

1-1-2017

Stand By Me: The Effects of a Police Anti-Bullying Presentation on South Korean High School Students' Attitudes About Bullying and Willingness to Intervene

Kenny Loui

Nova Southeastern University, kenny.loui@fulbrightmail.org

This document is a product of extensive research conducted at the Nova Southeastern University [College of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences](#). For more information on research and degree programs at the NSU College of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences, please click [here](#).

Follow this and additional works at: https://nsuworks.nova.edu/cahss_jhs_etd

 Part of the [Social and Behavioral Sciences Commons](#)

Share Feedback About This Item

NSUWorks Citation

Kenny Loui. 2017. *Stand By Me: The Effects of a Police Anti-Bullying Presentation on South Korean High School Students' Attitudes About Bullying and Willingness to Intervene*. Doctoral dissertation. Nova Southeastern University. Retrieved from NSUWorks, College of Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences – Department of Justice and Human Services. (5)
https://nsuworks.nova.edu/cahss_jhs_etd/5.

This Dissertation is brought to you by the Fischler College of Education: Theses and Dissertations at NSUWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in School of Criminal Justice by an authorized administrator of NSUWorks. For more information, please contact nsuworks@nova.edu.

Nova Southeastern University
Department of Justice and Human Services

Stand By Me: The Effects of a Police Anti-Bullying Presentation on South Korean
High School Students' Attitudes About Bullying and Willingness to Intervene

by

Kenny Loui

A Dissertation Presented to the
Department of Justice and Human Services
of Nova Southeastern University
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Nova Southeastern University
2017

Copyright © 2017 by
Kenny Loui

Approval Page

This applied dissertation was submitted by Kenny Loui under the direction of the persons listed below. It was submitted to the Department of Justice and Human Services and approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Nova Southeastern University.

Approved Grace Telesco, Ph.D. Date: 4/5/17
Grace A. Telesco, Ph.D.
Committee Chair

Approved James F. Nardoizzi D.P.A. Date: 24 March 2017
James F. Nardoizzi, D.P.A.
Committee Member

Approved Chaswell A. Hanna EdD Date: 4/9/17
Chaswell A. Hanna, Ed.D.
Committee Member

Approved Tammy Kushner Date: 4/5/17
Tammy Kushner, Psy.D.
Executive Director of Administration

Acknowledgements

As I write this acknowledgements section, I'll most likely find myself looking through a thesaurus to find as many variations as possible for the phrase "thank you." First and foremost, I owe a heartfelt thanks to my dissertation committee—Dr. Grace A. Telesco, Dr. James F. Nardozzi, and Dr. Chaswell A. Hanna—for being with me since Day 1 of my doctoral studies and helping guide me through my academic journey at Nova Southeastern University. I am grateful to Dr. Telesco for being a terrific instructor for *Theories of Crime* (the first class I ever took in the CJ Ph.D. program) and the challenging yet fun *Data Analysis and Interpretation*, two classes which provided me with the theoretical and methodological foundations for pursuing my dissertation research. Furthermore, I thank Dr. Telesco for being an equally amazing dissertation chair, mentor, and confidant. Thank you for always motivating me to "keep on keeping on," especially when my project was delayed for nearly six months and at risk of being scrapped due to external factors beyond my control. I truly appreciate your understanding, patience, and flexibility, and doing everything you could to keep my project alive. You were my guiding light at a time when all I was able to see was darkness. I wouldn't have been able to make it to the finish line without your encouragement and support.

Dr. Nardozzi, thank you for iterating to me and my classmates that police officers are not only law enforcement officers, but *public servants* as well. To quote Sir Robert Peel: "The police are the public and the public are the police." The lessons and insight that I learned in your *Police and Society* class piqued my interest in exploring the public service role of police officers, and subsequently led me to pursue research focusing on police officers as youth mentors. Thank you for encouraging me to "go above and beyond" to make this the best dissertation project that it could be despite the challenges and resistance that I faced to get it off the ground. As I look back,

balancing a full-time career, a full-time doctoral program, and several volunteer commitments was difficult to say the least. I remember telling you once: “I don’t know what to do. I’m not sure where to start. This will be my first time writing a dissertation.” Your response was: “Let’s work together to ensure that this will be the first and *only* time you ever have to write a dissertation. Let’s make a promise to shake hands on graduation day.” That said, I am grateful for the encouragement you gave me during my first semester at NSU, at a time when I had doubts that I would even survive the first year, let alone that first semester, of the Ph.D. program. As I promised four years ago, I look forward to shaking your hand on graduation day as a proud graduate of NSU’s criminal justice Ph.D. program.

I owe a debt of gratitude to Dr. Hanna for being an incredible teacher and advisor. The two classes that I took with you—*Contemporary Challenges in Juvenile Justice* and *Legal and Ethical Issues in Juvenile Justice*—were not only challenging but insightful, and piqued my interest in the field of juvenile justice, especially the important role that police officers have in the juvenile justice system. I appreciated the comparative approach you took in conducting your classes, not only teaching students about U.S. juvenile justice but juvenile justice issues of other countries as well. On a side note, I am also humbled to be able to share the title of NSU alumnus with you. I can only hope to go on and do as many great things as you’ve done since earning your doctorate from Nova Southeastern University. In short, Dr. Telesco, Dr. Nardoizzi, and Dr. Hanna—it is an honor and a privilege to have had the opportunity to work with all of you on my dissertation research and learn under your tutelage over the past four years.

I would also like to acknowledge the support of the following professors and staff in the Department of Justice and Human Services: Dr. Tammy Kushner, Dr. Kimberly Durham, Dr. Marcelo Castro, Dr. Adela Beckerman, Dr. Vachon Bullock, Dr. Nathalie de Fabrique, Dr. Alicia

Jackson, Dr. Tina Jaeckle, Dr. Z. Dennis Kalam, Dr. Dana Mills, Dr. James Pann, Dr. Nurit Sheinberg, and of course our department's amazing Director of Administration and Student Services, Mr. Russell Garner. Additionally, without Institutional Review Board approval, I would not have been able to do any research at all, so I also extend my thanks to the NSU IRB staff. I also cannot forget my teammates and extended family in the College of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences Graduate Student Government Association, especially Edwina Ward and Peren Sabuncu. It has truly been an honor serving with you as an SGA board member during the 2016–17 academic year.

There was no way this project would have been completed—and for that matter, even implemented in the first place—if it wasn't for the assistance of the Korean-American Educational Commission and participating high schools. I would like to say thank you to KAEC Executive Director and my second mother, Mrs. Jai-ok Shim, and Fulbright-Korea Administrative Officer, Mrs. Young-sook Lee, not only for their help with my dissertation project, but for being my esteemed mentors and role models over the past decade. Also, *kamsahamnida* to Vinnie Flores, Amelea Kim, and Ben Harris for their assistance and encouragement. To Esther Kim, Morgan Kinsinger, Jiyoung Lee, Byulhee Kim, Seonyeong Kim, Soojin Jeon, and all the other teachers, staff, and students at Communal Vision High School and Mokpo Jungang High School, I wish to express my thanks to you all from the bottom of my heart for welcoming me to your schools, greeting me with warm smiles and open arms, and taking the time out of your busy schedules to participate in my study. However, “thank you” does not feel sufficient enough to convey my gratitude to each and every one of you.

This research project involved a police-administered bullying prevention presentation, so next, I'd like to thank the two police officers that helped make the *Stand By Me* project a reality.

To Officer Woo-nam Joo of Ulsan Jungbu Police Station and Officer Eun-yu Park of Pohang Nambu Police Station, not only do I feel honored to have been your teacher at one point in your lives, but I am delighted to have had the opportunity to work with you as colleagues over the past year. Thank you, Woo-nam for all the hard work you put into helping me bring the *SBM* program into fruition. I have no doubt in my mind that you are a police officer with a good heart and will someday be a mentor and positive role model to each and every child whose life you touch as you work towards your goal of becoming a school police officer. You are and will always be my *myeong-ye dongsaeng*.

To Eun-yu, I am still saddened that your involvement in *SBM* was not as extensive as it could have been due to scheduling conflicts, but nonetheless, I am grateful for the time that you were able to put in as well as for the advice, suggestions, and insight you had to offer given your experience as an officer working in juvenile and family affairs. I always considered you one of my best and brightest students in high school and someone who also had a beautiful soul and was a natural-born leader. As your teacher, I couldn't be more proud of the woman that you have grown up to be and admire your decision to pursue a career in law enforcement and public service.

To my four project assistants—my sister, Jiyoung Lee, Yeojin Kim, Sojeong An, and Jihye Hwang—you all are the best friends that an overworked professor and doctoral student could ever have. You volunteered a tremendous amount of time for the project, while also lending me your support and encouragement, and for that, I will forever be grateful. Thank you for the energy, enthusiasm, and dedication each of you put into helping design and implement the *Stand By Me* project, from beginning to end. I also wish to acknowledge the support and encouragement of several of my other students from the Catholic University of Daegu's Police

Administration Department including Hyo-young An, Heejeong Im, Minji Jo (JMJ), Hansol Kim, Jinju Kim, Hyejin Park, Juntae An, Hee-yeol Kim, Gyusung Shim, and Chang-bin Yoon, and Honors College students Minsu Kim and Hong-rim Kwon.

Pursuing this research topic was partially motivated by my own role as a youth mentor over the years, in particular with the Civil Air Patrol's cadet program. Thus, I would like to give a shout-out to the always "excellent in action" members of San Francisco Cadet Squadron 86, especially Lt. Col. Grace Edinboro, Lt. Col. George Ishikata, Lt. Col. Aaron Kahn, Maj. Brian J. Larkin, Capt. Bob Nadaeu, 1st Lt. Kristen de la Rosa, 2nd Lt. Kathryn Cooke, and my fellow "Keyboard Commando," Cadet Tech. Sgt. Andrew Ceronsky. Also, *arigatō gozaimasu* to Capt. Carrie "Yachiru" Mills from Kansas Wing, my NESAs GSAR classmate and fellow anime *otaku*; and Capt. Marc Stephenson and 1st Lt. Angelica-Lorraine Lee, my favorite neighbors down south at Squadron 10 in Palo Alto.

Besides CAP, of all the community activities that I've engaged in over the years, the most precious was my time volunteering at Sutro Elementary School. During my college years, I spent four years at Sutro School working as a teacher's aide in a first-grade classroom. It was an enlightening and valuable learning experience, one that I will treasure for a lifetime. Rosina Tong, the teacher that I worked with, was an exceptional educator and a great role model. Aside from teaching her students "the basics," she taught them about the importance of friendship, teamwork, and moral responsibility, to one's self and to one's friends, family, and community. Because of Rosina, I was inspired to pursue a career in teaching and youth mentoring.

"Honorable mentions" include friends and family who lent their support in one way or another, whether it was by being my personal cheerleaders, offering insightful comments and innovative ideas for my research, contributing to the *Stand By Me* piggy bank, making sure I

didn't *karōshi* myself, or simply sending me good vibes, which was always greatly appreciated. Just in case you don't know who you are, I'm going to list your names here (whether you like it or not) because without you, I wouldn't be able to extend my name by another three letters (and two periods): Dr. George H. Berghorn, Dr. Gerard P. Heather, Dr. Timothy Kane, Dr. Kyung-rae Kang and his family, Dr. Sung-sig Kim and his son Hee-soo, Dr. James R. Martel, Dr. Jun Miranda, Dr. Jeffrey B. Snipes, Inspector Jin-ah Yoo, Capt. Chris Senatroy, Sgt. Roy Woodard, Jeong-ah Kim (thank you for always greeting me with your warm and beautiful smile), Nari Kim, Mimi Choi, Jiyeon Lee, Dae-young Kim, Gil-chae Yoon, Sang-woo Jun, Eric Reese, Kate Tixel, Luke Zeller, and last but certainly not least, my brother and sister, Matthew Lane and Melissa Shelsby. I would also like to give a heartfelt thanks to Eun-hee Park of Busan Hanbada Middle School and the 30 student participants of the 2016 Youth Leadership for Community Sharing Campaign for reminding me why I decided to pursue a career—a life—in teaching and youth mentoring in the first place.

The list of people to be acknowledged and thanked would not be complete without mentioning Kiatkong Louichrowatana and Chintana Louichrowatana, or as I like to call them, Dad and Mom. My parents played a significant role in fueling my desire to “go out there and make a difference.” Throughout my childhood, my parents emphasized the importance of hard work and *earning* what you receive, while reiterating how lucky I was not to have been living an impoverished life. To quote what my mother always likes to tell me: “Be grateful for what fortunes you receive, but be content with what fortunes you already have.” Furthermore, my mother and father instilled in me the importance of helping others, of utilizing my good fortunes to aid those who were less fortunate. Ultimately, my parents taught me that if one had the *ability* to help, that person also had the obligation—the *duty*—to help others.

I thank my father for being the backbone of our family and for teaching me the values of diligence and perseverance, while reminding me that it's okay to take it slow every now and then as long as you win in the end (his favorite story to tell me was, and still is, *The Tortoise and the Hare*). As for my mother, I am grateful for her emotional and spiritual support, for being not only a mother to me, but also a big sister and a good friend. From her, I learned the importance of altruism and human compassion. In fact, it was my mother that groomed me to be a lifelong volunteer. Drawing upon my mother's volunteerism and charitable nature, as early as elementary school, I found myself involved in various community service activities, in and outside of school. I learned very early in life about helping others on the basis of one simple reason: Because I could.

I would also like to take a moment to acknowledge the impetus for and the motivations behind my dissertation research. This research project was born not only out of my interests in youth mentoring and school police programs, but my own personal experiences with bullying as a child. Throughout my childhood, I often found myself the target of bullying by my classmates. Whether it was because I was "short," "weak," "dressed funny," "talked weird," "sucked in sports," or was "too smart," I was beat up, made fun of, ostracized by my peers ... you name it, I've experienced it, and mostly had to face those hardships alone. Nevertheless, I eventually found the inner strength to overcome and strived toward success, holding onto the belief that if I succeeded, then by default, the bullies fail. That being said, although I'm not a superstar celebrity or a mega-millionaire, I like to think I am successful in terms of academic achievements, professional career, and family, and very much content (and happy) with the life that I'm living as a teacher, youth mentor, community volunteer, and all-around nice guy. In a sense, I owe some thanks to my childhood bullies for making me the person that I am today—

someone who fully understands the pain and sorrow of being a “loser,” “outcast,” “wallflower,” or to use the Korean term, *wangtta*, and thus, someone who has made it his life’s goal to alleviate the pain of others, and to be a friend and a brother to those who feel like they have neither. To all my childhood bullies and others who doubted I would ever succeed in life (and even purposely tried to stifle my success), I’d like to share with you the following quote from my old friend Vinnie Barbarino from James Buchanan High School in Brooklyn: “Up your nose with a rubber hose.”

To any young person reading this who was or is a target of bullying, I know how you feel. Besides studying and doing homework, my “hobby” was crying myself to sleep and not wanting to wake up. Even though I faced most of my own childhood struggles alone, I want to tell you that you don’t have to. Seek out the support of your friends, teachers, parents, or another trusted adult who can help you. Stand firm, stand strong, and don’t be afraid to get help. Most important of all, do not accept others’ apathy as a solution to what is happening to you. No one—you or anyone else—deserves to be disrespected, hurt and abused, be it physically or emotionally, and that’s what bullying is—abuse. Remember, bullying and abuse of any kind should not be tolerated in your school, your home, or your community. If you find yourself a target of bullying, seek out a friend, and by the same token, be a friend to others. You are *not* alone.

To any teacher or parent reading this whose student or child may be a target of bullying, I ask you—I implore you—not to turn a blind eye to your child’s plight and suffering or tell him or her to simply “suck it up,” “ignore the bully,” or “let it go.” For those parents whose children are the bullies, you and their teachers need to teach them that their actions are unacceptable, and in certain circumstances, criminal. Whether your child or student is a target or perpetrator of bullying, do something. Take action. If bullying isn’t stopped in childhood, it can and does

continue into adulthood. I'm sure that all of you can name at least one workplace bully that you've had the "pleasure" of dealing with at one point in your professional careers. I've definitely met my fair share of workplace bullies and Blue Falcons, including in my previous places of employment in Daegu (Mr. C.K. Park, Mr. C. Hong, Mr. S. Shen, and Ms. N.Y. Kim) and Pohang (Mr. J.W. Choi). However, my experiences with these dishonest and mean-spirited individuals have given me a greater appreciation for my friends and family, and a stronger desire to fight against bullying and abuse, be it in the schoolyard or in the workplace. As a parent or teacher, if you're not doing anything to prevent your child or student from being a target of bullying, your apathy and ignorance will only lead to more suffering. As Nobel Peace Prize laureate and Holocaust survivor Elie Wiesel once said, "The opposite of love is not hate, but indifference. Indifference is what allows evil to be strong, what gives it power." Don't be indifferent to the pain of others, especially if it's your own child's. Don't let evil win.

As a former target—as a survivor—of bullying and school violence in my youth, and as an advocate of bullying prevention and youth character development initiatives in my adult life, I urge fellow teachers, school administrators, and police officers (especially SROs and others who primarily deal with juveniles) in the United States, the Republic of Korea, and other nations to *lead by example*, and be the beacons of virtue, fidelity, and integrity that our children expect us to be. We have to stand firm in our convictions that bullying and youth violence of any sort will not be tolerated, and do our part in protecting those who are targets of bullying, while encouraging bystanders to take action as "defenders" and "upstanders," and working with perpetrators of bullying to change their negative ways. We can accomplish this and more by working with one another towards achieving the common goal of eradicating bullying from our schools, while cultivating in our youth the values of empathy and respect (not only for one's self

but for others). To quote the mission statement of the *Stand By Me* anti-bullying presentation I created for this study, the first sentence of which was inspired by an old friend who once told me the same thing: “You are not alone. We can stop bullying and school violence together.”

In closing, one more person I would like to say thank you to is Sir Ian McKellan (yes, *that* Sir Ian). I’ll never forget the touching response you gave me when I told you about my struggles with bullying nearly 20 years ago when I was a high school student. You shared with me your own personal story about feeling like an outsider in your youth, and told me the following: “*You are not alone* ... Anger and sadness are unreliable companions. Wouldn’t you feel more positive about things if you managed to ignore the bullies—laugh at them even?” Thank you for reaching out to a fan. Sir Ian, you are and shall always be a class act.

Abstract

Upon assuming the presidency of the Republic of Korea in 2013, Park Geun-hye announced her administration's priority to address the country's "Four Social Evils"—sexual violence, domestic violence, school bullying, and unsafe food products. As part of this initiative, the ROK national government urged police officers to implement anti-bullying campaigns and curb school violence. This study examined the effects of *Stand By Me: Bullying Prevention and Bystander Empowerment*, an anti-bullying presentation conducted by a ROK police officer for an audience of South Korean high school students in spring 2016. The study employed a nonequivalent groups design with a designated treatment group and comparison group, but was limited to a posttest survey only.

The focus of the study was whether a police-administered bullying prevention presentation had an effect on Korean high school students' attitudes toward bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying, and was examined using independent-samples *t* tests and Mann-Whitney *U* tests. The relationship between moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness was also examined, as well as the relationships between other key variables and bystander intervention willingness. These relationships were examined via regression analysis. The study yielded statistically significant findings indicating that students who were administered the *Stand By Me* presentation were less likely to support bullying and more likely to be willing to intervene in bullying incidents compared to students who did not participate in the presentation. Moral approval of bullying had only a minor impact on bystander intervention willingness, whereas perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control had a greater influence on students' inclination to intervene.

Due to the limited scope of this project, it is recommended that future studies and evaluations conducted on *Stand By Me* and other anti-bullying programs in South Korea utilize more rigorous research designs that incorporate pretesting and random assignment. Nevertheless, given the paucity of empirical research on police anti-bullying initiatives in the ROK, one of the overarching goals of this study is to encourage further dialogue on preventing bullying, one of the endemic ‘social evils’ plaguing today’s youth, in South Korea and around the world, and the appropriate role of law enforcement in this arena.

Table of Contents

| | |
|--|-----------|
| Approval Page | ii |
| Acknowledgements | iii |
| Abstract | xiii |
| List of Tables | xviii |
| List of Figures | xxii |
| Chapter 1: Introduction | 1 |
| Background | 1 |
| Problem Statement | 2 |
| Dissertation Goal | 4 |
| Research Questions | 7 |
| Relevance and Significance | 8 |
| Barriers and Issues | 11 |
| Definitions of Terms | 14 |
| Summary | 16 |
| Chapter 2: Review of the Literature | 18 |
| Introduction | 18 |
| School Bullying in South Korea | 18 |
| Causes of Bullying: Strain | 23 |
| Causes of Bullying: Low Self-Control | 28 |
| Teachers and Parents: Preventers or Instigators of Bullying? | 32 |
| Bullying Attitudes and Behavior | 38 |
| Protecting Our Youth: Components of Effective Anti-Bullying Programs | 45 |
| Police-Youth Relations: The Role of Police Officers in Schools | 50 |
| The Benefits of the SRO Program | 53 |
| SROs and the Improvement of Police-Juvenile Relations | 56 |
| South Korea’s School Police Program | 61 |
| Summary | 65 |
| Chapter 3: Methodology | 67 |
| Introduction | 67 |
| Participants | 69 |
| Sampling Method | 71 |
| Ethical Considerations and Confidentiality | 72 |
| Instruments | 75 |
| Adaptation of the Student School Survey | 76 |
| Pretest of Instrument | 78 |
| <i>Stand By Me</i> Presentation Development | 78 |
| Procedures | 81 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| Data Analysis | 83 |
| Limitations | 92 |
| Summary | 99 |
| Chapter 4: Results | 102 |
| Introduction | 102 |
| Descriptive Statistics | 103 |
| Demographics: School, Gender, Age, and Grade Level | 103 |
| Responses to Survey Questions | 106 |
| Attitude and Perception Scale Scores | 126 |
| Comparative Mean Scores for the Seven Scales Across Demographics | 133 |
| Correlations | 146 |
| Independent-Samples <i>T</i> Test and Mann-Whitney <i>U</i> Test Results | 149 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying | 163 |
| Bystander Intervention Willingness | 164 |
| Social Cohesion and Trust | 165 |
| School Climate | 165 |
| Perceived Peer Support | 166 |
| Self-Esteem | 166 |
| Informal Social Control | 166 |
| Summary | 167 |
| Two-Way ANOVA Results | 168 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying as Dependent Variable | 168 |
| Bystander Intervention Willingness as Dependent Variable | 171 |
| Regression Results | 174 |
| Regression Assumptions | 175 |
| Bivariate Linear Regression | 196 |
| Multiple Linear Regression | 202 |
| Stepwise Multiple Regression | 204 |
| Hierarchical Multiple Regression | 206 |
| Summary | 208 |
| Chapter 5: Discussion | 211 |
| Introduction | 211 |
| Interpretation and Implication of the Findings | 215 |
| A Discussion on Significant Correlations and Effect Sizes | 216 |
| The <i>Stand By Me</i> Presentation's Effect on Moral Approval of Bullying | 221 |
| The <i>Stand By Me</i> Presentation's Effect on Bystander Intervention Willingness | 224 |
| The <i>Stand By Me</i> Presentation's Effect on Other Key Factors Related to Bullying | 227 |
| Key Factors That Explain Bystander Intervention Willingness | 230 |
| A Note on Moral Approval of Bullying and Closing Remarks | 232 |
| Recommendations for Future Research | 234 |
| Limitations Revisited | 235 |
| Utilizing True Experiments with Pretesting | 237 |
| The Survey Instrument and Administration | 240 |
| What About Behavior? Examining Attitudes is Only Half of the Story | 244 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Assessing the Value of Police Officers' Participation in <i>Stand By Me</i> and Other Korean Anti-Bullying Initiatives | 249 |
| A Further Examination of Social Control Theory | 252 |
| The Original Dissertation Proposal Revisited: A Starting Point for Future Research | 253 |
| The Value of Mixed Methods in Bullying Prevention Research | 257 |
| Challenges, Setbacks, and Lessons Learned | 259 |
| Recommendations for Improving <i>Stand By Me</i> and Other Korean Anti-Bullying Programs | 264 |
| Elements of an Effective Bullying Prevention Program | 265 |
| Mentors and Role Models: The Vital Role of Police Officers in Bullying Prevention ... | 269 |
| Key Areas of Focus for <i>Stand By Me</i> Program Revision | 270 |
| Revisiting Social Control Theory: Social Factors as the 'Nucleus' of <i>Stand By Me</i> | 273 |
| The Bystander Effect: To Help or Not to Help? | 281 |
| Self-Esteem: Fight or Flight? | 282 |
| Putting It All Together: The Cultivation of "Upstanders" | 284 |
| Summary and Conclusion: Towards a Better Tomorrow | 288 |
| The Long-term Consequences of Tolerating Bullying | 292 |
| The Importance of Evaluation | 293 |
| Challenges to South Korea's School Police Program | 298 |
| No Innocent Bystanders | 303 |
| References | 306 |
| Appendix 1: Study Introduction Letter (Student and Parent Version) | 325 |
| Appendix 2: Study Introduction Letter (School Version) | 328 |
| Appendix 3: Study Introduction Letter (Police Officer Version) | 332 |
| Appendix 4: Parental Consent Form (Treatment Group Version) | 335 |
| Appendix 5: Parental Consent Form (Comparison Group Version) | 338 |
| Appendix 6: Adolescent Assent Form (Treatment Group Version) | 341 |
| Appendix 7: Adolescent Assent Form (Comparison Group Version) | 344 |
| Appendix 8: Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey | 347 |
| Curriculum Vitae | 350 |

