

**CYBERBULLYING IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (EFL)
UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' BLOG**



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DISSERTATION

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UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' BLOG**

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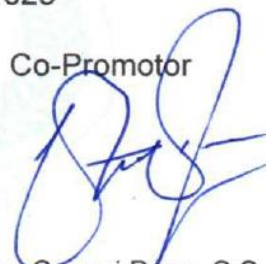
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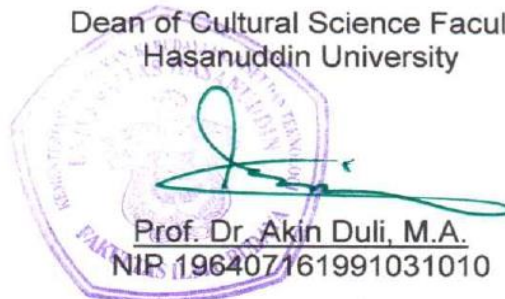
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Best Regards,

Budianto Hamuddin

PERNYATAAN KEASLIAN DISERTASI

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Makassar, 31 Desember 2023

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ABSTRACT

BUDIANTO HAMUDDIN. Cyberbullying in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) University Students' Blog (Supervised by: Fathu Rahman, Abidin Pammu, Yusring Sanusi Baso)

This research examines cyberbullying among English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students who use blogs for learning, with a focus on identifying the types, styles, and motives behind cyberbullying actions on blogs, and proposing systematic steps for an anti-cyberbullying campaign. Through purposive sampling, this study involved 251 bloggers from the English Language Department at Lancang Kuning University. The research applied a mixed-method approach, using online questionnaires, documentation of blog comments, in-depth interviews, and literature review, employing content analysis supported by web applications such as Publish or Perish (PoP) and NVivo 12 qualitative data analysis software on 933 cyberbullying research articles from time to time. The study analyzed 755 cyberbullying comments found during online learning activities in 251 EFL student blogs. Twelve types of cyberbullying actions were successfully identified, including denigration, insult, taunting, and bashing being the most dominant type. A new type of cyberbullying called "praise-drop" was also identified. Further analysis on 921 comments revealed a common practice of combining text with non-text elements such as emojis and emoticons in cyberbullying messages on the blogs. The analysis further uncovered 23 general motives for cyberbullying, with 9 of them found in the interactions on student blogs. In the end, this research proposed an alternative anti-cyberbullying framework that integrates recommendations from previous studies and findings from this research. The anti-cyberbullying framework emphasizes promotive, preventive, palliative, and rehabilitative strategies that can be tailored to specific cases and evolving online cultures. By addressing cyberbullying within the context of language learning, this research implies broader implications for creating a safer and more inclusive online environment digital interaction worldwide.

Keywords: Cyberbullying trends; Social networking sites (sns); E-learning; Typographic emoticons; Language learners; Anti-cyberbullying.

ABSTRAK

BUDIANTO HAMUDDIN. Perundungan Siber di Blog Pembelajar Bahasa Inggris sebagai Bahasa Asing (EFL) di Tingkat Universitas (Dibimbing oleh Fathu Rahman, Abidin Pammu, dan Yusring Sanusi Baso).

Penelitian ini bertujuan mengkaji perundungan siber dikalangan mahasiswa Jurusan Bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing (EFL) yang menggunakan blog untuk pembelajaran dengan berfokus pada identifikasi jenis, gaya, dan motif di balik tindakan perundungan siber di blog serta mengusulkan langkah-langkah sistematis untuk kampanye anti-perundungan siber. Penelitian ini menerapkan metode campuran (mixed method) dengan menggunakan alat pengumpulan data berupa angket daring, dokumentasi komentar dari blog, wawancara mendalam, dan penelitian kepustakaan menggunakan analisis konten yang di dukung aplikasi web seperti Publish or Perish (PoP) dan analisis data kualitatif menggunakan perangkat lunak NVivo 12 terhadap 933 artikel penelitian perundungan siber dari masa ke masa. Sampel penelitian ditentukan secara purposif dengan melibatkan 251 bloggers dari Jurusan Bahasa Inggris FKIP Universitas Lancang Kuning selama kegiatan berselancar di dunia siber. Penelitian ini menganalisis 755 komentar perundungan siber yang ditemukan dalam proses pembelajaran daring menggunakan 251 blog mahasiswa EFL. Hasil penelitian menunjukkan terdapat dua belas jenis tindakan perundungan siber yang berhasil diidentifikasi dan tiga di antaranya dikategorikan sebagai jenis perundungan yang paling dominan, yakni penghinaan, ejekan, cacian, dan fitnah . Selain itu, ditemukan pula satu jenis perundungan baru yang diberi nama *praise-drop*. Hasil analisis lebih lanjut terhadap 921 komentar ditemukan kebiasaan utama, yaitu penggabungan teks dengan unsur nonteks seperti emoji dan emotikon dalam komentar yang mengandung pesan-pesan perundungan siber di blog. Hasil analisis selanjutnya mengungkapkan ada 23 motif perundungan siber secara umum dan 9 motif di antaranya ditemukan dalam interaksi di blog mahasiswa. Penelitian ini pada akhirnya berhasil mengusulkan suatu kerangka antiperundungan yang menggabungkan saran dan rekomendasi dari penelitian sebelumnya dan temuan-temuan pada penelitian ini. Kerangka anti perundungan siber ini menitikberatkan pada strategi promosi (promotive), pencegahan (preventive), penyembuhan (palliative), dan rehabilitasi (rehabilitative) yang dapat disesuaikan dengan kasus-kasus tertentu dan budaya daring yang berkembang. Dengan mengeksplorasi perundungan siber dalam konteks pembelajaran bahasa, penelitian ini berimplikasi lebih luas dalam membantu menciptakan dunia siber yang lebih aman dan inklusif untuk berinteraksi di seluruh dunia.

Kata kunci: Tren perundungan siber; Situs jejaring sosial (SJS); E-pembelajaran; Emotikon Tipografi, Pembelajar bahasa; Anti-perundungan siber

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Cyberbullying is an emerging issue in the context of higher education as information and communication technology (ICT) which has now become a part of daily life in university. Many researchers see this online social aggression as alike an *endemic* problem due to its consistent prevalence in the cyberspace (Aoyama & Talbert, 2010; Arntfield, 2015). Cyberbullying is also seen as an *epidemic* problem because it has the ability to attack multiple people in a widespread manner (Perry, 2019; Yang & Grinshteyn, 2016). In fact, as a prevalent problem over entire countries around the world, including Indonesia, cyberbullying is a "*pandemic* problem that has permeated the generation who grew up with ICT," (Umesh et al., 2018).

The use of ICT to harm others is a behavior that is not tolerated in many parts of the world, including Indonesia. Indonesia's Law No. 11 of 2008 concerning Information and Electronic Transactions (UU ITE) has jurisdiction applicable to every person who commits acts as regulated in this Act, both within the territory of Indonesia and outside the jurisdiction of Indonesia. Such acts have legal consequences in the jurisdiction of Indonesia and/or outside the jurisdiction of Indonesia, which may harm the interests of Indonesia. To be specific, Article 27, paragraph 3, prohibits anyone from "intentionally distributing or granting access to electronic information that contains insults and defamation" Information and Electronic Transactions Act of 2008 (ITE, 2008, p. 7). Based on the law, cyberbullying, as an aggressive online act, should be prohibited.

"Cyberbullying" was first coined in 1999 by anti-bullying activist Bill Belsey, the founder of www.bullying.org and www.cyberbullying.org. The term gained popularity through Belsey's interview with the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC), during which he provided the world's first definition of cyberbullying. This term is used to describe the emerging threat in

cyberspace (Belsey, 1999), a term initially introduced in William Gibson, 1984 novel "*Neuromancer*" and now recognized globally as the virtual environment (Gibbons, 1984).

In its pre-observation, the present study explored 350 studies across various disciplines that have been published from 1999 to 2019. The study identified six major areas of disciplines: psychology, education, ICT, sociology, law, and linguistics, along with three minor areas: religion, iudology, and economy. Given the extensive research conducted on cyberbullying across these disciplines over the past two decades, the present study aimed to acknowledge and highlight the contributions of previous researchers who have explored this topic from different fields. Furthermore, the study aimed to identify gaps that have not been addressed in previous and current research.

Psychology appears to be the primary and most extensive field that has examined cyberbullying. Psychology has been utilized as a lens through which to study cyberbullying, partially due to the significant increase in interest following the publication of Patchin and Hinduja (2010) research, which established a strong connection between cyberbullying and students' suicidal ideation the term used to describe thoughts, contemplation, and planning of suicide. Researchers swiftly developed an interest in studying cyberbullying to identify its effects, as this emerging issue represents the initial and quickest means of understanding the problem. The scientific discipline concerned with the mind and behavior of individuals seems to be the first to delve into cyberbullying, primarily by collecting statistical data on the characteristics of the parties involved. These individuals are commonly referred to as cyberbullies, also known as cyberbullying perpetrators or offenders, as well as cybervictims, occasionally referred to as targets in some previous studies, and cyberbystanders, commonly known as bystanders in traditional bullying.

Unquestionably, psychology has often studied the link between cyberbullying and its various negative effects. Aside from suicidal ideation, a prominent study involving 845 students determined that cybervictims showed higher depressive symptoms, more substance use, and problematic Internet use (Gámez-Guadix et al., 2013). This finding is further supported by Litwiller

and Brausch (2013) who found a strong association between cyberbullying and violent behavior, unsafe sexual behavior, and suicidal behavior among 4,693 students. Moreover, Carvalho et al., (2017) found an association between cyberbullying and alcohol consumption. Furthermore, Lu et al. (2019) recently found that cyberbullying perpetration and victimization may predict weapon-carrying behavior among students. Overall, individuals who are targets of cyberbullying experience increased depression, anxiety, and insomnia, while those behind the cyberbullying exhibit increased outward aggression, hyperactivity, and substance use (Gianesini & Brighi, 2015).

