved from www.who.int/features/factfiles/ mental_health/en

You, S., Furlong, M. J., Dowdy, E., Renshaw, T. L., Smith, D. C., & O'Malley, M. D. (2014). Further validation of the Social and Emotional Health Survey for high school students. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, *9*, 997–1015. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-013-9282-2

Appendix I
Social Emotional Health Survey-Primary (SEHS-P)
(Furlong, You, Renshaw, O'Malley, & Rebelez, 2013)

Lee cada elemento y elige la respuesta que mejor te describe. Por favor, se sincero/a en tus respuestas. Esto no es un examen y no hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas. Puedes saltarte cualquier pregunta que no quieras contestar. Levanta la mano si tienes alguna pregunta.

Marca la respuesta que consideres verdadera con un círculo.

1	2	3	4	5	6
No, Nunca	No, casi nunca	Sí, a veces	Sí, a menudo	Sí, muy a menudo	Sí, Siempre

1. ¿Te sientes agradecido de ir a tu colegio?	1 2 3 4 5 6
2. ¿Estás agradecido cuando llegas a aprender cosas nuevas en el colegio?	1 2 3 4 5 6
3. ¿Estás agradecido de tener buenos maestros en tu colegio?	1 2 3 4 5 6
4. ¿Te sientes agradecido de tener amigos en tu colegio?	1 2 3 4 5 6
5. Cuando tienes un problema en la escuela, ¿crees que va a mejorar en el futuro?	1 2 3 4 5 6
6. ¿Esperas que puedan suceder cosas buenas para ti en el colegio?	1 2 3 4 5 6
7. ¿Esperas sentirte feliz durante las clases?	1 2 3 4 5 6
8. ¿Esperas divertirte con tus amigos en el colegio?	1 2 3 4 5 6
9. ¿Te emocionas cuando aprendes algo nuevo en el colegio?	1 2 3 4 5 6
10. ¿Te emocionas mucho con tus trabajos de clase?	1 2 3 4 5 6
11. Te despiertas por la mañana emocionado/a por ir al colegio?	1 2 3 4 5 6
12. ¿Te emocionas cuando estás haciendo tus trabajos escolares?	1 2 3 4 5 6
13. ¿Terminas todas tus tareas de clase?	1 2 3 4 5 6
14. Cuando recibes una mala nota en un examen, ¿intentas trabajar más para la próxima vez?	1 2 3 4 5 6
15. ¿Sigues trabajando hasta que tus trabajos escolares están bien hechos?	1 2 3 4 5 6
16. ¿Sigues haciendo tus tareas de clase, incluso cuando te parecen muy difíciles?	1 2 3 4 5 6
17. ¿Sigues las reglas de la clase?	1 2 3 4 5 6
18. ¿Sigues las reglas del patio en el colegio?	1 2 3 4 5 6
19. ¿Escuchas cuando el maestro está hablando?	1 2 3 4 5 6
20. ¿Eres bueno con otros alumnos?	1 2 3 4 5 6

Conclusiones

Evaluación del Programa "Action for Neutralization of Bullying"

El programa "Action for Neutralization of Bullying" mostró ser efectivo en la reducción del acoso escolar entre los estudiantes españoles. Los resultados indican una disminución significativa en la frecuencia de victimización y perpetración de acoso después de la implementación del programa. Además, se observó una mejora en la percepción del clima escolar y en el bienestar emocional de los estudiantes, lo que subraya la importancia de las intervenciones estructuradas y sostenidas para abordar el acoso escolar de manera efectiva (Martínez-Martínez et al., 2021).

Influencia de los Rasgos de Personalidad de la Tétrada Oscura

El estudio sobre los rasgos de personalidad de la tétrada oscura (narcisismo, maquiavelismo, psicopatía y sadismo) reveló que estos rasgos juegan un papel significativo en la dinámica del acoso escolar. Los estudiantes que exhiben altos niveles de estos rasgos tienen más probabilidades de ser tanto perpetradores como víctimas de acoso escolar. Estos hallazgos destacan la necesidad de incorporar evaluaciones de personalidad en los programas de prevención e intervención, y de desarrollar estrategias específicas para manejar las características de personalidad que contribuyen al acoso (Pineda et al., 2022).

Evaluación de la Covitalidad y su Relación con el Acoso Escolar

El estudio sobre la covitalidad en niños de primaria demostró que la covitalidad, definida como una combinación de bienestar psicológico y fortalezas socioemocionales, actúa como un factor protector significativo contra el acoso escolar. Los estudiantes con altos niveles de covitalidad reportaron menores incidencias de victimización y una mayor capacidad para manejar las experiencias negativas asociadas con el acoso. Estos resultados subrayan la importancia de fomentar el desarrollo de competencias socioemocionales y el bienestar psicológico en los programas escolares, no solo para prevenir el acoso, sino también para promover un entorno escolar positivo y resiliente (Martínez-Martínez et al., en prensa).

Implicaciones para la Práctica y la Investigación

Implementación de Programas de Intervención Efectivos

La evidencia sugiere que programas estructurados como el "Action for Neutralization of Bullying" pueden ser efectivos para reducir el acoso escolar. Es esencial que las escuelas adopten y adapten programas basados en evidencia para abordar este problema.

Evaluación y Manejo de Rasgos de Personalidad

Incorporar evaluaciones de personalidad en los programas de prevención puede ayudar a identificar a los estudiantes en riesgo y a desarrollar estrategias específicas para abordar las características de personalidad que contribuyen al acoso.

Fomento de la Covitalidad

Promover el bienestar psicológico y las competencias socioemocionales en los estudiantes puede actuar como un factor protector contra el acoso escolar. Las intervenciones que integran el desarrollo de la covitalidad pueden ser particularmente efectivas.

Perspectiva de los Observadores

Incorporar la perspectiva de los observadores, especialmente de los profesores, en los programas de intervención puede aumentar su eficacia. Satisfacer las necesidades psicológicas básicas de los profesores, como la autonomía, competencia y relación, es crucial para fomentar su participación activa en la prevención del acoso escolar.

Limitaciones

Con todo, el presente trabajo no está exento de limitaciones.