List of Tables

| | |
|--|-----|
| Table 1: Number of Study Participants per School | 103 |
| Table 2: Gender of Study Participants | 104 |
| Table 3: Age Distribution of Study Participants | 104 |
| Table 4: Grade Level of Study Participants | 104 |
| Table 5: Gender of Study Participants Divided by School | 105 |
| Table 6: Age of Study Participants Divided by School | 106 |
| Table 7: Grade Level of Study Participants Divided by School | 106 |
| Table 8: Valid and Missing Cases for Each Statement of the Social Cohesion and Trust Scale | 107 |
| Table 9: Social Cohesion and Trust: Students in my school can be trusted. | 107 |
| Table 10: Social Cohesion and Trust: Students in my school generally get along well with each other. | 108 |
| Table 11: Social Cohesion and Trust: Students in my school generally feel the same way about things. | 108 |
| Table 12: Social Cohesion and Trust: Teachers and staff in my school can be trust. | 108 |
| Table 13: Social Cohesion and Trust: Teachers and staff in my school usually get along with students. | 108 |
| Table 14: Social Cohesion and Trust: Teachers and staff in my school generally feel the same way about things. | 109 |
| Table 15: Social Cohesion and Trust: This is a pretty close-knit school where everyone looks out for each other. | 109 |
| Table 16: Valid and Missing Cases for Each Statement of the School Climate Scale | 110 |
| Table 17: School Climate: My teachers respect me. | 110 |
| Table 18: School Climate: My teachers are fair. | 110 |
| Table 19: School Climate: Teachers in my school are nice people. | 111 |
| Table 20: School Climate: When students break rules at my school, they are treated fairly. ... | 111 |
| Table 21: School Climate: The principal asks students about their ideas at my school. | 111 |
| Table 22: School Climate: My school is a good place to be. | 111 |
| Table 23: School Climate: I feel like I belong at my school. | 112 |
| Table 24: School Climate: My school is important to me. | 112 |
| Table 25: School Climate: Teachers and staff at my school are doing the right things to prevent bullying. | 112 |
| Table 26: Valid and Missing Cases for Each Statement of the Perceived Peer Support Scale .. | 113 |
| Table 27: Perceived Peer Support: Students my age really care about what happens to me. ... | 113 |
| Table 28: Perceived Peer Support: Students my age are there for me whenever I need help. ... | 113 |
| Table 29: Perceived Peer Support: Students my age can be trusted a lot. | 113 |
| Table 30: Perceived Peer Support: Students my age care about my feelings. | 114 |
| Table 31: Perceived Peer Support: Students my age only think about themselves. | 114 |
| Table 32: Perceived Peer Support: Students my age think bad things about me. | 114 |
| Table 33: Valid and Missing Cases for Each Statement of the Self-Esteem Scale. | 115 |
| Table 34: Self-Esteem: I feel I am just as good as other students. | 115 |
| Table 35: Self-Esteem: I feel there are lots of good things about me. | 115 |
| Table 36: Self-Esteem: All in all, I feel like a failure. | 116 |
| Table 37: Self-Esteem: I am able to do things as well as most other people. | 116 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Table 38: Self-Esteem: I feel I do not have much to be proud of. | 116 |
| Table 39: Self-Esteem: I take a positive attitude toward myself. | 116 |
| Table 40: Self-Esteem: I wish I could have more respect for myself. | 117 |
| Table 41: Self-Esteem: I certainly feel useless at times. | 117 |
| Table 42: Valid and Missing Cases for Each Statement of the Moral Approval of Bullying Scale | 118 |
| Table 43: Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students tease weaker students in front of others. | 118 |
| Table 44: Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students spread rumors and lies about other students behind their back. | 118 |
| Table 45: Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students tell lies or make fun of less popular students using the Internet. | 119 |
| Table 46: Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students push, shove, or pick fights with weaker students. | 119 |
| Table 47: Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students encourage others to fight weaker students and cheer them on. | 119 |
| Table 48: Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students encourage others to be mean and spread lies about less popular students. | 120 |
| Table 49: Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students ignore it when someone weaker is being pushed around. | 120 |
| Table 50: Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students defend others who are being shoved around by stronger students. | 120 |
| Table 51: Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students go to the teacher or an adult for help when someone is getting beaten up. | 121 |
| Table 52: Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students go to the teacher or an adult for help when others are spreading rumors and lies about someone. | 121 |
| Table 53: Valid and Missing Cases for Each Statement of the Informal Social Control Scale . | 122 |
| Table 54: Informal Social Control: Students in my school would help out if a student is making fun of and teasing another student who is obviously weaker. | 122 |
| Table 55: Informal Social Control: Students in my school would help out if a student is spreading rumors and lies about another student behind their back. | 122 |
| Table 56: Informal Social Control: Students in my school would help out if a student in my school is telling lies or making fun of another student who gets picked on a lot using the Internet. | 123 |
| Table 57: Informal Social Control: Students in my school would help out if a student or group of students is pushing, shoving, or trying to pick a fight with a weaker student. | 123 |
| Table 58: Informal Social Control: Teachers and staff in my school would help out if a student is making fun of and teasing another student who is obviously weaker. | 123 |
| Table 59: Informal Social Control: Teachers and staff in my school would help out if a student is spreading rumors and lies about another student behind their back. | 124 |
| Table 60: Informal Social Control: Teachers and staff in my school would help out if a student in my school is telling lies or making fun of another student who gets picked on a lot using the Internet. | 124 |
| Table 61: Informal Social Control: Teachers and staff in my school would help out if a student or group of students is pushing, shoving, or trying to pick a fight with a weaker student. | 124 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Table 62: Valid and Missing Cases for Each Statement of the Bystander Intervention Willingness Scale | 125 |
| Table 63: Bystander Intervention Willingness: I would help out if a student is making fun of and teasing another student who is obviously weaker. | 125 |
| Table 64: Bystander Intervention Willingness: I would help out if a student is spreading rumors and lies about another student behind their back. | 125 |
| Table 65: Bystander Intervention Willingness: I would help out if a student in my school is telling lies or making fun of another student who gets picked on a lot using the Internet. .. | 126 |
| Table 66: Bystander Intervention Willingness: I would help out if a student or group of students is pushing, shoving, or trying to pick a fight with a weaker student. | 126 |
| Table 67: Summary of Valid and Missing Cases for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey | 128 |
| Table 68: Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, Variances, Skewness, Kurtosis, Ranges, and Minimum and Maximum Values for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey | 128 |
| Table 69: Summary of Valid Cases, Means, Standard Deviations, and Variances for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey Divided by School | 128 |
| Table 70: Summary of Skewness, Kurtosis, Ranges, and Minimum and Maximum Values for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey Divided by School | 129 |
| Table 71: Summary of Number of Valid Cases, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey Divided by School and Gender | 133 |
| Table 72: Summary of Number of Valid Cases, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey Divided by School and Age | 138 |
| Table 73: Summary of Number of Valid Cases, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey Divided by School and Grade Level | 143 |
| Table 74: Summary of Correlations for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey | 147 |
| Table 75: Independent-Samples <i>t</i> Test Results for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey | 151 |
| Table 76: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests of Normality Results for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey | 153 |
| Table 77: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests of Normality Results for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey Divided by School | 153 |
| Table 78: Summary of Skewness, Kurtosis, and <i>z</i> -Scores for Skewness and Kurtosis for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey | 161 |
| Table 79: Mean Ranks and Sum of Ranks for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey | 163 |
| Table 80: Mann-Whitney <i>U</i> Test Results for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey | 163 |
| Table 81: Two-Way ANOVA for School and Gender with Moral Approval of Bullying as Dependent Variable | 169 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Table 82: Two-Way ANOVA for School and Age with Moral Approval of Bullying as Dependent Variable | 170 |
| Table 83: Two-Way ANOVA for School and Grade Level with Moral Approval of Bullying as Dependent Variable | 171 |
| Table 84: Two-Way ANOVA for School and Gender with Bystander Intervention Willingness as Dependent Variable | 172 |
| Table 85: Two-Way ANOVA for School and Age with Bystander Intervention Willingness as Dependent Variable | 173 |
| Table 86: Two-Way ANOVA for School and Grade Level with Bystander Intervention Willingness as Dependent Variable | 174 |
| Table 87: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests of Normality Results for the Six Independent Variables on Bystander Intervention Willingness | 191 |
| Table 88: Summary of Skewness, Kurtosis, and z-Scores for Skewness and Kurtosis for the Six Independent Variables on Bystander Intervention Willingness | 192 |
| Table 89: Comparison of Skewness and Kurtosis for Original Versions and Winsorized Versions of School Climate and Moral Approval of Bullying | 195 |
| Table 90: Comparison of Skewness and Kurtosis of Standardized Residuals of Original Versions and Winsorized Versions of School Climate and Moral Approval of Bullying on Bystander Intervention Willingness | 195 |
| Table 91: Bivariate Regression Results for Social Cohesion and Trust and Bystander Intervention Willingness | 199 |
| Table 92: Bivariate Regression Results for School Climate and Bystander Intervention Willingness | 200 |
| Table 93: Bivariate Regression Results for School Climate (Winsorized) and Bystander Intervention Willingness | 200 |
| Table 94: Bivariate Regression Results for Perceived Peer Support and Bystander Intervention Willingness | 200 |
| Table 95: Bivariate Regression Results for Self-Esteem and Bystander Intervention Willingness | 201 |
| Table 96: Bivariate Regression Results for Moral Approval of Bullying and Bystander Intervention Willingness | 201 |
| Table 97: Bivariate Regression Results for Moral Approval of Bullying (Winsorized) and Bystander Intervention Willingness | 201 |
| Table 98: Bivariate Regression Results for Informal Social Control and Bystander Intervention Willingness | 202 |
| Table 99: Multiple Regression Results with Original Moral Approval of Bullying Dataset | 204 |
| Table 100: Multiple Regression Results with Winsorized Moral Approval of Bullying Dataset | 204 |
| Table 101: Stepwise Multiple Regression Results | 206 |
| Table 102: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results | 208 |

List of Figures

| | |
|--|-----|
| Figure 1: Nonequivalent groups design | 82 |
| Figure 2: Frequency distributions for social cohesion and trust | 129 |
| Figure 3: Frequency distributions for school climate | 130 |
| Figure 4: Frequency distributions for perceived peer support | 130 |
| Figure 5: Frequency distributions for self-esteem | 131 |
| Figure 6: Frequency distributions for moral approval of bullying | 131 |
| Figure 7: Frequency distributions for informal social control | 132 |
| Figure 8: Frequency distributions for bystander intervention willingness | 132 |
| Figure 9: Bar graphs comparing means for social cohesion and trust divided by gender and school | 134 |
| Figure 10: Bar graphs comparing means for school climate divided by gender and school | 134 |
| Figure 11: Bar graphs comparing means for perceived peer support divided by gender and school | 135 |
| Figure 12: Bar graphs comparing means for self-esteem divided by gender and school | 135 |
| Figure 13: Bar graphs comparing means for moral approval of bullying divided by gender school | 136 |
| Figure 14: Bar graphs comparing means for informal social control divided by gender and school | 136 |
| Figure 15: Bar graphs comparing means for bystander intervention willingness divided by gender and school | 137 |
| Figure 16: Bar graphs comparing means for social cohesion and trust divided by age and school | 139 |
| Figure 17: Bar graphs comparing means for school climate divided by age and school | 139 |
| Figure 18: Bar graphs comparing means for perceived peer support divided by age and school | 140 |
| Figure 19: Bar graphs comparing means for self-esteem divided by age and school | 140 |
| Figure 20: Bar graphs comparing means for moral approval of bullying divided by age and school | 141 |
| Figure 21: Bar graphs comparing means for informal social control divided by age and school | 141 |
| Figure 22: Bar graphs comparing means for bystander intervention willingness divided by age and school | 142 |
| Figure 23: Bar graphs comparing means for social cohesion and trust divided by grade level and school | 143 |
| Figure 24: Bar graphs comparing means for school climate divided by grade level and school | 144 |
| Figure 25: Bar graphs comparing means for perceived peer support divided by grade level and school | 144 |
| Figure 26: Bar graphs comparing means for self-esteem divided by grade level and school | 145 |
| Figure 27: Bar graphs comparing means for moral approval of bullying divided by grade level and school | 145 |
| Figure 28: Bar graphs comparing means for informal social control divided by grade level and school | 146 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Figure 29: Bar graphs comparing means for bystander intervention willingness divided by grade level and school | 146 |
| Figure 30: Normal probability Q-Q plots of social cohesion and trust for entire sample, Communal Vision High School (comparison group), and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) | 154 |
| Figure 31: Normal probability Q-Q plots of school climate for entire sample, Communal Vision High School (comparison group) and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) | 155 |
| Figure 32: Normal probability Q-Q plots of perceived peer support for entire sample, Communal Vision High School (comparison group) and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) | 156 |
| Figure 33: Normal probability Q-Q plots of self-esteem for entire sample, Communal Vision High School (comparison group) and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) | 157 |
| Figure 34: Normal probability Q-Q plots of moral approval of bullying for entire sample, Communal Vision High School (comparison group) and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) | 158 |
| Figure 35: Normal probability Q-Q plots of informal social control for entire sample, Communal Vision High School (comparison group) and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) | 159 |
| Figure 36: Normal probability Q-Q plots of bystander intervention willingness for entire sample, Communal Vision High School (comparison group) and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) | 160 |
| Figure 37: Scatterplot examining the linear relationship between social cohesion and trust (independent variable) and bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 177 |
| Figure 38: Scatterplot examining the linear relationship between school climate (independent variable) and bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 177 |
| Figure 39: Scatterplot examining the linear relationship between perceived peer support (independent variable) and bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 178 |
| Figure 40: Scatterplot examining the linear relationship between self-esteem (independent variable) and bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 178 |
| Figure 41: Scatterplot examining the linear relationship between moral approval of bullying (independent variable) and bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 179 |
| Figure 42: Scatterplot examining the linear relationship between informal social control (independent variable) and bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 179 |
| Figure 43: Scatterplots fitting quadratic curve and cubic curve to examine the relationship between moral approval of bullying (independent variable) and bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 180 |
| Figure 44: Scatterplots fitting straight line, quadratic curve, and cubic curve to examine the line of “best fit” for the relationship between winsorized version of moral approval of bullying (independent variable) and bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 181 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Figure 45: Scatterplot of studentized residuals against predicted values for social cohesion and trust (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 182 |
| Figure 46: Scatterplot of studentized residuals against predicted values for school climate (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 182 |
| Figure 47: Scatterplot of studentized residuals against predicted values for perceived peer support (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 183 |
| Figure 48: Scatterplot of studentized residuals against predicted values for self-esteem (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 183 |
| Figure 49: Scatterplot of studentized residuals against predicted values for moral approval of bullying (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 184 |
| Figure 50: Scatterplot of studentized residuals against predicted values for informal social control (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 184 |
| Figure 51: Histogram of residuals for social cohesion and trust (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 186 |
| Figure 52: Histogram of residuals for school climate (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 186 |
| Figure 53: Histogram of residuals for perceived peer support (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 187 |
| Figure 54: Histogram of residuals for self-esteem (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 187 |
| Figure 55: Histogram of residuals for moral approval of bullying (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 188 |
| Figure 56: Histogram of residuals for informal social control (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 188 |
| Figure 57: Q-Q plot and detrended Q-Q plot of residuals for social cohesion and trust (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 189 |
| Figure 58: Q-Q plot and detrended Q-Q plot of residuals for school climate (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 189 |
| Figure 59: Q-Q plot and detrended Q-Q plot of residuals for perceived peer support (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 189 |
| Figure 60: Q-Q plot and detrended Q-Q plot of residuals for self-esteem (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 190 |
| Figure 61: Q-Q plot and detrended Q-Q plot of residuals for moral approval of bullying (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 190 |
| Figure 62: Q-Q plot and detrended Q-Q plot of residuals for informal social control (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable) | 190 |
| Figure 63: Original research design for the <i>Stand By Me</i> study | 255 |

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Background

In recent years, the issue of bullying and school violence has become a ‘hot topic’ of debate and discussion among educators, parents and policymakers in the Republic of Korea (ROK). Upon assuming the presidency of the ROK in 2013, Park Geun-hye announced that her administration would make it a priority to address South Korea’s “Four Social Evils”—sexual violence, domestic violence, school bullying, and unsafe food products (Chug & Kwon, 2013). As part of this initiative, former President Park urged the South Korean police to do more to initiate anti-bullying campaigns to curb school violence. The ROK National Police Agency (NPA) soon established a task force command center focusing on dealing with the four social evils outlined by the Park administration. The Ministry of Education followed suit, declaring in a statement on July 2013 that it would seek to implement an “experience-based program aimed to induce and increase students’ ability to better empathize and communicate with others” (cited in Kang, 2013). The proposed program is expected to be implemented in various elementary, middle and high schools across the country in 2017. Former ROK Prime Minister Chung Hong-won emphasized the preventative nature of the program and the importance of all relevant parties involved in this bullying prevention initiative, explaining, “A school-violence prevention policy, one of the main pillars of the Park administration, should be centered on advanced prevention measures ... To save even one student suffering from school violence, not only the government, but family, school and society will take part” (cited in Kang, 2013). In brief, school violence is a

serious issue in the Republic of Korea with several parties—including law enforcement—involved in combating this ‘social evil.’

The research to be undertaken will examine the role of the South Korean police in influencing youths’ attitudes about bullying and school violence. Since tackling the issue of school bullying is an initiative that has only been recently undertaken by South Korean education and law enforcement personnel, there is a dearth of academic literature on the topic of bullying prevention programs in South Korea (K. Kang, personal communication, March 21, 2014; Y. Lee, personal communication, December 18, 2015). Nevertheless, this study will draw upon prior research on bullying and school violence in the Republic of Korea and other countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, Japan, Norway, and Finland, in addition to research on the role of law enforcement officers in the academic setting in the United States (i.e., school resource officers), while examining the potential for police involvement in youth mentoring and education in South Korean schools. Overall, one of the overarching goals of this proposed study is to serve as the initial ‘spark’ to encourage academics and policymakers in the field of Korean criminal justice to further engage in a dialogue on solutions to one of the endemic ‘social evils’ plaguing today’s youth—bullying—and the proper role of law enforcement in this arena.

Problem Statement

What was once considered “minor” antisocial behavior, such as teasing and bullying, is taken more seriously nowadays as perpetrators as well as victims may subsequently commit more heinous acts of verbal or physical aggression (Lawrence, 2007). In the case of the United States, this attention is due in part to the media’s emphasis on youth violence, in and outside of school (Lawrence, 2007). Similarly, since the national government’s announcement to address Korea’s Four Social Evils, there has been greater focus in the South Korean media on bullying

and school violence. For instance, a TV series entitled “School 2013,” which aired on the KBS network from December 2012 to January 2013, chronicled the trials and tribulations of present-day Korean high school students. This was followed up by a sequel series entitled “Who Are You? School 2015,” which aired from April to June 2015, and another series is planned for 2017. Although a work of fiction, the “School” series nevertheless emphasizes problems that students in South Korea face today, including violence, bullying, suicide, and the weakening of relations between teacher and pupil (see Kim, 2014; Lee & Larson, 2000; Moon & Morash, 2004; Moon & Morash, 2012). The SBS network also aired a documentary on the topic of school violence, entitled “The Tears of the School,” on January 13, 2013. A significant issue raised by the documentary was the reason juveniles engage in violent acts; the show noted that 44% of youth offenders said that they themselves had been victims of bullying (Park, 2013). In brief, not only is there the danger of bullies engaging in greater acts of violence, there is the potential for victims to become bullies as well.

Bullying is a serious social issue, and it is one that is now being addressed by both education and law enforcement personnel. In other words, this is no longer a problem that Korean society considers adequately dealt with by teachers and school administrators alone. Ultimately, the key question is whether police officers have an appropriate role to play in quelling the problem of bullying. But when the results of bullying can lead to further acts of violence and aggression, and even suicide, the answer would most likely be in the affirmative. As prior research has shown, bullies’ verbal and physical assaults on other students can be seen as an early indicator of the potential for more violent behavior (Astor, Pitmer, Bernbenishty, & Meyer, 2002; MacNeil, 2002; MacNeil & Stewart, 2000).

Early intervention and prevention are important with regard to preventing youths from becoming bullies in the first place, and by extension, preventing victims of bullying from becoming delinquents and criminals themselves (Lawrence, 2007; Moon, Morash, & McCluskey, 2012; Park, 2013; Sourander, Jensen, Rönning, Elonheimo, Niemelä, Helenius, et al., 2007). In brief, one can argue that crime *prevention* should begin at an early age, during a time in a child's life when behaviors and attitudes about right and wrong are most susceptible to influence. In fact, with regard to youth violence in particular, preventative measures, as opposed to reactive measures, are "easier, cheaper, and more effective" (Hunter, MacNeil, & Elias, 2004, p. 107). Anti-bullying awareness programs conducted by police officers and school teachers, thus, may have the potential of mitigating incidences of student bullying and violence.

Dissertation Goal

The research to be undertaken examined the role of ROK police officers in influencing youth's attitudes about bullying via an interactive anti-bullying presentation conducted for high school students. Specifically, the purpose of this study is to address the question of whether an anti-bullying presentation conducted by a ROK police officer has any significant impact on high school students' attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying. The researcher worked in collaboration with ROK police officers and the Korean-American Educational Commission (Fulbright-Korea) to design a character development and anti-bullying presentation that was administered to a group of South Korean high school students. The independent variable was the bullying prevention presentation (i.e., the presence or absence of the presentation) and the primary dependent variable is students' attitudes about bullying. The secondary dependent variable was students' willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. These two dependent variables were examined via a nonequivalent groups design utilizing a survey

instrument that included Likert-type scales gauging students' moral approval of bullying, bystander intervention willingness, and other related variables such as school climate and informal social control.

The anti-bullying presentation, entitled *Stand By Me: Bullying Prevention and Bystander Empowerment*, was designed to be interactive and not limited to a one-sided lecture given by the police officer; throughout the presentation, students had the opportunity to participate in brief group discussions and "hands-on" activities. After consultation with participating schools' administrators and teachers and determining the resources (i.e., time and number of students) that the schools were willing to provide, all participating parties came to the agreement that the study would be completed in one day as opposed to being a multi-day, longitudinal study. The study was thus limited to a posttest survey session only; surveys were administered to individual class sessions in a span of a day at the comparison group school, comprising a sample size of $n = 60$, while the survey session for the treatment group school was held immediately after completion of the *Stand By Me* (abbreviated as *SBM*) anti-bullying presentation, yielding a sample size of $n = 55$ for a grand total of 115 study participants. To make this study feasible given the researcher's available time and resources, and those of the participating police officers and high schools, the study was limited to the examination of immediate short-term effects of the bullying prevention presentation on students' *attitudes* toward bullying as opposed to studying long-term effects on students' *bullying behavior*. However, it is the researcher's intent to utilize this study as a springboard for further research on the subject of ROK police anti-bullying initiatives in addition to using the findings from the study to improve and expand the initial "one-shot" *SBM* presentation into a long-term

comprehensive program, and subsequently conduct a longitudinal study on the program's long-term effects on both bullying attitudes and behavior.

With regard to the current state of police-administered presentations directed at secondary school students in South Korea, Vincent Flores, Education USA Asia-Pacific Regional Educational Advising Coordinator at the U.S. Department of State, who has worked for over a decade as a teacher and education administrator in Korea, once expressed that most programs involving police officers addressing tragic events in Korean schools have been relatively sub-par with much room for improvement. As a case-in-point, Mr. Flores recalled an incident that occurred when he was a high school teacher—a student had been killed in a traffic accident in front of the school. Mr. Flores explained that a police officer on site at the school merely spoke over the school's intercom system in an effort to “comfort” students while raising awareness of traffic safety, with Mr. Flores expressing dismay and disbelief at the ineffective, unsympathetic, and impersonal manner in which the police handled the situation (V. Flores, personal communication, August 19, 2014).

One of the overarching goals of this study on what will be one of the first initiatives of its kind to involve *active, personal engagement* by South Korean law enforcement personnel in the area of bullying and school violence is to encourage academics, administrators and policymakers in the fields of Korean criminal justice and education to further engage in a dialogue on solutions to one of the endemic ‘social evils’ plaguing today's youth—bullying—while addressing the appropriate role of law enforcement in this arena. Even though *Stand By Me* was a one-shot presentation completed within a two-hour time span, the results of the study, which were generally positive with respect to the overall effectiveness of the presentation, affirmed that anti-bullying presentations—even those that are limited in terms of length and intensity—which

utilize “what works?” research can be effective in positively influencing attitudes and perceptions regarding bullying. Furthermore, this study also serves as a springboard for further research on the topic of police intervention in bullying and school violence. In short, the findings of this study can be utilized not only by the researcher to improve and expand upon the *SBM* presentation in particular, but also utilized by other interested parties (e.g., ROK police administrators, government officials, school administrators, and community/non-profit groups dealing with bullying and school violence) who may be developing their own bullying prevention presentations, workshops, and programs.

Research Questions

The questions that this study sought to answer are presented below, starting with the two primary research questions addressing the effects of the anti-bullying presentation on South Korean high school students’ attitudes toward bullying and their willingness to intervene to prevent bullying. The third research question examined whether there was a relationship between students’ attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene. The fourth research question examined whether other relevant factors had any significant influence on bystander intervention willingness. These four questions were addressed via a quantitative analysis of the data acquired from posttest surveys that were administered to a sample of student participants selected from the treatment group and comparison group high schools. The four research questions that this study examined are as follows:

1. Does an anti-bullying presentation conducted by a ROK police officer have a significant effect on South Korean high school students’ attitudes toward bullying?
2. Does an anti-bullying presentation conducted by a ROK police officer have a significant effect on South Korean high school students’ willingness to intervene to stop bullying?

3. Do South Korean high school students' attitudes about bullying help to explain their willingness to intervene to stop bullying?
4. Besides attitudes about bullying, do other specific factors—i.e., social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control—help to explain South Korean high school students' willingness to intervene to stop bullying?

Relevance and Significance

Prior research has indicated that peer relationships and the school environment have an impact on delinquency (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). Experiences, both good and bad, that young people have undoubtedly influence their lives; and besides the family, the institution that has a significant influence on a youngster's life is the school (Sampson & Laub, 1997). Although there are disagreements as to the causal relationship between the two factors, there is a link between problems in school—from bullying to academic failure—and delinquency (Elliot & Voss, 1974; Jarjoura, 1993; Thornberry, Moore, & Christenson, 1985). It is quite possible that a child's experience in school can either lead him or her down the path of life as a criminal or life as a law abiding citizen (Arum & Beattie, 1999; Lawrence, 2007). When all is said and done, today's bully (or victim of bullying) could grow up to become tomorrow's violent criminal.

As for the role of police officers in anti-bullying initiatives, it is important to stress the multi-tiered areas of responsibility that police officers have. Police essentially serve three basic functions: law enforcement, maintenance of public order, and public service (Wilson, 1968). Whereas the law enforcement function that police provide is often times seen as the primary role of police officers, the other two roles are just as vital, especially the service function. In fact, it is this service role that can be said to be the essence of policing. According to one of the "Nine Principles of Policing," which is generally attributed to Sir Robert Peel, the founder of the

London Metropolitan Police Department (LMPD) and the father of modern policing, and adapted from the original 1829 “General Instructions” for LMPD police officers, law enforcement officers are expected to “maintain at all times a relationship with the public that gives reality to the historic tradition that *the police are the public and the public are the police*” (Reith, 1948, p. 64, emphases added; also see Moskos, n.d.; Peel, Rowan, & Mayne, 1829). In short, the heart of the modern-day municipal police force is the community—specifically, the police being one with, as opposed to being apart from, the community (Long & Cullen, 2008). Thus, engaging youth—members of the community in which police officers serve—in character development and anti-bullying awareness training is one way officers can execute their public service function and by extension, their law enforcement (i.e., crime prevention) function. With respect to school resource officers (SROs) in particular, the findings of this study may have an impact on re-examining the mission of SROs in schools, placing greater attention on SROs’ roles as youth mentors and leaders in character development and violence reduction education versus a primarily security and crime prevention function as may be the case in some schools. This study will be especially relevant to South Korea’s School Police program, which is relatively in its infancy compared to longer established school resource officer and school liaison officer programs in the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom.