Dan Olweus, the foremost expert responsible for the most cited definition of bullying, argues that the media has greatly exaggerated cyberbullying, creating "new" bullies and victims (Olweus, 2012). This opinion is supported by (Wolke et al., 2017), who surveyed 2,745 students and determined that cyberbullying is mainly a new tool to harm victims who are already bullied in traditional ways. Olweus (2012, p. 16) states that the existing claims about cyberbullying by the media and other sources "provide a distorted portrayal of the reality of cyberbullying, which will likely generate unnecessary anxiety and tension among parents, teachers, and students." Hinduja & Patchin (2019) similarly report that news coverage of cyberbullying incidents is increasing, but it does not necessarily mean that the quantity of cyberbullying incidents is increasing. However, researchers in the field of psychology cannot deny that cyberbullying is a common behavior among students, which is "perceived to be problematic and a serious but relatively routine part of young people's online lives and interactions" (Bryce & Fraser, 2013, p. 783). Cyberbullying has effects that can be considered more devastating than the effects of traditional bullying, primarily due to the lack of physical proximity required for cyberbullies to target their victims. Cyberbullying can occur privately between the cyberbully and the cybervictim through text messaging or email, but the content can also be posted on public social networking sites, involving many friends and strangers (Choo, 2016). Therefore, cyberbullying is not limited to a specific location but can happen anywhere and at any time (Batra, 2014; Price et al., 2013).

The researchers in psychology see the main difference between traditional bullying and cyberbullying, however, is that the latter can easily involve hundreds to millions of people all over the world, making the cybervictim become the target of not just one cyberbully but a huge number of cyberbullies (Price et al., 2013). Moreover, because the incident is recorded online for the public to see again and again in the future if the records are not taken down, cyberbullying can continue for a long time, involving other bystanders who join in the cyberbullying or the cybervictims who retaliate and eventually become cyberbullies themselves (Safaria & Suyono, 2020; Semerci, 2015). Even if the cybervictim abstained from social media, they would still be cyberbullied online whether or not they are online (Marx, 2014). Therefore, cyberbystanders have also been a rather popular topic that previous researchers have explored (Graeff, 2014; Koehler & Weber, 2018).

With the effects and nature of cyberbullying being explored rather frequently, the focus soon shifted to identifying the reasons and factors that may contribute to the creation of cyberbullies. The starting point for these investigations were studies on the differences between traditional bullying and cyberbullying (Del Rey et al., 2012; Patchin & Hinduja, 2015; Spears et al., 2009). Cyberbullies were often described as aggressive, although Steffgen et al. (2011) may have been the first to study the relationship between cyberbullying and aggression and empathy. Cappadocia et al. (2013) found other risk factors to include high levels of antisocial behavior and a lack of pro-social peer influences. (Moses, 2013) employed the theory of moral disengagement and discovered that students actually justify their cyberbullying behaviors based on certain characteristics of the cybervictims. This finding was supported by (Davis et al. (2015), who confirmed that cybervictims were targeted because they did not conform to mainstream norms and values. Brown et al., (2019), Kokkinos & Antoniadou (2019), Seigfried-Spellar et al. (2015), Smith (2016) have also investigated specific personality traits and mental states as predictors of cyberbullying. Psychological studies have also explored the role of parents, as parenting behavior is another factor that may predict whether students become cyberbullies or cybervictims (Chang

et al., 2015; Lereya et al., 2013). Additionally, school connectedness has been examined, as a safe school environment can impact cyberbullying perpetration (Tanrikulu, 2017). Finally, cyberbullying research using a psychological lens has also often explored gender differences, though the results continue to yield a mix of findings.

Education seems to be the second largest area in the literature of cyberbullying research. This area seems driven by the concern of cyberbullying disrupting students' learning experience as they feel distressed due to the incidents that they were either subjected to or witnessed (Pilkey, 2011). Agatston et al. (2007), Smith et al. (2008) found that initially, cyberbullying incidents were rarely discussed in schools because majority of the incidents happened outside of school hours. Both studies indicated students in general are pessimistic when it comes to stopping cyberbullying incidents. Agatston et al. (2007) found that students wouldn't report the incidents to their teachers as they didn't believe adults at school could help them, yet they also wouldn't report to their parents as they were afraid their online privileges would be taken away. Meanwhile, (Smith et al., 2008) discovered that the duration of cyberbullying averaged a week and sometimes lasted longer than that, but students would rather simply ignore or block the cyberbullies than reporting to adults because this form of violence occurred in their online world, not the real world like traditional bullying.

Other studies conducted later continue to confirm students' low level of willingness to provide information. Li (2010) found that only 1 in 10 students would inform adults. Mark & Ratliffe (2011) reported that some students believe neither their teachers nor parents would be able to help them. Slonje (2011) identified as many as seven themes that characterized students' experience with cyberbullying, namely helplessness, persistence, fright, anonymity, lack of avoidance, embarrassment, and loneliness. An interesting finding is that university students, in particular, even opposed university involvement in cyberbullying incidents (Kota & Moreno, 2013).

Early studies in the field of education have primarily focused on students' perspectives of cyberbullying. However, Roskamp (2009) recognized the lack of data regarding school principals'

viewpoints and experiences with cyberbullying incidents. Out of the 1,000 school principals surveyed, at least 4% or 41 school principals took no action to address these incidents. To establish a conducive learning environment for students in the face of the growing threat of cyberbullying, educational studies have involved adults both within school/university settings and at home over the past decades. Trachtenbroit (2011) discovered that many educators underestimated the association between cyberbullying and physical violence among students. Snakenborg (2012) found that half of the 2,000 public school principals surveyed claimed that there had been no instances of cyberbullying in their schools in the past month, which was contrary to reality. Snakenborg noted that although the awareness of cyberbullying on social networking sites is increasing within schools, there is still room for improvement in day-to-day policies. "Three out of five school officials do not utilize a specific curriculum or program to address bullying, let alone cyberbullying." Barnes et al. (2012) examined the school staff's perspectives and found that only 1 in 10 considered their school's policies on cyberbullying to be effective strategies. The slow progress in addressing the issue may be attributed to educators' and parents' lack of interest and concern (Cassidy et al., 2012b) as identified in previous studies (Cassidy et al., 2012a). The reluctance of students to report cyberbullying incidents appears to be further exacerbated by the aforementioned reasons.

These findings propelled rigorous studies to address "the need for collaboration among students, parents, and educators" (Cassidy et al., 2013), with proactive efforts such as providing faculty training for anti-cyberbullying measures, equipping students with tools for positive communication, discussing longer-term solutions, and considering students' suggestions and evaluations of school bullying and cyberbullying policies. These measures aim to foster respect and responsibility online among students (Graves, 2013). McKillop (2014) also echoes this finding, stating that student affairs administrators increasingly rely on and collaborate with colleagues to address cyberbullying incidents. In a survey conducted by Sezer et al. (2015), which involved almost 200 teachers, it was determined that teachers have at least an average level of

awareness regarding cyberbullying. Additionally, there is an increase in the number of cybervictims who confide in their parents and educators about cyberbullying via social networking sites (Leung et al., 2019; Poole, 2017; Semerci, 2015).

However, there has been a lack of studies focusing on cyberbullying among university students. While educators at all levels of education invest themselves in learning more about and taking action against cyberbullying to create a safe e-learning environment (Hamuddin, et al., 2018; Hamuddin et al., 2018a) and enhance the school learning experience (Burllet, 2019; Pilkey, 2011), the same cannot be said for students at all levels. Gahagan et al. (2016) noticed that the majority of studies on cyberbullying have primarily focused on middle and high school students, prompting them to examine cyberbullying among university/college students. Previous studies on this topic have mainly explored how cyberbullying impacts college-aged cyberbullies and cybervictims (Doane et al., 2014; Schenk et al., 2013), leaving cyberbystanders relatively unexplored (Schultze-Krumbholz et al., 2014). Furthermore, previous studies on cyberbullying among university students have predominantly investigated cyberbullying occurring broadly on the Internet, rather than students' experiences with cyberbullying on specific social networking platforms (SNS) commonly used by university students and where they are frequently targeted.

Consequently, Gahagan et al. (2016) addressed three gaps in the literature: cyberbullying among university students, cyberbystanders among university students, and cyberbullying on social networking sites (SNS) such as Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, and YouTube. The study made a significant contribution by examining the actual experiences of university students who face cyberbullying on SNS. The findings revealed that nearly a quarter of university students experience cyberbullying on SNS, and approximately half of the population is aware of these incidents. However, the majority of students neither reported the cyberbullies nor supported the victims. The study also discovered that many university students perceive their responsibility regarding cyberbullying on SNS as contingent on their personal relationship with those involved, their individual moral beliefs regarding cyberbullying, and their capacity to assist fellow students

who have been victimized online. Gahagan et al. (2016) recommended conducting future studies to further explore this comprehensive approach to cyberbullying among university students, considering that these individuals are already adults and seem to possess a relatively flexible sense of responsibility towards cyberbullying.

Information Communication Technology (ICT) appears to be the third-largest productive area for producing papers on cyberbullying. Researchers have utilized ICT as a lens to examine the correlation between the increasing popularity of social networking sites (SNS) and cyberbullying as a violation of privacy (Mann, 2009). Since the field of machine learning was still in its early stages, the ICT area often required human supervision to detect instances of cyberbullying (Yin et al., 2009). Initially, cyberbullying detection program classifiers relied on textual forms, which were occasionally ineffective. As a result, Dinakar et al. (2011) utilized a corpus of 4,500 YouTube comments to develop classifiers that are sensitive to frequent cyberbullying topics. Around the same time, Reynolds et al. (2011) devised an automated detection system for identifying posts containing cyberbullying content based on language patterns commonly employed by cyberbullies and cybervictims. Subsequently, Choong Hon, & Varathan (2015) developed a highly supervised method that involved other SNS users in monitoring online activities.

However, in the last five years, the ICT area has realized that existing cyberbullying detection programs have relied solely on textual analysis. There has been a concerted effort to address this gap by detecting cyberbullying that is mediated by images and videos. (Hosseinmardi, 2016) may have been the first to use images and SNS user features to predict cyberbullying. This study has influenced other researchers to consider multimedia content in their cyberbullying detection methodologies (Chatzakou et al., 2019; Rafiq et al., 2018; Squicciarini et al., 2017; Zhong et al., 2016).

Recently, Cheng et al. (2019) took it further by developing a multi-modal context of cyberbullying that includes not only text but also images, videos, user profiles, time, and location.

These variables have largely been ignored by existing cyberbullying detection methods. Natural language processing is also being leveraged by researchers (Jin et al., 2019), enabling cyberbullying methods to require less human supervision as detectors begin to co-train each other to examine language content and social structure (Raisi & Huang, 2018). However, Tarwani et al. (2019) pointed out that many of the existing detection methods are only based on the English language, which may be an obstacle to the global effort to combat cyberbullying, a problem shared by people with different native languages.