Evaluación del Programa "Action for Neutralization of Bullying"

El estudio no utilizó un grupo de control, lo que limita la capacidad de atribuir los cambios observados exclusivamente a la intervención y no a otros factores externos. La dependencia de cuestionarios autoinformados puede introducir sesgos de respuesta y deseabilidad social, ya que los estudiantes podrían haber subreportado o sobrerreportado sus experiencias de acoso. El seguimiento se limitó a tres meses, lo que dificulta la evaluación de la sostenibilidad a largo plazo de los efectos del programa.

Influencia de los Rasgos de Personalidad de la Tétrada Oscura

Al ser un estudio correlacional transversal, no es posible establecer relaciones causales entre los rasgos de personalidad de la tétrada oscura y la victimización por acoso escolar. La muestra se limitó a estudiantes españoles, por lo que los hallazgos pueden no ser generalizables a otras culturas o contextos educativos. La medición de los rasgos de la tétrada oscura se basó en cuestionarios autoinformados, lo que puede estar sujeto a sesgos de respuesta.

Evaluación de la Covitalidad y su Relación con el Acoso Escolar

Al igual que el estudio sobre los rasgos de personalidad, este estudio también utilizó un diseño transversal, lo que limita la capacidad de establecer relaciones causales entre la covitalidad y la incidencia de acoso escolar. Aunque la muestra fue seleccionada para representar diferentes contextos socioeconómicos y culturales, la inclusión de una mayor diversidad de contextos escolares podría mejorar la generalizabilidad de los hallazgos. Este estudio no incorporó medidas de personalidad, lo que podría proporcionar una visión más completa de los factores que influyen en la covitalidad y el acoso escolar.

Consideraciones Generales

En general, los tres estudios carecen de datos longitudinales que permitirían evaluar los efectos a largo plazo de las intervenciones y las relaciones estudiadas. Los estudios se centraron exclusivamente en el contexto educativo español, lo que limita la generalización de los resultados a otros países con diferentes sistemas educativos y culturales. La implementación de los programas de intervención puede variar entre escuelas, lo que podría afectar la consistencia y comparabilidad de los resultados.

Recomendaciones para Futuras Investigaciones

La implementación de diseños longitudinales en futuros estudios para evaluar la sostenibilidad de los efectos a largo plazo y las posibles relaciones causales. Incluir muestras de diferentes contextos culturales y educativos para mejorar la generalizabilidad de los hallazgos. Utilizar métodos mixtos que combinen cuestionarios autoinformados con observaciones directas y entrevistas para obtener una visión más completa y reducir los sesgos de respuesta. Estudiar la variabilidad en la implementación de los programas de intervención y su impacto en los resultados para identificar los factores clave que contribuyen a su eficacia.

Referencias

Abernethy, M. (2015). Self-reports and observer reports as data generation methods: an assessment of issues of both methods. *Universal Journal of Psychology, 3*(1), 22–27. https://doi.org/10.13189/ujp.2015.030104

Agervold, M. (2007). Bullying at work: a discussion of definitions and prevalence, based on an empirical study. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, *48*(2), 161–172. https://doi.org/10.1111/J.1467-9450.2007.00585.X

Aguilar Cumbicus, J. G., & Resett, S. A. (2002). *Cyberbullying, trollying y su relación con los rasgos de la personalidad oscura en adolescentes de educación secundaria* [Cyberbullying, trollying and their relationship with dark personality traits in secondary school adolescents] (Master's Thesis). Universidad Argentina de la Empresa.

Althubaiti, A. (2016). Information bias in health research: Definition, pitfalls, and adjustment methods. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Healthcare, 9*, 211–217. https://doi.org/10.2147/JMDH.S104807

Antoniadou, N., Kokkinos, C. M., & Fanti, K. (2019). Traditional and cyber bullying/victimization among adolescents: Examining their psychosocial profile through latent profile analysis. *International Journal of Bullying Prevention, 1*, 85–98. https://doi.org/10.1007/s42380-019-00010-0

Avşar, F., & Ayaz Alkaya, S. (2017). The effectiveness of assertiveness training for school-aged children on bullying and assertiveness level. *Journal of Pediatric Nursing, 36*, 186–190. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pedn.2017.06.020

Backe, D., & Dankvardt, J. (2018). *Can psychopathic traits predict different roles in bullying: Perpetration or victimization* (Master's Thesis). Örebro University.

Beaujean, A. A. (2014). Latent variable modeling using R: A step-by-step guide. Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315869780

Bisquerra Alzina, R. (2003). Educación emocional y competencias básicas para la vida. *Revista de Investigación Educativa, 21*(1), 7–43.

Biswas, T., Scott, J. G., Munir, K., Thomas, H. J., Huda, M. M., Hasan, M. M., David de Vries, T., Baxter, J., & Mamun, A. A. (2020). Global variation in the prevalence of bullying victimisation amongst adolescents: Role of peer and parental supports. *EClinicalMedicine*, *20*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eclinm.2020.100276

Boele, S., Sijtsema, J. J., Klimstra, T. A., Denissen, J. J. A., & Meeus, W. H. J. (2017). Person-group dissimilarity in personality and peer victimization. *European Journal of Personality, 31*, 220–233. https://doi.org/10.1002/per.2105

Boman, P., Am, Mergler, a, & Pennell, C. (2017). *The Effects of Covitality on Well-Being and Depression in Australian High School Adolescents*. *3*(2). https://doi.org/10.21767/2471-9854.100046

Bond, L., Carlin, J. B., Thomas, L., Rubin, K., & Patton, G. (2001). Does bullying cause emotional problems? A prospective study of young teenagers. *BMJ, 323*(7311), 480–484. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.323.7311.480

Bosworth, K., Espelage, D. L., & Simon, T. R. (1999b). Factors Associated with Bullying Behavior in Middle School Students. *The Journal of Early Adolescence*, *19*(3), 341–362. https://doi.org/10.1177/0272431699019003003

Camerini, A. L., Marciano, L., Carrara, A., & Schulz, P. J. (2020). Cyberbullying perpetration and victimization among children and adolescents: A systematic review of longitudinal studies. *Telematics and Informatics, 49*, 101362. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tele.2020.101362

Castro-Kemp, S., Palikara, O., Gaona, C., Vasiliki, E., & Furlong, M. J. (2019). The Role of Psychological Sense of School Membership and Postcode as Predictors of Profiles of Socio-emotional Health in Primary School Children in England. *School Mental Health*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12310-019-09349-7