With the ROK national government’s emphasis on eradicating *social* problems, Korean police officers’ ability to be effective *public service* officers comes to the forefront as they are expected to engage in strengthening greater police-citizen relations. In the case of school bullying, police officers will undoubtedly have to develop relations with schools in their neighborhoods and build strong ties with school administrators, teachers, and students alike. As noted earlier, the shift in law enforcement activities to include greater emphasis on school

bullying is a relatively recent phenomenon in the Republic of Korea as a result of the national government's efforts to crack down on four major social vices—domestic violence, sexual assault, school bullying, and unsafe foods. In a conversation the researcher had with Kang Kyung-rae, a police administration professor at the Catholic University of Daegu who specializes in Korean juvenile justice policy and comparative criminal justice, the researcher was told that studies on police officers' role in schools are limited and not necessarily a 'hot issue' in Korean academia at the moment (personal communication, March 21, 2013). This will undoubtedly change in the months and years to come given the greater emphasis on bullying and school violence, not only by the Korean government but by the Korean media as well. In short, this study desires to add to—or even ignite—the “flame” of academic research in the area of South Korean law enforcement efforts to prevent bullying and quell school violence, with the results of the study adding to the criminal justice knowledgebase with respect to police officers' role in the school environment. Furthermore, outside of academia, the research results may contribute to bullying prevention policy initiatives at the local or national level in South Korea as ROK law enforcement, education, and government personnel may have an interest in reviewing the results to gain insight as they develop their own anti-bullying programs.

From the perspective of comparative criminology, studying the justice systems and practices of other countries provides several advantages, both in terms of provincial benefits and universal benefits (Reichel, 2012). With regard to provincial benefits, comparative study helps policymakers and researchers to develop ideas for the improvement of their own country's justice system, while providing a point of contrast that may lead to new insights. As for universal benefits, this refers to the strengthening of cooperation among countries around the world, given the fact that crime is not just a domestic problem limited to one's own borders, but a

transnational problem as well. The researcher conducted research that involved not only designing—and subsequently studying and evaluating—a presentation utilizing “what works?” bullying prevention research by western scholars and researchers and catered to a South Korean audience, he also worked alongside South Korean police officers, teachers, and students throughout the study. Thus, taking into account the two benefits of comparative study in relation to the research to be undertaken, the researcher will not only be adding to the criminal justice knowledgebase, but also positively contributing—albeit in a relatively small way—to ROK-U.S. relations and bilateral cooperation as a “cultural ambassador,” while tackling an issue important to both countries—namely, how to protect the safety and welfare of our youth by preventing bullying and school violence.

Barriers and Issues

To recap, the issue of bullying and school violence has gained prominence only recently as a result of former ROK President Park Geun-hye’s push for all concerned parties—including the government and law enforcement—to address the problem as part of her administration’s initiative to combat Korea’s Four Social Evils. Beforehand, bullying was just considered to be a problem adequately solved at the local level—i.e., by teachers and parents. With the expansion of problem solvers to include police and government personnel, there is a need for an assessment of potentially effective and viable police and/or government-run bullying prevention programs, which at the moment are quite limited and lacking in evaluations utilizing rigorous empirical research designs. As former ROK Prime Minister Chung Hong-won has stated, it is the objective of the ROK Ministry of Education to develop and implement a program to address school violence that is “experience-based” and focused on “advanced prevention measures” (Kang, 2013). To state succinctly, the ROK national government desires to have a school violence

prevention program that *works*. That being said, it is important to note two relevant and related factors: (1) government funds are, one way or another, limited, with multiple agencies and departments vying for those limited funds to support their programs and staff, and (2) not all programs are effective in accomplishing what they purport to do. To take this train of thought one step further, it is important that government funds be allocated to programs that either exhibit a promise of success or have been shown to be successful based on evaluation and research, as opposed to frivolously allocating money in support of programs that are failing or do not have the potential to succeed. Take the United States for example, where there are a plethora of delinquency prevention programs such as the Gang Resistance Education and Training (G.R.E.A.T.) program, the Drug Abuse Resistance Education (D.A.R.E.) program, Scared Straight, the School Transitional Environmental Program (STEP), and boot camps for juvenile offenders. With all these different programs, the key question, then, is not about intention, but about *effectiveness*. In other words, do the programs have the effect that they intend to have? Do they actually prevent criminal and delinquent behavior? Each unique program has its own strengths and weaknesses, and some are more effective than others in preventing crime and delinquency. Others, in fact, are not very successful at all. One such program that was deemed relatively unsuccessful is the well-known and popular Drug Abuse Resistance Education program—better known as D.A.R.E.—which empirical research had initially shown to be ineffective, but the program has since been revamped as a result of those research-based criticisms (see McNeece & DiNitto, 2003; Greenwood, 2006).

With respect to the onset of the development of bullying prevention initiatives in the Republic of Korea since the Park administration's announcement of the Four Social Evils in 2013, this study explores the potential role and effectiveness of ROK police officers not only as

spokespeople against bullying but also their potential as youth mentors. Given the push by the ROK national government for comprehensive and effective bullying awareness programs in schools and the current scarcity of such programs (especially those that have been evaluated), there is a clear need for evaluations of such programs, even if most may be only “pilot programs” and “trial runs” in their infancy. With respect to police-led bullying prevention initiatives in the ROK, which methods are most effective and which are not have yet to be determined. This research project has sought to address and shed light on this issue.

Due to limitations in terms of time, financial resources, as well as human resources (i.e., the amount of time and number of students the participating schools were willing and able to provide), the anti-bullying presentation administered as part of this study, and by extension the study itself, was relatively small in scope. To reiterate, the *Stand By Me* presentation was a “one-shot” administered to the treatment group within a two-hour period followed by the posttest survey; the comparison group was only administered the survey.

To expand the project beyond what had been done for the implemented study would require resources—in terms of time, finances, and personnel—beyond those that had been and that are currently available to the researcher. As will be discussed in length in Chapter 3, the research was limited to an examination of the presentation’s immediate and short-term effects on students’ bullying attitudes and not long-term effects on bullying behavior. Although relatively small in scope, the bullying prevention presentation designed by the researcher is one of the first of its kind (i.e., an anti-bullying program with a foundation in evidence-based research, targeted toward South Korean high school students, and conducted by ROK police officers) to be implemented as well as evaluated in terms of its effectiveness. Other bullying prevention programs in South Korea—police administered or otherwise—that have emerged in the four

years since the ROK national government's push to address the Four Social Evils appear to lack not only a foundation in prior research, but are also missing an evaluation component; this disquieting issue, the causes behind it, and proposed solutions will be discussed in the final chapter.

Definitions of Terms

There are several key terms pertaining to this study that require clarification to avoid possible confusion by the reader due to multiple meanings that some of these terms may have. These key terms and how they will be defined for the purposes of the study are presented below. Additionally, there is a brief explanation on the usage of native Korean names. A more detailed explanation of some of these terms as well as additional concepts that will serve as variables in the study will be presented in the section on operationalization in Chapter 3, which covers research methodology.

- **Bullying (bullying behavior):** There is a myriad of definitions for the term 'bullying.' For the purposes of this study, the definition of bullying developed by Dan Olweus (1993a), whose extensive research in the field of bullying are well-regarded and sparked increased attention on school bullying as a major research topic in the social sciences, will be used, with some minor modifications. According to Olweus's (1993a) definition, bullying occurs when a person is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other people, and she or he has difficulty defending herself or himself. This definition consists of three important components: (1) Bullying is aggressive behavior that involves unwanted, negative actions, (2) is repeated over time, and (3) involves an imbalance of strength or power between the bully and victim (Olweus, 1993a). These "negative actions" can be physical, verbal, relational, or cyber in nature.

Physical bullying includes, but is not limited to, punching, kicking, shoving, choking, or other physical actions that result in harm upon the target. Verbal bullying includes, but is not limited to, threatening words, teasing, and name-calling. Relational bullying, also known as social or emotional bullying, includes, but is not limited to, spreading rumors about someone, ostracizing someone from a group, and exclusionary behaviors. Cyberbullying consists of bullying behaviors, such as those described above, expressed through the use of the internet, social media, and modern telecommunication technology.

- **Bullying attitudes (attitudes about bullying):** Bullying attitudes is defined as one's *internal thoughts, opinions and attitudes* in favor of or against bullying behavior—i.e., one's “moral approval” or “moral disapproval” of bullying.
- **Bully:** A bully is a *perpetrator* of bullying behavior, engaging in aggressive and negative actions—physical, verbal, relational, or cyber—repeatedly and over time against a person who is unable or unwilling to defend herself or himself against such actions due to an imbalance of power.
- **Victim:** A victim of bullying is a *recipient* of bullying behavior and is unable or unwilling to defend herself or himself against such behavior due to an imbalance of strength or power between the bully and herself or himself.
- **Bystander:** A bystander is a witness of a bullying behavior. While witnessing perpetration of bullying in progress, the bystander typically has one of three general options: (1) remain idle, silent and uninvolved, (2) actively encourage bullying or “join in” the bullying, or (3) actively assist in helping the victim of bullying (e.g., by defending the victim or seeking assistance from others to help the victim).

- **Korea / Korean:** Unless otherwise specified, any and all uses of the term “Korea” and “Korean” will refer to the nation state of the Republic of Korea (abbreviated as ROK and also known as South Korea) and entities and peoples therein. For example, when referring to the “Korean police,” it is implied that the ROK police is under discussion (e.g., not Korean-American police officers or North Korean police officers). Any other use of the term “Korean” that is meant to reference a person or entity not of South Korean origin will be directly specified in the text.
- **A note on the use of native Korean names:** A Korean name consists of a family name followed by a given name. As such, all native Korean names will be written in that order—surname in the first position and given name in the second position. Exceptions to this rule include cases in which a person of Korean descent has a preference for her or his name to be written using the western convention of given name in the first position and family name second. For example, one case-in-point is Dr. Byongook Moon, a professor of criminal justice at the University of Texas – San Antonio, who is originally from South Korea but prefers to use the western format of his name for non-Korean publications and correspondences, and whose name is listed as such in professional publications.

Summary

This dissertation is divided into five chapters—this introductory chapter, a chapter reviewing the relevant literature, and a chapter detailing the methodology of the study, a chapter presenting the results of the study, and a concluding chapter that offers a detailed analysis and discussion of the results presented in Chapter 4. This chapter has covered the background of the problem to be explored by the proposed study, followed by the objectives of the dissertation, a listing of research questions to be explored, the relevance and significance of this particular topic

in the field of criminology and criminal justice, barriers and issues pertaining to the research, limitations and delimitations, and definitions of key terms. Chapter 2, the literature review, will highlight and summarize relevant and important studies in the following four areas: school bullying in the Republic of Korea, bullying attitudes and behavior, effective components of anti-bullying programs, and the role of police officers in schools. The review of the literature will conclude with a discussion of the links between the three aforementioned topics and the research project to be undertaken on bullying prevention presentations conducted by police officers and their effects on bullying-related attitudes of South Korean high school students. Next, the research methodology and other pertinent issues related to the research, including milestones, availability of resources, and reporting procedures, will be delineated in Chapter 3. The results of the study, including relevant tables and figures, are presented in Chapter 4. Finally, Chapter 5 offers an elaborate discussion and interpretation of the results presented in Chapter 4, recaps the limitations of the studies and offers suggestions on how to mitigate these limitations in the future, and delineates recommendations for future research and suggested improvements to the *Stand By Me* program and other anti-bullying programs administered in the Republic of Korea.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This literature review will highlight four major areas upon which this research project will rest. First, articles discussing the probable causes and prevalence of school bullying in South Korea will be examined, highlighting research by Byongook Moon, Associate Professor of Criminal Justice at the University of Texas at San Antonio, who has done extensive research in the area of school bullying in South Korea, with an emphasis on general strain theory's applicability to bullying. Second will be an overview of prior research on the relationship between attitudes about bullying and perpetration of bullying. Third, research examining the effectiveness of bullying prevention programs will be discussed. Finally, research on school resource officers (SROs), focusing on SROs' role in curbing school violence and delinquency, and their relationships with youth will be explored, which is linked to the rationale behind this study's focus on examining the effectiveness of a police officer-conducted bullying prevention presentation in the South Korean context. This section will conclude with a summary of the main points discussed in this review of the literature and a brief statement of how the research undertaken will add to the existing knowledgebase of bullying prevention research from a comparative perspective.

School Bullying in South Korea

Bullying must be viewed in the context of culture—in fact, the term 'bullying' can and does have different meanings from culture to culture. By merely reviewing literature focused on

bullying, one can see the myriad of definitions and categories that exist within one's own culture and society (see Naito & Gielen, 2005; Olweus, 1993a; Smith, Cowie, Olafsson, & Liefvooghe, 2002). From a comparative perspective, unlike in the United States and other Western nations, where bullying is typically associated with physical violence, bullying in countries like Japan, China, Korea, and Thailand tend to be more psychological and manipulative in nature (see Ahn, 2002; Lee, 2000; Naito & Gielen, 2005; Shin, 2000; Smith et al., 2002). Although cultural norms help form the particulars of what constitutes bullying behavior (Konishi et al., 2009), bullying is inclusive of, but not limited to, the following acts: "physical violence, threatening and teasing; extortion, stealing or destruction of possessions; ridiculing, name calling and social exclusion" (Koo, 2007, p. 113).

Konishi and his associates (2009) sought to examine the comparability of bullying across cultures and conducted a study that surveyed students from five different countries—Australia, Canada, Japan, Korea, and the United States. The researchers used the Pacific-Rim Bullying Measure, a survey instrument developed by Taki, Slee, Sim, Hymel, and Pepler (2006), that included common definitions of bullying without referencing the term 'bullying' as a means of measuring the phenomenon of bullying across the different countries. The survey was administered to a sample of 1,398 fifth grade students selected from the five countries and data was examined via factor analysis and item response theory modeling. Overall, the study found that bullying is a construct that varies from country to country, which may make comparison difficult due to varying definitions of what constitutes bullying. In brief, we must take cultural contexts into account as we explore and examine the global phenomenon that is bullying.

In the case of South Korea, common acts of bullying include taking money or belongings or excluding someone from the overall group (Ahn, 2002; Kim, 2008; Kim, Koh, & Leventhal,

2005; Lee, 2000; Lee, 2006; Moon, Morash, & McCluskey, 2012; Shin, 2000). With regard to group-perpetrated bullying, Lee (2010) explains, “In Korea, bullying is perceived mainly as collective ostracism, collective social exclusion, or collective harassment” (p. 156). In a culture deeply rooted in Confucianism and collectivism, this ostracism from the larger group can have a great negative impact on those youth who are targeted for exclusion by their peers (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). In fact, Korea has a term to describe one who is ostracized by her or his peers and is considered an outcast—*wangtta*, which is commonly translated as “outsider.” In a research report on school bullying, the Korean Educational Development Institute (1998) noted that 57% of students reported being victims of verbal or physical bullying, while 24% reported being victims of exclusion by peers. Kim et al. (2001) noted that among South Korean students between grades 4 and 6, about 40% reported being victims of social exclusion, while another study by Park (1999) reported that 30% of Korean students nationwide stated that they had been socially excluded by their peers within the last six months.

Byongook Moon of the University of Texas at San Antonio, in association with other academics in the field of criminal justice, has conducted significant research on the topic of school bullying among South Korean students for a little over a decade (see Moon, Blurton, & McCluskey, 2008; Moon, Hwang, & McCluskey, 2011; Moon, McCluskey, Blurton, & Hwang, 2014; Moon & Morash, 2004; Moon, Morash, & McCluskey, 2012; Moon, Morash, McCluskey, & Hwang, 2009). Most of these studies examined school bullying in the context of general strain theory. In addition to research that others have conducted on the subject of bullying in South Korea, several studies by Moon and his associates will be discussed in this review of the literature, beginning with Moon, Hwang, and McCluskey’s (2011) study exploring the causes of bullying among South Korean youth, while testing the application of three criminological

theories—general theory of crime, differential association theory, and general strain theory—and their ability to explain school bullying in the South Korean context. Overall, Moon’s various studies offer the most extensive research on bullying in South Korea to date.

Moon et al. (2011) utilized longitudinal data on 655 South Korean middle school students randomly selected from three different schools in three different cities. The authors explained that their research was relevant in three ways: first, it sought to bridge the gap between criminology and the “more mundane but pervasive behavior” that is school bullying; second, it explored the application of criminological theory in the international context, which the authors stated was lacking; and third, they wanted their study to “open the door” to further research in this area, as they noted that their study would leave more questions than answers (Moon et al., 2011, p. 850). On a related note, with respect to Moon and his associates’ (2011) first point, bullying is no longer considered a “mundane” issue given the ROK national government’s call to address the Four Social Evils, inclusive of school bullying.

Moon and his associates (2011) looked at several independent variables including low self-control, association with delinquent peers, legitimacy of violence, and strain and negative emotions (i.e., depression and anger), and evaluated their effects on bullying, the dependent variable. All of the above independent variables were determined to have a significant effect on bullying behavior (e.g., students exhibiting low self-control were more likely to bully others, and students who experienced greater levels of strain and anger were more likely to perpetrate bullying). Of the 655 students surveyed, 85% indicated that they were not involved in any physical altercations with other students, yet 51% reported engaging in emotional and psychological bullying (Moon et al., 2011, p. 863). Furthermore, one interesting and unexpected finding of the research was that students coming from more affluent economic backgrounds were

more likely to engage in bullying. Additionally, males in the sample were more likely to engage in bullying compared to females.

Even though Moon et al. (2011) stated that the three criminological theories they examined—general theory of crime, differential association theory, and strain theory—may have been a “good fit” in describing the phenomenon of bullying, they had “relatively little unique explanatory power” (p. 868). Although their research found limited support for the three criminological theories in explaining the prevalence of school bullying, Moon et al. (2011) noted that strains upon students originating from the school setting (i.e., punishment by teachers and exam-related strains) did have significant effects on bullying incidences. Thus, the researchers have recommended that one potential method of alleviating bullying in schools is examining practices within the academic setting and developing solutions to improve school-based conditions (e.g., the “examination hell” atmosphere and physical and emotional distress put upon students by their own teachers) that result in strain and aggressive tendencies in students, which in turn may lead to bullying.

Various studies on bullying have indicated that it is a serious problem in Korean schools (see Kim, Kim, & Jung, 2001; Korean Educational Development Institute, 1998; Korean Institute of Criminal Justice Policy, 1997; National Youth Commission, 2003; Seo & Kim, 2004; Yang, 2004). For instance, in a study sampling 14,638 elementary and secondary school students, the National Youth Commission (2003) found that about 26% of those students stated that they were victims of school bullying. Moreover, research by Seo and Kim (2004) indicated that bullies were more likely to associate with peers who were also delinquent as well as exhibited high levels of impulsiveness and aggression, which offers support for differential association theory (Sutherland, 1947) and prior studies done on the subject of deviant peer association’s effect on

delinquent behavior (see Bentley & Li, 1995; Bosworth, Espelage, & Simon; 1999; Boulton, Trueman, & Flemington, 2002; Elliott & Menard, 1996; Espelage & Swearer, 2003; Pepler & Craig, 1995; Simons, Wu, Conger, & Lorenz, 1994; Warr, 2005).

The causes of bullying are abundant, including but not limited to individual characteristics, family issues, peer associations, and the school environment (Reis, Trockel, & Mulhall, 2007; Wei, Williams, Chen, & Chang, 2010). Nevertheless, despite the plethora of reasons for bullying, one commonality that is shared is that bullying does not occur in a vacuum and is not limited to only being explained by the relationship between bully and victim. Therefore, studies examining the academic and home environment's effect on bullying will be discussed in the subsequent sections of this chapter, with particular focus on teachers and parents and two of the major criminological theories—general strain theory and general theory of crime (self-control theory). As Yoon, Bauman, Choi, and Hutchinson (2011) explain about the importance of the school environment and bullying prevention efforts, “It is critical to understand the influence of various aspects of the school environment on bullying behaviors in an effort to develop effective prevention and intervention programs” (p. 316).

Causes of Bullying: Strain

One significant concern regarding the prevalence of bullying in South Korean schools is the role of the academic environment in fostering delinquent and violent behavior in youth. Taking this into account, it would be appropriate to discuss general strain theory and its relationship to the stress and hardship Korean children experience in school, and how this strain relates to bullying behavior. Developed by Agnew (1992), general strain theory asserts that strains lead one to develop negative emotions such as anger, anxiety, or depression, which in turn drives one to engage in delinquent and criminal behavior. Prior studies have shown that each of

these three aforementioned strains—anger, anxiety, and depression—have contributed to the prevalence of bullying; i.e., youth who exhibit any of these emotions are more likely to engage in some form of bullying (Bosworth et al., 1999; Espelage, Bosworth, & Simon, 2000; Espelage & Swearer, 2003; Haynie et al., 2001).

In a study on general strain theory and delinquency utilizing a sample of 777 South Korean youth, Moon, Blurton, and McCluskey (2008) examined three types of strains—recent, older, and chronic—and their effects on delinquency, as well as youths’ perceived injustice of strain inflicted upon them. A random sample of 777 Korean middle school students selected from three different cities completed a survey about their experiences with various types of strain, with particular emphasis on seven types of strain: family conflict, parental punishment, punishment by teachers, financial strain, examination-related strain, bully victimization, and criminal victimization. In brief, the study demonstrated support for GST’s predictive ability on recent strains and perceived injustice’s impact on delinquency. Furthermore, findings specified that physical and emotional punishment by teachers—recent and older strains—were positively correlated with delinquent behavior. Related to this study is other research that has shown the correlation between punishment by teachers and delinquency; i.e., youths who are emotionally or physically punished by their teachers are more likely to engage in delinquent acts (see Agnew, 2001; Moon, Hays & Blurton, 2009; Moon & Morash, 2004; Moon & Morash, 2012).

Another study by Moon, this time in partnership with Morash and McCluskey (Moon et al., 2012), further delved into the relationship between strain and delinquency, with an emphasis on school bullying specifically as opposed to general delinquency. Prior studies on general strain theory (see Agnew, Brezina, Wright, & Cullen, 2002; Aseltine, Gore, & Gordon, 2000; Mazerolle & Maahs, 2000; Mazerolle, Piquero, & Capowich, 2003; Moon, Hays, & Blurton,

2009; Piquero & Sealock, 2000, 2004) examined the relationship between strain and delinquency, but not specifically between strain and bullying. Thus, the purpose of the study by Moon et al. (2012), which utilized longitudinal data on 2,817 South Korean youth collected by the Korea Youth Policy Institute from 2003–08, was to determine whether general strain theory had any predictive power on school bullying. Research by Bosworth et al. (1999) and Espelage et al. (2000) noted that juveniles who exhibited a high degree of anger had a greater chance of perpetrating bullying. That being said, anger is one of the key negative emotions linked to strain and deviance (Agnew, 1992). Thus, Moon et al. (2012) sought to bridge the gap between strain and bullying. In brief, Moon et al. (2012) found that, in support of GST, young people who were victims of bullying themselves, or had negative relationships with their parents, were more likely to perpetrate bullying. Moreover, youth who exhibited a higher level of strain from exam preparation and/or punishment (physical or emotional) from teachers were more likely to engage in bullying, with depression and anger as significant emotional factors in determining whether one engaged in bullying (Moon et al., 2012).

The Republic of Korea is known for its “examination hell” atmosphere which can cause stress, anxiety and depression in students, especially high school students who prepare rigorously to achieve high scores on their university entrance exams (Lee & Larson, 2000). Even elementary school students experience pressure from their parents and teachers to strive for academic excellence (Lee & Larson, 2000). This excessive amount of academic diligence continues well into secondary school (Cho, 1995; Lee & Larson, 2000). It is not uncommon to see students, especially high school students, studying from the early morning to the midnight hours, not only at school but in after-school private academies (Cho, 1995; Lee & Larson, 2000; Moon et al. 2012). On a related note, the constant pressure on children from their parents to

achieve academic success has been shown in certain cases to increase tension and antagonism between parent and child (Cho, 1995; Lee & Larson, 2000; Moon et al., 2012). While on the subject of parents, multiple studies have indicated that negative parenting (e.g., parents who are hostile and exude an authoritarian demeanor toward their children and/or tend to employ excessive use of physical punishment) contributes to the likelihood of bullying (see Baldry & Farrington, 2000; Batsche & Knoff, 1994; Bowers, Smith, & Binney, 1994; Gladstone, Parker, & Malhi, 2006).

Studies by Cho (1995) and Lee and Larson (2000) discuss the stress and feelings of depression that can arise from long hours of studying in preparation for the university entrance exam. As Cho (1995) explains, in the eyes of many Korean parents, entering a prestigious university is considered a symbol of not only their child's academic success but her or his future success in society. Nevertheless, evidence indicates that many students complain about their academic experiences, suffer health problems, exhibit anger and aggression, and experience feelings of helplessness and depression, with some students even having a "loss of interest in life" (Cho, 1995; Lee & Larson, 2000; Moon et al., 2012). Having first-hand experience working in the South Korean secondary school system and from his day-to-day interactions with Korean students and teachers, the researcher can personally attest to the struggles and strain that many Korean students experience as delineated in the studies discussed above. In fact, the researcher recalls one high school student telling him in confidence, "The test [university entrance exam] is my life. If I fail, I am nothing."

In addition to the high levels of stress derived from a seemingly overemphasis on academic achievement, teachers themselves, who generally are expected to be pseudo-parental figures and role models for their students, may be partially to blame for the prevalence of

bullying among South Korean youth. In Asian cultures, teachers are considered an extension of the family; as stated above, they are akin to parental figures (Yu & Yang, 1994). Teachers, particularly homeroom teachers, in Japan and Korea, for example, are heavily involved in the lives of their students and are essentially students' surrogate parents within the school environment (Ito, 2011; Moon, McCluskey, Blurton, & Hwang, 2014). As caring and sympathetic as they are expected to be, many Korean teachers nevertheless seem to have a "spare the rod and spoil the child" mentality as corporal punishment is prevalent in Korean schools. The researcher has directly witnessed the frequent use of corporal punishment against students when he worked in a South Korean high school in 2008–09. These punishments range from having students sit in a kneeling position with arms raised for an extended period of time to being struck with a rod on various parts of the body, including the hands, buttocks, and calves. In addition to physical punishment, some teachers often resort to verbal and emotional punishment such as name calling or verbal chastising in front of one's classmates (Cho, 1995; Hahm & Guterman, 2001; Moon, Morash, McCluskey, & Hwang, 2009). As Moon et al. (2014) explicate, "Students are expected to follow school rules and teachers' instructions, and those who violate school rules, show a lack of self-control or poor academic performance (i.e., not finishing homework), are disciplined" (p. 172).

Despite the belief that physical punishment may be necessary to instill discipline in students, such castigation combined with stressors from "over-studying" have been shown to be a major source of strain and anxiety among Korean students, which may lead to students engaging in delinquent acts (Cho, 1995; Lee & Larson, 2000; Moon & Morash, 2004; Morash & Moon, 2007). In brief, negative and antagonistic relations between teachers and students are a source of strain for Korean young people and physical and emotional punishment has been

shown to have a negative effect on students' behaviors (Kim, 2002; Moon & Morash, 2004). Additionally, Lee (2005) found that school administrators had a tendency to either underreport incidences of bullying or blatantly deny that bullying occurred in their institutions, while shifting the blame of bullying onto parents. This is also a concern echoed by Yoon et al. (2011), who state that there exists in Korea "a pervasive attitude among school administrators and teachers that bullying is not a significant problem" (p. 316).

The Korean Educational Development Institute (1998) highlighted teachers' lack of awareness of bullying. In a study conducted by the KEDI (1998), 60% of students said that they experienced or witnessed bullying, but only 20% of teachers reported bullying incidences in their classes. The study also found that despite 85% of teachers claiming that social exclusion does not occur in their schools, 30% to 60% of students reported that they feared telling their teachers about being victims of bullying because they felt that they would not be believed or would not receive help from their teachers (KEDI, 1998). As Moon et al. (2011) suggested at the conclusion of their study, school administrators and teachers ought to recognize and work towards alleviating the negative impact that the "examination hell" atmosphere has on students and the exacerbation of school bullying.