ICT experts have observed a steady increase in the coverage of cyberbullying in news and blog articles. However, this surge is primarily attributed to extreme cases of cyberbullying. Howlett-Brandon (2014) debunked the circulating myths about cyberbullying, highlighting the role of media in popularizing misinformation. Despite efforts to address the issue, cyberbullying remains a prevalent topic in the media. Vishwakarma et al. (2018) conducted a survey involving over 200,000 students from 40 countries, confirming that cyberbullying continues to be a global problem that affects students across cultures. Consequently, news media coverage can be a valuable resource for preventing cyberbullying (Moreno et al., 2019).

Sociology appears to be the fourth-largest field producing studies on cyberbullying. The studies conducted in the sociological domain seem to have been motivated by the lack of cyberbullying research conducted outside the United States (Norman, 2011). One of the first prominent studies in this area was conducted by Lerner (2011), who surveyed nearly 600 American and Japanese students. The findings indicated that Japanese involvement in cyberbullying tends to increase with age, while there is no such correlation between age and American students' involvement. Additionally, American students tend to use information and communication technology (ICT) and become more involved in cyberbullying incidents at an earlier stage. Similarly, Hmielowski et al. (2014) surveyed approximately 350 American and Korean students and discovered that perceived norms regarding online flaming differ between the two countries. People in South Korea are less accepting of online flaming compared to

Americans. Around the same time, Payne & Belle (2017) conducted a survey involving over 3,000 students to address the limited data on cyberbullying among South African students.

However, over the past few years, the focus of research in the field of sociology has shifted from comparing cyberbullying between two different countries to multicultural societies. Lapidot-Lefler & Hosri (2016) conducted a study involving almost 1,000 Jewish and Arab students in Israel. Their findings indicated that the former group was often targeted as cybervictims or bystanders, while surprisingly, the latter group frequently assumed the role of cyberbullies. Pennington (2017) conducted a similar study comparing cyberbullying among approximately 750 African American and Caucasian students. The results of this study supported the statement made by Hinduja & Patchin (2007) that cyberbullying affects students of all ethnicities. Nevertheless, Mojdehi et al. (2019) recently conducted a survey involving 427 students from Canada, China, and Iran, which aimed to explore the moral evaluations of cyberbullying based on participant role, culture, and gender. This study made groundbreaking contributions by revealing diverse results, such as Iranian students exhibiting less negative evaluations of cyberbullying compared to their Canadian and Chinese counterparts. Additionally, the study found that males from all three cultures evaluated cyberbullying less negatively than females.

Sociology has also made significant progress in the study of gender-based cyberbullying. Maher (2008) conducted one of the initial studies that examined gender differences in cyberbullying over a 12-month investigation, aiming to present authentic experiences rather than focusing solely on extreme cases. Blumenfeld & Cooper (2010) addressed a similar issue by investigating the frequently reported connection between cyberbullying-related suicides and the LGBTQ (lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer) population. Both studies concluded that while cyberbullying did occur, it was generally not extreme and not the primary cause of suicides. However, Fayaz & Khalique (2016) demonstrated that subsequent gender-related studies produced mixed results regarding male and female cyberbullying behavior.

Law has been identified as the fifth largest area of research concerning cyberbullying. Several studies focused on the intersection of law and cyberbullying were found to predate the actual term "cyberbullying." Although Ellison & Akdeniz (1999) and Greenleaf (1998) did not specifically investigate cyberbullying, they were primarily concerned with how the law could regulate internet activities to prevent cyber stalking. It was Gillespie (2006) who conducted the first law study on "cyberbullying," suggesting that educational solutions should be prioritized over legal measures. This preference may be attributed to the challenges faced by the law in imposing penalties on cyberbullies. One of these challenges, as identified by Kift et al. (2010) is the limited criminal responsibility assigned to students due to their immaturity. Bishop, (2013) discovered a second issue, which involved the conflict between criminalizing offensive messages and safeguarding free or creative speech.

Bjorkqvist & Osterman (2014) further revealed a third issue through two surveys involving over 1,200 students, indicating that physical punishments actually contributed to the prevalence of cyberbullying behavior. While punishments may be considered a last resort, experts in the field of law suggest the need for policies and interventions to address cyberbullying, as previous studies have shown its negative impact on the emotional health of young people. In the early 2010s, only the United States had implemented laws specifically targeting cyberbullies Marczak & Coyne (2010). Batra (2014) determined that this was due to the global nature of cyberbullying, which made the problem unrelated to territorial jurisdictions. However, in the mid-2010s, other countries started implementing legal and policy measures to address cyberbullying. Pozza, Di Pietro, et al. (2016) found that at least 9 European Union member states have successfully implemented practices to address cyberbullying cases. Mostert (2007) presented solutions to the "inherent tension between free speech and regulation on the internet." However, there is still a lack of research on cyberbullying laws in countries outside the United States and the European Union.

Lastly, linguistics is the sixth-largest area of cyberbullying studies. Linguistic studies have found that cyberbullying has been primarily mediated through text before social networking sites (SNS) enabled youth to share their thoughts through images and videos (Cheng et al., 2019). Consequently, many cyberbullying studies that have examined the language used in cyberbullying incidents have primarily focused on developing cyberbullying detection systems. Early on, Chen et al. (2012) stated that cyberbullying detection methods suffered from accuracy issues due to the nature of SNS textual content, which is "highly unstructured, informal, and often misspelled." To overcome this issue, Hosseinmardi et al. (2015) employed fundamentally new approaches to automatically detect cyberbullying by examining the types of content that have a significant probability of becoming topics of cyberbullying incidents, such as religion, death, appearance, and sexual hints. Following a similar approach, Alim (2015) focused on the hashtags that are frequently used in tweets as potential signals for cyberbullying detection.

Studies in the field of linguistics continue to discover challenges in preventing cyberbullying on social networking sites (SNS). According to Raisi & Huang (2016), the first key challenge in detecting cyberbullying incidents is the rapid evolution of SNS vocabulary. Second, Kwon & Gruzd (2017) pointed out how swearing, a linguistic mannerism frequently employed in cyberbullying incidents, is a contagious action that easily leads to offensive comments spilling over onto SNS. A third complicating factor was brought forth by Englander et al. (2017), who found that the three characteristics often used by previous researchers to define cyberbullying - intent, repetition, and power imbalance - "do not always translate well into digital behaviors."

When it comes to the issue of definition, Payne & Belle (2017) have addressed the complex matter of repetition by surveying over 3,000 young people and revealing that repetition was not a determining factor in their experience of cyberbullying. According to Payne, "cybervictims reported no less impact from a single incident compared to repetitive incidents." The harmful intention of cyberbullies also did not emerge as a significant factor, as Koehler & Weber (2018) found that some university students do not consider incidents in which others are

insulted as instances of cyberbullying in online communication. Insults-only cyberbullying incidents, in some way, appear less severe in the perceptions of university students and may contribute to a tendency to blame the victim. Additionally, a previous study by Kota & Moreno (2013) found that university students may even view cyberbullying incidents as humorous and not harmful at all. From a linguistic standpoint, this could be seen as a research gap.

Based on the findings of previous researchers, the present study has identified several areas across disciplines that remain unexplored. In the field of psychology, many studies have relied on one-time surveys, thus lacking longitudinal studies. In the field of education, extensive research has been conducted on cyberbullying among middle and high school students, but there is a dearth of studies focusing on university students. Furthermore, while cyberbullying among students on social networking sites (SNS) has been investigated, the studied acts of cyberbullying were primarily conducted by peers and strangers rather than exclusively between students themselves.

In the ICT area, existing cyberbullying detection systems still exclusively detect cyberbullying acts that use the English language, which may not always be successful due to the nature of online language, characterized by grammatical errors and implied context. Recent findings in the sociology field indicate that aggressive language features commonly associated with cyberbullying may not necessarily be indicative of cyberbullying itself, but this area of research is still relatively unexplored. In the legal domain, studies on cyberbullying cases have primarily focused on those within the United States (US) and European Union (EU), with limited exploration of legal incidents outside of these regions. In linguistics, several intriguing research gaps exist for future scholars, including the rapid evolution of vocabulary used by young individuals on social networking sites, the contagious nature of linguistic swearing, and the distinct perception of cyberbullying among university students. Although linguistics has seen a limited number of studies exploring cyberbullying as an act influenced by language, particularly online language, the majority of existing research has associated aggressiveness as the defining

characteristic of cyberbullying. However, some studies have suggested the presence of non-aggressive intentions behind certain words, emphasizing the need for an objective examination of the language employed in cyberbullying acts.

These research gaps across various disciplines demonstrate the existence of numerous unexplored areas. This particular study aims to break new ground in cyberbullying research by examining the phenomenon from a fresh, slightly different perspective. Specifically, the study focuses on cyberbullying acts among university-level students who are studying foreign languages and engaging in blogging activities. The selection of university students is justified by the fact that this population remains understudied in cyberbullying research within the field of education. By targeting university students, the study acknowledges that this age group has surpassed the threshold of adulthood, typically set at 17 years old. Therefore, it is expected that university students, as adults, should be aware of the potential harm caused by cyberbullying and should not claim immaturity as a defense. Additionally, unlike middle or high school students, university students majoring in foreign languages are foreign language learners who are compelled by faculty policies to use a language they are not entirely familiar with in their classroom and online interactions. Consequently, these students may make mistakes in their online communications, providing an opportunity for exploration in this study.

Echoing previous research on popular social networking sites (SNS) like Facebook and Twitter, this study focuses on students' blogs as an online communication medium. While blogs facilitate an open exchange of text, images, and links (Bower, 2016), they have been largely overlooked in the context of cyberbullying by psychology, education, and ICT fields. The study's focus on blogs stems from the fact that their interactive features are typically used by students within the same university, minimizing the influence of aggression from strangers in cyberbullying incidents. Previous studies have found that cyberbullying negatively affects online learning comfort (Smit, 2015), but there has been limited investigation into how cyberbullying disrupts the existing and authentic e-learning environments of university students. This study aims to fill this

gap and be the first to address this issue. Therefore, the study exclusively explores cyberbullying acts conducted among students within the same university major by utilizing students' blogs as the SNS. The data derived from these language learning students' blogs reflect the authentic use of online language by university students, encompassing not only text rich in alphabetical and numerical characters but also the prevalent use of "typographic emoticons" such as emojis, gifs, emoticons, stickers, and more. Consequently, this study seeks to observe how cyberbullying truly occurs, moving beyond students' recollections or survey responses. It also aims to examine how university language learners genuinely employ language in cyberbullying and how creatively they express their intentions in these acts, a dimension that researchers worldwide have yet to explore. The combination of these research gaps in education and linguistics constitutes a significant "blank spot" that warrants attention.