Chabrol, H., Leeuwen, N. V., Rodgers, R., & Séjourné, N. (2009). Contributions of psychopathic, narcissistic, Machiavellian, and sadistic personality traits to juvenile delinquency. *Personality and Individual Differences, 47*, 734–739. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2009.06.020

Chan, M., Yang, C., Furlong, M. J., Dowdy, E., & Xie, J. S. (2019). Association between social-emotional strengths and school membership: A cross-cultural comparison. International *Journal of School & Educational Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1080/21683603.2019.1677539

Chen, Q., Chan, K. L., Guo, S., Chen, M., Lo, C. K. ming, & Ip, P. (2023). Effectiveness of Digital Health Interventions in Reducing Bullying and Cyberbullying: A Meta-Analysis. In *Trauma, Violence, and Abuse* (Vol. 24, Issue 3, pp. 1986–2002). SAGE Publications Ltd. https://doi.org/10.1177/15248380221082090

Cheung, G. W., & Rensvold, R. B. (2002). Evaluating goodness-of-fit indexes for testing measurement invariance. *Structural Equation Modeling, 9*(2), 233–255. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15328007SEM0902_5

Choi, B., & Park, S. (2018). Who becomes a bullying perpetrator after the experience of bullying victimization? The moderating role of self-esteem. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 47*, 2414–2423. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-018-0913-7

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. ISBN 0-8058-0283-5

Cook, C. R., Williams, K. R., Guerra, N. G., Kim, T. E., & Sadek, S. (2010). Predictors of bullying and victimization in childhood and adolescence: A meta-analytic investigation. *School Psychology Quarterly, 25*(2), 65–83. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020149

Cross, D., Monks, H., Hall, M., Shaw, T., Pintabona, Y., Erceg, E., Hamilton, G., Roberts, C., Waters, S., & Lester, L. (2011). Three-year results of the Friendly Schools whole-of-school intervention on children's bullying behaviour. *British Educational Research Journal*, *37*(1), 105–129. https://doi.org/10.1080/01411920903420024

Cunningham, C. E., Mapp, C., Rimas, H., Cunningham, L., Mielko, S., Vaillancourt, T., Marcus, M., Cunningham, C. E., Mapp, C., & Rimas, H. (2016). What limits the effectiveness of anti-bullying programs? A thematic analysis of the perspective of students. *Psychology of Violence, 6*(4), 596–606. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0039989

Currie, C., Inchley, J., Molcho, M., Lenzi, M., Veselska, Z., & Wild, F. (2014). Health behaviour in school-aged children (HBSC) study protocol: Background, methodology and mandatory items for the 2013/14 survey. Child and Adolescent Health Research Unit (CAHRU), St. Andrews: University of St. Andrews.

De Lara, E. W. (2018). Consequences of childhood bullying on mental health and relationships for young adults. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 28*, 2379–2389. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-018-1197-y

Dell, P., Leihua, F., & Schoiack, V. (2006). *Second Step: A Violence Prevention Curriculum*. https://digitalcommons.georgefox.edu/gscp_fac

Despoti, G., Kokkinos, C. M., & Fanti, K. A. (2021). Bullying, victimization, and psychopathy in early adolescents: the moderating role of social support. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology, 18*, 747–764. https://doi.org/10.1080/17405629.2020.1858787

Duckworth, A. L., & Yeager, D. S. (2015). Measurement matters: Assessing personal qualities other than cognitive ability for educational purposes. *Educational Researcher, 44*(4), 237–251. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X15584327

Eryilmaz, A. (2012). A model of subjective well-being for adolescents in high school. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *13*(2), 275-789.

Espelage, D. L., & Swearer, S. M. (2003). Research on School Bullying and Victimization: What Have We Learned and Where Do We Go From Here? *School Psychology Review*, *32*(3), 365–383. https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2003-09341-007

Espelage, D. L., Bosworth, K., & Simon, T. R. (2000). Examining the social context of bullying behaviors. *Journal of Counseling & Development*.

Espelage, D. L., Simon, T. R., & Bosworth, K. (1999). Factors associated with bullying behavior in middle school students. *Journal of Early Adolescence*.

Eyuboglu, M., Eyuboglu, D., Pala, S. C., Oktar, D., Demirtas, Z., Arslantas, D., & Unsal, A. (2021). Traditional school bullying and cyberbullying: Prevalence, the effect on mental health problems and self-harm behavior. *Psychiatry Research*, *297*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2021.113730

Falla, D., Ortega-Ruiz, R., Runions, K., & Romera, E. M. (2022). Why do victims become perpetrators of peer bullying? Moral disengagement in the cycle of violence. *Youth & Society, 54*(1), 1–22. https://doi.org/10.1177/0044118X20973702

Fang, M., Zhang, L., Pan, D., & Xie, J. (2021). Evaluating a psychoeducation program to foster Chinese primary school students' covitality. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 18*(16), 8703. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18168703

Fanti, K. A., & Henrich, C. C. (2015). Effects of self-esteem and narcissism on bullying and victimization during early adolescence. *Journal of Early Adolescence, 35*, 5–29. https://doi.org/10.1177/0272431613519498

Ferguson, C. J., & Kilburn, J. C. (2007). The effectiveness of school-based anti-bullying programs: A meta-analytic review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 12*(4), 401–414. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2006.09.006

Fernández-del-Río, E., Ramos-Villagrasa, P. J., & Escartín, J. (2021). The incremental effect of Dark personality over the Big Five in workplace bullying: evidence from perpetrators and targets. *Personality and Individual Differences, 168*, 110291. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2020.110291

Fernández-Pinto, I., Santamaría, P., Sánchez-Sánchez, F., Carrasco, M. A., & del Barrio, V. (2015a). SENA. Sistema de Evaluación de Niños y Adolescentes. Manual técnico. Madrid: TEA Ediciones.

Fernández-Pinto, I., Santamaría, P., Sánchez-Sánchez, F., Carrasco, M. A., & del Barrio, V. (2015b). SENA. Sistema de Evaluación de Niños y Adolescentes. Manual de aplicación, corrección e interpretación. Madrid: TEA Ediciones.

Forero, C. G, Maydeu-Olivares, A. & Gallardo-Pujol, D. (2009). Factor analysis with ordinal indicators: A monte Carlo study comparing DWLS and ULS estimation. *Structural Equation Modeling, 16*, 625-641.