Causes of Bullying: Low Self-Control

Prior studies have supported the assertion that lack of self-control may increase one's likelihood of committing deviant acts (see Baron, 2003; Boutwell & Beaver, 2010; Burt, Simons, & Simons, 2006; Burton, Evans, Cullen, Olivares, & Dunaway, 1999; Evans, Cullen, Burton, Dunaway, & Benson, 1997; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Longshore, 1998; Longshore, Chang, Hsieh, & Messina, 2004; Longshore & Turner, 1998; Perrone, Sullivan, Pratt, & Margaryan, 2004; Pratt & Cullen, 2000). With regard to South Korean youth, Moon et al. (2012) noted that

young people who reported lower levels of self-control were more likely to be bullies. This supports prior research by Lee (2000), who evaluated Korean youths' levels of impulsivity and dominance, finding that bullies rated higher scores on both impulsivity and dominance scales compared to non-bullies. Given that the prevalence of bullying in Korea is partly due to young people's lack of self-control (see Moon et al., 2011), this begs the question of what factors promote (or mitigate) self-control. As discussed above, the actions of teachers (e.g., physical and emotional punishment) appear to have an effect on students' anti-social and deviant behavior. In the proceeding paragraphs, the role of parents, alongside teachers, will be explored, focusing on how these two authority figures influence Korean youths' likelihood to engage in deviant and delinquent behavior, including bullying.

In their general theory of crime, one of the most cited criminological theories (Pratt & Cullen, 2000), Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) assert that low levels of self-control can lead to crime and delinquency. Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) explain that children who are effectively monitored by their parents are more likely to have a higher degree of self-control and are less likely to partake in delinquency or criminality. Also, youth with higher self-control are more likely to have parents who not only effectively recognize deviant behavior but prevent them from engaging in further deviant acts and punish them accordingly for their bad behavior—i.e., punishment that is neither too lenient nor too harsh (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). On the other hand, if these elements of early childhood socialization are missing, it can result in low self-control and by extension, deviant behavior, including crime and delinquency. In a comprehensive meta-analysis on 21 different studies, Pratt and Cullen (2000) found that low self-control had a mean effect size of .257 in various operationalized definitions of self-control,

while controlling for other major criminological theories, concluding that self-control was “one of the strongest known correlates of crime” (p. 952).

Yun and Walsh (2011) stated that although general theory of crime has been studied extensively, one of the theory’s key hypotheses, the stability of self-control, has not been studied as much, especially outside of the Western context. Moreover, the researchers noted Gottfredson and Hirschi’s (1990) assertion that GTC was “culture free” and could be applied universally, which their study sought to explore by applying GTC outside of the U.S./western context. Compared to Americans and other westerners, Koreans have higher degrees of self-control, collectivism, filial piety, and conformity to social norms as a result of their Confucian-based upbringing (Kim, Atkinson, & Yang; 1999; Lee & Larson, 2000). Thus, compared to western parents, Korean parents are likely to exert a greater effort into controlling and disciplining their children and therefore, by extension, impart to their children a higher degree of self-control (Yun & Walsh, 2011). The lack of empirical research on GTC outside of the western context combined with Korean culture’s distinctiveness to western culture were the rationales behind the researchers’ desire to examine the stability hypothesis with respect to South Korean youth.

The study by Yun and Walsh (2011) utilized longitudinal data acquired from the Korean Youth Panel Survey, which provided a nationally representative sample of South Korean youth over a five-year period. Data were analyzed via Spearman’s correlations and mean comparisons. The researchers examined six elements of self-control—impulsivity, preference for simple tasks, risk taking, preference for physical over mental activities, self-centeredness, and temper—and tested whether youths’ self-control remained stable over the five-year period. The study found partial support for GTC’s stability hypothesis in the Korean context, which in turn provided support for Gottfredson and Hirschi’s (1990) claim that GTC could be applied universally.

Like Yun and Walsh (2011), Moon et al. (2014) were also interested in evaluating GTC in the context of South Korean adolescents, and sought to answer the question of whether parents or teachers were the predominant source of self-control among Korean youth. The study by Moon et al. (2014) was longitudinal and utilized data collected in two waves from a sample of 622 middle school students. The researchers focused on three areas of effective parenting, which were discussed in Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) research: monitoring of children, recognition of deviant behaviors, and punishment of deviant behaviors. They also examined teacher effectiveness in three similar areas: supervision of students, recognition of deviant behaviors, and punishment of deviant behaviors. Moon et al. (2014) concluded that youths whose parents and/or teachers do an effective job taking care of and disciplining them reported having more self-control. Specifically, with regard to parents, only monitoring was shown to have a significant impact on increasing self-control among Korean youth, while disciplinary actions from teachers resulted in higher levels of self-control. This finding echoed the results of prior research by Moon and Morash (2004), which showed that Korean youths who had negative relationships with their parents and teachers had a greater chance of being delinquent compared to youths that had more amiable relationships. Additionally, the study noted that youth who had low levels of self-control were more likely to engage in delinquent behavior. Overall, the study provided partial support for self-control theory (general theory of crime) in the South Korean context in terms of explaining deviant behavior among Korean youth. In brief, as Moon and Morash's (2004) study and several others have indicated, in addition to low self-control, strain resulting from pressure to succeed academically and negative relationships between juveniles and their parents and between juveniles and their teachers all contribute in some way to violence and

delinquency in South Korean youth (see Cho, 1995; Kim, 2002; Moon & Morash, 2004; Moon et al., 2009; Moon et al., 2012; Moon et al., 2014).

Teachers and Parents: Preventers or Instigators of Bullying?

Before proceeding onto the next set of studies focusing on the effects of attitudes on bullying behavior, the researcher would like to further address the involvement of teachers and parents and their relationship to bullying and delinquency, a topic which was briefly touched upon in the earlier examination of research pertaining to general strain theory and general theory of crime.

With respect to the failure of teachers and other school officials to adequately address the prevalence of bullying, Hartjen (2008) considers this to be akin to a form of “institutional victimization” in which youths are exposed to “pervasive, and sometimes very serious, abuse ... at the hands of other children” while under the aegis of school supervision (p. 157). In short, the school is responsible for the safety and welfare of the children under its care and an inability or unwillingness of school officials to fulfill this responsibility is akin to abuse perpetrated upon the child; hence, use of the term “institutional victimization.” As Hartjen (2008) points out, “Institutional victimization is—perhaps more than any other form of victimization—an indicator of a people’s commitment to its young” (p. 157). In this regard, what does this say about the commitment of certain teachers and school staff members in South Korea who consciously ignore or cover up such incidents of bullying in their schools? Related to the issue of institutional victimization, Kim (2014) succinctly highlights the double-edged sword of the South Korean education system in an opinion piece published in *The New York Times*:

The world may look to South Korea as a model for education ... but the system’s dark side casts a long shadow. Dominated by Tiger Moms, cram schools and highly authoritarian teachers, South Korean education produces ranks of overachieving students who pay a stiff price in health and happiness. The entire program amounts to child abuse.

Ultimately, the type of response that an individual teacher has towards bullying obviously differs from person to person, with some intervening often, while others merely ignore the situation (Pepler, Craig, Ziegler, & Charach, 1994; Stephenson & Smith, 1989). That being said, teachers' actions or inactions, positive or negative, do matter; lack of teacher intervention may lead to a perceived atmosphere of acceptance of bullying and therefore further perpetration of bullying as well as feelings of helplessness in victims (Huesmann & Eron, 1984; Pepler et al., 1994). In the end, how teachers engage perpetrators and victims of bullying in particular and how they instruct and discipline their students in general are vital to mitigating bullying behavior. This was the topic that Yoon, Bauman, Choi, and Hutchinson (2011) explored in their study on how South Korean teachers addressed incidents of school bullying.

In their study, Yoon et al. (2011) examined 146 school teachers' responses to a hypothetical bullying scenario. The sample comprised of teachers from all grade levels, from elementary school to high school, and was administered the Handling Bullying Questionnaire, a 22-item measure used to gauge how respondents would react to specific bullying situations, which was modified and translated into Korean. Teachers were presented with the following scenario, which involved what could be considered a moderate level of severity and included elements of direct and indirect bullying behavior:

A 12-year old student is being repeatedly teased and called unpleasant names by another, more powerful, student who has successfully persuaded other students to avoid the targeted person as much as possible. As a result, the victim of this behavior is feeling angry, miserable, and often isolated. (p. 319)

Factor analyses were conducted with the teachers' responses divided into one of two factors: "Ignore" and "Action." The findings indicated a significant difference in action scores based on gender and teaching experience. Specifically, female teachers were more likely than their male counterparts to intervene in bullying incidents, and teachers with 11–15 years of

teaching experience were more likely to intervene in bullying incidents compared to those with 10 or fewer years or those with more than 15 years of experience. No significant differences were found in action scores with respect to school-level variables and anti-bullying training. The authors concluded their report by advocating for improvement and expansion of bullying prevention training for school teachers, emphasizing that teachers play a vital role in bullying prevention. In Yoon and her colleagues' (2011) own words:

Through their constant interactions with students in the course of instruction, discipline, and classroom management, teachers shape the ongoing socialization of students toward desired academic and social goals. This engagement generates a social environment in which students learn to regulate behaviors, engage in learning processes, and interact with other students consistent with these goals. Within this framework, how teachers respond to bullying becomes a socializing experience that exerts a significant influence on the future behaviors of involved students as well as the classroom's broader social climate. (pp. 314–315)

Like the research conducted by Yoon et al. (2011), other studies have also examined teacher intervention in the Korean context, including Yoon's (2004) study on predicting elementary school teachers' interventions on bullying and Lee's (2010) study on personal and interpersonal correlates of bullying behavior among Korean middle school students. Yoon (2004), seeking to answer why certain teachers intervene to stop bullying while others ignore it, examined 98 elementary school teachers and their attitudes and methods of intervention in bullying incidents, evaluating teachers' behavioral management skills, empathy towards victims, and perceptions of the seriousness of bullying. She found that each of the three aforementioned variables were important in determining teachers' likelihood of intervention in bullying incidents. Specifically, teachers who exhibited better behavioral management skills, had greater empathy toward bullying victims, and perceived bullying more seriously were more likely to intervene to stop bullying.

Lee (2010) looked at several personal and interpersonal factors that may be attributable to bullying tendencies in South Korean youth, including teachers' attitudes toward bullying, the effectiveness of their interventions, and their moral authority. In her study, Lee (2010) divided bullying into three categories as a means of using an expanded and more "socioculturally sensitive approach" to the topic (p. 154). These three types of bullying were categorized as Type I, minor-covert-nonchronic bullying; Type II, moderate-covert-chronic bullying or severe-overt-nonchronic bullying; and Type III, severe-overt-chronic bullying. Overall, she found that teachers had a significant impact on moderate bullying (Type II) only, while parents had a significant impact on minor bullying (Type I).

Using Olweus' (1978, 1993a, 1994) Bully/Victim Questionnaire modified for a Korean audience, Lee and Song (2012) evaluated both the effects of parental involvement and school climate on bullying behavior in Korean middle school students. Lee and Song's (2012) findings indicated that individual traits (e.g., level of impulsivity, aggression and a fun-seeking attitude) had a strong effect on bullying. Furthermore, although negative parent-child experiences did not have a significant effect on bullying, parental involvement did affect school climate and school climate in turn had an influence on bullying behavior. They noted that their study found that "parental involvement with teachers, peers, and school boards would influence formation of more positive and academic environments in schools, resulting in reduced bullying behaviors within schools" (Lee & Song, 2012, p. 2458). In sum, Lee and Song's (2012) research supports prior studies that have shown parental involvement in their children's lives and within the academic community (e.g., participating in local school boards and frequent communication with their children's teachers) to have a significant effect on mitigating bullying behavior (see Flouri & Buchanan, 2003; Jeynes, 2008; Sullivan, Cleary, & Sullivan, 2004).

Lee, Jang, and Bouffard (2011), utilizing national longitudinal data on 2,000 students and their parents, studied the impact of working mothers on juvenile delinquency in South Korea. Their research found that children who had working mothers were more likely to engage in delinquent behavior. Additionally, children with working mothers who were also highly educated exhibited a greater chance of being delinquent compared to those with mothers from lower educational backgrounds (Lee et al., 2011). Similar to the United States and other developed nations, the typical South Korean household has shifted more to a nuclear family structure with dual-income earners (Korean National Statistical Office, 2006; Lee et al., 2011). Thus, like their counterparts in the United States, working mothers in South Korea have borne quite a bit of the blame for failing to adequately raise and discipline their children, and therefore contributed to the delinquency problems in the country (Lee et al., 2011; Yun, 2003). Lee et al. (2011) succinctly summarize the argument as follows: “The common speculation has been that the less interaction there is between parents and their children, the more likely it is that those children will become involved in delinquency” (p. 1078).

As Cohen and Felson (1979) explain, involvement in delinquent behavior presupposes an offender who is motivated to engaging in delinquency, a target of the delinquent act, and the lack of authority figures (e.g., parents). Following this rationale, with regard to parents, if both are working, especially long hours, as is often the case in South Korea, and are therefore not around to provide adequate care and nurturing of their children, these youths may be more susceptible to engaging in delinquent behavior. Overall, Lee and her associates’ (2011) findings appear to support this reasoning. To elaborate, children with working mothers exhibited lower levels of parental supervision, which in turn increased their likelihood of becoming delinquent. As for education level, as previously stated, mothers who had higher levels of education were more

likely to have children who were delinquent. This may be explained in part by mothers with higher education having access to “better” employment opportunities, which results in “more commitment to the workplace and longer working hours” (Lee et al., 2011, p. 1079). These mothers therefore may have less time to spend raising their children compared to mothers with lower levels of education. However, Lee et al. (2011) did note that highly educated mothers who did *not* work had children with low rates of delinquency; it was only when highly educated mothers were *employed* did there appear to be a positive correlation with mothers’ employment and children’s delinquency.

These aforementioned studies on South Korean teachers and students support prior research on American teachers’ influence on bullying. For example, Marachi, Astor, and Benbenishty (2007) offer support for the claim that teachers’ responses to bullying have an effect on levels of victimization; specifically, lack of appropriate action on the part of a teacher in bullying incidents is likely to result in higher levels of victimization. Furthermore, in a study by Crothers, Kolbert, and Barker (2006), several middle school students opined that teachers were a “powerful influence” in preventing bullying. When all is said and done, one significant concern is teachers’ ignorance of bullying or ineffective intervention against bullying. Stephenson and Smith’s (1989) research found that 25% of teachers admitted that they ignored bullying, while more recent research by Cohn and Canter (2002) found that a mere 4% of teachers intervened in bullying incidents. These findings parallel teachers’ ignorance and denial of bullying in South Korean schools, as discussed earlier (see Korean Educational Development Institute, 1998; Lee, 2005). In brief, taking into account all the studies discussed above, it can be seen that a positive and direct involvement from adults—whether teachers or parents—in children’s lives may aid in reducing bullying and other delinquent behavior.

Bullying Attitudes and Behavior

As previously mentioned in the beginning of this literature review, there are many ways to define bullying and no consensus has been reached on a single, universal definition of bullying. Nevertheless, the definition of bullying that is most popular and widely accepted is that developed by Dan Olweus (1978, 1993a, 1993b, 1994), a psychology research professor at the University of Bergen in Norway, who has conducted over 40 years of research in the area of bullying and victimization among school-aged children and is regarded as the “Founding Father” of bullying research. According to Olweus (1993a), bullying occurs when a person is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other people, and she or he has difficulty defending herself or himself. This definition has three important components: first, bullying is aggressive behavior that involves unwanted, negative actions; second, it is repeated over time; and third, it involves an imbalance of strength or power between the bully and the victim (Olweus, 1993a). In a nationwide study on Norwegian primary and secondary school children, Olweus (1993a) found that 15% of children were somehow involved in bullying—either as victims or offenders. Studies conducted by other researchers (see Baldry & Farrington, 2000; Nansel, Overpeck, Pilla, Ruan, Simons-Morton, & Scheidt, 2001; Wong, 2004) in various countries across the globe including the United States, Italy, and Hong Kong, essentially tell us that bullying is a global phenomenon which extends beyond national borders.

Bullying is a global epidemic that results in physical as well as emotional and psychological harm to millions of victims around world (Konishi et al., 2009). Moreover, bullying can also have a negative impact not only on victims of bullying but on the bullies themselves (see Bosworth et al., 1999; Ma, 2001; Olweus, 1978; Salmivalli, Lagerspetz, Bjorkqvist, Osterman, & Kaukiainen, 1996; Siann, Gallagher, Glissov, Lockhart, & Rawson,

1994; Smith & Brian, 2000). Such negative effects can be seen in the prevalence of school bullies engaging in further acts of delinquency and criminality later in life (see Batsche & Knoff, 1994; Greenbaum, Turner, & Stephens, 1988; Nansel et al., 2004; Olweus, 1993a; Rigby & Slee, 1999; Salmon, James, Cassidy, & Javaloyes, 2000; Sourander, et al., 2007). As Moon et al. (2011) explicate, school bullying is “a global phenomenon that has damaging psychological and physical effects on victims and bullies alike” (p. 867).

Ultimately, wherever one is in the world, a criminal act essentially consists of a combination of *mens rea*, a blameworthy mindset, and *actus reus*, a guilty action (Reichel, 2012). That being said, one’s thoughts can and often do influence one’s actions. To succinctly summarize research by Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990), those with low self-control are more likely to engage in deviant and criminal acts than those with high self-control. Other studies (see Baron, 2003; Grasmick, Tittle, Bursik, & Arneklev, 1993; Hay, 2001; LaGrange & Silverman, 1999; Pratt & Cullen, 2000) on the topic support the positive correlation between low self-control and deviant behavior. In the specific case of bullying and its relationship to self-control, Olweus (1991) noted a significant positive correlation between lack of self-control and bullying behavior. Additionally, perpetrators of bullying are more likely to lack empathy for those they victimize (Endresen & Olweus, 2001; Olweus, 1994; Slee & Rigby, 1993). In short, the mindset of a bully or potential bully is worth examination in addition to her or his outward behavior since attitudes have been shown to greatly influence behavior, as will be explained in the subsequent paragraphs reviewing studies on the influence of attitudes on bullying behavior.

Attitudes are strong predictors of potential social and non-social behavior (Glasman & Albarracin, 2006), including acts of aggression and bullying behavior (Bentley & Li, 1995; McConville & Cornell, 2003; Perry, Perry, & Rasmussen, 1986; Salmivalli & Voeten, 2004;

Slaby & Guerra, 1988). Thus, with regard to bullying, how does one's attitude about bullying affect one's likelihood to engage in bullying? Several studies (see Bentley & Li, 1995; Bosworth et al., 1999; Boulton et al., 2002; Espelage & Swearer, 2003; Shin, 2000) have indicated that aggressive attitudes are important and significant predictors of bullying behavior. With regard to South Korean youth in particular and their attitudes toward bullying, Lee (2010) indicated that those who felt bullying was a form of joking or teasing that was deemed acceptable were more likely to engage in bullying. From minor forms of bullying to severe forms of bullying, Lee (2010) found that "fun-seeking" was a constant and important factor in predicting bullying behavior (p. 169). This fun-seeking rationale of bullying is also supported by studies evaluating Japanese youth (Naito & Gielen, 2005) and American youth (Rigby, 2004).

In their study on the prevalence and predictors of cyberbullying, Williams and Guerra (2007) looked at cyberbullying in comparison to traditional forms of bullying (i.e., physical and verbal bullying) among Colorado elementary, middle, and high school students. The researchers also examined whether key predictors of traditional bullying also served as predictors of cyberbullying. In 2005, an initial sample of 3,339 fifth, eighth, and eleventh grade students from 78 Colorado schools completed questionnaires as part of the Bullying Prevention Initiative (BPI), an \$8.6-million statewide initiative sponsored by the Colorado Trust. Of the initial sample, 2,293 students from 65 schools took a follow-up survey in 2006. The purpose of the BPI study was to evaluate the BPI's effectiveness in increasing bullying awareness and intervention willingness among youths and adults; Williams and Guerra's (2007) research on cyberbullying was one component of the larger study. The questionnaires administered to students measured factors including bullying perpetration and victimization, attitudes about bullying, perceptions of peer support, and perceptions of school climate.

Williams and Guerra's (2007) study found that of all the three types of bullying compared, verbal bullying was the most prevalent, followed by physical bullying, then cyberbullying. Moreover, all three types of bullying—physical, verbal, and cyber—were significantly and positively related to normative beliefs expressing support of bullying, negative school climate, and negative peer support. Noteworthy, and related to the researcher's dissertation research, is Williams and Guerra's (2007) finding that moral approval of bullying (whether one exhibits "pro-bullying" attitudes) is significantly and positively related to prevalence of all three forms of bullying. The researchers concluded their report by urging support for bullying intervention programs that target bullying by addressing students' attitudes and beliefs as well as school climate. Specifically, they suggest that effective intervention methods would involve altering one's views about the acceptability of bullying and developing greater peer-to-peer trust and support. Williams and Guerra's (2007) Student School Survey was adapted and translated into Korean for use in this study.

While Williams and Guerra's (2007) research and other studies on bullying (see Bentley & Li, 1995; McConville & Cornell, 2003; Perry, Perry, & Rasmussen, 1986; Salmivalli & Voeten, 2004; Slaby & Guerra, 1988) examined the relationship between *explicit* attitudes about bullying and perpetration of bullying, van Goethem, Scholte, and Wiers (2010) addressed the question of bullying attitudes' relationship to bullying behavior while taking into account both explicit and implicit bullying attitudes. Implicit attitudes are defined as "impulsive, spontaneous, uncontrolled emotional reactions and evaluations," whereas explicit attitudes are "deliberate, reflective, controlled, consciously self-reported evaluations" (van Goethem et al., 2010, p. 829). In distinguishing between implicit and explicit bullying attitudes, van Goethem et al. (2010) gave the example of a teacher showing students a video in which a child is bullied by another. A child

that has “an initial, immediate, positive appraisal” of the bullying depicted on screen is said to have a positive implicit attitude toward bullying, i.e., an implicit pro-bullying attitude (p. 830). If that same child—well aware that bullying is considered socially and morally “wrong,” although he himself engages in such behavior—were to tell the teacher that he is adamantly against bullying, he would be said to have a negative explicit attitude towards bullying, or an explicit anti-bullying attitude. Van Goethem and his associates (2010) thus sought to explore these two variables and any interactions between the two, and their effect on bullying behavior.

The study by van Goethem et al. (2010) comprised of a sample of 237 elementary school students (112 boys and 125 girls) from five different schools and who had a median age of 11.5 years. These students completed surveys measuring both implicit and explicit bullying attitudes. The researchers also collected data on self-reported, peer-reported, and teacher-reported bullying behavior among the students. Their study found that although implicit attitudes alone did not have significant predictive power on bullying behavior, explicit attitudes did—i.e., explicit bullying attitudes had a direct correlation with bullying behavior. Furthermore, while examining interaction effects between explicit and implicit bullying attitudes, van Goethem et al. (2010) found that in those children who exhibited a high degree of explicit attitudes about bullying, implicit attitudes were significant in predicting bullying behavior.

Van Goethem and his colleagues (2010) concluded with a discussion on the practical implications of their study in the development of anti-bullying programs and policies in schools. To elaborate, the findings highlighted the importance of placing focus on *explicit* bullying attitudes and imparting onto students clear and distinct anti-bullying rules and regulations. This is because, as the study indicated, there is a relationship between negative explicit bullying attitudes and mitigation of bullying behavior in addition to a relationship between explicit bully

attitudes and implicit bully attitudes (i.e., the more one opposes bullying explicitly, the more likely she or he is to also oppose bullying implicitly, while those who exhibit greater explicit pro-bullying attitudes are more likely to have greater implicit pro-bullying attitudes). Furthermore, altering explicit bullying attitudes may best be addressed by utilizing methods such as persuasion and increasing awareness of bullying, which the authors mention are methods that are already employed in many bullying prevention programs. Finally, the authors suggest improving anti-bullying programs by including practices that appeal to youths' emotions, emphasizing the link between bullying and negative feelings and experiences.

One reason bullying should be considered a serious issue in any society is due to the perpetual nature of bullies breeding bullies. In other words, youths who were once victims of bullying may also subsequently engage in bullying behavior as a means of either guarding themselves from future victimization or releasing feelings of anger and frustration resulting from victimization (Juvonen, Graham & Schuster, 2003; Ma, 2001). In a longitudinal study on Finnish children, Sourander et al. (2007) sought to explore the relationship between bullying and victimization and the risk of criminality in later adolescence. The study included a sample of 2551 Finnish boys, beginning at age 8 and then following up on this cohort when they reached ages 16 and 20. Data about the boys' experiences with bullying were collected from parents, teachers, and the children themselves when they were 8 years old, while information about their crimes between ages 16 and 20—if applicable—was collected from the Finnish National Police Register. Results of the study indicated that those who frequently engaged in bullying as well as those who were both perpetrators and victims of bullying committed about one-third of all the juvenile crimes among the cohort. Those who frequently perpetrated bullying engaged in a significant amount of occasional and repeat offending, while those who were both bullies and

victims engaged in a significant amount of repeat offending only. In short, the study found that boys who frequently engaged in bullying had a high risk of engaging in criminal behavior later in life.

One recent study that examined the overlap between bullying and victimization—i.e., victims of bullying engaging in bullying behavior—was done by DeCamp and Newby (2015). The authors looked at the relationship between bullying victimization and the likelihood of engaging in bullying behavior, explaining that even though much research has been done in the past on both perpetrators of bullying and victims of bullying, little research has been conducted on the long-term effects bullying has on victims. Utilizing data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1997 (NLSY97) which comprised of a nationally representative sample of 8,984 youth born between 1980-84, the researchers used propensity score matching (PSM) to examine the likelihood of victims of bullying to commit violent offenses and other delinquent or deviant acts. In controlling for the tendency of being victimized, the study found that future criminal behavior was reduced, although not completely eliminated. In other words, the findings indicated that overall, victims were more likely than non-victims to engage in street crime and deviant acts, and were also more likely to be suspended from school or arrested. These findings were consistent with prior research (see Carbone-Lopez, Esbensen, & Brick, 2010; Cullen, Unnever, Hartman, Turner, & Agnew, 2008).

In the case of South Korean youth, previous studies (Lee, 2010; Moon et al., 2012) showed that prior victimization, including being bullied, was indicative of perpetration of bullying on the part of the former victim. With regard to Lee's (2010) research specifically, she found that bullying victimization was "the single most important factor" that increases bullying behavior in the sample of Korean youth she studied (p. 169). The rationale of victims becoming

bullies rests on at least two empirical explanations: social learning theory and fear-avoidance theory. With regard to social learning theory, bullying behavior is learned and acquired via experience being a victim of bullying (Ah, Jeong, & Cha, 2005; Baldry, 2003), whereas fear-avoidance theory asserts that youth become bullies in order to avoid further victimization (Farrington, 1993; Kim, 2001; Park, 2002). Given the prevalence of bullying around the world and its negative effects on children of all ages, what means are the most effective in combating this ‘social evil’? Having reviewed pertinent literature on the probable causes of and influential factors on bullying, while highlighting studies focusing on bullying in both the western and Korean contexts, attention will now turn to the topic of anti-bullying programs and what key elements make such programs effective.