A search for a university utilizing blogs led to the discovery of Universitas Lancang Kuning (referred to as Unilak) in Pekanbaru city, Riau province, Indonesia. Unilak has implemented blogs as an alternative teaching medium, encouraging students to consistently interact with one another in their foreign language learning activities. The English Language Education Department (PBIG) at Unilak is an ideal setting for studying cyberbullying among university students and language learners who use blogs. The department mandates that students build their track record and utilize blogs as alternative learning tools for foreign language acquisition. This study provides a unique sample of university students who have known and studied with each other for over 18 months, are adults, and employ blogs as a means of language learning. Preliminary data indicates that the archived blogs serve as virtual personal journals, showcasing students' creative use of vocabulary, phrases, sentences, punctuation, symbols, emoticons, images, and videos. Many students utilize blogs beyond the classroom to publish and share assignments, research drafts, article reviews, slideshows, and multimedia materials they have conceptualized and designed. Consequently, blogs offer an ideal platform to enhance language learners' writing skills by encouraging them to write posts in their target language, both academic and non-academic in

nature. Furthermore, the comment section beneath each blog post serves as valuable feedback and communication tool, presenting opportunities for linguistic exploration as it includes comments, questions, answers, criticisms, and even instances of cyberbullying that may lead to conflicts among students.

In short there have been plenty gaps that remain to be explored. Regarding the previous research challenges, gaps and future recommendations which have assigned researchers to deal with cyberbullying on SNS, it is significantly important to cover the aspects of types, styles, motives and design of the systematic against-cyberbullying campaign model. Research gaps of similar aspects also echo the gaps in the minor areas (i.e., religion, ludology, and economy areas). Thus, by investigating cyberbullying in the university level, it is expected to reveal in-depth and better understanding of today's bullying in digital era, a.k.a. cyberbullying.

This phenomenon is even more interesting to look at when this present study considered two novelties that make the cyberbullying committed in the students' blogs of English Education Department of Unilak unique. For one, the cyberbullying incidents in this study are committed exclusively between students who have known, studied and befriended each other for more than at least 18 months. This present study contributes to the SNS research field by looking into the cyberbullying between only students with this consistent relationship since previous studies on cyberbullying on social networking sites have only looked at Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Ask.fm or other popular SNS where the cyberbullying could originate from family, friends, and people other than fellow classmates. On another hand, the cyberbullying committed in the students' blogs is also a phenomenon of expressing students' thoughts and feelings that emerged in a platform that were created as a virtual place to study in the first place. This will not only hamper the learning process based on e-learning style in some of those courses but also can cause conflict among the students themselves.

Furthermore, to conduct this research in a comprehensive manner and to ensure that the "alphanumeric characters" and "beyond the text" of cyberbullying are comprehensively

explored, this present study utilised the latest version of a qualitative data analysis (QDA) computer software package known as NVivo. With this software, this present study can be very important in the diagnosis of progress and shortage of this field of study and the capture of a comprehensive picture of cyberbullying among English Education Department (PBIG) in the Faculty of Teachers Training and Education (FKIP) in University of Lancang Kuning (Unilak) (henceforth; PBIG Unilak) who has used blogs as alternative learning media to improve their writing skills and express their thoughts since its debut in 2015. For the reasons mentioned above, this present study contributed to the literature by studying the linguistics of the cyberbullying phenomenon among a novel demographic. It was supported by a cross-discipline of psychological and ICT perspectives and conducted with software perfect for studying very rich text-based and/or multimedia information on large volumes of data

1.2 Research Questions

Information technology (IT) has touched on the educational sector of society at a fast pace, with blog being one of the most academically-inclined information and communication technology (ICT) permanently etching its place as a medium of alternative learning for English language teaching (ELT). While other social networking technology (SNS) such as Facebook or YouTube also offers many academic functions, they also possess features that are major distraction sources to be used for ELT. On the other hand, blogs are not nearly as distracting as other constantly-updating SNS and also offer various advantages that that simplifies students and lecturers' learning and teaching process. Using blogs enables language learners to access all kinds of information that are relevant and lets them conduct their learning process anywhere, anytime, with anyone.

Since its introduction in 2015, students' blogs have emerged as an alternative teaching medium in select courses within the English Education Department (PBIG) at the Faculty of Teachers Training and Education (FKIP) at the University of Lancang Kuning (Unilak), hereinafter

referred to as PBIG Unilak. These blogs serve as a supplementary learning tool for students of the English Education Department at Unilak, facilitating the enhancement of their writing skills and the expression of their thoughts. Nonetheless, it has become evident that these platforms have also opened the door for students to engage in cyberbullying during their blogging activities. Consequently, the present study aims to explore the occurrence of cyberbullying within the blogging endeavors of language learners. To achieve this, the study formulates the following research questions:

- (1) What are the predominant types of cyberbullying exhibited by PBIG Unilak students in their blogging activities?
- (2) How are alphanumerical characters and typographic emoticons-based cyberbullying styles used and distributed during students' of PBIG Unilak blogging activities?
- (3) What are the motives beyond cyberbullying among students of PBIG Unilak in their blogging activities?
- (4) What are the recommended effective steps to fight against cyberbullying that can be used to support students' at PBIG Unilak in learning English through blogging activities?

1.3 Research Purposes

Cyber culture enables individuals to freely express opinions and share content, which can have negative effects, causing harm or discomfort to others. This study focuses on English Foreign Language (EFL) students in Indonesia, a country with a unique culture distinct from Western regions. The study aims to address the research questions and achieve the following objectives:

- (1) To figure out the dominant types of cyberbullying found on students' blogs of PBIG Unilak.
- (2) To identify the styles of how students of PBIG Unilak commit cyberbullying during their blogging activities.

- (3) To reveal the motives of why students who create blogs for education purposes commit cyberbullying acts at PBIG Unilak.
- (4) To propose a systematic way to fight against cyberbullying, especially toward the cyberbullying among the students of PBIG Unilak.

1.4 Limitation and Scope of Study

Seeing that there is a large quantity and huge variety of studies on online aggression on social networking sites, this present study feels the need to focus only on studies that deal with the phenomenon of cyberbullying. This research limits its data and focused on the phenomenon of cyberbullying in the university-level, specifically the cyberbullying incidents committed between the bloggers in the English Education Department of FKIP Unilak. The scope of the phenomenon under examination in this study encompasses cyberbullying acts perpetrated by English as Foreign Language (EFL) students during the period from January 2017 to January 2020, which marks the start of the study. Given the mixed-method approach employed, this research utilized NVivo 12 software to effectively manage and analyze the substantial corpus of data.

1.5 Target and Output of the Research

This present study aimed to describe in-depth and comprehensively what cyberbullying is among bloggers who are English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners at the university level. The output was intended to provide a clear picture of the cyberbullying phenomenon and how to systematically address it.

1.6 Definition of Key Terms and Abbreviation

Cyberbully : a person who uses information communication technology in any way that makes others upset at the least and feel terrorized at the most

<i>Cyberbullying</i>	:	anything that makes people feel upset at the least and feel terrorized at the most by text or typographic emoticon or multimedia messages through information communication technology
<i>Cyberbystander</i>	:	a person who witnesses a cyberbullying incident and does not intervene
<i>Cyberupstander</i>	:	a person who witnesses a cyberbullying incident and intervenes
<i>Cybervictim</i>	:	a person who is upset or terrorized by any action or inaction done by another or more than one person through information communication technology
EFL	:	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	:	English Language Teaching
<i>Endemic</i>	:	something regularly found among particular people or in a certain area, native and restricted to a certain place
<i>Epidemic</i>	:	something widespread and infectious in a community at a particular time
FKIP	:	Faculty of Teachers Training and Education
ICT	:	Information and Communication Technology
NVivo	:	Qualitative data analysis software
<i>Pandemic</i>	:	something prevalent over a whole country or the world
PBIG	:	Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris/ English Department
QDA	:	Qualitative Data Analysis
SNS	:	Social Networking Sites
Unilak	:	Universitas Lancang Kuning
WHO	:	World Health Organization

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Previous Studies

The rise of cyberbullying in higher education is closely linked to the pervasive integration of Information and Communication Technology (ICT). Recognized globally as a persistent digital issue, cyberbullying has been likened to an *endemic* problem due to its sustained online prevalence (Aoyama et al., 2011). The harmful impact of cyberbullying on a wide range of individuals has prompted researchers like Perry (2019) and Yang & Grinshteyn (2016) to label it as an *epidemic*. Today, it is acknowledged as a *pandemic* issue, particularly affecting the generation that grew up with ICT (Umesh et al., 2018; Hamuddin et al, 2019).

Numerous interdisciplinary studies have approached cyberbullying from various perspectives. This section reviews literature from the last two decades, identifying pivotal research areas and gaps. Such an analysis is crucial for our study's foundation, guiding our exploration and understanding.

Psychology: Psychology has been a key player in cyberbullying research. Patchin and Hinduja's 2010 study was instrumental in linking cyberbullying to suicidal ideation among students, marking a turning point in understanding this phenomenon. Researchers like Price et al. (2013) have highlighted cyberbullying's global and pervasive nature. Insights from Safaria & Suyono (2020) and Semerci (2015) underscore its lasting effects in the digital age.

Education: Research on cyberbullying in education, especially at the university level, is limited. Significant progress has been made in understanding cyberbullying among primary and secondary students (Pilkey, 2011; Burlet, 2019), but higher education remains underexplored.

This gap, pointed out by scholars like Cassidy et al. (2013) and McKillop (2014), suggests the need for more research on cyberbullying experiences among university students.

ICT: In ICT, the relationship between social media and cyberbullying is central. Mann (2009) examined privacy concerns on social networking sites, while Dinakar et al. (2011) and Reynolds et al. (2011) contributed to developing cyberbullying detection systems. The challenge of detecting cyberbullying in the evolving online landscape, as discussed by Choong Hon & Yin (2009), remains significant.

Sociology: Sociological research has revealed cultural dimensions of cyberbullying. Studies by Norman (2011) and Lerner (2011) show varied cyberbullying patterns across cultures. Hmielowski et al. (2014) contributed to understanding societal norms and online aggression perception.

Law: Legal perspectives on cyberbullying have evolved. Early research, including Ellison & Akdeniz (1999) and Greenleaf (1998), focused on internet regulation. Later, scholars like Gillespie (2006) and Kift et al. (2010) navigated legal responses to cyberbullying, considering free speech and criminal penalties.