Foulkes, L. (2019). Sadism: review of an elusive construct. *Personality and Individual Differences, 151*, 109500. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2019.07.010

Frey, K. S., Hirschstein, M. K., Snell, J. L., Van Schoiack Edstrom, L., MacKenzie, E. P., & Broderick, C. J. (2005). Reducing playground bullying and supporting beliefs: An experimental trial of the steps to respect program. *Developmental Psychology*, *41*(3), 479–490. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.41.3.479

Fuentes Chacón, R. M., Simón Saiz, M. J., Garrido Abejar, M., Díaz Valentín, M. J., Yubero Jiménez, S., Serrano Parra, M. D., et al. (2020). Ser víctima de bullying: Prevalencia y factores de vulnerabilidad en adolescentes. *Revista ROL de Enfermería, 43*, 32–39.

Furlong, M. J., Ritchey, K. M., & O'Brennan, L. M. (2009). Developing norms for the California Resilience Youth Development Module: Internal assets and school resources subscales. *California School Psychologist*, *14*, 35–46. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03340949

Furlong, M. J., You, S., Renshaw, T. L., O'Malley, M. D., & Rebelez, J. (2013). Preliminary development of the positive experiences at school scale for elementary school children. *Child Indicators Research*, *6*(4), 753–775. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12187-013-9193-7

Furlong, M. J., You, S., Renshaw, T. L., Smith, D. C., & O'Malley, M. D. (2014). Preliminary development and validation of the social and emotional health survey for secondary school students. *Social Indicators Research*, *117*(3), 1011–1032. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-013-0373-0

Gaffney, H., Ttofi, M. M., & Farrington, D. P. (2021). Effectiveness of school-based programs to reduce bullying perpetration and victimization: An updated systematic review and meta-analysis. In *Campbell Systematic Reviews* (Vol. 17, Issue 2). John Wiley and Sons Inc. https://doi.org/10.1002/cl2.1143

Gini, G., & Pozzoli, T. (2009). Association between bullying and psychosomatic problems: A meta-analysis. *Pediatrics*, *123*(3), 1059–1065. https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2008-1215

Goodboy, A. K., & Martin, M. M. (2015). The personality profile of a cyberbully: examining the dark triad. *Computers in Human Behavior, 49*, 1–4. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2015.02.052

Gul, E. S., & Fatima, I. (2016). Dark Triad personality traits as predictors of bullying and victimization in adolescents. *Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 26*, 51–65.

Hayes, N. L., Marsee, M. A., & Russell, D. W. (2021). Latent profile analysis of traditional and cyber-aggression and victimization: associations with Dark Triad traits and psychopathology symptoms. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment, 43*, 399–412. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10862-020-09835-2

Healy, S. R., Valente, J. Y., Caetano, S. C., Martins, S. S., & Sanchez, Z. M. (2020). Worldwide school-based psychosocial interventions and their effect on aggression among elementary school children: A systematic review 2010–2019. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 55*, 101486. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2020.101486

Hein, V., Koka, A., & Hagger, M. S. (2015). Relationships between perceived teachers' controlling behaviour, psychological need thwarting, anger and bullying behaviour in high-school students. *Journal of Adolescence*, *42*, 103–114. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.ADOLESCENCE.2015.04.003

Hollingshead, A. A. (1975). Four-factor index of social status. Unpublished manuscript, Yale University, New Haven, CT.

Holt, M. K., Vivolo-Kantor, A. M., Polanin, J. R., Holland, K. M., DeGue, S., Matjasko, J. L., Wolfe, M., & Reid, G. (2015). Bullying and suicidal ideation and behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Pediatrics, 135*(2), e496–e509. https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2014-1864

Huang, Y., Espelage, D. L., Polanin, J. R., & Hong, J. S. (2019). A meta-analytic review of school-based anti-bullying programs with a parent component. *International Journal of Bullying Prevention, 1*, 32–44. https://doi.org/10.1007/s42380-018-0002-1

Huebner, E. S., Antaramian, S. P., & Heffner, A. L. (2012). Perceived quality of life research on children and youth: Implications for a system of national indicators. In K. Land (Ed.), *The wellbeing of America's children* (Vol. 6, pp. 121–141). Heidelberg, DE: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-4092-1_5

Husky, M. M., Delbasty, E., Bitfoi, A., Carta, M. G., Goelitz, D., Koç, C., Lesinskiene, S., Mihova, Z., Otten, R., & Kovess-Masfety, V. (2020). Bullying involvement and self-reported mental health in elementary school children across Europe. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 107*, 104601. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2020.104601

Iida, J., Ito, A., Aoyama, I., Sugimoto, K., Endo, H., Chan, M., & Furlong, M. J. (2021). Validation of a social emotional wellness survey among Japanese elementary school students. *The Educational and Developmental Psychologist,* *38*(1), 121-130. https://doi.org/10.1080/20590776.2021.1899748

Iida, J., Takizawa, Y., Okayasu, T., & Furlong, M. J. (2024). Japanese cultural adaptation and validation of the social emotional health survey-secondary for junior high school students. *Frontiers in Education*, *9*, 1277294. https://doi.org/10.3389/FEDUC.2024.1277294/BIBTEX

Irshad, E., & Atta, M. (2013). Social competence as predictor of bullying among children and adolescents. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology, 39*(1), 35–42.

Ito, A., Smith, D. C., You, S., Shimoda, Y., & Furlong, M. J. (2015). Validation and Utility of the Social Emotional Health Survey—Secondary for Japanese Students. *Contemporary School Psychology 2015 19:4*, *19*(4), 243–252. https://doi.org/10.1007/S40688-015-0068-4

Ivaniushina, V., Khodorenko, D., & Alexandrov, D. (2021). Age and Gender Differences and the Contribution of School Size and Type in the Prevalence of Bullying. *Voprosy Obrazovaniya / Educational Studies Moscow*, *4*, 220–242. https://ideas.repec.org/a/nos/voprob/2021i4p220-242.html

Jiménez-Barbero, J. A., Ruiz-Hernández, J. A., Llor-Zaragoza, L., Pérez-García, M., & Llor-Esteban, B. (2016). Effectiveness of anti-bullying school programs: A meta-analysis. *Children and Youth Services Review, 61*, 165–175. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2015.12.015

Jones, D. N., & Paulhus, D. L. (2014). Introducing the short dark triad (SD3): a brief measure of dark personality traits. *Assessment, 21*, 28–41. https://doi.org/10.1177/1073191113514105