Protecting Our Youth: Components of Effective Anti-Bullying Programs

In describing his own anti-bullying program, Olweus (1993a) noted four general key components: awareness and involvement of adults both in and out of the school environment (e.g., teachers and parents), school-level measures (e.g., school conferences on bully/victim problems, improved supervision during recess and lunch periods, and meetings involving parents and teachers), class-level measures (e.g., anti-bullying rules, role-playing and literature involving the topic of bullying, and cooperative learning), and individual-level measures (e.g., discussion sessions with bullies and victims, including their parents; bystander empowerment and involvement; and if necessary, the removal of the bully or victim from class or school) (p. 64). Olweus (1993a) explained that the overarching goal of his intervention program—and ideally, what should be the goal of any bullying prevention program—is to “reduce as much as possible—ideally to eliminate completely—existing bully/victim problems in and out of the school setting and to prevent the development of new problems” (p. 65). Olweus (1993a) also

stated that anti-bullying programs should not only focus on “direct” bullying (e.g., verbal and physical attacks) but also on addressing “indirect” bullying (e.g., social exclusion).

In 2009, Ttofi and Farrington published the results of a systematic review and meta-analysis on the effectiveness of school-based bullying prevention programs. The authors explained in the introduction to their report that there are a plethora of bullying prevention programs around the world, but emphasized the need to determine which program components were the most effective in preventing bullying, noting that their study was the first systematic review and meta-analysis of its kind. They searched 18 databases and 35 journals and found approximately 600 relevant reports. Of those reports, only 59 found were deemed by the authors to be eligible for their analysis. These reports were evaluations pertaining to 30 different bullying prevention programs, encompassing 25 years of intervention research (from 1983 to 2008). Noteworthy is that the authors incorporated only studies that provided a clear definition of bullying that was “concordant with existing definitions used in bullying research” (Ttofi & Farrington, 2009, p. 14). The authors provided in their report their “standard” definition of bullying which was essentially Olweus’s (1993a) definition of bullying.

Ttofi and Farrington (2009) divided program components into 20 different elements. The results of their meta-analysis indicated that the following elements were the most important components of an effective anti-bullying program: classroom rules against bullying, school conferences and assemblies that provided students information about bullying, classroom management techniques used to detect and deter bullying, peer work (e.g., peer mediation and peer mentoring), providing bullying awareness information to parents, improved playground supervision, disciplinary methods, parent training, and showing students anti-bullying videos. Overall, the meta-analysis found anti-bullying programs to be effective in reducing cases of

bullying and victimization when experimental schools were compared to control schools (in particular, programs based on Olweus's research), with bullying and victimization reduced by 20–23% in the programs evaluated.

In 2011, Ttofi and Farrington again teamed up to produce an updated meta-analysis on effective components of school-based bullying prevention programs. This meta-analysis followed the same methodology as the 2009 study and examined both published and unpublished reports, including all volumes of 35 journals from 1983 to 2009 (the 2009 study included reports up to 2008), and a total of 622 reports involving bullying prevention were found. These 622 reports were narrowed down to 89 reports (compared to 59 reports in the 2009 study) pertaining to 53 different program evaluations. Of these 53 evaluations, 44 program evaluations were used in the final analysis as they provided sufficient information to calculate effect sizes for bullying and victimization. The meta-analysis evaluated studies which used one of the following four types of research designs: randomized experiments, intervention-control comparisons with before-and-after measures of bullying, other intervention-control comparisons, and age-cohort designs. The designs that yielded the most significant overall effect sizes on bullying and/or victimization were: before-and-after quasi-experimental designs (weighted mean $OR = 1.60$, $p < .0001$) on bullying, intervention-control comparisons (weighted mean $OR = 1.43$, $p < .006$) on victimization, age-cohort designs on both bullying (weighted mean $OR = 1.36$, $p < .0001$) and victimization (weighted mean $OR = 1.29$, $p < .0001$). Randomized experiments, which are generally considered “the standard” in terms of experimental design, resulted in the lowest effect sizes of all the four designs with respect to victimization (weighted mean $OR = 1.17$, $p < .05$), while yielding no significant effects on bullying.

The meta-analysis results showed that school-based bullying prevention programs were generally effective, decreasing bullying by 20–23% and decreasing victimization by 17–20%. Ttofi and Farrington (2011) also noted that contrary to the assertions of other researchers such as Smith (2010) that anti-bullying programs have limited impact on older students, their meta-analysis found that such programs do indeed have a larger influence on older students. They postulated that this may be the case since older children have greater cognitive skills, lower levels of impulsivity, and are more rational in their decision-making compared to younger children. Overall, the most effective programs were found to be those that were longer and more intensive in scope and included parent meetings and firm disciplinary measures. With regard to the policy implications of their study, Ttofi and Farrington (2011) noted that it was vital that the development of anti-bullying programs utilize high-quality and evidence-based research, incorporating effective elements from programs that rigorous studies have shown to be successful. The authors also suggested that programs that are based on social learning theory, which recognizes and rewards prosocial behavior while discouraging and punishing antisocial behavior, may help in developing empathy in youth, especially in older children. They also recommended a system of accreditation and quality control mechanisms for anti-bullying programs.

Ttofi and Farrington (2012) revisited their meta-analyses of bullying prevention programs, this time as a response to Smith, Salmivalli, and Cowie's (2012) criticism of the 2011 meta-analysis, raising concerns regarding three specific findings: first, programs that incorporate work with peers have a significant association with greater victimization; second, programs that include strict disciplinary methods have a significant association with lower bullying perpetration and victimization; and third, programs were more influential on older students

compared to younger students. To address these findings further, the authors provided additional information on their original meta-analysis as well as additional detailed analyses concerning effect size, which included the use of heterogeneity tests and weighted regression analyses. Overall, the authors' supplemental analyses presented in this follow-up study supported their original meta-analysis published in 2011. The authors concluded their report by emphasizing the need for continued research on the effectiveness of anti-bullying programs, especially through research that employ randomized experiments to assess the quality of specific intervention components.

Ttofi and Farrington continued their discussion of bullying prevention programs, this time with colleague Fox (Fox, Farrington, & Ttofi, 2012), in a study on the influence of research design, implementation features, and program components. Of the four research designs the authors examined in this study—randomized experiments, intervention/control comparisons utilizing before-and-after measurements of bullying perpetration and victimization, other types of intervention/control comparisons, and age-cohort designs—all were found to be generally effective, although randomized experiments had relatively small effects while quasi-experimental and age-cohort designs had larger effect sizes. As for implementation features, programs that were more intensive and longer in duration were determined to be the most effective. Lastly, in terms of program components, programs with more components, including parent/teacher training and meetings, had large effect sizes. Overall, the researchers noted that their results would serve useful for the design and implementation of future bullying prevention programs.

Having discussed Ttofi and Farrington's (2009, 2011) meta-analyses on effective components of bullying prevention programs, this section will conclude by revisiting the

research of Byongook Moon with respect to using GST as a basis for identifying effective delinquency intervention techniques. Unlike the previous studies by Moon and his colleagues which focused on South Korean students, this study was conducted using a sample of 296 American students selected from two middle schools located in relatively impoverished neighborhoods in the southern United States (Moon & Morash, 2012). The study's main finding was that prior victimization and emotional punishment from teachers were significant predictors of delinquent behavior. Another noteworthy finding was that although students who had experienced strain were more likely to engage in delinquent behavior if they associated with delinquent peers, they were less likely to become involved in violent and property-related delinquency if they exhibited positive relationships with their parents. The researchers concluded their study by emphasizing the important role of parents and teachers in delinquency intervention. In brief, Moon and Morash's (2012) recommendations parallel Ttofi and Farrington's (2009, 2011) research, which highlighted the effectiveness of bullying prevention programs which incorporated the involvement of parents and teachers. Having discussed effective components of anti-bullying programs, this review of the literature will conclude with an overview of major studies on school resource officers (SROs) since the researcher's study focuses on a police-administered anti-bullying presentation, with the inclusion of a police officer as a key player in the study based on the belief (and evidence-based support) that police officers can serve as positive role models for youth.

Police-Youth Relations: The Role of Police Officers in Schools

Not only is bullying a global issue to be dealt with by those working in the field of education, it is a law enforcement issue as well, and many law enforcement agencies around the world are recognizing this—including those in the United States and the Republic of Korea. This

is important since, as discussed earlier, prior research has shown that perpetrators of bullying have a greater propensity to engage in further delinquent and criminal acts throughout their childhood and well into adulthood (Batsche & Knoff, 1994; Farrington, 1991; Moon et al., 2012; Olweus, 1993a; Sourander et al., 2007). As Olweus's (1993a) research on Norwegian children indicated, 60% of former school bullies had at least one conviction on their record when they were in their twenties; furthermore, about 40% of those bullies were convicted multiple times. In short, today's bully has the potential of becoming tomorrow's criminal. Therefore, it is vital to understand the underlying causes of bullying and develop effective prevention and response programs to combat bullying and school violence. In the United States, a promising school-based crime prevention effort is one that utilizes police officers. Commonly known as school resource officers (SROs), these law enforcement personnel and their role in curbing youth crime and fostering amiable police-juvenile relations will be discussed in this section.

To reiterate what was mentioned in the section on relevance and significance of this research project (see Chapter 1), police officers' three basic functions are law enforcement, public order maintenance, and public service (Wilson, 1968). Most officers view their law enforcement role as their primary responsibility, having mixed feelings, or even feelings of disdain, for the other two functions (Moore, 1992). For instance, many officers typically consider service requests from the public, "such as rendering first aid or helping a stranded motorist, as a waste of time and interference with the real job of policing" (Lawrence, 2007, p. 206). This essentially assumes the mindset that law enforcement is not just an officer's primary duty, but her or his *only* duty, an attitude which is far from the truth. Whereas the law enforcement function that the police provide is often times seen as the primary role of police officers (hence, the often used synonym for police officers being 'law enforcement officers') by both officers and

the general public, the other two roles are just as vital, especially the service function. In fact, it is this service role that can be said to be at the heart of policing. To recap Sir Robert Peel's guiding principle on policing: the police and the public are one.

Police officers' role as public servants—as service providers—includes tasks such as helping lost or neglected children, assisting citizens with informational requests, giving law enforcement-related presentations at schools or neighborhood associations, and providing lessons to youth on a variety of topics such as drug and gang resistance, e.g., serving as instructors in the Gang Resistance Education & Training (G.R.E.A.T.) and Drug Abuse Resistance Education (D.A.R.E.) programs. Moore (1992) explains the benefit of the police's service role: first, responding to service requests may help to improve the police's law enforcement function; second, this in turn may lead to increased probabilities of preventing crime; third, the rapport between police officers and the citizenry will be improved; and finally, information gathering by police officers from citizens can be strengthened, which would lead to better crime detection and prevention.

In terms of the police officer's service role and its relation to juveniles, police officers are vested with the responsibility of protecting youth and preventing juvenile delinquency (Sanborn & Salerno, 2005). These two responsibilities are essentially part of a police officer's service function, but are nevertheless indispensable to the law enforcement function as well. For instance, preventing the bullying of one student by another (even if it is merely teasing) may help to prevent further acts of delinquency and criminality that are more serious in scope. Law enforcement personnel who engage youth as mentors or even assume a full-time assignment as school resource officers, ultimately, fulfill a role in which all three police functions—law enforcement, order maintenance, and service—are combined (Lawrence, 2007). That being said,

the role of police officers in schools has expanded in recent years and the impact of SROs is relatively positive from a law enforcement and crime prevention perspective (Lawrence, 2007). For example, schools with law enforcement personnel assigned to them exhibited fewer instances of violence compared to those schools that did not employ any law enforcement or security officers (Miller & Chandler, 2003). Moreover, research has indicated that in some cases, juveniles who have positive perceptions of and positive experiences with police officers may be less likely to engage in delinquent behavior (Flynn & McDonough, 2004; Jackson, 2002; Johnson, 1999). In brief, although some police officers may perceive of their role as law enforcers as their primary function, the service function that officers provide is significant and can have a positive impact on police-citizen relations—and for the purposes of this proposed study, a positive impact on police-juvenile relations.

The Benefits of the SRO Program

The American school resource officer program has its roots in the United Kingdom, just like modern municipal policing in general. School-police liaison programs originated in Liverpool in 1951 and was introduced and adapted in the United States in 1958 and Canada in 1972 (LaLonde, 1995). School liaison officers in Canada are unarmed and focus more on crime prevention and education than on law enforcement duties. Their essential functions include, but are not limited to, counseling and mentoring students, advising staff and students on safety and security measures, conducting lectures on drug and alcohol use, bullying and violence prevention, and other relevant topics (LaLonde, 1995). SROs in American schools more or less fulfill the same duties as their Canadian counterparts, but they are typically armed and carry out traditional law enforcement functions in addition to their service role (Lawrence, 2007). Overall, the presence of SROs and their dual roles as law enforcers and youth mentors have been shown to

have a positive impact on the schools in which they are placed (Flynn & McDonough, 2004; Johnson, 1999; McDevitt & Panniello, 2005).

A study by Johnson (1999), who was recruited as a national consultant by the U.S. Department of Justice, on school violence and the effectiveness of SRO programs examined crimes and disciplinary infractions before and after permanent placement of full-time SROs in public schools in Birmingham, Alabama. Birmingham's SRO program was heavily expanded in 1995 when the city's police department received the Youth Firearm Violence Initiative Grant from the U.S. Department of Justice. The study included nine high schools and eighteen middle schools with full-time SROs. The role of these SROs involved traditional law enforcement functions as well as serving as role models and problem solvers and providing additional support services specific to their assigned schools. The study focused on two primary research questions: Is the Birmingham SRO program successful in fulfilling its stated program goals, and what specific components of the SRO program are actually working (Johnson, 1999, p. 179)? There were five components to the study: first, a qualitative description of the program derived from information acquired from interviews with administrators, supervisors, and SROs; second, questionnaires given to SROs to gauge their perception of the program and issues related to school safety and violence; third, informal interviews with school staff, teachers, and students to assess their perceptions of SROs; fourth, direct observations of interactions between SROs and students, teachers, and administrators; and fifth, an analysis of school incident reports from the SROs and school disciplinary records on file at the schools (Johnson, 1999, p. 179).

Overall, the results of Johnson's (1999) study showed that the number of crimes and disciplinary problems, as well as the number of suspensions related to those incidents, declined after SROs were permanently assigned to the schools. Specifically, the total number of offenses

in the schools declined from 3,267 in the 1994–95 academic year, prior to the assignment of full-time permanent SROs, to 2,710 in the 1995–96 academic year, after the permanent of assignment of SROs. Furthermore, the SROs interviewed exhibited a positive attitude toward their role as SROs, with several noting that they chose to become SROs because of their desire to make a positive impact on students’ lives, while some students referred to their assigned SRO as being “cool” and someone they could open up to and confide in. All school officials interviewed indicated general support for their assigned SRO. In brief, Johnson (1999) concluded her report by stating that the Birmingham SRO program was fulfilling its stated goals and objectives, while making the following recommendations for program improvement: expansion of in-service training for SROs; regular meetings between SROs, school administrators, parents, and community leaders; improved communication between SROs and school administrators; and the hiring of additional SROs.

Like Johnson’s (1999) study, research by Atkinson (2001) indicated that SROs were instrumental in helping teachers and other school staff members deal with students’ criminal and disruptive behavior. Yet another study noted school administrators’ praise of SROs in helping to instill more order within their schools as well as providing a greater level of safety and security from outside threats (Finn, Shively, McDevitt, Lassiter, & Rich, 2005). In short, SROs assist in developing safer educational environments within the schools to which they are assigned (May, Fessel, & Means, 2004), while counseling and mentoring students who may have behavioral and attitudinal problems (Benigni, 2004).

The benefits of SROs are multi-tiered and overall, SRO programs have been shown to be beneficial in the mitigation of crime within the school environment. Not only that, SROs’ presence in schools can also help with the investigation of cases outside of the school. For

example, if SROs are able to develop a rapport with students, which in turn strengthens communication between students and officers, they may be able to acquire vital information that assists them in the investigation of criminal cases in their respective neighborhoods (Lawrence, 2007). In many instances, SROs take the place of guidance counselors and teachers as an adult figure that students can confide in when there is a weak or non-existent relationship between students and their counselors and/or teachers (Finn et al., 2005). Moreover, some school staff members have noted that students are less inclined to lie to SROs than to counselors (Finn et al., 2005).

SROs and the Improvement of Police-Juvenile Relations

Greater interaction between police officers and juveniles in a non-confrontational manner may help to mitigate negative perceptions of police officers by young people, and vice versa, while in turn improving positive perceptions among the two groups. This is where community policing in general, and the SRO program specifically, comes into play, serving as a catalyst for improved interactions and relationships between police officers and youth. In fact, prior research highlights the potential of community policing in developing within youth positive perceptions of police officers (Lieber, Nalla, & Farnsworth, 1998). Community-oriented policing programs such as D.A.R.E. and G.R.E.A.T. and the use of SROs can greatly help to improve police-juvenile relations via greater interaction between the police and juveniles and developing within young people an awareness and understanding of the role of the police in their neighborhoods, and within society as a whole (Lawrence, 2007). Moreover, juveniles who have positive perceptions of and positive experiences with police officers may be less likely to engage in delinquent behavior (Jackson, 2002).

Perhaps the number one factor that will make or break a particular school's SRO program is the personality and qualifications of the SRO assigned to it. "While some officers assigned to the position grow to enjoy and become good at it, some of the least effective programs involved officers who had been forced to become SROs," explained Finn et al. (2005) in their comprehensive evaluation and comparison of 19 different SRO programs (p. 36). Former police officer Carole Moore (2013) recalled one officer she knew who was unfit for the role and responsibilities of an SRO: "One high school in my area had a deputy who refused to ... attempt to build a rapport with the kids with whom he dealt on a daily basis. As a result, neither the administration nor the students respected him" (p. 38). Although there is no standardized SRO personality type, one assistant principal succinctly summarizes the personality of the ideal SRO: "An outgoing, caring, but no-nonsense personality is needed" (cited in Finn et al., 2005, p. 39).

In their research on SRO programs in four school districts, conducted as part of a larger nationwide study on the effectiveness of SRO programs funded by the U.S. Department of Justice, McDevitt and Panniello (2005) surveyed 907 students, focusing on the following two factors: (1) SROs' impact on students' comfort levels in reporting crime and (2) SROs' impact on students' perception of safety. Their research found significant relationships between the number of conversations students had with SROs and students' feelings of comfort in reporting crimes as well as between the students' positive opinions of SROs and their comfort level of reporting crimes, adding that students who developed amiable feelings for the SRO were likely to tell other students that the SRO was someone that they could trust and confide in. McDevitt and Panniello (2005) concluded that an important factor influencing students' comfort level of reporting crimes and perception of safety in their schools was their perception—positive or

negative—of the SRO, recommending that all SROs do their best to foster cordial relations with the students in their respective schools.

In the case of the Birmingham, Alabama, public school system, which has a strong SRO program, SROs were noted as having a deterrent effect on crime and delinquency in the schools, while also promulgating mutual respect and understanding between police officers and students (Johnson, 1999). Birmingham SROs have also been said to have positive relations not only with students and school staff, but also with students' parents, with both parents and teachers expressing strong support for the SRO program (Johnson, 1999). Overall, Birmingham students have a generally positive view of police officers in their schools and consider SROs to be “an extension of school guardianship” (Flynn & McDonough, 2004). The SROs assigned to Birmingham public schools stated that they had been significantly involved in student counseling, with counseling session topics ranging from academic matters to school violence (Johnson, 1999). Ultimately, effective community policing—one that results in strong police-community ties and reduction of crime—is reliant on the development of close personal relationships between the officer and the stakeholders in the community (Flynn & McDonough, 2004; McDonough, 2002). In the case of SROs, their stakeholders are students, teachers, and school administrators.

The discussion above illustrates improved perceptions of police officers by students, but what about SROs' perceptions of young people? Do police officers develop positive attitudes towards youngsters as a result of working as SROs? Due to the dangerous nature of their profession, police tend to view certain types of people as “symbolic assailants,” as potential threats to their lives and the lives of others (Skolnick, 2011). This is compounded by police officers' feelings of isolation from the general public. In the worst-case scenario, these factors

result in a law enforcement officer who is essentially suspicious and untrusting of everyone who isn't a fellow law enforcement officer (LEO). Nevertheless, SROs who had been interviewed by Johnson (1999) for her research on SROs' impact on school violence in Birmingham schools stated that they genuinely became interested in students' welfare, getting to know them on a one-on-one level and furthering a relationship based on trust and mutual respect, while viewing students in a more positive light. Additionally, several of the officers noted that while patrolling the school grounds, they sought to give students words of encouragement to succeed academically and offered congratulatory remarks when students told officers of their accomplishments (Johnson, 1999).

Finn and McDevitt's (2005) comprehensive national assessment of SRO programs across the United States—which consisted of survey research, focus groups, on-site visits, and in-person interviews with SROs, police administrators, school faculty and staff, students, and local government officials—sought to identify “model” programs and the effects of those programs, and was conducted through a nationwide survey and on-site data collection from both established and relatively new SRO programs. The research was funded by a grant from the U.S. Department of Justice Office of Community Oriented Policing Services. In summer 2000, the researchers mailed a survey to a random sample of 454 police departments with SRO programs. Of those departments, 322 responded for a response rate of 71%. In fall 2000, the researchers mailed a second survey to 295 schools and received responses from 108 schools. The survey results indicated that although there were differences among the various SRO programs around the country, there were also similarities (e.g., law enforcement oversight of the programs and training programs for officers assigned as SROs). Most of the schools that responded to the

survey expressed “considerable satisfaction” with their respective SRO programs (Finn & McDevitt, 2005, p. 4).

Noteworthy is Finn and McDevitt’s (2005) discussion of the breakdown of SRO activities. Specifically, the typical SRO will spend one-fourth of her or his time on law enforcement functions, another fourth is spent on teaching, while one-half of her or his time is spent on mentoring (Finn & McDevitt, 2005, pp. 28–29). With regard to SROs’ mentoring activities, they include informal counseling sessions with students and also attendance in extracurricular activities like student clubs, sport events, and school trips. In at least one instance, SROs developed a community service program at their school, which allowed students to perform service activities supervised by SROs in lieu of punitive sanctions for misbehavior (Finn & McDevitt, 2005). The key point is that unlike the typical law enforcement officer whose time is greatly devoted to more “traditional” law enforcement functions, the SRO usually spends *half* of her or his duty day mentoring and counseling youth. This is a significant amount of time spent developing a rapport with the members of the officer’s community (i.e., the school). As one SRO explains, showing genuine concern for students’ welfare, he has always sought to maintain an amicable relationship with students, even those he has had to arrest or discipline (Finn et al., 2005). In the officer’s own words: “I don’t come down too hard on the kids so they will come to me later on [with their problems]” (cited in Finn et al., 2005, p. 87).

It is within the school environment, in which students are not only expected to develop their cognitive intelligence but their “moral intelligence,” where police officers alongside teachers and counselors can have a significant impact. Finn and McDevitt (2005), in their national assessment on SRO programs, noted that many SROs stated that they found themselves engaged in duties that they were not traditionally trained to provide—namely, teaching and

mentoring youth. In the end, the role of the SRO in America's schools is significantly more than providing a law enforcement and security function. As Flynn and McDonough (2004) underscore in their overview of police work with juveniles, an SRO is not merely a hall monitor or security guard, but "a role model, a guidance counselor, a teacher, a problem solver, and a disciplinarian" (p. 212). In brief, SROs become akin to teachers and parents to the students they interact with and thus, one cannot deny the importance of SROs in the academic setting and the positive impact they have on students. Clark (2011) ponders the SROs' ideal relationship to the overall school community, stating, "The SRO should soon be viewed as part of the school family, and not just an outsider who arrests people" (p. 94). As illustrated by the research examined herein, in many cases, SROs are indeed accepted as part of their schools' family.

South Korea's School Police Program

The South Korean equivalent of the SRO and SLO programs of western countries such as the United States, United Kingdom, and Canada is the "School Police" program. The School Police initiative, first implemented in the city of Busan in 2005 to provide for delinquency prevention and youth mentoring in schools, was developed by the Korean National Police Agency and was eventually expanded to encompass approximately 70 schools across the country at the end of the year (Brown, 2006). Unlike SRO programs in western countries, the South Korean School Police program initially did not have police officers that were "officially assigned" to schools, but instead depended upon police officers who volunteered to patrol school grounds on their own time and former teachers to operate programs in their local schools (Choi, 2005; National Police Agency, 2005). The program went through several incarnations over the years since its inception, both in terms of function and name, having been referred to as "School Guardians" and "School Protectors" before reverting back to its original name, "School Police."

The School Police program, in its current incarnation in which a police officer is assigned to a school in her or his jurisdiction to provide counseling to students and help prevent bullying and violence, was implemented nationwide in 2012 as a result of increased incidences of youth suicide due to bullying (Lee, 2016; Shin, 2016). Currently, approximately 1,075 officers serve as School Police Officers (SPO), which represents almost double the number of SPOs four years prior; there were just 514 officers serving as SPOs in 2012 (Lee, 2016; Ministry of Education, 2016, p. 12). Although the School Police program has been in existence for a little over a decade and has received praise from the Korean government and police executives alike, empirical studies evaluating the program's efficacy, including bullying prevention—which is a relatively new objective that ROK police officers have been tasked to officially address—are surprisingly extremely limited (essentially nonexistent).

The most comprehensive statistical report to date on school bullying in South Korea is the *School Violence Survey Results*, issued annually by the ROK Ministry of Education. The study is conducted by the Ministry of Education (MOE) in partnership with the Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI) and Korea Education Research Information Service (KERIS). *2016 Second Wave School Violence Survey Results* (Ministry of Education, 2016), the most recent of such reports, was released in early 2016 covering survey results administered between September and October 2015 and recapping data from previous years, starting from 2012, when the survey was first implemented. The 2015 survey was administered to 412 students ranging from fourth-year elementary school students to second-year high school students, with 390 students completing the survey for a response rate of 94.6% (Ministry of Education, 2016). The report contains information and statistics on victims, bullies and bystanders/witnesses, reporting rates by victims and bystanders, descriptive statistics pertaining to government-supported school

bullying prevention measures, and other relevant statistics (e.g., number of SPOs nationwide). The statistics do indicate a general reduction in bullying incidents between 2012 and 2015, although does not stipulate which specific programs attributed to the decline and to what degree.