Linguistics: Initially centered on text-based cyberbullying (Chen et al., 2012; Hosseinmardi et al., 2015), linguistic research has adapted to multimedia content in cyberbullying (Cheng et al., 2019). This necessitates new approaches for understanding and detecting cyberbullying.

In summary, the research on cyberbullying is extensive but reveals gaps needing attention. These include the need for more focused research on university students, advancements in detection techniques in online communication, and understanding cultural variations in cyberbullying. Our study aims to build upon this foundational knowledge, addressing these gaps with a comprehensive and multidisciplinary approach, and thereby contributing to the broader discourse on cyberbullying context.

2.2. Cyberbullying: Bully in digital world

Bill Belsey, who coined the term "cyberbullying" in 1999, provided the world's first definition of cyberbullying: "the use of information and communication technologies to support deliberate, repeated, and hostile behavior by an individual or group intended to harm others" (Belsey, 1999). However, this initial definition was not immediately accepted as the official definition of cyberbullying. Many researchers offered their own interpretations and versions of the definition. Coloroso (2003) defined cyberbullying as the "characteristics of bullying, such as an imbalance of power, intent to harm, threat of further aggression, and the creation of terror, magnified through the use of electronic technologies."

Later, electronic technologies were categorized into two groups: the Internet and other digital technologies, such as cell phones. Willard (2007, p.1) defined cyberbullying as "being cruel to others by sending or posting harmful material or engaging in other forms of social aggression using the Internet or other digital technologies." Patchin & Hinduja, (2006, p. 152) summarized these definitions as "willful and repeated harm inflicted through electronic text." Walker (2009, p. 130) further expanded on the types of harm in their proposed definition, stating that cyberbullying involves the use of web-based communication media or handheld technologies by an individual or group to deliver slanderous, harassing, demeaning, obscene, racist, or other offensive messages, images, or videos, either directly or with the intent to cause emotional harm to the target of the communication. Subsequently, Olweus (2012, p.16) acknowledged that cyberbullying extends beyond textual content and regarded it as "bullying performed via electronic means such as mobile/cell phones or the Internet," while Kowalski et al. (2014, p. 1073) defined it as "bullying through email, instant messaging, chat rooms, websites, or digital messages or images sent to a cell phone."

Based on the chronological development of cyberbullying definitions presented above, this study acknowledges the evolving nature of technology and its impact on the definition of cyberbullying. Consequently, it becomes essential for this study to address the inconsistent disagreements regarding the precise scope of cyberbullying. By doing so, future research in the field of cyberbullying can be conducted without complications arising from differing definitions. Thus, this study aims to explore the researchers' disagreements in defining cyberbullying over the years.

Furthermore, certain researchers have found evidence contradicting one of the most common characteristics attributed to cyberbullying, which is repetitiveness (Menesini, 2012; Walker, 2012). The widely cited definition of cyberbullying, describing it as a repetitive action, was provided by Patchin & Hinduja (2006). Olweus (2012) examined survey findings from nearly 460,000 students in the United States and Norway, raising legitimate concerns regarding the repetitive criterion of cyberbullying. The study highlighted the issue of "misclassification," where the act of exposing an embarrassing picture or video of someone is not classified as a cyberbullying incident simply because it occurred only once. In light of this discovery, Payne & Belle (2017) proposed an alternative definition of cyberbullying that does not rely on repetition as a defining characteristic. In a survey of 3,033 students primarily from urban areas of South Africa, the results revealed that cybervictims experience the same level of negative impact, regardless of whether the cyberbullying incident occurred once or repeatedly.

In line with this finding, Englander et al. (2017) stated that cruelty can occur whether the aggressor repeats it because a single online comment can be spread countless times by others. Consequently, further research should not require an act of posting hurtful comment or image to be repetitive for it to be considered as a cyberbullying act.

Another debated criterion of cyberbullying is the harmful intent of a cyberbullying act (Menesini, 2012). Kota & Moreno (2013) conducted focus group discussion on 29 university students who have experienced cyberbullying in college and discovered a theme in which these

cybervictims actually consider the cyberbullying incidents they were involved in to be humorous instead of harmful. Such a contradicting result from many previous studies prompted Menesini (2012) to identify that defining cyberbullying have been problematic because they often rely on the judgment of observers who might trivialize comments rather than the students who have experienced cyberbullying themselves. So, Koehler & Weber (2018) surveyed 240 university students and the results suggested that the students were selective in what they consider to be a harmful interaction that needs to be addressed. At least in the eyes of university students, if cyberbullying incidents only involved insults or name callings, they would generally ignore and even blame the cybervictim for the negative interaction.

One criterion that is consistently agreed upon by researchers over the years is the harmful aspect of cyberbullying, particularly on an emotional level (Vandebosch & van Cleemput, 2009). From a random sample of 1,963 students, Hinduja & Patchin (2010) found that those involved in cyberbullying incidents, whether they were the cyberbullies or the cybervictims, have a frightening tendency towards suicidal ideation. Cyberbullying is clearly problematic for students, but what makes this phenomenon worse is that it is so routine. Students are fairly pessimistic about ever stopping it (Bryce & Fraser, 2013) and may even engage in cyberbullying because they perceive it does not have consequences (Mojdehi et al., 2019; Varjas et al., 2010).

Something to consider is the recent discovery of how students perceive different cyberbullying acts to have varying levels of severity. In a study conducted by Hollá et al. (2017) involving 1,118 students, it was found that mean comments, rumor spreading, and posting hurtful pictures are considered less severe compared to posting hurtful videos, web pages, and making threats of bodily harm. This finding is further supported by Koehler & Weber (2018), who discovered that social networking site users often place blame on the cybervictims in cases where cyberbullying insults are unaccompanied by threats. This misinterpretation by bystanders can lead to the perception of such behavior as playful, which, if left unchecked, may provoke extreme responses from the cybervictims, thereby perpetuating disruptive cyberbullying incidents

(Kokkinos & Antoniadou, 2019). It seems clear that cyberbullying on SNS causes different levels of hurt for individuals, so this present study defined cyberbullying to have a range, from feeling upset to feeling terrorized.

Based on the debated points of the nature of cyberbullying, this present study simplified all of these different definitions and scopes of cyberbullying. Cyberbullying, according to this present study, is anything that makes people feel upset at the least and feel terrorized at the most by text or typographic emoticon or multimedia messages through information communication technology.

2.1.1 Traditional Bullying vs Cyberbullying

While cyberbullying literature came into existence around 2000, “bullying” was first used in a research on incarcerated juvenile in 1930 (Tyson, 1930). The most cited definition for bullying was the one proposed by Dan Olweus, in which cyberbullying is an exposure to negative physical contact, negative language/gestures, or facing exclusion from a group (Olweus, 1978). Olweus was responsible for the solid foundation of traditional bullying studies, thus many cyberbullying studies were rooted in traditional bullying studies due to the overlap between both types (Walker, 2009).

Existing research determined at least three overlaps, namely that both types of bullying share the same characteristics, i.e. power imbalance, the intent to harm, the threat of further aggression, and the creation of terror (Coloroso, 2003; Raskauskas & Stoltz, 2007), majority of students who are cyberbullies or cybervictims are also traditional bullies and traditional victims (Davis et al., 2015; König et al., 2010). Additionally, while cyberbullying mainly occur outside of school they also often originate inside the school setting (Cassidy et al., 2012a, 2012b). Due to these overlaps, cyberbullying continues to be debated as researchers see wonder if cyberbullying is simply another form of bullying or an entirely separate act (Englander et al., 2017; Kowalski et

al., 2014; Olweus & Limber, 2018). Regardless of these differences, however, researchers in general do agree that cyberbullying is distinct from traditional bullying by involving ICT.

In differentiating traditional bullying and cyberbullying, researchers refer to several highly-cited studies that have attempted to investigate the differences between these two types of bullying. Campbell (2005) was most notable for being one of the first to comprehensively explore the definitional issues of cyberbullying against traditional bullying. Empirical literature on cyberbullying was still very limited, so (Dooley et al., 2009) made quite a significant contribution by comparing and contrasting individual factors that are common between traditional bullying and cyberbullying. Then, Beran & Li (2008) brought forth and explored the overlap between people's multiple roles in both traditional bullying and cyberbullying.

The similarities and differences between these two types were further explored by Slonje & Smith (2008), and (Hinduja & Patchin, 2010) emphasized how essential both must be discussed in school response programs. Another highly referred study is Kowalski & Limber (2013) who investigated the relationship between the two bullying types with psychological health, physical health, and academic performance of children and adolescents. Despite the dissemination of knowledge of these two types of bullying, many adults still could not keep up with children when it comes to social networking sites, so Patchin & Hinduja (2014) addressed this issue to guide adults in taking proactive steps.

Table 2.1 summarizes the differences between traditional bullying and cyberbullying based on the studies mentioned above.