Jungert, T., Piroddi, B., & Thornberg, R. (2016). Early adolescents' motivations to defend victims in school bullying and their perceptions of student–teacher relationships: A self-determination theory approach. *Journal of Adolescence, 53*, 75–90. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.ADOLESCENCE.2016.09.001

Kahle, L. (2020). Are sexual minorities more at risk? Bullying victimization among lesbian, gay, bisexual, and questioning youth. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 35*, 4960–4978. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260517718830

Kann, L., Kinchen, S., Shanklin, S., Flint, K. H., Hawkins, J., Harris, W. A. ... Zaza, S. (2014). Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance—United States, 2013. *MMWR, Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report, 63*(4). Retrieved from www. cdc.gov/mmwr/pdf/ss/ss6304.pdf

Kelly, E. V., Newton, N. C., Stapinski, L. A., & Teesson, M. (2017). Prospective associations between personality and bullying among Australian adolescents. *Https://Doi.Org/10.1177/0004867417726583, 52*(2), 173–180. https://doi.org/10.1177/0004867417726583

Kelly, R. M., Hills, K. J., Huebner, E. S., & McQuillin, S. D. (2012). The longitudinal stability and dynamics of group membership in the dual-factor model of mental health: Psychosocial predictors of mental health. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology*, *27*(4), 337-355.

Kennedy, R. S. (2020). Gender differences in outcomes of bullying prevention programs: A meta-analysis. *Children and Youth Services Review, 119*, 105506. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2020.105506

Keyes, C. L. (2002). The mental health continuum: From languishing to flourishing in life. Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 207-222.

Keyes, C. L. (2006). Mental health in adolescence: is America's youth flourishing?. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, *76*(3), 395.

Kim, E. K., Dowdy, E., Furlong, M. M., & You, S. (2019). Complete mental health screening: Psychological strengths and life satisfaction in Korean students. *Child Indicators Research*, *12*(3), 901-915.

Kim, E., Dowdy, E., & Furlong, M. J. (2014). An exploration of using a dual-factor model in school-based mental health screening. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology*, *29*, 127– 140. https://doi.org/10.1177/0829573514529567

Kovalenko, A. G., Abraham, C., Graham-Rowe, E., Levine, M., & O'Dwyer, S. (2020). What works in violence prevention among young people? A systematic review of reviews. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, 21*(4), 824–842. https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838020939130

Kowalski, R. M., Giumetti, G. W., Schroeder, A. N., & Lattanner, M. R. (2014). Bullying in the digital age: A critical review and meta-analysis of cyberbullying research among youth. *Psychological Bulletin*, *140*(4), 1073–1137. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0035618

Lara-Ros, M. R., Rodríguez-Jiménez, T., Martínez-González, A. E., & Piqueras Rodríguez, J. A. (2017). Relación entre el bullying y el estado emocional y social en niños de educación primaria. *Revista de Psicología Clínica con Niños y Adolescentes, 4*(2), 59–64.

Larrain, E., & Garaigordobil, M. (2020). El bullying en el país vasco: Prevalencia y diferencias en función del sexo y la orientación sexual. *Clínica y Salud, 31*, 147–153. https://doi.org/10.5093/clysa2020a19

Larson, I. (2021). *PSYCHOSOCIAL RISK OF BULLYING AMONG FOSTER AND HOMELESS YOUTH: THE MODERATING ROLE OF COVITALITY.*

Lebrun-Harris, L. A., Ghandour, R. M., Kogan, M. D., & Warren, M. D. (2022). Five-Year Trends in US Children's Health and Well-being, 2016-2020. *JAMA Pediatrics*, *176*(7). https://doi.org/10.1001/JAMAPEDIATRICS.2022.0056

Lee, S. yeon, You, S., & Furlong, M. J. (2016). Validation of the Social Emotional Health Survey–Secondary for Korean Students. *Child Indicators Research*, *9*(1), 73–92. https://doi.org/10.1007/S12187-014-9294-Y/METRICS

Leemis, R. W., Espelage, D. L., Basile, K. C., Mercer Kollar, L. M., & Davis, J. P. (2019). Traditional and cyber bullying and sexual harassment: a longitudinal assessment of risk and protective factors. *Aggressive Behavior, 45*, 181–192. https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.21808

Levine, E., & Tamburrino, M. (2014). Bullying among young children: Strategies for prevention. *Early Childhood Education Journal, 42*(4), 271–278. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10643-013-0600-y

Linton, D. K., & Power, J. L. (2013). The personality traits of workplace bullies are often shared by their victims: is there a dark side to victims? *Personality and Individual Differences, 54*, 738–743. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2012.11.026

Liu, H., Han, B., Li, X., Wang, L., & Xiao, Q. (2016). Reliability and validity of Social Emotional Health Survey–Elementary in Chinese children. *Chinese Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *24*, 450–454. https://doi.org/10.16128/j.cnki.1005-3611.2016.03.015

Longobardi, C., Borello, L., Thornberg, R., & Settanni, M. (2020). Empathy and defending behaviours in school bullying: The mediating role of motivation to defend victims. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *90*, 473–486. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjep.12289

Lopes-Neto, A. A. (2005). Bullying: aggressive behavior among students. *Jornal de Pediatria, 81*, S164–S172. https://doi.org/10.2223/JPED.1403

Magaz, A. M., Chorot, P., Santed, M. A., Valiente, R. M., & Sandín, B. (2016). Evaluación del bullying como victimización: Estructura, fiabilidad y validez del Cuestionario de Acoso entre Iguales (CAI). *Revista de Psicopatología y Psicología Clínica, 21*(2), 77–95. https://doi.org/10.5944/rppc.vol.21.num.2.2016.16990

Martínez-Martínez, A., Pineda, D., Galán, M., Marzo, J. C., & Piqueras, J. A. (2021). Effects of the action for neutralization of bullying program on bullying in spanish schoolchildren. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *18*(13). https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18136898

Martínez-Martínez, A., Pineda, D., Rodriguez-Jimenez, T., Rivera, M., Furlong, M., & Piqueras, J. A. (in press). Assessment of Covitality in Spanish Primary School Children and Its Relationship with Bullying. *Revista de Psicopatología y Psicología Clínica*.