As comprehensive as this report is, it is nevertheless limited in terms of information on police-administered programs such as the School Police program and Youth Police Academies. Overall, there were only four specific references to the police in the entire report. The first reference made a brief note of Youth Police Academies, which were listed together with other similar school-based programs in a section providing the number of schools that participated in “shoulder-to-shoulder school” campaigns (Ministry of Education, 2016, p. 10). The second reference about the police was in the section covering future goals and the expansion of “school bullying prevention infrastructures” to include the assignment of at least one “child safety officer” (i.e., school police officer) or alternatively, a “military alternative social worker” (i.e., conscripted males who carry out their required two-year military service as a social worker instead of as a uniformed member of one the military branches due to special exemptions that bar them from service in the ROK armed forces) to each school in the country; this was a one-sentence blurb that did not go into any specific details on implementation (Ministry of Education, 2016, p. 10). Third, the police were mentioned in the section on “establishment of societal response systems pertaining to school bullying,” which listed as an “excellent example” the cooperation among various local government agencies and organizations including the police in their efforts to deal with school bullying; no details or explanation of this “excellence” was given (Ministry of Education, 2016, p. 11). The fourth and final mention of the police is in a footnote in the section on “school safety infrastructures,” noting the number of law enforcement personnel

officially assigned as School Police Officers between 2012 and 2015 (Ministry of Education, 2016, p. 12).

As for official police publications and media (see National Police Agency, 2015; Seoul Metropolitan Police Agency, 2015), they merely praise police efforts in combatting school bullying, but stop short of offering empirical support for the effectiveness of police anti-bullying initiatives such as the School Police program or Youth Police Academies. Therefore, due to the lack of empirical studies examining the efficacy of South Korean bullying prevention programs—especially programs involving police officers—the overarching goal of this study is to contribute to the currently limited knowledgebase on this very important topic, while employing an anti-bullying program developed based on findings from prior research on “what works?” in bullying prevention.

As discussed earlier, the promise or evident success of various SRO programs across the United States illustrates an important role that police officers can play in the lives of young people. Moreover, by extension of serving as mentors and positive role models for students, police officers can help to mitigate bullying, school violence, and other forms of delinquency. This rationale fuels the researcher’s interest in pursuing the study of the potential of ROK police officers serving in a similar capacity as role models to students, while combating bullying and delinquency in South Korean schools. To quote Johnson (1999) from her study on Birmingham, Alabama, SRO programs, “Society has a vested interest, opportunity, and obligation to create, monitor, improve, and evaluate school-based prevention programs” (p. 173). As a member of society—be it American society, Korean society, or human society as a whole—the researcher would like to play his part, even if just a small one, in the development and improvement of school-based bullying and delinquency prevention programs via his dissertation research.

Summary

This literature review examined research focusing on four areas related to the current study. These topics were bullying in South Korean schools, with a focus on the explanatory ability of key criminological theories—in particular general strain theory and general theory of crime (social control theory)—on school bullying, the influence of attitudes about bullying on bullying behavior, factors that make a bullying prevention program effective, and the role of police officers in American schools. A brief history and summary of the current state of South Korea's School Police program was also given, while highlighting the lack of empirical research on this program and other youth-centric initiatives conducted by the Korean police. To reiterate, the objective of the researcher's dissertation study is to examine the effects of a police-conducted anti-bullying presentation on South Korean high school students' attitudes about bullying as well as their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. Taking into account the topics discussed above, and the dearth of research in this specific area of juvenile justice and comparative criminal justice, this study seeks to fill in the gap currently existent in academic and scientific literature on the topic of police-administered bullying prevention programs in the ROK. To elaborate, although extensive research has been done on school resource officers in the United States and other western nations such as the United Kingdom and Canada, SRO-like programs in South Korea, in comparison, are relatively in their infancy and the role of ROK law enforcement officers in school-based prevention initiatives is very limited.

In brief, there is a lack of empirical research on the role of police officers in South Korean schools, in particular, with respect to bullying and school violence. Furthermore, although studies have been done on bullying in the Republic of Korea, there is a scarcity of research on school-based programs designed to quell bullying in the ROK, especially those

conducted by ROK law enforcement personnel. As stated in Chapter 1, ROK police officers are only beginning to become more actively engaged in the school environment as a result of the ROK national government's Four Social Evils initiative. That being said, the overarching goal of this research, the methodology of which will be discussed in detail in the next chapter, is to plant the 'seed' of South Korean police-centric bullying prevention research into the criminal justice knowledgebase.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of a police-conducted bullying awareness presentation on South Korean high school students' attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying. The rationale behind this is that attitudes about bullying can and do influence actual bullying behavior, as discussed in the literature review. Due to time and budget constraints, this study focused on the presentation's effect on attitudes only and not on long-term change, if any, in students' bullying behavior. Such a research project would have required time and financial resources beyond the scope of this study. Nevertheless, given the paucity of empirical research on the topic of South Korean law enforcement's role in anti-bullying initiatives, and the lack of such programs that have an actual foundation in evidence-based research, this study will strive to serve as a starting point, to open the door to further research on this topic. In the near future, given the availability of additional time and resources, the researcher hopes to conduct further research in this area (e.g., revisiting the two schools studied and performing a multi-year longitudinal study on the long-term effects that the *Stand By Me* anti-bullying program has on bullying attitudes and behavior and/or assist Korean law enforcement agencies to further develop their own anti-bullying initiatives), as well as encourage other academics and researchers in the fields of education and criminal justice to do the same.

The study participants included a ROK police officer, who served as a presenter, facilitator, and consultant for the *Stand By Me* project, and students from two different high

schools in South Korea, who served as the research subjects for the study. Relevant sections of Williams and Guerra's (2007) Student School Survey, a previously validated survey instrument, was adapted for use, translated into Korean, and administered to the student participants. The modified and translated Student School Survey was named the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey (SAPS) to highlight its focus on students' attitudes and perceptions with regard to school bullying and other related factors. The SAPS retained most of the original Student School Survey's questions and attitudinal scales, while removing questions pertaining to actual bully, bystander, and victim behavior and experiences (these were removed at the behest of the participating schools due to such questions being considered "too sensitive"). Additionally, a new scale consisting of four Likert-type responses was created and incorporated into the survey to gauge students' bystander intervention willingness.

The four research questions that were addressed via the data acquired from the SAPS are as follows:

1. Does an anti-bullying presentation conducted by a ROK police officer have a significant effect on South Korean high school students' attitudes toward bullying?
2. Does an anti-bullying presentation conducted by a ROK police officer have a significant effect on South Korean high school students' willingness to intervene to stop bullying?
3. Do South Korean high school students' attitudes about bullying help to explain their willingness to intervene to stop bullying?
4. Besides attitudes about bullying, do other specific factors—i.e., social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control—help to explain South Korean high school students' willingness to intervene to stop bullying?

In brief, this quantitative study utilized a nonequivalent groups design with a treatment group that was administered a police anti-bullying presentation and a posttest survey, and a comparison group that was only administered the survey. Presented in this chapter is a detailed explanation of the methodology employed in this study as well as a brief discussion on the development and format of the anti-bullying presentation that was implemented as part of the study.

Participants

The target population of the study is South Korean high school students. The researcher was a Fulbright Grantee to the Republic of Korea, and served as a Fulbright English Teaching Assistant (ETA) at a South Korean high school in 2008–09. Since then, he has kept in regular contact with the Fulbright-Korea staff. Thus, the researcher had access to personnel and staff at the Korean-American Educational Commission (KAEC), the ROK's Fulbright Office, whom he contacted to assist with acquiring student participants. Research participants were selected in consultation with the KAEC. After a lengthy recruitment process that lasted nearly four months and yielded a total of 16 declinations from potential participating schools, two high schools that hosted Fulbright ETAs eventually expressed interest in participating in the study; one school was designated the treatment group school while the other was designated the comparison group school. The two schools were similar in terms of demographics (e.g., student population, gender composition, type of school) and agreed to provide at least 50 students each for participation in the research for a total number of approximately 100 student participants. The total number of participants was 115 students; 60 students from the comparison group school and 55 students from the treatment group school.

This ‘streamlined’ approach to making the bullying prevention presentation a one-shot lecture and discussion session and selecting about 50 students from each of the two schools to conduct the survey—and in the case of the treatment group school, the anti-bullying presentation—stemmed from the increased likelihood of appealing to potential host schools and acquiring student participants for the study. Requesting from the schools a “large” number of students and multiple days/sessions to conduct the research on-site resulted in negative responses from several of the schools initially approached to serve as host schools for the study. To elaborate, each of the study components—the anti-bullying presentation and survey—required students to take time away from their studies to participate, as well as time away from teachers to conduct their classes. Thus, the researcher did not desire to take extensive amounts of time away from students’ studies (nor did he want to impose upon the generosity of the school principals and teachers who would make available their schools and classrooms for participation in the study), although the researcher expressed to potential participants his expectation that participation in the study would be of educational and personal benefit and an enriching experience for those involved, in particular the students who would participate in the *SBM* presentation. Furthermore, it was the researcher’s desire not to impose upon the generosity of the police officers who agreed to serve as presenters during the study and take too much time away from their official duties. On a related note, of the two police officers who volunteered to help with the project, only one actually ended up serving as a presenter for the *SBM* presentation due to scheduling conflicts with the second officer, although she remained to assist with the project in an advisory capacity. The researcher left open the possibility that principals and teachers might have become more receptive to making available additional students for participation in the study, and that the number of participants would increase beyond the minimum threshold of

100. In the end, 115 students—15 more beyond the minimum—participated in the study. Further discussion regarding the representativeness of the sample to the target population is delineated in the limitations section at the conclusion of this chapter.

Sampling Method

Student participants were selected through availability sampling with the assistance and recommendation of the KAEC and participating schools. Specifically, the KAEC Executive Director and her staff assisted the researcher by introducing him to principals, teachers, and ETAs of Fulbright-contracted high schools. The researcher specifically requested that at least two schools at a minimum be selected to participate, with one school serving as the treatment group (i.e., administered the *SBM* presentation, then posttest survey) and one serving as the comparison group (i.e., administered the posttest survey only). As stated above, the recruitment process ended with two schools expressing interest in partaking in the study, fulfilling the minimum requirement for having one school as the source of subjects for the treatment group and the other school serving as the source of subjects for the comparison group, with the rationale being that having the two groups selected from two different schools would avoid problems with contamination, i.e., when the comparison group is influenced in some way by the treatment group (Bachman & Schutt, 2012). Priority was placed on first acquiring a school willing to serve as the treatment group. Thereafter, taking into account the demographics of the treatment group school, a comparison group school was sought in terms of being a close match to the treatment group school. In consultation with the schools' teachers, student participants were selected via availability sampling based on the willingness of specific teachers to give the researcher access to their classes and students for the duration of the study, yielding a total of 60 students from the comparison group school and 55 students from the treatment group school for

an overall sample size of 115 students. In the comparison group school, students were surveyed in their individual classes, while in the treatment group school, all participating students were administered the survey in a large group setting in the school auditorium immediately after the conclusion of the anti-bullying presentation.

Ethical Considerations and Confidentiality

After review and approval of the dissertation proposal by the researcher's dissertation committee and the criminal justice Ph.D. program chair, an IRB protocol was prepared in early February 2016. The IRB protocol was then reviewed and approved by the dissertation chair and Department of Justice and Human Services IRB representative. Thereafter, the IRB protocol, along with the dissertation proposal, survey instrument, consent and assent forms, study introduction letters (for school faculty and staff, students and parents, and police officers), and permission letter from the Korean-American Education Commission authorizing research at the two test sites—Mokpo Jungang High School and Communal Vision High School—were submitted to the university's Institutional Review Board. The research protocol was approved February 29, 2016 by an expedited procedure and was determined to meet the criteria of 45 CFR 46.404, i.e., research not involving greater than minimal risk in children.

Hatch (2002) makes note of three general ethical considerations with respect to doing qualitative research (also applicable to quantitative research directly involving human subjects): first, the need to be sensitive to vulnerable populations; second, the imbalance of power between researcher and participant; and third, the risks to participants. The researcher kept in mind each of these considerations throughout the study and mitigated the chance of them occurring. For instance, prior to conducting the study, the researcher visited both schools to hold an information session to disclose the purpose of the study to the participants and their parents, informing them

of the voluntary nature of the study and addressing any questions and concerns that they had. The school principal and a teacher from each school assisted the researcher in interpreting the verbal instructions in Korean and answering students and parents' questions. Parents and students were asked to complete informed consent forms and assent forms, respectively, but were not pressured to do so; the forms provided to students and their parents were written in Korean, translated from the original English by a professional translator and proofread by the researcher and three colleagues who were native Korean speakers. The consent form and assent form noted the right of participants to leave the study at any time, the purpose of the study and methods to be used in acquiring data, protection of participants' confidentiality, risks involved in the study, and expected benefits of the study for the participants themselves and for South Korean youth as a whole (Creswell, 2013, p. 153). As stated in the consent/assent forms, participants were also told verbally that due to the voluntary nature of the study, they could choose to drop out of the research project at any time for any reason, with no questions asked. The Korean-American Educational Commission and participating schools granted the researcher the permission to mention the names of the schools in the study. Nonetheless, participants' identities will remain anonymous; individual students will not be identified by name anywhere in this report or any other subsequent written report or presentation prepared by the researcher that utilizes the data from this study.

Prior to and during data collection, the researcher sought to develop a strong rapport with the student participants and other concerned parties (e.g., police officers, teachers, school administrators, and participants' parents), and occasionally reiterated to them the purpose of the research and how the findings would be used. The researcher has resided in South Korea for eight years and has been acclimated to Korean culture and society and is thus fully aware of

cultural norms and differences between Koreans and Americans. Thus, the researcher did not anticipate any major concerns with regard to cultural conflicts, nor did any such conflicts arise through the course of the study. Creswell (2013) cautions researchers against “using” participants and leaving “without giving back” (p. 58). To avoid this, the researcher provided rewards and incentives for the students who participated in the study by acknowledging and thanking them for their participation in the acknowledgements section of the dissertation (individual participants’ names have been withheld to ensure anonymity) and provided all participants with thank you gifts in addition to certificates of participation in the case of the treatment group. The ROK police officers who helped with the *Stand By Me* project either as consultants or presenters received a nominal consultation fee and certificates of appreciation for services rendered.

Upon completion of the study, the researcher conducted a debriefing with all participating students in their respective schools. This debriefing recapped the purpose and intent of the study, asked respondents to evaluate the various components of the study (e.g., the survey instrument and presentation) and to offer suggestions for improvement for future research, as well as provided a venue for participants to express any concerns if they experienced any emotional or psychological harm as a result of the study (no such concerns were expressed by participants from either school). In the end, ensuring the safety of participants and reducing any risk of harm to them throughout the study was always paramount to the researcher. In that respect, the researcher requested from the schools that at least one teacher was present in the classroom/auditorium or within immediate access during the presentation and survey sessions to assist the researcher and police officer in case a student experienced any difficulties during the study. In the comparison group school, at least two teachers were present in the classroom

throughout the survey sessions, which were conducted during individual class sessions. In the treatment group school, two teachers were also present at all times throughout the presentation and survey session. To reiterate, participation in the study was voluntary and participants were reminded of this by the researcher and their teachers, and also told that they could decline to participate at any time for any reason.

The utmost care has been taken to ensure participants' confidentiality and protect their privacy. Hardcopy data (e.g., survey instruments and the researcher's handwritten notes) have been stored under lock-and-key in the researcher's office, while digital data (e.g., any notes, datasets, and other relevant information saved on an electronic device) have been stored on the researcher's office and home computers as well as on a portable hard drive to ensure there are back-ups of the information in case the data is accidentally deleted on the primary storage device (office computer); all computers and storage devices where the digital files are stored have been password-protected to ensure confidentiality of the participants' personal information. All such hardcopy documents and digital files will be kept for no more than five years after completion of the research project and successful defense of the dissertation. Documents will be shredded and digital files will be permanently deleted after that time. A confidentiality/privacy statement was included on the student assent form and parental consent form.

Instruments

Data on students' moral approval of bullying, bystander intervention willingness, social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, informal social control, and demographic information (name of school, gender, age, and grade level) were collected via the use of written surveys distributed to the participating high school students. Both the comparison and treatment groups were administered the same survey. The four research

questions were addressed with data derived from this survey. Since this survey primarily focused on gauging respondents' attitudes, thoughts, and perceptions (as opposed to actions and behaviors), it was entitled the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey (abbreviated as SAPS).

Adaptation of the Student School Survey

The survey used for the study was a modified version of the Student School Survey developed by Williams and Guerra (2007). The survey instrument was pilot tested for validity and reliability issues prior to full implementation in Colorado's 2005 Bullying Prevention Initiative (BPI), a three-year, \$8.6 million project funded by the Colorado Trust, which sought to evaluate a statewide initiative to improve both youths and adults' willingness to intervene to stop bullying. The Student School Survey is a 70-item measure which assesses frequency of bullying perpetration, victimization, and bystander behavior. The instrument also includes scales measuring social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived problem of bullying at school, perceived peer support, self-esteem, moral approval of bullying, and informal social control. Williams and Guerra (2007) provided Cronbach's alpha scores for the following measures: bullying perpetration ($\alpha = .73$), moral approval of bullying ($\alpha = .93$), school climate ($\alpha = .84$), and perceived peer support ($\alpha = .79$). Although the authors did not provide specific Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the remaining scales (i.e., social cohesion and trust, perceived problem of bullying at school, bystander behavior, victimization, self-esteem, and informal social control), they did note that all scales of the survey exhibited "acceptable reliabilities" ($\alpha > .70$).

For the purposes of this study, the primary measure of interest is the moral approval of bullying scale, a ten-item Likert-type measure which asks students whether they think certain situations are "wrong or okay" (e.g., is it wrong or okay when students spread rumors and lies about other students behind their back?). The SAPS also used the Student School Survey's social

cohesion and trust scale, school climate scale, perceived peer support scale, self-esteem scale, and informal social control scale. An additional scale measuring willingness to intervene in a bullying incident was included in the survey. This ‘bystander intervention willingness’ scale is a modification of one of the Student School Survey’s informal social control sub-scales. The original sub-scale contained four questions asking participants what they think *other students* would do in certain bullying situations. The bystander intervention willingness scale instead asked students to respond based on what they themselves would do in those situations. This new scale, still containing four questions, modified the wording of the question prompt from “Think about what *most students in your school* would do in the following situations” to “Think about what *you* would do in the following situations.” Each measure was scored using the same scoring criteria used by Williams and Guerra (2007) in their study. Excluded from the SAPS were the following four scales that were also contained in the Student School Survey: perceived problem of bullying at school, bullying perpetration, bully bystander behavior, and bully victimization. These scales were removed at the request of the Korean-American Educational Commission and the participating schools due to the “sensitive” nature of the questions asked. As for demographic variables, besides the name of their school, the following demographic information was also requested from students on the survey form: gender, age, and grade level. Since all students participating in the study were of Korean descent, race/ethnicity was excluded as a factor in the study and respondents were not asked to identify their race/ethnicity in the survey. A detailed description of each of the variables and scales used in the survey is provided in the section covering data analysis. A copy of the survey can be found in Appendix 8.

The survey instrument, parental consent forms, adolescent (student) assent forms, and study introduction/information sheets were translated by professional and certified Korean-

English translators per Nova Southeastern University's IRB directives. These translated documents were also proofread by the researcher, who has an intermediate proficiency in spoken and written Korean, and his teaching assistants (native Korean speakers) at the Catholic University of Daegu to check for clarity, typographical and grammatical errors, and accuracy of translation.

Pretest of Instrument

The translated survey was reviewed and pretested by a team of five university students and two high school students who were acquainted with the researcher. The reviewers were given the instrument in a simulated survey session with instructions to complete the survey provided verbally and in writing (i.e., the instruction prompt on the first page of the survey instrument), and were asked to provide feedback on the content and format of the survey. The revisions to the translated survey and supporting documents incorporated the feedback provided by the seven reviewers and included changes made to some of the wording for the sake of clarity or what the reviewers determined to be mistranslations after comparing the translation to the original English, as well as reformatted (e.g., font, text, margins) for ease of readability. After revisions were made, a second round of proofreading and pretesting was conducted by two university students and two high school students, with final review by the researcher.

***Stand By Me* Presentation Development**

The title of the anti-bullying presentation that was administered as part of this study is *Stand By Me: Bullying Prevention and Bystander Empowerment*, a title which emphasizes that the prevention of bullying—be it physical, verbal, relational, or cyber—is not an individual effort, but a team effort. The project's mission statement, as implied in the title, is: "You are not alone. We can stop bullying and school violence *together*." To elaborate, the presentation focused on

imbuing in students an anti-bullying mindset, while empowering them to become actively involved in bullying prevention initiatives in their respective schools. In that respect, the presentation's goals and objectives were multi-tiered, emphasizing three aspects of bullying: the bullies themselves, victims of bullying, and bystanders. Special attention was paid to this latter category. The presentation, which was administered by a ROK police officer, addressed these three types of individuals and sought to encourage students to be proactive in being 'anti-bullies' should they find themselves in any of these three roles. Overall, the primary objective was to alter students' attitudes about bullying, i.e., making them less tolerant of bullying in their schools, while encouraging them to intervene to prevent incidents of bullying they may directly witness or be aware of. In brief, emphasizing the traditional value of collectivism inherent in Korean culture, the overarching message that was conveyed to students participating in the presentation was that "we are all in this together."

The presentation was developed based on programs (primarily from the U.S. and other western countries) which utilized "best practices" in bullying intervention and prevention, and "what works?" research on bullying (see Barton, 2006; Coloroso, 2009; Olweus, 1993a), while adapting and modifying the content to suit a Korean audience. The researcher also worked with colleagues with experience in law enforcement and education to develop the presentation. The program that was implemented for the purposes of this study was a one-shot presentation conducted by a ROK police officer within a two-hour time frame as this was the extent in terms of time and resources the treatment group school was willing provide. In brief, this was not a comprehensive program spanning multiple sessions over a period of several months as most anti-bullying programs are designed to be for the purposes of affecting long-term behavioral change; this study was focused on short-term attitudinal effects only. Thus, due to the abridged nature of

the presentation compared to a comprehensive months-long program, the researcher, in consultation with police officers and teachers, selected those topics and activities that in his expert opinion were deemed ‘relevant’ and ‘worthy’ to present to students within the allotted two-hour time frame. After the conclusion of the presentation and Q&A session with the police officer who led the presentation, the student participants were administered the posttest survey. When students returned their surveys to either the researcher or one of the two teachers that were present, they received their ‘thank you’ gifts consisting of an anti-bullying workbook, *Stand By Me* bookmark, and lapel pin. Once all surveys were collected, a brief closing ceremony was held in which the police officer who conducted the presentation, with the assistance of two teachers, presented students with their certificates of participation. A more detailed discussion on the content and implementation of the *Stand By Me* presentation, as well as the presentation’s strengths and weaknesses, and suggestions for improvement are delineated in Chapter 5.

Once the participating schools were selected and the length of the presentation determined, the researcher established the goal of completing the field research component of the study (i.e., bullying awareness presentation and survey sessions) within the course of one semester—specifically, the spring 2016 semester. The principals of both Mokpo Jungang High School and Communal Vision High School initially expressed their desire to have the study conducted in April 2016, although due to the scheduling of students’ midterm examination period, the presentation and survey session at MJHS had to be postponed to May 2016. In short, the survey session was administered at CVHS first in April 2016, then the presentation and survey session was administered a month later at MJHS. Originally, this study was to be conducted with the assistance of two Korean law enforcement officers serving as presenters for the *SBM* presentation. Because the date of the presentation at MJHS was pushed back, one

officer had to drop out of the project—at least as a presenter, although she remained involved in an advisory capacity—due to a scheduling conflict.

Procedures

This study employed a nonequivalent groups design with a designated treatment group and comparison group. To elaborate, two high schools with similar student composition were selected with one school serving as the source for the treatment group and one as the source for the comparison group (i.e., aggregate matching). The quantitative component of the study was quasi-experimental in that the two high schools—and thereafter, which specific classrooms and students from the two schools—were not randomly selected but selected via availability sampling in consultation with KAEC/Fulbright executive staff, school principals, and teachers. Each of the two schools that expressed interest in participating in the study agreed to provide at least 50 students (for a total sample size of at least 100 students) as research participants. The actual number of student participants was 115; 60 students from the comparison group school and 55 students from the treatment group school. The treatment group was administered the police anti-bullying presentation, and thereafter, completed the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey examining their attitudes about bullying and willingness to intervene in a bullying incident, and other key variables. The comparison group was only administered the survey without the presentation.

Since there was only one test period (i.e., the posttest survey) for both groups, keeping track of students' attendance was unnecessary as it would be if this had been a repeated measures design with multiple survey sessions. Thus, students were not required to identify themselves on the survey forms, whether by means of their actual name, student ID number, or a randomly assigned identification number. The only identifier students were asked to write on the survey

form was the name of their respective schools, so that the researcher could distinguish between the forms from the treatment group and those from the comparison group. Thus, once the survey forms were completed and collected, it became highly improbable to directly link an individual survey form back to an individual student, thus ensuring students' anonymity; the only way for someone to establish such a link is to conduct a detailed comparison of students' handwriting samples from the survey forms and assent forms. Nevertheless, all of the information on students' surveys has been kept confidential and accessible only to the researcher for the purpose of data input and analysis. When not being reviewed by the researcher, the survey forms are stored under lock-and-key in the researcher's office. A privacy/confidentiality statement was included on student assent forms and parental consent forms.

Once the survey was completed by both groups, a comparison of the treatment and comparison groups' posttest scores were made to examine the overall effectiveness of the *Stand By Me* bullying prevention presentation (i.e., was there a statistically significant difference between the two groups' posttest scores?). Figure 1 depicts a visual representation of the nonequivalent groups design that was used in the study.

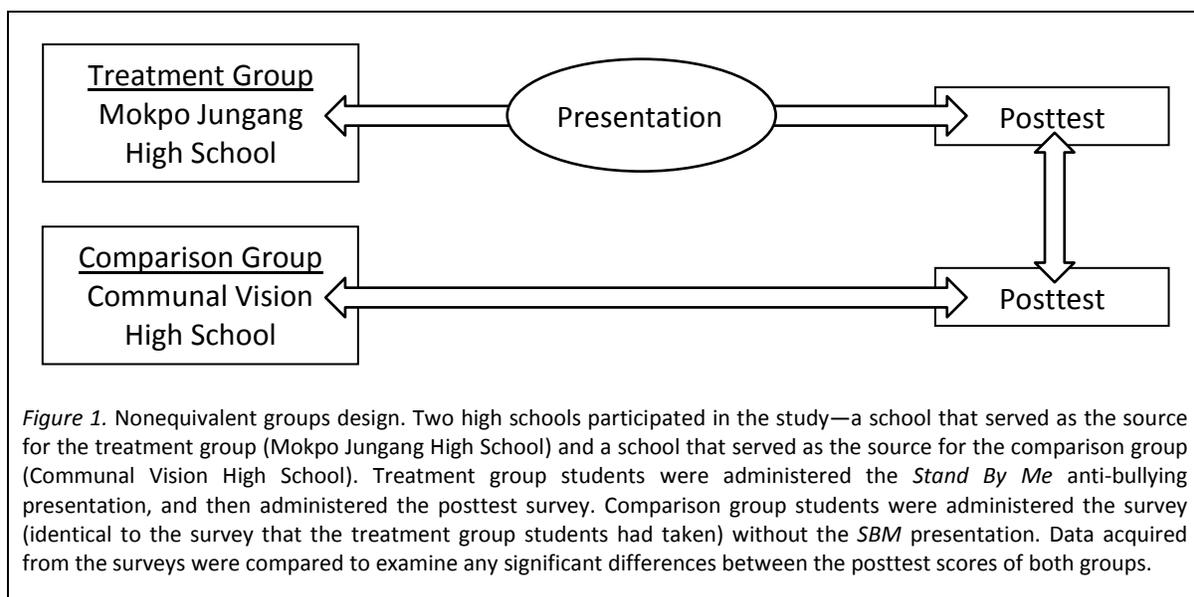


Figure 1. Nonequivalent groups design. Two high schools participated in the study—a school that served as the source for the treatment group (Mokpo Jungang High School) and a school that served as the source for the comparison group (Communal Vision High School). Treatment group students were administered the *Stand By Me* anti-bullying presentation, and then administered the posttest survey. Comparison group students were administered the survey (identical to the survey that the treatment group students had taken) without the *SBM* presentation. Data acquired from the surveys were compared to examine any significant differences between the posttest scores of both groups.