Table 2.1 Traditional Bullying vs Cyberbullying

Traditional Bullying	Cyberbullying
Bullying was first mentioned in Tyson (1930)	Cyberbullying was first mentioned by Belsey (1999)
Physical and/or verbal; using spoken words and fists	Non-physical; using written words
Face-to-face	Through an interface
The incident alone is limited in an area	The incident can become viral seemingly instantly
Traditional bullying is sometimes perceived to be more dangerous than text cyberbullying, and are perceived to be less dangerous than picture/video cyberbullying	Cyberbullying is considered more dangerous psychologically than traditional bullying, but the perceived impact of dangerousness depends on the generic type of cyberbullying. Text cyberbullying is perceived to deserve less serious attention compared to picture/video cyberbullying
Bullies and victims share the same physical space	Bullies and victims does not need to be in the same place or even the same continent
Bullies are often able to be identified	Cyberbullies are difficult to be identified because messages can be sent without personal identification
Bullies sometimes act as a reaction	Cyberbullies always have time to construct and carefully prepare what they intend to post or send to maximize the harm it causes
Bullies may gain perceived or actual power over a victim: popularity, physical strength/stature, social competence, quick wit, extroversion, confidence, intelligence, age, sex, race, ethnicity, or socioeconomic status	Cyberbullies does not gain any immediate perceived or actual power because anyone can use ICT in a way that allows them cyberbully another
Bullies fear being punished in general	Cyberbullies fear their technology or ICT privileges taken away
Victims often cannot retaliate because they lack the resources to strike back	Victims often can retaliate because ICT grants the same level of power to every internet user and the victims usually have little fear of physical retaliation
Victims are aware of the bully's identity	Victims are not always aware of the bully's identity, which can be hidden with a pseudonym or anonymous persona
Victims are able to escape to an extent	Victims are unable to escape, as it can happen anywhere, any time, and doesn't stop even when the victim is offline
Victims gain negative effects	Victims gain long-term negative effects

Traditional Bullying	Cyberbullying
Victims might not remember every word	Victims and everyone else can read the cyberbullying written word over and over
Bystanders do not intervene because they fear of becoming another or the next victim	Bystanders do not intervene because they do not feel responsible to stop the incident
There is no accidental bullying because victims' feelings of hurt are almost always immediately visible	Cyberbullying incidents might be accidental, where "the bullies" post certain comments for the fun of it but "the victims" may not recognize it as joking and take it seriously, resulting in hurt feelings
There is no disinhibition factor caused by technology	Disinhibition factor exists in cyberbullying, in which internet causes normal behavioral restraints to be loose

Table 2.1 shows that both types of bullying have many significant distinctions from each other. It seems clear that both bullying types damage everyone, e.g., victims, bullies, parents, schools, universities, etc. Whether cyberbullying is simply another form of bullying or an entirely different type of bullying is not the question this present study aims to answer. The focus of this present study is specifically cyberbullying because information communication technology (ICT) has become a daily part of university students' academic life. Ultimately, this present study's high interest stems from the many things to be learned from cyberbullying among university students' blogging activities, from the lens of linguistics and especially with cross-disciplinary perspective.

2.1.2 Cyberbullying in University Level

Compared to junior and senior high school students, cyberbullying among university or college students are less explored, but this demography has been studied by plenty researchers nonetheless. The first cyberbullying study involving university students seems to be Slonje & Smith (2008), and the university students were included mainly to be compared with younger-aged students rather than as a focus of the study. Aricak et al. (2008) was one of the first cyberbullying studies that actually focused on university students, which had investigated the psychiatric symptoms that might have caused students to engage in cyberbullying acts. Building

on previous studies' findings on psychological factors of cyberbullying, (Zhang et al., 2010) investigated non-psychological influences to cyberbullying among university students and came to the conclusion that technology usage and social pressure are also factors in cyberbullying. With the strong establishment of the link between ICT usage and cyberbullying (Neves & Pinheiro, 2010) the major social concern of technoethics among university students.

In the same road as other studies that looked into junior and senior high school students, cyberbullying studies on university students addressed the gap on gender-based cyberbullying studies. Walker et al. (2011) found that male university students are more likely to know when someone is cyberbullied than females. Akbulut & Eristi (2011) even found that compared to females, male university students are more likely to become cyberbullies and cybervictims simultaneously. Particularly motivated by these cyberbullying cases rooted in gender-based bullying and suicides, Blumenfeld & Cooper (2010) then surveyed a nationally representative amount of junior high, senior high and university students to understand the extent of cyberbullying on lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender (LGBT) and allied youth. The study found that the consequences of cyberbullying is quite devastating based on LGBT university students' perception because technology is usually their only or primary communication means with fellow LGBT people and some of their parents could turn to violence if they are found out. To an extent of relief, Schwickrath (2012) determined that cyberbullying at least does not have the primary responsibility for suicides among LGBT university students.

However, the increase of devastating cases and stories on cyberbullying does not seem to have a lasting deterrent effect on university students. Doane's (2011) video-based cyberbullying prevention program resulted in the discovery that knowledge about cyberbullying does not result in any permanent reduction of university students' intention to cyberbully, only succeeding a temporary one-month change of attitude. Seeing the hints of apathy towards the phenomenon, this study quickly took interest in gaining in-depth understanding of how university students truly perceive cyberbullying.

Initially, it was commonly understood that the use of SNS increases the chances of experiencing cyberbullying, which negatively affects university students' emotional states, as confirmed by Turan et al. (2011) and Lindsay & Krysik (2012). However, Walker (2012) found little correlation between ICT usage and cyberbullying experience. Even Jelenchick et al. (2013) found no evidence supporting the relationship between SNS usage and depression among university students. Boulton et al. (2012), in a comparison of different forms of bullying, found that university students have mixed feelings about cyberbullying. Focus group discussions by (Kota & Moreno, 2013) provided two interesting insights: university students consider cyberbullying humorous rather than harmful, and they frequently oppose the involvement of their institution. Similar findings were echoed by Xiao & Wong (2013), Moses (2013), Doane et al. (2014), and Hmielowski et al. (2014), such as the acceptance of flaming in online discussions and cyberbullies justifying their behaviors. However, Schenk et al. (2013) countered the notion that cyberbullying is not harmful, providing evidence of depression and other psychological symptoms among university-level cyberbullies and cybervictims. Kokkinos et al. (2014) also profiled university-level cyberbullies as possessing more psychopathic traits and university-level cybervictims as having more empathy. This study recognizes that as cyberbullying continues to receive critical attention from researchers (Lattanzio, 2018; Ooi et al., 2021; Shariatpanahi et al., 2021), prevalence rates and predictor factors' contributions will vary depending on the methods, sample sizes, and social norms included in each individual study.

This present study also realized that there is one concept that seized many researchers' attention during the mid-2010s, namely cyberbystanders on SNS. Cyberbystanders are SNS users who do not participate in cyberbullying a cybervictim, yet they also would not do anything against it. According to Faucher et al. (2014), university students tended to be cynical regarding the chances of putting a stop to cyberbullying. Crosslin & Golman (2014) stated that university students generally do not report cyberbullying incidents for reasons that rooted in their independence as adults, and since they learn from observing others' behavior, there are not many

university-level cyberbystanders who would intervene. In particular, Shultz et al. (2014) hypothesized that they would act only if they possess high empathy. From studying university students who were cyberbystanders to multiple real-time cyberbullying incidents, Dillon & Bushman (2015) found that they would intervene only after the incident was over, which is when the cyberbully was removed by the admin.

It seems that cyberbystanders chose non-intervention because they were not in charge of enforcing rules in the online forum. Two more studies by Whittaker & Kowalski (2015) and Gahagan et al. (2016) strengthened the idea that cyberstanders' stance on cyberbullying seems to hinge on their perceptions of responsibility towards the people involved. Gross (2016) proposed that this may be due to the nature of online environment, which affects bystanders to see cyberbullying comments as trivial. Online environment even makes cybervictims feel as if they have "equal power" to retaliate against cyberbullies (Safaria et al., 2016). In short, majority of university students become cyberbystanders because they "fail to identify the emergency character of the situation and refuse to help" (Koehler & Weber, 2018; Kokkinos & Antoniadou, 2019).

Cyberbullying among university students is a significant issue affecting their learning productivity, despite its prevalence (Hamuddin et al., 2018; Hamuddin et al., 2018b). It causes stress, targeting students' religion, gender, and sexual preference (Akcil, 2018; Peled, 2019). Most students, however, seldom report such issues to faculty (Umesh et al., 2018). To combat this, Leung et al. (2019) offered an educational course on anti-cyberbullying. Moreover, Yot-Domínguez et al. (2019) specifically focused on students who are teachers-in-training to prepare them in dealing with cyberbullying. While few, recent studies are proving that at the very least, cyberbullying is not completely unstoppable, especially for university students as the focus of this study.

2.3 Types of Cyberbullying

Cyberbullying may include “any online act that makes people feel upset” because this phenomenon has continued to evolve into a variety of types as researchers discover over time. Before cyberbullying was conceptualized in 1999, one type of cyberbullying has actually been studied as legal cases, which is cyberstalking (Ellison & Akdeniz, 1999; Greenleaf, 1998). Shortly after, a few types of cyberbullying were mentioned in news media posts, e.g. harassment, spreading false rumors or gossip, and impersonation (Bramwell & Mussen, 2003; Tench, 2003; Wendland, 2003). Then, as Facebook launched in 2004, researchers noticed an upsurge of reports of adolescents posting concerning material and considering acts of violence toward others or themselves (Willard, 2005) and continued to discover more types of cyberbullying over time.

Aside from the first three examples above, (Willard, 2005) wrote more types of cyberbullying, e.g. exclusion, denigration, outing and trickery, flaming, and cyberthreats, which could be direct threats or distressing material. In comparing traditional bullying and cyberbullying, (Raskauskas & Stoltz, 2007) mentioned taunting, insulting, and intimidating a peer as the common types of cyberbullying. In greater detail, Vandebosch & Van Cleemput (2008) conducted focus groups with almost 427 students from general, technical and vocational secondary schools, and found more types, e.g. excessive buzz, spreading personal chat screenshots, manipulation of victims’ pictures to be embarrassing, mislead, open humiliation, sexual messages, and unwanted midnight calls.

Other studies echo similar types (Arıcak et al., 2008; Slonje & Smith, 2008), although Slonje (2011) and Salus (2012) mentioned impersonation with different terms, which are masquerading and hacking respectively. By differentiating the different media of cyberbullying acts, Nuccitelli (2012) listed even more tactics, such as bash boards, blogobullying, cyberbullying by proxy, cyberdrama, digital piracy inclusion, exposure, grieving, non-consent multimedia bullying, interactive gaming harassment, malicious code dissemination, micro-visual bullying, password theft & lockout, phishing, porn & marketing list insertion, pseudonym stealth, screen

name mirroring, slut shaming, social media bullying, text wars/attacks, tragedy news mirroring, twitter pooping, voting & polling booth bullying, warning wars, web page assassination, Virtual Learning Environments (VLE) bullying, virtual world bullying, and YouTube Channeling. Salus (2012) identified bombing, happy slapping, slandering, and defamation. Sheeba & Devaneyan (2016) added flooding and baiting. Peled (2019) provided additional types of cyberbullying, e.g. fraping, dissing, trolling, catfishing, phishing, anonymous blackmail, shunning, and sexting.

Based on these previous studies' findings, this present study realized that cyberbullying types would only increase in variety as ICT develops and explores new territories. Since this present study has its own uniqueness that might not be found in other places around the globe, researchers should not count out the possibility of discovering new types of cyberbullying acts.