Mavroveli, S., Petrides, K. V., Shove, C., & Whitehead, A. (2008). Investigation of the construct of trait emotional intelligence in children. *European Child & Adolescent Psychiatry, 17*(8), 516-526. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00787-008-0696-6

Meade, A. W., Johnson, E. C., & Braddy, P. W. (2008). Power and sensitivity of alternative fit indices in tests of measurement invariance. *The Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(3), 568–592. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.3.568

Menesini, E., Nocentini, A., & Camodeca, M. (2013). Morality, values, traditional bullying, and cyberbullying in adolescence. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology, 31*(1), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-835X.2011.02066.x

Merrell, K. W., Gueldner, B. A., Ross, S. W., & Isava, D. M. (2008). How Effective Are School Bullying Intervention Programs? A Meta-Analysis of Intervention Research. *School Psychology Quarterly*, *23*(1), 26–42. https://doi.org/10.1037/1045-3830.23.1.26

Mintert, J. S., & Tran, A. G. T. T. (2020). Bullying and Personality. *The Wiley Encyclopedia of Personality and Individual Differences*, 523–526. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118970843.CH351

Mitsopoulou, E., & Giovazolias, T. (2015). Personality traits, empathy and bullying behavior: a meta-analytic approach. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 21*, 61–72. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2015.01.007

Modecki, K. L., Minchin, J., Harbaugh, A. G., Guerra, N. G., & Runions, K. C. (2014). Bullying prevalence across contexts: A meta-analysis measuring cyber and traditional bullying. In *Journal of Adolescent Health* (Vol. 55, Issue 5, pp. 602–611). Elsevier Inc. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2014.06.007

Moffa, K., Wagle, R., Dowdy, E., Palikara, O., Castro, S., Dougherty, D., & Furlong, M. J. (2019). The me and my school questionnaire: Examining the cross-cultural validity of a children's self-report mental health measure. *International Journal of School and Educational Psychology, 9*(1), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1080/21683603. 2019.1650858

Moura, D. R. de, Cruz, A. C. N., & Quevedo, L. de Á. (2011). Prevalence and characteristics of school age bullying victims. *Jornal de Pediatria*, *87*(1), 19–23. https://doi.org/10.1590/S0021-75572011000100004

Muñiz, J., Elosua, P., & Hambleton, R. K. (2013). Directrices para la traducción y adaptación de los tests: Segunda edición. *Psicothema*, *25*(2), 151–157. https://doi.org/10.7334/psicothema2013.24

Nansel, T. R., Overpeck, M., Pilla, R. S., Ruan, W. J., Simons-Morton, B., & Scheidt, P. (2001). Bullying behaviors among US youth: Prevalence and association with psychosocial adjustment. *JAMA, 285*(16), 2094–2100. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.285.16.2094

Ng, E. D., Chua, J. Y. X., & Shorey, S. (2020). The effectiveness of educational interventions on traditional bullying and cyberbullying among adolescents: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, 23*, 132–151. https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838020933867

Nielsen, M. B., & Knardahl, S. (2015). Is workplace bullying related to the personality traits of victims? A two-year prospective study. *Work & Stress*, *29*(2), 128–149. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2015.1032383

O'Meara, A., Davies, J., & Hammond, S. (2011). The psychometric properties and utility of the Short Sadistic Impulse Scale (SSIS). *Psychological Assessment, 23*, 523–531. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0022400

Olweus, D. (1978). *Aggression in the Schools: Bullies and Whipping Boys*. Hemisphere.

Olweus, D. (1994). Bullying at school: Basic facts and effects of a school-based intervention program. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 35*(7), 1171–1190. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.1994.tb01229.x

Parker, J. N. (2019). *Examining the relationship between workplace victimization, the Dark Triad, and workplace behavior* (Master's Thesis). Middle Tennessee State University.

Patchin, J. W., & Hinduja, S. (2015). Measuring cyberbullying: Implications for research. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*.

Paulhus, D. L., & Williams, K. M. (2002). The dark triad of personality: narcissism, machiavellianism, and psychopathy. *Journal of Research in Personality, 36*, 556–563. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0092-6566(02)00505-6

Paz, J. L., & Kim, E. K. (2022). Covitality: Cultivating Psychosocial Strengths and Well-Being. In K. Allen, M. J. Furlong, D. Vella-Brodrick, & S. M. Suldo (Eds.), *Handbook of Positive Psychology in Schools: Supporting Process and Practice* (pp. 38-55). Routledge.

Pennell, C., Boman, P., & Mergler, A. (2015). Covitality Constructs as Predictors of Psychological Well-being and Depression for Secondary School Students. *Contemporary School Psychology*, *19*(4), 276–285. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40688-015-0067-5

Pepler, D. J., Craig, W. M., Ziegler, S., & Charach, A. (1994). An evaluation of an anti-bullying intervention in Toronto schools. *Canadian Journal of Community Mental Health*, *13*(2), 95–110. https://doi.org/10.7870/CJCMH-1994-0014

Pineda, D., Galán, M., Martínez-Martínez, A., Campagne, D. M., & Piqueras, J. A. (2021a). Same personality, new ways to abuse: how dark tetrad personalities are connected with cyber intimate partner violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 37*, 886260521991307. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260521991307

Pineda, D., Piqueras, J. A., Galán, M., & Martínez-Martínez, A. (2021b). Everyday sadism: psychometric properties of three Spanish versions for assessing the construct. *Current Psychology*, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-021-01434-y

Pineda, D., Rico-Bordera, P., Martínez-Martínez, A., Galán, M., & Piqueras, J. A. (2022). Dark tetrad personality traits also play a role in bullying victimization. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *13*. https://doi.org/10.3389/FPSYG.2022.984744

Pineda, D., Sandín, B., & Muris, P. (2020). Psychometrics properties of the Spanish version of two dark triad scales: the dirty dozen and the short dark triad. *Current Psychology, 39,* 1873–1881. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-018-9888-5

Piqueras, J. A., Garcia-Olcina, M., Rivera-Riquelme, M., Rodriguez-Jimenez, T., Martinez-Gonzalez, A. E., Cuijpers, P., et al. (2017). Detectaweb project: study protocol of a web-based detection of mental health of children and adolescents. *BMJ Open, 7,* e017218. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2017-017218

Piqueras, J. A., Martínez-Martínez, A., Pineda, D., Rodríguez-Jiménez, T., & Rivera-Riquelme, M. (2020). Psychometric properties of the Spanish version of the Revised Social Emotional Health Survey-Primary. Manuscript in preparation.