Data Analysis

The quantitative data derived from the surveys were analyzed via independent-samples t tests, Mann-Whitney U tests, and bivariate and multiple regression analyses using SPSS. Below is a review of the four research questions addressed through quantitative analysis of the survey data and the specific statistical analyses that were conducted to answer each question. Significance levels for all statistical tests were set at .05 (two-tailed test). The first two questions addressed the primary focus of the study—whether a police anti-bullying presentation had an effect on South Korean high school students’ attitudes toward bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying—and were examined using independent-samples t tests and Mann-Whitney U tests. Despite the robustness of independent-samples t tests, because of concerns with certain t test assumptions (i.e., issues with skewness and kurtosis), Mann-Whitney U tests were also conducted to corroborate the results of the t tests. Although it is possible that listening to an anti-bullying presentation administered by a law enforcement officer would lower students’ approval of bullying and increase their likelihood to intervene to stop bullying, the researcher did not want to dismiss the possibility that the opposite could occur—i.e., students may very well have exhibited more pro-bully attitudes after listening to the presentation and/or be more unwilling to intervene in a bullying incident—a non-directional, two-tailed test of significance was used. The third and fourth research questions were ancillary and sought to examine the relationships between several independent variables, including moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness. These questions were examined via bivariate regression and three types of multiple regression, including simultaneous multiple regression, stepwise multiple regression, and hierarchical multiple regression. Presented below are the four research questions and an explanation of the statistical tests that were used to address each question:

1. Does an anti-bullying presentation conducted by a ROK police officer have a significant effect on South Korean high school students' attitudes toward bullying?

This question was addressed by comparing the 'moral approval of bullying' posttest scores of the treatment group and comparison group using an independent-samples *t* test and Mann-Whitney *U* test.

2. Does an anti-bullying presentation conducted by a ROK police officer have a significant effect on South Korean high school students' willingness to intervene to stop bullying?

This question was addressed by comparing the 'bystander intervention willingness' posttest scores of the treatment group and comparison group using an independent-samples *t* test and Mann-Whitney *U* test.

3. Do South Korean high school students' attitudes about bullying help to explain their willingness to intervene to stop bullying?

This question was addressed by first creating a bivariate regression model examining the effect of moral approval of bullying (MAB) on bystander intervention willingness (BIW). For this particular research question, MAB served as the independent variable, as opposed to serving as a dependent variable as it was in the first research question. To mitigate the effects of extreme outliers present in the MAB data set, a winsorized version of the data was used with bivariate regression models created for both the original and winsorized versions of the MAB data. A correlation matrix was also produced to show the correlations among the variables.

4. Besides attitudes about bullying, do other specific factors—i.e., social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control—help to explain South Korean high school students' willingness to intervene to stop bullying?

This question was addressed by first creating a bivariate regression model examining the effect of the other independent variables (attitude/perception scales) included in the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey on bystander intervention willingness. Bivariate regression models were created for each of the other independent variables besides moral approval of bullying—i.e., social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control—with bystander intervention willingness serving as the dependent variable. To mitigate the effects of extreme outliers present in the school climate data set, a winsorized version of the data was used with bivariate regression models created for both the original and winsorized versions of the school climate data.

Second, two multiple linear regression analyses were conducted; the first using the original MAB data set and the second using the winsorized MAB dataset, with BIW serving as the dependent variable for both analyses. Only four of the six independent variables (e.g., moral approval of bullying, perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control) were entered into the models; social cohesion and trust and school climate were excluded from the multiple regression analyses since they did not yield statistically significant results in the bivariate linear regression analyses. The independent variables were entered into SPSS via the “enter method” and missing variables were excluded pairwise to maximize the sample sizes for each pairing of the dependent variable and independent variables.

Third, two stepwise multiple regression analyses were conducted; the first using the original MAB data set and the other using the winsorized MAB dataset, with BIW serving as the dependent variable for both analyses. As with the multiple linear regression models, social cohesion and trust and school climate were excluded from the analyses. The independent variables were entered into SPSS via the “stepwise method” and missing

variables were excluded pairwise to maximize the sample sizes for each pairing of the dependent variable and independent variables.

Fourth, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted, which included two demographic variables (i.e., age and gender) in the analysis to see if they had any significant explanatory power over BIW. Like the previous analyses, BIW served as the dependent variable. Based on the results of the simultaneous multiple regression and stepwise multiple regression, perceived peer support and moral approval of bullying did not have any significant explanatory power over BIW and were therefore excluded from the hierarchical multiple regression analysis. For this particular analysis, informal social control and self-esteem, along with age and gender, served as the independent variables. The variable of gender was dummy coded (female = 0, male = 1). A correlation matrix was produced for all of the above analyses to show the correlations among the variables.

The primary independent variable in this study was the *Stand By Me* anti-bullying presentation, and was examined via a nonequivalent groups design comparing posttest scores of the treatment and comparison groups. Effects of the *SBM* presentation on students' attitudes toward bullying and their willingness to intervene were examined by comparing any significant mean differences between the two groups. As mentioned earlier, the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey, a survey developed from a modified version of Williams and Guerra's (2007) Student School Survey, was used in the study. The conceptual definitions and operationalization of each of the variables included in the survey are detailed below. The survey instrument is included in Appendix 8.

Social cohesion and trust. Social cohesion and trust is defined as the degree to which one trusts and gets along with other students, teachers, and staff in her/his school. Assessment of

social cohesion and trust was via a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from “really disagree” to “really agree” and asking respondents about how well they trusted and got along with their peers, teachers, and school staff. The scale consisted of seven items with each item listing a statement about the respondents’ school (e.g., students in my school can be trusted, students in my school generally get along well with each other, and this is a pretty close-knit school where everyone looks out for each other). A scale score was created by summing the scores from the seven items. Higher scores indicated greater social cohesion and trust, while lower scores indicated weaker social cohesion and trust. Social cohesion and trust is abbreviated as SCT in this report; for ease of readability when the phrase is used multiple times in the same sentence or consecutive set of sentences or paragraphs, the abbreviation will be used in lieu of the entire phrase.

School climate. Perception of school climate, sometimes referred to simply as ‘school climate’ in this report, is defined as one’s perception of her/his personal connection towards her/his school and her/his attitudes toward teachers, staff, administrators, and school policy. Assessment of school climate was via a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from “really disagree” to “really agree” and asking respondents to what degree they agreed or disagreed with statements about their schools based on their own personal experiences. The scale consisted of nine items with each item listing a statement related to the respondents’ school (e.g., my teachers respect me, the principal asks students about their ideas at my school, and my school is a good place to be). A scale score was created by summing the scores from the nine items. Higher scores indicated a more positive perception of school climate, while lower scores indicated a more negative perception of school climate. School climate is abbreviated as SC in this report; for ease of readability when the phrase is used multiple times in the same sentence or consecutive set of sentences or paragraphs, the abbreviation will be used in lieu of the entire phrase.

Perceived peer support. Perceived peer support is defined as one's perception of the degree to which her/his classmates care about her/him. Assessment of perceived peer support was via a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from "no, not at all" to "yes, completely" and asking respondents about how they felt about students their age. The scale consisted of six items with each item listing a statement about the respondents' peers (e.g., students my age really care about what happens to me, students my age think bad things about me). A scale score was created by summing the scores from the six items (two items were reverse scored). Higher scores indicated higher peer support (i.e., that the respondents feel that their peers support or care for them), while lower scores indicated lower peer support (i.e., that the respondents feel that their peers do not support or care for them). Perceived peer support is abbreviated as PPS in this report; for ease of readability when the phrase is used multiple times in the same sentence or consecutive set of sentences or paragraphs, the abbreviation will be used in lieu of the entire phrase.

Self-esteem. Self-esteem is defined as one's perception of her/his respect, confidence, and favorable impression of her/himself. Assessment of self-esteem was via a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from "really disagree" to "really agree" and asking respondents how they felt about themselves. The scale consisted of eight items with each item listing a different statement related to self-esteem. A scale score was created by summing the scores from the eight items (four items were reverse scored). Higher scores indicated higher self-esteem, while lower scores indicated lower self-esteem. Self-esteem is abbreviated as SE in this report; for ease of readability when the phrase is used multiple times in the same sentence or consecutive set of sentences or paragraphs, the abbreviation will be used in lieu of the entire phrase.

Moral approval of bullying. Moral approval of bullying, or attitudes about bullying, is defined as one's internal thoughts, opinions, and attitudes about bullying behavior. Assessment of moral approval about bullying (bullying attitudes) was via a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from "really wrong" to "perfectly okay" and asking respondents if they thought certain actions were wrong or okay for students their age. The scale consisted of ten items with each item referring to a different action. A scale score was created by summing the scores from the ten items (three items were reverse scored). Higher scores indicated approval for bullying perpetration and negative bystander reactions, while lower scores indicated disapproval for bullying perpetration and positive bystander reactions. In other words, respondents who had high scores on the moral approval of bullying scale can be said to be "pro-bully," while those with low scores were "anti-bully." Moral approval of bullying is abbreviated as MAB in this report; for ease of readability when the phrase is used multiple times in the same sentence or consecutive set of sentences or paragraphs, the abbreviation will be used in lieu of the entire phrase.

Informal social control. Informal social control is defined as one's perception of the degree to which her/his peers, teachers, and school staff would intervene to stop a bullying incident. Assessment of informal social control was via a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from "never" to "always" and asking respondents about how they felt students, teachers, and staff would behave in specific bullying situations. The scale consisted of eight items with each item referring to a different situation involving bullying; the first four items of the scale pertained to the perceived behavior of students, while the latter four pertained to the perceived behavior of teachers and staff. A scale score was created by summing the scores from the eight items. Higher scores indicated stronger informal social control (i.e., that the respondents felt that

other students, teachers, and staff were more likely to intervene in bullying incidents), while lower scores indicated weaker informal social control (i.e., that the respondents felt that other students, teachers, and staff were less likely to intervene in bullying incidents). Informal social control is abbreviated as ISC in this report; for ease of readability when the phrase is used multiple times in the same sentence or consecutive set of sentences or paragraphs, the abbreviation will be used in lieu of the entire phrase.

Bystander willingness intervention. Bystander intervention willingness is defined as a one's inclination to intervene to stop a bullying incident and come to the aid of the target of bullying. Assessment of bystander intervention willingness was via a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from "never" to "always" and asking respondents what they believed they would do in certain situations. The scale consisted of four items with each item referring to a different situation involving bullying. A scale score was created by summing the scores from the four items. Higher scores indicated greater willingness to intervene in a bullying incident, whereas lower scores indicated lesser willingness to intervene. Bystander intervention willingness is abbreviated as BIW in this report; for ease of readability when the phrase is used multiple times in the same sentence or consecutive set of sentences or paragraphs, the abbreviation will be used in lieu of the entire phrase.

School. Respondents were asked to identify the school they were affiliated with. A blank space was provided for the respondents to hand-write their response, which could have been either one of two options: Mokpo Jungang High School or Communal Vision High School. Mokpo Jungang High School was the treatment group school (i.e., the group that was administered the *Stand By Me* presentation) and Communal Vision High School was the comparison group school (i.e., the group that was not administered the *Stand By Me*

presentation). Mokpo Jungang High School is abbreviated as MJHS and Communal Vision High School is abbreviated as CVHS in this report; for ease of readability when the names of the schools are used multiple times in the same sentence or consecutive set of sentences or paragraphs, the abbreviations will be used in lieu of the schools' full names. Throughout this report, the treatment group school may be referred to in one of four ways: by its full name (Mokpo Jungang High School), by its abbreviation (MJHS), or by the terms 'treatment group' or 'treatment group school.' Similarly, the comparison group school may be referred to by its full name (Communal Vision High School), by its abbreviation (CVHS), or by the terms 'comparison group' or 'comparison group school.'

Age. Respondents were asked to provide their year of birth. Birth year was specifically requested instead of having students indicate their age in years due to the difference in which Koreans calculate physical age compared to western/international standards. For example, someone born in 1990 would be age 27 in 2017 by western/international standards, but that person's Korean age would be either 28 or 29 depending on her/his exact date of birth at the time the age is being calculated. To elaborate, in Korea, once a person is born, she/he is already considered to be one year old. A person becomes one year older on New Year's Day (January 1) and also one year older on her/his birthday. In any given year, before one's birthday, her/his Korean age is her/his western age plus two, but after one's birthday, her/his Korean age is her/his western age plus one. In brief, a person's Korean age is either one or two years older than her/his western age. Thus, to avoid any discrepancy in the interpretation of age, students were directed to write their year of birth—as opposed to age—on the survey. For the purposes of this study, any references to specific ages in this report will be with respect to western standards.

Grade level. Respondents were asked to identify their grade level on the survey. Korean high schools consist of three grade levels—1st grade, 2nd grade, and 3rd grade, equivalent to 10th grade, 11th grade, 12th grade in the United States (in South Korea, grade level numbers are reset to one as students move from elementary school to middle school and from middle school to high school). Since the survey was conducted in a Korean high school, only three options were provided on the survey and respondents were asked to select one: 1st grade, 2nd grade, and 3rd grade.

Gender. Respondents were asked to self-identify as either male or female on the survey instrument.

After the survey was administered to the comparison and treatment group schools and the data was inputted into SPSS, Cronbach's alpha values were calculated for each of the seven attitudinal and perception scales. All seven alpha coefficients indicated acceptable reliabilities (i.e., $\alpha > .70$), affirming the internal consistency of each Likert scale. The alpha coefficients for the seven scales are as follows: social cohesion and trust ($\alpha = .806$), school climate ($\alpha = .907$), perceived peer support ($\alpha = .852$), self-esteem ($\alpha = .819$), moral approval of bullying ($\alpha = .771$), informal social control ($\alpha = .969$), and bystander intervention willingness ($\alpha = .963$).

Limitations

There were a few limitations to the study with respect to internal validity and external validity. In terms of internal validity issues, there were five basic sources of internal validity that the researcher considered: selection bias, endogenous change, external events or history effects, contamination, and treatment misidentification (Bachman & Schutt, 2014). Of these five factors, those relevant to this study were selection bias and treatment misidentification. Selection bias would have been mitigated in the case of a 'true experiment' but was a limitation in the present

study due to the quasi-experimental nonequivalent groups design. To review, the specific high schools—and subsequently the specific classrooms and students—that participated were not randomly selected but selected due to the willingness of the respective schools’ administrators and teachers to participate in the study. Additionally, students were surveyed (and in the case of the treatment group, administered the *SBM* presentation) either within their assigned classrooms (in the case of the comparison group) or as one large group consisting of all participants (in the case of the treatment group), which provided an availability sample. As for treatment misidentification, this occurs when “some intervening process the researcher is not aware of and has not identified” has caused the outcome as opposed to the treatment itself (Bachman & Schutt, 2014, p. 177). The researcher took into account possible intervening factors that could affect the outcome of the study, including anti-bullying programs already in place at the host schools and teachers “prepping” their students for the study via bullying prevention-awareness lectures of their own days prior to the implementation of the study. That being said, the researcher verified with school administrators and teachers of the two host schools that they did not currently have any formal anti-bullying programs and requested that teachers not “overly prepare” their students in advance for the study other than to give them a brief summary of what the study would entail (i.e., the same information that was provided in the assent forms and consent forms that were distributed to students and their parents). Endogenous change was not an issue since the study (i.e., presentation and survey) was a one-shot design that was completed in one test period and not over multiple days. Likewise, contamination—when the comparison group is affected by, or affects, the treatment group—was not a major concern due to the treatment group and comparison group being selected from different schools.

As for external events (history effects), by its definition, such incidents were more or less beyond the control of the researcher. No major external events occurred immediately prior to and during the test periods at both the treatment and comparison group schools. Nevertheless, in the case that a significant outside event had occurred (e.g., a bullying-related suicide broadcast on the news) that would have affected the outcome of the study prior to the administration of the *SBM* presentation and survey, the researcher would have consulted with all concerned parties (i.e., KAEC/Fulbright staff, school principals and teachers, and police officers) regarding the possibility of postponing the study to a later date to allow for an ample “cooling off” period between the event and presentation and survey sessions. That being said, only two months after the study had concluded at CVHS and MJHS, the Korean media reported a sex scandal involving two police officers who had been assigned as School Police Officers in the City of Busan, which has sparked concern over the future of the School Police program and police involvement in youth programs, including anti-bullying initiatives (this scandal will be discussed in further detail in Chapter 5 in a section on challenges to Korea’s School Police program). Furthermore, in October 2016, a major political scandal broke out involving ROK President Park Geun-hye, resulting in extensive media coverage, civil unrest nationwide, and massive rallies and protests staged in various cities across the ROK, with much citizenry calling for the president’s resignation or impeachment. The ROK National Assembly voted to impeach President Park on December 9, 2016, and she was removed from office on March 10, 2017. Thus, had the *Stand By Me* study been conducted during summer or fall 2016, instead of spring 2016, the researcher would have had to deal with the repercussions of these events, which would undoubtedly have affected the study, with the possibility of a long-term or indefinite postponement of the research project.

With regard to external validity or cross-population generalizability, it is important to note that the study utilized nonprobability sampling in obtaining which schools, and subsequently which students, were administered the anti-bullying presentation and survey. Specifically, the two participating high schools, Mokpo Jungang High School and Communal Vision High School, were selected from a pool of “Fulbright ETA schools” (i.e., schools with Fulbright English Teaching Assistants assigned to them) since these were the schools that the researcher had the most access to due to his affiliation with the Fulbright-Korea Program as a former ETA and connections in the Korean-American Educational Commission, the organization which administers the Fulbright Program in South Korea. Therefore, the generalizability of the study is essentially limited to the two schools from which the sample was selected. At best, the extent of generalizability of the study may be considered limited to Fulbright ETA high schools only, as opposed to the results of the study being generalizable to the entire population of all high schools in the Republic of Korea.

As we consider sample size, a factor to keep in mind is sampling error, i.e., the difference between the sample’s characteristics and those of the target population. In brief, the greater the sampling error, the less representative that sample is of the target population and thus, the less generalizable the findings are to the population (Bachman & Schutt, 2012). In other words, the greater the number of participants in the study, the more confident we can be that the sample data approximate those of the population. In terms of sample size, the researcher had requested at least 50 students from each school, which would have yielded a total of at least 100 students overall, which, although far from the “ideal” number of participants, was nonetheless deemed sufficient after consultation between the researcher and his dissertation committee, and given the number of distinct variables being examined. It should be noted that in the initial stages of the

recruitment process, the researcher requested at least 100 students, and upwards to 200 students, per school; this number was considered “excessive” by several school administrators, which factored into their declinations to participate in the study. Depending upon the interest and willingness of teachers to grant the researcher access to additional classrooms and students, the researcher left open the possibility of the sample size increasing beyond $N = 100$. In actuality, a total of 115 students participated in the study; 55 students from the treatment group school and 60 students from the comparison group school, with MJHS providing five additional students beyond the minimum and CVHS providing ten students beyond the minimum, respectively.

Furthermore, since this study only utilized a posttest survey as opposed to a pretest-posttest design, the similarities between the two schools were important factors to consider. Ideally, the study would have implemented a design with a pretest survey *and* a posttest survey. In so doing, the following comparisons could have been made based on the data acquired from the pretest and posttest surveys from the treatment and control groups: first, a comparison of the treatment and comparison groups’ pretest scores to determine the “baseline” for each, which would be compared to each respective group’s posttest scores to determine any significant changes in these baseline scores; second, a comparison of the treatment and comparison groups’ posttest scores to examine the overall effectiveness of the police-conducted *Stand By Me* anti-bullying presentation (i.e., is there a significant difference between the two groups’ posttest scores?); third, a comparison of the treatment group’s pretest and posttest scores; and fourth, a comparison of the comparison group’s pretest and posttest scores to examine any changes in the two groups’ baseline (pretest) scores, i.e., whether one group, both groups, or neither group’s scores changed over time (e.g., there would have been an expectation for a significant change between the treatment group’s pretest and posttest scores, but no significant change between the

comparison group's pretest and posttest scores). The researcher's original research plan included a pretest survey component, but the pretest survey had to be removed due to time limitations and the two schools' willingness to participate only in a short-term study; hence, the study employed only a posttest survey. Without the pretest, the only comparison that could be done was a comparison of treatment and comparison groups' posttest scores to examine the overall effectiveness of the presentation. Consequently, there is a limitation with respect to the types of comparisons that can be made by having utilized a posttest measure only. Therefore, as stated above, the researcher sought out two schools that were as similar as possible in certain key criteria relevant to the study so that he could have greater confidence that any significant difference in attitudes about bullying and willingness to intervene between students of the comparison and treatment groups was due to the presentation itself and not some external factor related to the differences between the schools and their students.

Although Mokpo Jungang High School, the treatment group, and Communal Vision High School, the comparison group, are located in different cities and provinces of South Korea, both schools share similarities with respect to several key factors: the two schools are co-ed private high schools with three grade levels, comprise of students with similar levels of academic achievement and socioeconomic backgrounds (e.g., the schools are situated in small towns located in western coastal regions with economies emphasizing agriculture and maritime industry), implement an academic curriculum standardized by the Korean national government, have a Fulbright ETA assigned to them, and have yet to enact any formal anti-bullying programs or workshops. Additionally, the results of the study appear to indicate that the schools are more alike than they are different in terms of students' attitudes and perceptions of social cohesion and

trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control (more details on this are provided in the next two chapters).

Taking into account the generalizability issues discussed above, it should be noted that unlike the United States, the education system in South Korea is nationally standardized with very few differences among the various schools with respect to academic curriculum and quality of education (Ministry of Education, 2014). Furthermore, teachers who pass the national teacher's credential examination are assigned randomly to public schools within a particular district; similarly, students are assigned to public or private elementary and secondary schools nearest their place of residence (Ministry of Education, 2014; Moon, McCluskey, Blurton, & Hwang, 2014). With regard to similarities between South Korean schools and generalizability issues, Moon et al. (2014) stated the following: "Overall, public and private schools do not have distinct differences in terms of academic curriculum, tuition, and students' academic achievement, and both are tightly supervised by the national government" (p. 174). That being said, Moon et al. (2014) noted that they felt the sample of students selected for their study would "well represent" students in the general population (p. 174). Likewise, given the similarities between the comparison and treatment group schools—in terms of academic curriculum, teacher training, and student composition and quality—the researcher believes the sample of students selected from the two high schools are fairly representative of the overall high school student population in South Korea, despite the use of nonprobability sampling.

Notwithstanding the statement by Moon and his associates (2014) of the general similarities among schools in South Korea, the researcher is aware of obvious exceptions to the rule that may affect comparison and generalizability such as single gender (as opposed to co-ed) schools, international schools, and foreign language high schools, the latter of which are

considered to be “elite” institutions comprised of students who are typically above average in terms of academic ability. Therefore, in determining which two schools would be selected for the study, the researcher sought to recruit schools with similar qualities and attributes and made such a request to the KAEC when discussing school recruitment with them. Taking into account the limitations and generalizability issues delineated above, the two schools that ultimately participated in the study were more alike than they were different in terms of school/student demographics and students’ attitudes and perceptions. Nonetheless, in spite of any generalizability issues, it is the researcher’s intent that this study will serve as a starting point for further research—either by the researcher himself or by other criminal justice professionals—on the topic of anti-bullying initiatives by South Korean law enforcement personnel; hence, there is inherent value in this study despite the aforementioned limitations.

Summary

In summary, this quantitative study utilized a nonequivalent groups design consisting of a treatment group and comparison group with a total sample size of 115 students. The survey instrument used in the study, dubbed the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey, was a modified and translated version of Williams and Guerra’s (2007) Student School Survey. The four research questions, which focus on moral approval of bullying, bystander intervention willingness, and other related variables such as school climate and informal social control, were evaluated based on quantitative analysis of the survey results, comparing scores from the treatment group with those of the comparison group. The presentation’s effectiveness was examined based upon any significant changes in students’ attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. In brief, treatment and comparison groups’ posttest survey scores on the two dependent variables—moral approval of bullying and bystander

intervention willingness—were compared and any statistically and practically significant differences were taken as an indication of the presentation’s success in altering (even if only for the short-term) students’ views on bullying and willingness to intervene to stop bullying. This in turn opens the door for expansion of this ‘minimalist’ presentation in the near future into something much more substantive such as a multi-faceted program that consists of several presentations and student-led activities administered on a prolonged basis—as opposed to being a one-shot presentation—which may be adopted by police departments and schools across the Republic of Korea.

Throughout the research project, the researcher has sought consultation and guidance from his dissertation committee comprised of three faculty members from Nova Southeastern University’s Department of Justice and Human Services—Dr. Grace Telesco (dissertation committee chair), Dr. Chaswell Hanna, and Dr. James Nardoizzi—all of whom have many years of professional experience as law enforcement officers and are well-versed in the field of juvenile justice. The researcher also worked closely with staff from the Korean-American Educational Commission (Fulbright-Korea Office), the treatment group and comparison group schools’ principals and teachers, and participating police officers to ensure the effective implementation and success of the study.

Upon successful defense of this dissertation, the researcher will personally debrief and discuss the findings with all key program participants and stakeholders—KAEC staff, police officers, principals, teachers, and students (and parents, if they are interested)—in a group debriefing/discussion session at a date and time to be determined. In the end, the findings and discussion presented in the next two chapters should be quite insightful for all interested audiences concerned about addressing the prevalent problem of bullying and school violence

among children in the Republic of Korea and the proper role of ROK law enforcement officers in quelling this ‘social evil.’

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Introduction

The results presented herein are organized as follows: descriptive statistics, correlations, and statistics pertaining to the relationship among key variables of interest, arranged in order of each research question. Descriptive statistics will include demographic information about the entire sample of 115 students as a whole, then divided by the two participating schools, Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) and Communal Vision High School (comparison group), and crosstabulations showing how students responded to each of the survey questions; questions will be grouped according to their respective scales. Next, correlations among the key variables will be presented, noting any multicollinearity between variables. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each of the seven scales, which were also mentioned in the data analysis section of Chapter 3, will also be presented in the discussion of descriptive statistics.

After the overview of descriptive statistics and correlations, the independent-samples t test results and Mann-Whitney U test results for the first two research questions will be presented, supplemented by the results of a two-way ANOVA testing for interaction effects involving the three demographic variables (age, grade level, and gender) between the two schools. Lastly, linear regression results (bivariate, multiple, stepwise, and hierarchical) for the third and fourth research questions will be presented. For the sake of brevity, in the text and some of the tables and figures that follow, Communal Vision High School, the comparison group, will be abbreviated as CVHS and Mokpo Jungang High School, the treatment group, will be abbreviated

as MJHS. Only the results of the study are presented in this chapter, with minor explanations if necessary to clarify the presentation of the data; a comprehensive discussion and interpretation of the findings, including their implications, are detailed in Chapter 5.