2.4 Styles: Alphanumerical Characters and Typographic Emoticons.

The style of cyberbullying refers to the kind of language SNS users use when they are engaging in cyberbullying acts. The cyberbullying language used in cyberspace to be mean, insulting, rude or provocative, and these characteristics are conveyed through text-based name calling, coarse words, profanity and personal attacks (Smith et al., 2008). These words had been difficult to detect because textual content on SNS are highly unstructured, informal, and often misspelled (Chen et al., 2012). So, Kontostathis et al. (2013), created a bad words dictionary that consisted of specific offensive words and the context of these words. At the same time, Marx, (2014) tried to understand whether cyberbullying messages depended on the words or the context, and concluded by proposing cyberbullying as an attempt to hurt a victim's feelings and as a virtual character assassination attempt which includes a third party as an audience. Since audience also play a role in deciding the offensiveness of the language used online, Whittaker & Kowalski (2015) studied how third parties perceive cyberbullying languages. The study found that SNS users generally perceive an online comment to be worse when they see that the target of the aggressive comment is a peer and less worse when the target is a random person or group.

When researchers realize that existing cyberbullying studies have been limited to textual content, there is a surge of studies that tried to improve detection methods on cyberbullying through text and nontext, which includes image and video (Chatzakou et al., 2019; Cheng et al., 2019; Hosseinmardi, 2016; Rafiq et al., 2018; Squicciarini et al., 2017; Zhong et al., 2016). During this period of adjusting cyberbullying detection methods with non-text content, Davidson et al. (2017) realized that cyberbullying incidents do not always have to contain aggressive words, and so developed three categories that cyberbullying language classifiers should detect, namely those “containing hate speech, only offensive language, and those with neither.” Finally, these categories were further developed by Raisi & Huang (2018) who identified the results of cyberbullying detection methods into three categories, namely true positives, true positives that does not contain obvious aggressive words, and false positives that were actually SNS users merely talking about other people, talking about bullying-related topics, joking, and conversations with no language indicative of bullying.

Based on the chronological progression of cyberbullying studies focused on language, it seems clear that these previous studies have mainly characterized the language as offensive and then generated a database of offensive words to improve cyberbullying detection methods. With such a narrow focus, this present study realized that there is a huge gap regarding the study of cyberbullying language. No cyberbullying studies have truly investigated cyberbullying language as an *internet language*.

The kind of language people uses on the internet is markedly different from the standard writing orthography. Social networking sites (SNS) are particularly rich with creative combinations of alphabetical characters and numerical characters, such as ‘later = l8r’ or ‘got to go = g2g.’ This unique characteristic of online language does not seem to have been the focus of any previous cyberbullying studies. Moreover, internet language is “divorced from gestures, facial expressions, and prosodic features such as intonation, rhythm, and volume,” thus emoticons entered the cyberspace to infuse online text with emotions (Amaghlobeli, 2012).

Emoticons, emojis, stickers, gifs and the like have been subjected to study by many researchers, with Mehrabian (1971) as one of the earliest to contribute as they noted that electronic language is divorced from gestures, facial expressions, and prosodic features such as intonation, rhythm, and volume. Studies on emoticons almost always found that using these specific linguistic features convey greater positivity than a positive text alone (Derks et al., 2008; Golato & Taleghani-Nikazm, 2006; Skovholt et al., 2014). Interestingly, even though using negative emoticons reduce the positivity of a positive message, they do not increase the negativity of a negative message (Walther & D'Addario, 2001). Interestingly, textual cognition does not overpower emoji-based cognition because the text takes prevalence over the emoji when the contents of an emoji and a text are incongruent (Dresner & Herring, 2010).

These linguistic features unique to online written communication were first understood as the paralanguage of the internet (Marvin, 2006). A decade later, Jibril & Abdullah (2013) argued that emoticons possessed word functions, rather than merely serving as add-on paralanguage elements. They can be politeness indicators, mitigative strategy, contextualization cues, and illocutionary forces (Campbell, 2005; Golato & Taleghani-Nikazm, 2006). They can indicate of celebration, approval of others' messages, responses to expressions of thanks and compliments, conversational openings and closings, linking devices, fulfilment of a requested task (Rashdi, 2018; Hsieh & Tseng, 2017; Sampietro, 2019). In social media communication, they can deliver meaning semiotically, close sentences syntactically, connotate meaning semantically, and show relationship between the online users pragmatically (Arafah & Hasyim, 2019a) (Arafah & Hasyim, 2019). However, the readers should be aware since the use of semiotic multimodality in communication can cause problems in the meaning of the message conveyed (Hasyim & Arafah, 2023).

While many cyberbullying studies have looked at cyberbullying on a multimedia context, there seems to be a lack of focus on eyeing on the linguistics style of cyberbullying centred on the usage of "typographic emoticon" which covers emoticons, emojis, gifs, stickers, etc.

Therefore, this present study is highly interested to study cyberbullying with the perspective of linguistics. This present study focused on investigating the linguistic styles of alphanumerical characters and typographic emoticons of cyberbullying objectively.

2.5 Motives: Do They Intend to Harm Their Friends?

A person who engages with another person online has their own reasons for doing so, and their motives may be innocent or sinister. "A friend of a cyber-friend may turn into a cyberbully, online love affairs may end in cyberstalking, sharing too much information may lead to cybercrimes, Internet frauds and identity thefts," (Hodalska et al., 2017, p. 1). Therefore, an understanding of cyberbullying is not complete if it is lacking an investigation on the motives behind the cyberbullying acts.

The previous studies on cyberbullying have learned about the motives behind cyberbullying as they attempted to paint a broad picture of the phenomenon. A survey from Raskauskas & Stoltz (2007) revealed that SNS users cyberbullied for fun, to get back at someone else, because they feel bad about themselves, or simply for no reason as quite a lot do not know why they even do it. Establishing dominance and, interestingly, demonstrating technological skills, were quite popular motives to engage in cyberbullying according to (Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2008). Jealousy, rejection and break up were apparently the most common reason for cyberbullying, and winning/losing an event or competition as the least (Walker et al., 2011). The interviews by Varjas et al. (2010) revealed two kinds of motives that cyberbullies have. Cyberbullies may have internal motives, which include redirect feelings, revenge, make themselves feel better, boredom, instigation, protection, jealousy, seeking approval, trying new persona, and anonymity or disinhibition. They may also have external motives, such as cyberbullying acts seemingly not having consequences, cyberbullying being non-confrontational, and the cybervictim being different in some way according to the cyberbully.

Furthermore, König, Gollwitzer, & Steffgen (2012) reported that cybervictims' main motive to commit cyberbullying acts is revenge or retaliation. Chen et al. (2012) found that the most reported motives of cyberbullying perpetration include disliking the victim, attracting attention, and looking cool. Open-ended question survey by Rafferty & Vander Ven (2014) summed up SNS users' motives into 3 types, namely cybersanctioning or vigilantism, power struggles, and entertainment or trolling. Self-report survey by Francisco et al. (2015) supported previous findings that most cyberbullies motives are for revenge, just for fun, and dislike. In the end, Adebayo, Ninggal, & Bolu-Steve (2019) who explored four motives of cyberbullying, e.g. entertainment, revenge, harm, and dominance, concluded that university students were more socially motivated for social media activities than for academic motives; thus, the reason for experiences of cyberbullying.

This present study saw that to date, cyberbullying studies have mostly gleaned motives behind cyberbullying through only surveys and/or interviews. These methods have served well for these previous studies in terms of summarizing the possible reasons of very large samples of participants. However, surveys and interviews also limited deeper insight into the phenomenon for multiple reasons. Surveys could not guarantee the participants' true answers (Brace, 2018; Nardi, 2018; Ponto, 2015) and interviewers may in advertently influence participants' responses (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015; Magnusson & Marecek (2015)). Murnion et al. (2018) have even mentioned that a significant issue of cyberbullying studies is how "researchers are traditionally forced to rely on survey data where victims and perpetrators self-report their impressions." In succinct terms, participants could choose and filter their answers in surveys and interviews, so there is currently a significant dearth of insight into the authentic cyberbullying motives.

Therefore, this present study recognized the need to look into cyberbullying in a comprehensive manner because any solutions provided to fight against cyberbullying would not be maximal if the motives identified were not truly what pushed SNS users to commit cyberbullying.

To address the existing gap in understanding the motives behind cyberbullying, this study was designed to develop a detailed categorization system capable of encompassing all potential motives for engaging in cyberbullying behaviors. In doing so, this research draws upon the foundational work of Varjas et al. (2010), who meticulously categorized the motives for cyberbullying into two distinct groups: internal and external. Internal motives are closely linked to the emotional conditions of the cyberbullies themselves, suggesting that their actions may stem from personal emotional turmoil. On the other hand, external motives are triggered by specific elements related to the victim or the broader context in which the cyberbully operates.

This dual classification system primarily views cyberbullying through a psychological lens, focusing on the mindsets and emotional states of the individuals involved. However, to achieve a more comprehensive understanding of why individuals might engage in cyberbullying online, this study proposes an enhancement of this classification scheme by incorporating insights from the field of information and communication technology (ICT). This innovative approach aims to meld the psychological perspectives on internal and external motives with the technological context, drawing on the theoretical framework proposed by Wolfradt & Doll (2001) regarding the motives for internet use.

By integrating these perspectives, this study aims to provide a nuanced understanding of cyberbullying motives, acknowledging the intricate relationship between psychological factors and technological influences in higher education context. Focusing on information, entertainment, and interpersonal communication as primary internet use motives, the research aligns with Wolfradt & Doll (2001) to examine why university students engage in cyberbullying on social networking sites (SNS). By integrating the findings of Wolfradt & Doll (2001) with Varjas et al. (2010), this study establishes a robust framework for categorizing cyberbullying motives, as outlined in **Table 2.2**, enhancing our understanding of online behavior dynamics.

Table 2.2 Motives of Cyberbullying on Social Networking Sites Mapping

MOTIVES	Information	Entertainment	Interpersonal Communication
Internal	No reason	For fun or trolling	Redirecting upset feelings
	Trying out a new persona	Make themselves feel better	Seeking attention
		Boredom	Provoking Jealousy Dislike Hatred Harming others
External		No consequences	The victim's difference Rejection Break up Revenge or retaliation Anonymity

Table 2.2 shows a comprehensive criteria system of motives based on cross disciplinary theories between psychology and ICT. The table shows how the criteria of three types of motives to use the internet are linked with the different kinds of motives that have been discovered by previous researchers, based on whether they originated from a person's inner feelings or from something external. Each combination creates a cross-criterion cyberbullying motive in which any results from studies that are concerned with the motives of cyberbullying or other similar online activity can be included in this criteria system.