Plouffe, R. A., Saklofske, D. H., & Smith, M. M. (2017). The assessment of sadistic personality: preliminary psychometric evidence for a new measure. *Personality and Individual Differences, 104,* 166–171. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2016.07.043

Polanin, J. R., Espelage, D. L., & Pigott, T. D. (2012). *A Meta-Analysis of School-Based Bullying Prevention Programs' Effects on Bystander Intervention Behavior.*

Pronk, J., Olthof, T., Vries, D. E., & Goossens, R. E. (2021). HEXACO personality correlates with adolescents' involvement in bullying situations. *Aggressive Behavior, 47,* 320–331. https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.21947

Puértolas Jiménez, A., & Montiel Juan, I. (2017). Bullying en la educación secundaria: Una revisión sobre las características de las víctimas y las víctimas-acosadores y las consecuencias de su victimización. *Revista de Victimología, 5*, 85–128. https://doi.org/10.12827/RVJV.5.04

Qian, Y., Yang, Y., Lin, P., Xiao, Y., Sun, Y., Sun, Q., et al. (2020). Risk factors associated with school bullying behaviors: A Chinese adolescents case-control study, 2019. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 37*, 0886260520976218. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260520976218

R Core Team. (2016). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing. Vienna, Austria.

Ravens-Sieberer, U., Herdman, M., Devine, J., Otto, C., Bullinger, M., Rose, M., & Klasen, F. (2014). The European KIDSCREEN approach to measure quality of life and well-being in children: Development, current application, and future advances. *Quality of Life Research, 23*(3), 791–803. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11136-013-0428-3

Reijntjes, A., Kamphuis, J. H., Prinzie, P., & Telch, M. J. (2010). Peer victimization and internalizing problems in children: A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 34*(4), 244–252. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2009.07.009

Reisen, A., Viana, M. C., & Santos-Neto, E. T. (2019). Bullying among adolescents: are the victims also perpetrators? *Brazilian Journal of Psychiatry, 41*, 518–529. https://doi.org/10.1590/1516-4446-2018-0246

Renshaw, T. L., & Bolognino, S. J. (2016). The College Student Subjective Wellbeing Questionnaire: A Brief, Multidimensional Measure of Undergraduate's Covitality. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *17*(2), 463–484. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-014-9606-4

Renshaw, T. L., Furlong, M. J., Dowdy, E., Rebelez, J., Smith, D. C., O'Malley, I., ... Strom, I. F. (2014). Covitality: A synergistic conception of adolescents' mental health. In M. J. Furlong, R. Gilman, & E. S. Huebner (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology in the schools* (2nd ed., pp. 12–32). New York, NY: Routledge/Taylor & Francis.

Richardson, R., Connell, T., Foster, M., Blamires, J., Keshoor, S., Moir, C., & Zeng, I. S. (2024). Risk and Protective Factors of Self-harm and Suicidality in Adolescents: An Umbrella Review with Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *53*(6), 1301–1322. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-024-01969-w

Rigby, K. (2003). Consequences of Bullying in Schools. *Http://Dx.Doi.Org/10.1177/070674370304800904*, *48*(9), 583–590. https://doi.org/10.1177/070674370304800904

Rosseel, Y. (2012). lavaan: An R Package for Structural Equation Modeling. *Journal of Statistical Software, 48*(2), 1–36. https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v048.i02

Roth, G., & Bibi, U. (2009). Beyond External Control: Internalization of Prosocial Values as Important in Preventing Bullying at School. *Planning & Changing, 40*(3/4).

Roth, G., Kanat-Maymon, Y., & Bibi, U. (2011). Prevention of school bullying: The important role of autonomy-supportive teaching and internalization of pro-social values. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *81*(4), 654–666. https://doi.org/10.1348/2044-8279.002003

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000a). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *25*(1), 54–67. https://doi.org/10.1006/CEPS.1999.1020

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000b). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, *55*(1), 68–78. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.68

Ryff, C. D., & Keyes, C. L. M. (1995). The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *69*(4), 719-727.

Salmivalli, C., & Nieminen, E. (2002). Proactive and Reactive Aggression among School Bullies, Victims, and Bully-Victims. *Aggressive Behavior*, *28*(1), 30–44. https://doi.org/10.1002/AB.90004

Salmivalli, C., & Voeten, M. (2004). Connections between attitudes, group norms , and behaviour in bullying situations. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, *28*(3), 246–258. https://doi.org/10.1080/01650250344000488

Salmivalli, C., Kärnä, A., & Poskiparta, E. (2011). Special section Counteracting bullying in Finland: The KiVa program and its effects on different forms of being bullied. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, *35*(5), 405–411. https://doi.org/10.1177/0165025411407457

Sánchez-Sánchez, F., Fernández-Pinto, I., Santamaría, P., Carrasco, M. A., & del Barrio, V. (2016). SENA, Sistema de Evaluación de Niños y Adolescentes: proceso de desarrollo y evidencias de fiabilidad y validez. *Revista de Psicología Clínica con Niños y Adolescentes, 3*(2), 23-34.

Schreyer, H., Plouffe, R. A., & Wilson, C. A. (2021). What makes a leader? Trait emotional intelligence and Dark Tetrad traits predict transformational leadership beyond HEXACO personality factors. *Current Psychology*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-021-01571-4

Sharp, S., & Smith, P. K. (1994). Tackling Bullying in Your School: A Practical Handbook for Teachers. In *Bullying School Psychology*.

Silva, C. E., Oliveira, D. E., Bandeira, R. V., & De Souza, D. R. D. O. (2012). Violence among peers: a case study in a public school in Esteio/RS-Brazil. *Psicologia Escolar e Educacional, 16*, 83–93. https://doi.org/10.1590/S1413-85572012000100009

Smith, J. D., Schneider, B. H., Smith, P. K., & Ananiadou, K. (2004). The effectiveness of whole-school antibullying programs: A synthesis of evaluation research. *School Psychology Review*, *33*(4), 547–560. https://doi.org/10.1080/02796015.2004.12086267

Solberg, M. E., & Olweus, D. (2003). Prevalence estimation of school bullying with the Olweus Bully/Victim Questionnaire. *Aggressive Behavior, 29*(3), 239–268. https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.10047

Sorrentino, A., Baldry, A. C., Farrington, D. P., & Blaya, C. (2019). Epidemiology of cyberbullying across Europe: Differences between countries and genders. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice, 19*(2). https://doi.org/10.12738/estp.2019.2.005

Suldo, S., Thalji, A., & Ferron, J. (2011). Longitudinal academic outcomes predicted by early adolescents' subjective well-being, psychopathology, and mental health status yielded from a dual factor model. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, *6*(1), 17-30.