The first cross-criterion is the information-related motive to use the internet. Beyond the obvious advantage of internet holding any kind of information one is curious about, people can use the internet to gain information and contacts of people not in their immediate area. This criterion also includes one's desire to sate a curiosity. Therefore, two cyberbullying motives, no reason (Raskauskas & Stoltz, 2007) and trying out a new persona (Varjas et al., 2010), can be explored as information-related cyberbullying motive.

The second cross-criterion is entertainment, which covers five types of gratifications from the strongest to the weakest, namely passing the time, relaxing, escapism, excitement, and companionship. Based on this range, the entertainment-related motive clearly matches with the cyberbullying motives of having fun (Adebayo et al., 2019; Francisco et al., 2015; Rafferty & Vander Ven, 2014; Raskauskas & Stoltz, 2007), trying to feel or look better (Varjas et al., 2010; Zhou et al., 2013), boredom (Varjas et al., 2010), and no consequences for cyberbullying (Varjas et al., 2010).

The third cross-criterion motive to use the internet is related to interpersonal communication, both one-on-one and group. Emotional quality and social situations play important parts in determining whether the social use of the internet is positive and negative, and this cross-criterion seems to hold the dominant type of motives that cyberbullies have. It includes the motives of redirecting bad feelings about one's self onto others (Raskauskas & Stoltz, 2007; Varjas et al., 2010), seeking attention (Chen et al., 2012; Varjas et al., 2010), provoking or instigating a response from someone else (Varjas et al., 2010), jealousy (Varjas et al., 2010; Walker et al., 2011), rejection (Walker et al., 2011), break up (Walker et al., 2011), from dislike to hatred (Chen et al., 2012; Francisco et al., 2015), harming others (Adebayo et al., 2019), the non-confrontational nature of cyberbullying (Varjas et al., 2010), revenge, (Varjas et al., 2010; König, Gollwitzer, & Steffgen, 2012; Adebayo, Ninggal, & Bolu-Steve, 2019), "something" of the victim (Varjas et al., 2010), power imposition or establishing dominance (Vandebosch & van Cleemput, 2008; Rafferty & Ven, 2014; Adebayo, Ninggal, & Bolu-Steve, 2019), and cybersanctioning or vigilantism (Rafferty & Vander Ven, 2014).

From the explanations above, this cross-disciplinary criteria system for the motives beyond cyberbullying seems quite sufficient to be used for studies that are interested to know about people's motives to engage in cyberbullying or any other similar online activity. The combination of two theories of motives from Wolfradt & Doll (2001) and Varjas, Talley, Meyers, Parris, & Cutts (2010) justifiably makes this criteria system flexible enough for researchers to

include new motives that may be discovered later on. Not only would this criteria system be helpful in exploring the motives of cyberbullying among university students on social networking sites (SNS), it may aid this present study reveal what might lie beyond the criteria of cyberbullying motives, especially for the particular demographic of university students who have known and more than likely befriended each other for at least more than 18 months.

2.6 Conceptual Framework

The goal is to obtain a comprehensive picture of cyberbullying as an emerging issue for university students whose daily life is inseparable with information and communication technology (ICT), especially social networking sites (SNS). This understanding is pivotal for the development of a systematic and effective anti-cyberbullying framework. Acknowledging the prevalent reliance on participants' recollections and self-reports in the vast majority of existing studies on cyberbullying, this research endeavors to explore this social malaise through the lens of authentic cyberbullying incidents. These incidents are readily observable on the blogs maintained by university students, offering a more immediate and unfiltered view of the cyberbullying landscape within this demographic.

To underpin this investigation, a conceptual framework has been established, as illustrated in **Figure 2.1**. This framework is anchored by four interrelated research questions, which collectively form the bedrock of our study's theoretical foundation. Each question is designed not only to probe different dimensions of the cyberbullying phenomenon but also to integrate these insights into a cohesive understanding that can inform the development of targeted and effective interventions. By systematically addressing these questions, the study aims to contribute significantly to the body of knowledge on cyberbullying and to provide a robust basis for the formulation of strategies to combat this issue among university students, thereby enhancing their educational experience and overall well-being in the ICT-rich environments that characterize contemporary academic settings.

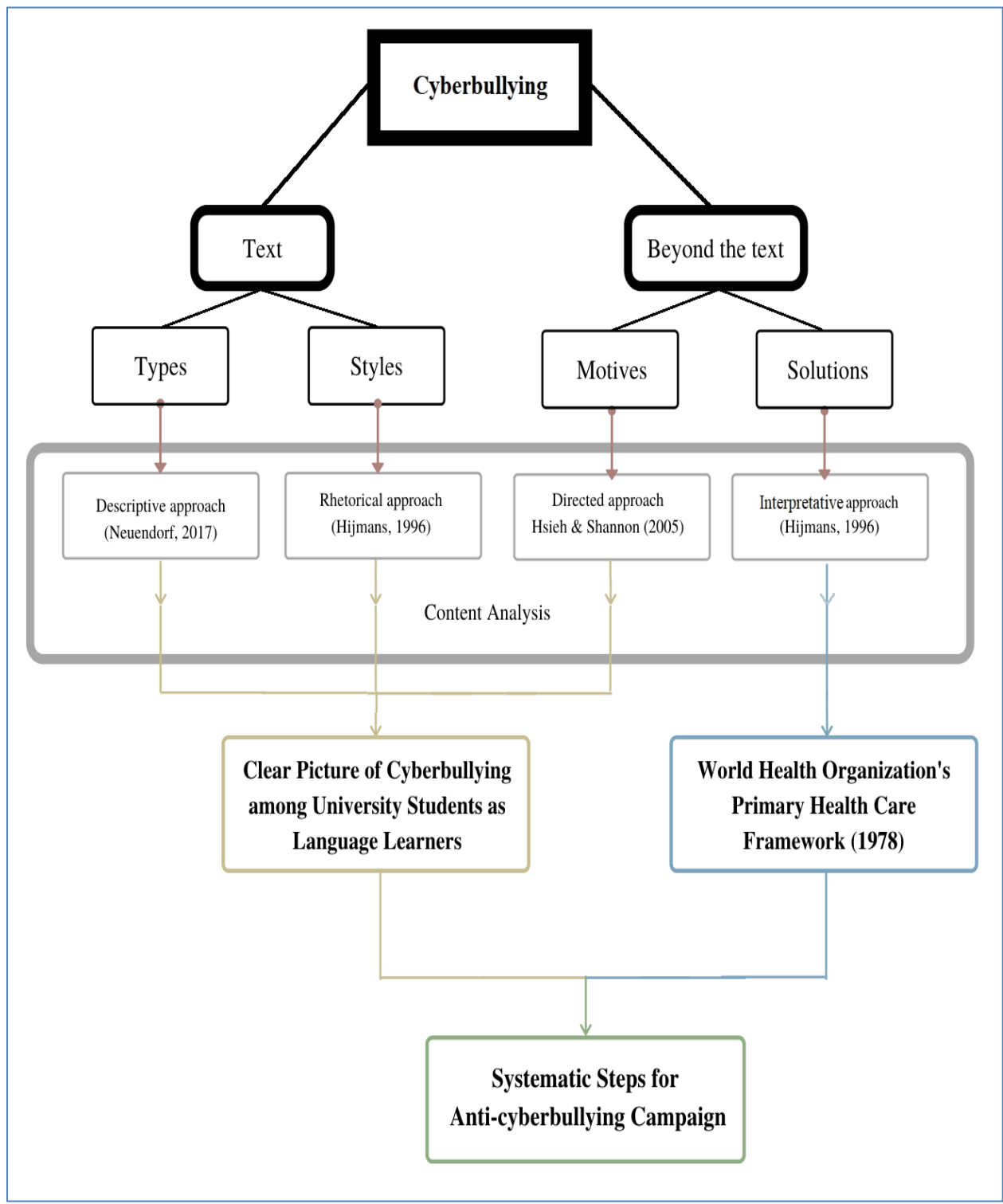


Figure 2.1 Conceptual Framework

Regarding cyberbullying in students' blogs, the researcher sees two kinds of data from this phenomenon, namely data from the text and data from beyond the text. Both kinds yield two variables each, the former types and styles of cyberbullying and the latter motives behind the act and solutions to solve the act. All four variables represent the four research questions in this present study. RQ1 aims to identify the dominant types of cyberbullying that are used by university students who use blogs as their learning SNS. At the same time, the researcher can also address RQ2 to explore the style of alphanumeric characters and typographic emoticons of cyberbullying. After analyzing the cyberbullying blog comments in the archived collections, the researcher observed that some university students were more prone to engage in cyberbullying than others. These students were selected as the subjects for in-depth interviews to ascertain the motives behind their cyberbullying acts, thereby answering RQ3. Additionally, this study scoured the literature on cyberbullying since its conception in 1999 to identify and recommend effective steps to address cyberbullying, thus answering RQ4.

Figure 2.1 also showed that the researcher analyzed the data on all four variables using different content analysis approaches that were suitable for each one. The researcher chose content analysis as the method of data analysis because of its strength in reducing large volumes and lengthy data into categories that display interesting patterns (Bengtsson, 2016). The method possesses a flexibility that allows researchers to develop different approaches of content analysis depending on specific research purposes, so this present study selected the most suitable content analysis approach for every variable. The data of cyberbullying types is analyzed with descriptive content analysis approach (Neuendorf, 2017) because it focuses on the message without being concerned with possible meanings that are implicit. The data of cyberbullying language styles is analyzed with rhetorical content analysis (Hijmans, 1996) because it reconstructs a message's textual and visual characteristics. The data of cyberbullying motives is analyzed with directed content analysis approach (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) because it refers to a relevant, established theory to see what is beyond the text. The data of cyberbullying solutions is analyzed with the

interpretative content analysis approach (Hijmans, 1996) because it lets the researcher draw on their own experiences as a resource to comparatively analyze the data collection and establish a theory or framework.

The resulting triangulation of the analysis results on the types, styles, and motives of cyberbullying provided a clear picture of what university students truly did and thought when they engaged in cyberbullying acts. Meanwhile, the analysis results on the solutions to cyberbullying were displayed based on the World Health Organization's primary health care framework (1978) because it was the standard operating procedure (SOP) that global countries adopted and modified when they were faced with endemic, epidemic, and pandemic problems. Virtually all the random solutions to cyberbullying that had been recommended and carried out over the past twenty years were systematically classified into the types of primary care that they represented (i.e., promotive, preventive, curative, rehabilitative, and palliative), and the results were combined with the results from the data triangulation. This combination generated a scheme of the most recommended steps for an anti-cyberbullying campaign.