Swearer, S. M., Song, S. Y., Cary, P. T., Eagle, J. W., & Mickelson, W. T. (2001). Psychosocial correlates in bullying and victimization. *Journal of Emotional Abuse, 2*(2–3), 95–121. https://doi.org/10.1300/j135v02n02_07

Telef, B. B. (2016). Validity and reliability study of Positive Experiences at School Scale. *Journal of Human Sciences, 13* (2), 2475–2487. https://doi.org/10.14687/jhs.vl3i2.3562

Tippett, N., & Wolke, D. (2014). Socioeconomic Status and Bullying: A Meta-analysis. *American Journal of Public Health*, *104*(6), 48–59. https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2014.301960

Ttofi, M. M., Farrington, D. P., & Lösel, F. (2012). School bullying as a predictor of violence later in life: A systematic review and meta-analysis of prospective longitudinal studies. In *Aggression and Violent Behavior* (Vol. 17, Issue 5, pp. 405–418). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2012.05.002

UNESCO. (2017). *School violence and bullying: global status report*. UNESCO. https://doi.org/10.54675/POIV1573

Van Geel, M., Goemans, A., Toprak, F., & Vedder, P. (2017). Which personality traits are related to traditional bullying and cyberbullying? A study with the Big Five, Dark Triad and sadism. *Personality and Individual Differences, 106*, 231–235. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2016.10.063

Van Groningen, A. J., Grawitch, M. J., & Lavigne, K. N. (2021). Every cloud has a silver lining: narcissism's buffering impact on the relationship between the Dark Triad and well-being. *Personality and Individual Differences, 171*, 110549. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2020.110549

Varela, J. J., De Tezanos-Pinto, P., Guzmán, P., Cuevas-Pavincich, F., Benavente, M., Furlong, M., & Alfaro, J. (2024). Covitality and life satisfaction: a multilevel analysis of bullying experiences and their relation with School attachment. *Current Psychology, 43*(4), 3771–3785. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-023-04602-4

Volk, A., Schiralli, K., Xia, X., Zhao, J., & Dane, A. (2018). Adolescent bullying and personality: a cross-cultural approach. *Personality and Individual Differences, 125*, 126–132. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2018.01.012

Vos, T., Barber, R. M., Bell, B., Bertozzi-Villa, A., Biryukov, S., Bolliger, I., Charlson, F., Davis, A., Degenhardt, L., Dicker, D., Duan, L., Erskine, H., Feigin, V. L., Ferrari, A. J., Fitzmaurice, C., Fleming, T., Graetz, N., Guinovart, C., Haagsma, J., … Murray, C. J. L. (2015). Global, regional, and national incidence, prevalence, and years lived with disability for 301 acute and chronic diseases and injuries in 188 countries, 1990-2013: A systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2013. *The Lancet*, *386*(9995), 743–800. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(15)60692-4

Wachs, S., Bilz, L., Fischer, S. M., Schubarth, W., & Wright, M. F. (2018). Students' willingness to intervene in bullying: Direct and indirect associations with classroom cohesion and self-efficacy. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 15*(11), 2577. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph15112577

Wagle, R., Dowdy, E., Nylund-Gibson, K., Sharkey, J. D., Carter, D., & Furlong, M. J. (2021). School belonging constellations considering complete mental health in primary schools. *Educational and Developmental Psychologist, 38*(2), 173-185. https://doi.org/10.1080/20590776.2021.1964071

Wang, C., Liu, J. L., Zhu, Q., Yao, J., & Boyanton, D. (2021). Covitality moderates the relationship between victimisation and loneliness. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, *73*(1), 35–45. https://doi.org/10.1080/00049530.2021.1904494

Wang, C., Yang, C., Jiang, X., & Furlong, M. J. (2017). Validation of Social Emotional Health Survey-Primary for Chinese students. *International Journal of School and Educational Psychology) Article in International Journal of School & Educational Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1080/21683603.2016.1272026

Weiss, A., & Luciano, M. (2015). The genetics and evolution of covitality. In A. Weiss (Ed.), *Genetics of psychological well-being: The role of heritability and genetics in positive psychology* (pp. 146–160). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Wilkins, B., Boman, P., & Mergler, A. (2015). Positive psychological strengths and school engagement in primary school children. *Cogent Education*, *2*(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2015.1095680

Wilson, C. J., & Nagy, M. S. (2017). The Effects of Personality on Workplace Bullying. *Psychologist-Manager Journal*, *20*(3), 123–147. https://doi.org/10.1037/MGR0000054

World Health Organization (2014). Mental health: A state of well being. Retrieved from www.who.int/features/factfiles/ mental_health/en

You, S., Furlong, M. J., Dowdy, E., Renshaw, T. L., Smith, D. C., & O'Malley, M. D. (2014). Further validation of the Social and Emotional Health Survey for high school students. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, *9*, 997–1015. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-013-9282-2

Zhang, Y., Li, Z., Tan, Y., Zhang, X., Zhao, Q., Chen, X., et al. (2021). The influence of personality traits on school bullying: a moderated mediation model. *Frontiers in Psychology, 12,* 650070. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.650070

Zhu, Q., Cheong, Y., & Wang, C. (2022). Relation Between Peer Victimization and Mental Health Among Chinese Students: Perceived School Climate and Covitality as Potential Moderators. *School Psychology Review*. https://doi.org/10.1080/2372966X.2022.2088250

Zych, I., Baldry, A. C., & Farrington, D. P. (2017). School bullying and cyberbullying: Prevalence, characteristics, outcomes, and prevention. In *Handbook of Behavioral Criminology* (pp. 113–138). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-61625-4_7

Zych, I., Ortega-Ruiz, R., & Marín-López, I. (2016). Cyberbullying: a systematic review of research, prevalence, and assessment issues in Spanish studies. *Psicología Educativa, 22,* 5–18. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pse.2016.03.002

Zych, I., Ttofi, M. M., & Farrington, D. P. (2019). Empathy and callous-unemotional traits in different bullying roles: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, 20*(1), 3–21. https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838016683456