Descriptive Statistics

The tables and figures below display the demographic data for the sample, information about students' individual responses to each of the 52 questions asked in the survey (arranged in order according to their respective scales), and the means for each of the seven scales for the entire sample combined and divided by school.

Demographics: School, Gender, Age, and Grade Level

The first set of tables show the demographics for the study participants in terms of number of participants from each school, gender, age, and grade level. As can be seen in Table 1, there were 60 student participants from Communal Vision High School (comparison group) and 55 student participants from Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group), for a total sample size of 115 participants. There were a total of 75 male participants and 40 female participants (Table 2) with ages ranging from 16 to 19 (Table 3). All grade levels were represented in the study (Table 4), although it should be noted that all first grade participants were Mokpo Jungang High School students; the researcher did not have access to first grade classrooms at Communal Vision High School.

Table 1

Number of Study Participants per School

| School | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--|-----------|---------|--------------------|
| Communal Vision High School (Comparison Group) | 60 | 52.2% | 52.2% |
| Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment Group) | 55 | 47.8% | 100.0% |
| Total | 115 | 100.0% | |

Table 2

Gender of Study Participants

| Gender | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------|-----------|---------|--------------------|
| Male | 75 | 65.2% | 65.2% |
| Female | 40 | 34.8% | 100.0% |
| Total | 115 | 100.0% | |

Table 3

Age Distribution of Study Participants

| Age | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|---------|--------------------|
| 16 | 11 | 9.6% | 9.6% |
| 17 | 51 | 44.3% | 53.9% |
| 18 | 52 | 45.2% | 99.1% |
| 19 | 1 | 0.9% | 100.0% |
| Total | 115 | 100.0% | |

Table 4

Grade Level of Study Participants

| Grade Level | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------------------|-----------|---------|--------------------|
| 1 st Grade | 6 | 5.2% | 65.2% |
| 2 nd Grade | 55 | 47.8% | 53.0% |
| 3 rd Grade | 54 | 47.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | 115 | 100.0% | |

The next set of tables and charts again show the distribution of gender, age, and grade level, but this time broken down by the two schools. Table 5 depicts the gender distribution of the two schools. Of the participants from Communal Vision High School, 63.3% ($n = 38$) were male and 36.7% ($n = 22$) were female, for a total of 60 participants overall. From Mokpo Jungang High School, 67.3% ($n = 37$) of participants were male and 32.7% ($n = 18$) were female, for a total of 55 participants overall. In terms of the overall sample, 65.2% ($n = 75$) were male

and 34.8% ($n = 40$) were female. In brief, both schools had a greater number and percentage of male participants than female participants.

Table 6 displays the ages of the student participants. Although the range was from 16 to 19, the majority of the total sample of 115 comprised of students ages 17 (44.3%, $n = 51$) and 18 (45.2%, $n = 52$). Only two of the participating students from CVHS were age 16, while nine from MJHS were age 16. The only 19 year old participating in the study was a student from CVHS.

As for grade level, the information of which can be seen in Table 7, the overall number of participating juniors (47.8%, $n = 55$) and seniors (47%, $n = 54$) are almost identical, although CVHS had more participating seniors than MJHS, while MJHS had more participating juniors than CVHS. Only freshmen from MJHS participated in the study, and the number of freshman participants was quite small (5.2% of the overall sample, $n = 6$) compared with participating juniors and seniors; there were no freshman participants from CVHS.

Table 5

Gender of Study Participants Divided by School

| | | Gender | | Total | |
|--------|---|-----------------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | Male | Female | | |
| School | Communal Vision High School (Comparison Group) | Count | 38 | 22 | 60 |
| | | % within Gender | 50.7% | 55.0% | 52.2% |
| | Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment Group) | Count | 37 | 18 | 55 |
| | | % within Gender | 49.3% | 45.0% | 47.8% |
| Total | | Count | 75 | 40 | 115 |
| | | % within Gender | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Table 6

Age of Study Participants Divided by School

| School | | Age | | | | Total |
|---|-----------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | |
| Communal Vision High School (Comparison Group) | Count | 2 | 24 | 33 | 1 | 60 |
| | % within Gender | 18.2% | 47.1% | 63.5% | 100.0% | 52.2% |
| Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment Group) | Count | 9 | 27 | 19 | 0 | 55 |
| | % within Gender | 81.8% | 52.9% | 36.5% | 0.0% | 47.8% |
| Total | Count | 11 | 51 | 52 | 1 | 115 |
| | % within Gender | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Table 7

Grade Level of Study Participants Divided by School

| School | | Grade Level | | | Total |
|---|-----------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|--------|
| | | 1 st Grade | 2 nd Grade | 3 rd Grade | |
| Communal Vision High School (Comparison Group) | Count | 0 | 26 | 34 | 60 |
| | % within Gender | 0.0% | 47.3% | 63.0% | 52.2% |
| Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment Group) | Count | 6 | 29 | 20 | 55 |
| | % within Gender | 100.0% | 52.7% | 37.0% | 47.8% |
| Total | Count | 6 | 55 | 54 | 115 |
| | % within Gender | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Responses to Survey Questions

The following tables and bar charts depict students' responses to the 52 questions asked in the survey, arranged in the order they appear in the survey and grouped according to their respective scales. There are seven scales in all: (1) social cohesion and trust, (2) school climate, (3) perceived peer support, (4) self-esteem, (5) moral approval of bullying, (6) informal social control, and (7) bystander intervention willingness. As noted in Chapter 3, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each of the seven indices exhibit acceptable reliabilities (i.e., $\alpha > .70$), affirming the internal consistency of the scales. Specifically, the following alpha coefficients were calculated for each of the scales after the survey was administered to both the treatment and comparison group schools: social cohesion and trust ($\alpha = .806$), school climate ($\alpha = .907$), perceived peer support: $\alpha = .852$, self-esteem ($\alpha = .819$), moral approval of bullying ($\alpha = .771$), informal social control ($\alpha = .969$), and bystander intervention willingness ($\alpha = .963$).

Social cohesion and trust. The social cohesion and trust scale comprises of seven four-point Likert-type questions asking students to think about how strongly they disagree or agree with specific statements about their schools. Responses range from “really disagree” to “really agree.” Table 8 shows the number of valid and missing cases for each Likert statement that comprised the social cohesion and trust scale. Tables 9–15 summarize the number and percentage of students’ responses for each of these statements.

Table 8

Valid and Missing Cases for Each Statement of the Social Cohesion and Trust Scale

| | Cases ^a | | | |
|--|--------------------|-------|---------|-------|
| | Valid | | Missing | |
| | N | % | N | % |
| 1. Students in my school can be trusted. | 110 | 95.7% | 5 | 4.3% |
| 2. Students in my school generally get along well with each other. | 112 | 97.4% | 3 | 2.6% |
| 3. Students in my school generally feel the same way about things. | 109 | 94.8% | 6 | 5.2% |
| 4. Teachers and staff in my school can be trusted. | 109 | 94.8% | 6 | 5.2% |
| 5. Teachers and staff in my school usually get along with students. | 108 | 93.9% | 7 | 6.1% |
| 6. Teachers and staff in my school generally feel the same way about things. | 102 | 88.7% | 13 | 11.3% |
| 7. This is a pretty close-knit school where everyone looks out for each other. | 108 | 93.9% | 7 | 6.1% |

^aTotal N = 115 and Total % = 100.0%.

Table 9

Social Cohesion and Trust: Students in my school can be trusted.

| School | | | Really | Disagree | Agree | Really | Total |
|--|-----------------|------|----------|----------|-------|--------|-------|
| | | | Disagree | | | Agree | |
| Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 2 | 6 | 34 | 16 | 58 | |
| | % within School | 3.4% | 10.3% | 58.6% | 27.6% | 100.0% | |
| Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 0 | 0 | 34 | 18 | 52 | |
| | % within School | 0.0% | 0.0% | 65.4% | 34.6% | 100.0% | |
| Total | Count | 2 | 6 | 68 | 34 | 110 | |
| | % within School | 1.8% | 5.5% | 61.8% | 30.9% | 100.0% | |

Table 10

Social Cohesion and Trust: Students in my school generally get along well with each other.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 0 | 2 | 30 | 28 | 60 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 3.3% | 50.0% | 46.7% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 0 | 0 | 26 | 26 | 52 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 0.0% | 50.0% | 50.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 0 | 2 | 56 | 54 | 112 |
| | % within School | | 0.0% | 1.8% | 50.0% | 48.2% | 100.0% |

Table 11

Social Cohesion and Trust: Students in my school generally feel the same way about things.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 1 | 9 | 31 | 17 | 58 |
| | | % within School | 1.7% | 15.5% | 53.4% | 29.3% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 0 | 3 | 32 | 16 | 51 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 5.9% | 62.7% | 31.4% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 1 | 12 | 63 | 33 | 109 |
| | % within School | | 0.0% | 11.0% | 57.8% | 30.3% | 100.0% |

Table 12

Social Cohesion and Trust: Teachers and staff in my school can be trusted.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 1 | 17 | 25 | 15 | 58 |
| | | % within School | 1.7% | 29.3% | 43.1% | 25.9% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 0 | 6 | 28 | 17 | 51 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 11.8% | 54.9% | 33.3% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 1 | 23 | 53 | 32 | 109 |
| | % within School | | 0.9% | 21.1% | 48.6% | 29.4% | 100.0% |

Table 13

Social Cohesion and Trust: Teachers and staff in my school usually get along with students.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 0 | 7 | 25 | 27 | 59 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 11.9% | 42.4% | 45.8% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 0 | 6 | 27 | 16 | 49 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 12.2% | 55.1% | 32.7% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 0 | 13 | 52 | 43 | 108 |
| | % within School | | 0.0% | 12.0% | 48.1% | 39.8% | 100.0% |

Table 14

Social Cohesion and Trust: Teachers and staff in my school generally feel the same way about things.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 2 | 14 | 25 | 11 | 52 |
| | | % within School | 3.8% | 26.9% | 48.1% | 21.2% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 0 | 4 | 32 | 14 | 50 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 8.0% | 64.0% | 28.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 2 | 18 | 57 | 25 | 102 |
| | | % within School | 2.0% | 17.6% | 55.9% | 24.5% | 100.0% |

Table 15

Social Cohesion and Trust: This is a pretty close-knit school where everyone looks out for each other.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 2 | 6 | 36 | 14 | 58 |
| | | % within School | 3.4% | 10.3% | 62.1% | 24.1% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 2 | 4 | 32 | 12 | 50 |
| | | % within School | 4.0% | 8.0% | 64.0% | 24.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 4 | 10 | 68 | 26 | 108 |
| | | % within School | 3.7% | 9.3% | 63.0% | 24.1% | 100.0% |

School climate. The school climate scale comprises of nine four-point Likert-type questions asking students to think about how strongly they disagree or agree with specific statements about their schools. Responses range from “really disagree” to “really agree.” Table 16 shows the number of valid and missing cases for each Likert statement that comprised the school climate scale. Tables 17–25 summarize the number and percentage of students’ responses for each of these statements.

Table 16

Valid and Missing Cases for Each Statement of the School Climate Scale

| | Cases ^a | | | |
|---|--------------------|-------|---------|-------|
| | Valid | | Missing | |
| | N | % | N | % |
| 8. My teachers respect me. | 107 | 93.0% | 8 | 7.0% |
| 9. My teachers are fair. | 102 | 88.7% | 13 | 11.3% |
| 10. Teachers in my school are nice people. | 107 | 93.0% | 8 | 7.0% |
| 11. When students break the rules at my school, they are treated fairly. | 107 | 93.0% | 8 | 7.0% |
| 12. The principal asks students about their ideas at my school. | 108 | 93.9% | 7 | 6.1% |
| 13. My school is a good place to be. | 111 | 96.5% | 4 | 3.5% |
| 14. I feel like I belong at my school. | 110 | 95.7% | 5 | 4.3% |
| 15. My school is important to me. | 108 | 93.9% | 7 | 6.1% |
| 16. The teachers and staff at my school are doing the right things to prevent bullying. | 106 | 92.2% | 9 | 7.8% |

^aTotal N = 115 and Total % = 100.0%.

Table 17

School Climate: My teachers respect me.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. | Count | 0 | 6 | 34 | 15 | 55 |
| | (Comparison Group) | % within School | 0.0% | 10.9% | 61.8% | 27.3% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. | Count | 1 | 2 | 31 | 18 | 52 |
| | (Treatment Group) | % within School | 1.9% | 3.8% | 59.6% | 34.6% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 1 | 8 | 65 | 33 | 107 |
| | | % within School | 0.9% | 7.5% | 60.7% | 30.8% | 100.0% |

Table 18

School Climate: My teachers are fair.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. | Count | 4 | 12 | 27 | 8 | 51 |
| | (Comparison Group) | % within School | 7.8% | 23.5% | 52.9% | 15.7% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. | Count | 4 | 6 | 30 | 11 | 51 |
| | (Treatment Group) | % within School | 7.8% | 11.8% | 58.8% | 21.6% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 8 | 18 | 57 | 19 | 102 |
| | | % within School | 7.8% | 17.6% | 55.9% | 18.6% | 100.0% |

Table 19

School Climate: Teachers in my school are nice people.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 0 | 7 | 26 | 35 | 56 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 12.5% | 44.6% | 42.9% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 2 | 2 | 31 | 16 | 51 |
| | | % within School | 3.9% | 3.9% | 60.8% | 31.4% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 2 | 9 | 56 | 40 | 107 |
| | | % within School | 1.9% | 8.4% | 52.3% | 37.4% | 100.0% |

Table 20

School Climate: When students break rules at my school, they are treated fairly.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 2 | 16 | 27 | 12 | 57 |
| | | % within School | 3.5% | 28.1% | 47.4% | 21.1% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 1 | 2 | 30 | 17 | 50 |
| | | % within School | 2.0% | 4.0% | 60.0% | 34.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 3 | 18 | 57 | 29 | 107 |
| | | % within School | 2.8% | 16.8% | 53.3% | 27.1% | 100.0% |

Table 21

School Climate: The principal asks students about their ideas at my school.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 4 | 4 | 26 | 23 | 57 |
| | | % within School | 7.0% | 7.0% | 45.6% | 40.4% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 2 | 10 | 25 | 14 | 51 |
| | | % within School | 3.9% | 19.6% | 49.0% | 27.5% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 6 | 14 | 51 | 37 | 108 |
| | | % within School | 5.6% | 13.0% | 47.2% | 34.3% | 100.0% |

Table 22

School Climate: My school is a good place to be.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 3 | 1 | 34 | 20 | 58 |
| | | % within School | 5.2% | 1.7% | 58.6% | 34.5% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 2 | 5 | 32 | 14 | 53 |
| | | % within School | 3.8% | 9.4% | 60.4% | 26.4% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 5 | 6 | 66 | 34 | 111 |
| | | % within School | 4.5% | 5.4% | 59.5% | 30.6% | 100.0% |

Table 23

School Climate: I feel like I belong at my school.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 2 | 1 | 32 | 23 | 58 |
| | | % within School | 3.4% | 1.7% | 55.2% | 39.7% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 1 | 5 | 30 | 16 | 52 |
| | | % within School | 1.9% | 9.6% | 57.7% | 30.8% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 3 | 6 | 62 | 39 | 110 |
| | | % within School | 2.7% | 5.5% | 56.4% | 35.5% | 100.0% |

Table 24

School Climate: My school is important to me.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 2 | 2 | 30 | 22 | 56 |
| | | % within School | 3.6% | 3.6% | 53.6% | 39.3% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 3 | 4 | 29 | 16 | 52 |
| | | % within School | 5.8% | 7.7% | 55.8% | 30.8% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 5 | 6 | 59 | 38 | 108 |
| | | % within School | 4.6% | 5.6% | 54.6% | 35.2% | 100.0% |

Table 25

School Climate: Teachers and staff at my school are doing the right things to prevent bullying.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 0 | 3 | 26 | 26 | 55 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 5.5% | 47.3% | 47.3% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 0 | 1 | 33 | 17 | 51 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 2.0% | 64.7% | 33.3% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 0 | 4 | 59 | 43 | 106 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 3.8% | 55.7% | 40.6% | 100.0% |

Perceived peer support. The perceived peer support scale comprises of six four-point Likert-type questions asking respondents to think about how other students at their school feel about the respondent. Responses range from “no, not at all” to “yes, completely.” Table 26 shows the number of valid and missing cases for each Likert statement that comprised the perceived peer support scale. Tables 27–32 summarize the number and percentage of students’ responses for each of these statements.

Table 26

Valid and Missing Cases for Each Statement of the Perceived Peer Support Scale

| | Cases ^a | | | |
|--|--------------------|-------|---------|-------|
| | Valid | | Missing | |
| | N | % | N | % |
| 17. Students my age really care about what happens to me. | 110 | 95.7% | 5 | 4.3% |
| 18. Students my age are there for me whenever I need help. | 110 | 95.7% | 5 | 4.3% |
| 19. Students my age can be trusted a lot. | 110 | 95.7% | 5 | 4.3% |
| 20. Students my age care about my feelings. | 110 | 95.7% | 5 | 4.3% |
| 21. Students my age only think about themselves. | 109 | 94.8% | 6 | 5.2% |
| 22. Students my age think only bad things about me. | 100 | 87.0% | 15 | 13.0% |

^aTotal N = 115 and Total % = 100.0%.

Table 27

Perceived Peer Support: Students my age really care about what happens to me.

| | | No, Not at All | A Little | Pretty Much | Yes, Completely | Total | |
|--------|--|-------------------|----------|----------------|--------------------|-------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 0 | 19 | 21 | 18 | 58 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 32.8% | 36.2% | 31.0% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 1 | 9 | 26 | 16 | 52 |
| | | % within School | 1.9% | 17.3% | 50.0% | 30.8% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 1 | 28 | 47 | 34 | 110 |
| | | % within School | 0.9% | 25.5% | 42.7% | 30.9% | 100.0% |

Table 28

Perceived Peer Support: Students my age are there for me whenever I need help.

| | | No, Not at All | A Little | Pretty Much | Yes, Completely | Total | |
|--------|--|-------------------|----------|----------------|--------------------|-------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 1 | 15 | 18 | 24 | 58 |
| | | % within School | 1.7% | 25.9% | 31.0% | 41.4% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 1 | 8 | 24 | 19 | 52 |
| | | % within School | 1.9% | 15.4% | 46.2% | 36.5% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 2 | 23 | 42 | 43 | 110 |
| | | % within School | 1.8% | 20.9% | 38.2% | 39.1% | 100.0% |

Table 29

Perceived Peer Support: Students my age can be trusted a lot.

| | | No, Not at All | A Little | Pretty Much | Yes, Completely | Total | |
|--------|--|-------------------|----------|----------------|--------------------|-------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 3 | 20 | 15 | 20 | 58 |
| | | % within School | 5.2% | 34.5% | 25.9% | 34.5% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 0 | 8 | 25 | 19 | 52 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 15.4% | 48.1% | 36.5% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 3 | 28 | 40 | 39 | 110 |
| | | % within School | 2.7% | 25.5% | 36.4% | 35.5% | 100.0% |

Table 30

Perceived Peer Support: Students my age care about my feelings.

| | | No, Not at All | A Little | Pretty Much | Yes, Completely | Total | |
|--------|--|-------------------|----------|----------------|--------------------|-------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 0 | 19 | 24 | 15 | 58 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 32.8% | 41.4% | 25.9% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 1 | 7 | 27 | 17 | 52 |
| | | % within School | 1.9% | 13.5% | 51.9% | 32.7% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 1 | 26 | 51 | 32 | 110 |
| | | % within School | 0.9% | 23.6% | 46.4% | 29.1% | 100.0% |

Table 31

Perceived Peer Support: Students my age only think about themselves.

| | | No, Not at All | A Little | Pretty Much | Yes, Completely | Total | |
|--------|--|-------------------|----------|----------------|--------------------|-------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 16 | 32 | 6 | 2 | 56 |
| | | % within School | 28.6% | 57.1% | 10.7% | 3.6% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 29 | 12 | 11 | 1 | 53 |
| | | % within School | 54.7% | 22.6% | 20.8% | 1.9% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 45 | 44 | 17 | 3 | 109 |
| | | % within School | 41.3% | 40.4% | 15.6% | 2.8% | 100.0% |

Note. The response choices for this statement are reverse scored with a score of 1 attributed to “Yes, Completely” and a score of 4 attributed to “No, Not at All.”

Table 32

Perceived Peer Support: Students my age think bad things about me.

| | | No, Not at All | A Little | Pretty Much | Yes, Completely | Total | |
|--------|--|-------------------|----------|----------------|--------------------|-------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 28 | 17 | 4 | 0 | 49 |
| | | % within School | 57.1% | 34.7% | 8.2% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 35 | 6 | 9 | 1 | 51 |
| | | % within School | 68.6% | 11.8% | 17.6% | 2.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 63 | 23 | 13 | 1 | 100 |
| | | % within School | 63.0% | 23.0% | 13.0% | 1.0% | 100.0% |

Note. The response choices for this statement are reverse scored with a score of 1 attributed to “Yes, Completely” and a score of 4 attributed to “No, Not at All.”

Self-esteem. The self-esteem scale comprises of eight four-point Likert-type questions asking students to think about their opinion of themselves. Responses range from “really disagree” to “really agree.” Table 33 shows the number of valid and missing cases for each Likert statement that comprised the self-esteem scale. Tables 34–41 summarize the number and percentage of students’ responses for each of these statements.

Table 33

Valid and Missing Cases for Each Statement of the Self-Esteem Scale

| | Cases ^a | | | |
|--|--------------------|-------|---------|------|
| | Valid | | Missing | |
| | N | % | N | % |
| 23. I feel I am just as good as other students. | 109 | 94.8% | 6 | 5.2% |
| 24. I feel there are lots of good things about me. | 110 | 95.7% | 5 | 4.3% |
| 25. All in all, I feel like a failure. | 112 | 97.4% | 3 | 2.6% |
| 26. I am able to do things as well as most other people. | 111 | 96.5% | 4 | 3.5% |
| 27. I feel I do not have much to be proud of. | 110 | 95.7% | 5 | 4.3% |
| 28. I take a positive attitude toward myself. | 112 | 97.4% | 3 | 2.6% |
| 29. I wish I could have more respect for myself. | 112 | 94.4% | 3 | 2.6% |
| 30. I certainly feel useless at times. | 109 | 94.8% | 6 | 5.2% |

^aTotal N = 115 and Total % = 100.0%.

Table 34

Self-Esteem: I feel I am just as good as other students.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 3 | 9 | 34 | 10 | 56 |
| | | % within School | 5.4% | 16.1% | 60.7% | 17.9% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 0 | 5 | 31 | 17 | 53 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 9.4% | 58.5% | 32.1% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 3 | 14 | 65 | 27 | 109 |
| | | % within School | 2.8% | 12.8% | 59.6% | 24.8% | 100.0% |

Table 35

Self-Esteem: I feel there are lots of good things about me.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 0 | 7 | 32 | 19 | 58 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 12.1% | 55.2% | 32.8% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 0 | 3 | 30 | 19 | 52 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 5.8% | 57.7% | 36.5% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 0 | 10 | 62 | 38 | 110 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 9.1% | 56.4% | 34.5% | 100.0% |

Table 36

Self-Esteem: All in all, I feel like a failure.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 33 | 21 | 4 | 0 | 58 |
| | | % within School | 56.9% | 36.2% | 6.9% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 23 | 24 | 7 | 0 | 54 |
| | | % within School | 42.6% | 44.4% | 13.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 56 | 45 | 11 | 0 | 112 |
| | % within School | | 50.0% | 40.2% | 9.8% | 0.0% | 100.0% |

Note. The response choices for this statement are reverse scored with a score of 1 attributed to "Really Agree" and a score of 4 attributed to "Really Disagree."

Table 37

Self-Esteem: I am able to do things as well as most other people.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 0 | 2 | 35 | 22 | 59 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 3.4% | 59.3% | 37.3% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 0 | 2 | 31 | 19 | 52 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 3.8% | 59.6% | 36.5% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 0 | 4 | 66 | 41 | 111 |
| | % within School | | 0.0% | 3.6% | 59.5% | 36.9% | 100.0% |

Table 38

Self-Esteem: I feel I do not have much to be proud of.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 19 | 20 | 15 | 3 | 57 |
| | | % within School | 33.3% | 35.1% | 26.3% | 5.3% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 15 | 21 | 16 | 1 | 53 |
| | | % within School | 28.3% | 39.6% | 30.2% | 1.9% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 34 | 41 | 31 | 4 | 110 |
| | % within School | | 30.9% | 37.3% | 28.2% | 3.6% | 100.0% |

Note. The response choices for this statement are reverse scored with a score of 1 attributed to "Really Agree" and a score of 4 attributed to "Really Disagree."

Table 39

Self-Esteem: I take a positive attitude toward myself.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 1 | 7 | 26 | 25 | 59 |
| | | % within School | 1.7% | 11.9% | 44.1% | 42.4% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 0 | 4 | 25 | 24 | 53 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 7.5% | 47.2% | 45.3% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 1 | 11 | 51 | 49 | 112 |
| | % within School | | 0.9% | 9.8% | 45.5% | 43.8% | 100.0% |

Table 40

Self-Esteem: I wish I could have more respect for myself.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 6 | 4 | 29 | 20 | 59 |
| | | % within School | 10.2% | 6.8% | 49.2% | 33.9% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 3 | 4 | 35 | 11 | 53 |
| | | % within School | 5.7% | 7.5% | 66.0% | 20.8% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 9 | 8 | 64 | 31 | 112 |
| | | % within School | 8.0% | 7.1% | 57.1% | 27.7% | 100.0% |

Note. The response choices for this statement are reverse scored with a score of 1 attributed to "Really Agree" and a score of 4 attributed to "Really Disagree."

Table 41

Self-Esteem: I certainly feel useless at times.

| | | | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|--------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 17 | 16 | 20 | 3 | 56 |
| | | % within School | 30.4% | 28.6% | 35.7% | 5.4% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 21 | 18 | 13 | 1 | 53 |
| | | % within School | 39.6% | 34.0% | 24.5% | 1.9% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 38 | 34 | 33 | 4 | 109 |
| | | % within School | 34.9% | 31.2% | 30.3% | 3.7% | 100.0% |

Note. The response choices for this statement are reverse scored with a score of 1 attributed to "Really Agree" and a score of 4 attributed to "Really Disagree."

Moral approval of bullying. The moral approval of bullying scale comprises of ten four-point Likert-type questions asking students to think about whether they feel certain actions are wrong or okay for students their age to engage in. Responses range from "really wrong" to "perfectly okay." Table 42 shows the number of valid and missing cases for each Likert statement that comprised the moral approval of bullying scale. Tables 43–52 summarize the number and percentage of students' responses for each of these statements.

Table 42

Valid and Missing Cases for Each Statement of the Moral Approval of Bullying Scale

| | Cases ^a | | | |
|---|--------------------|-------|---------|-------|
| | Valid | | Missing | |
| | N | % | N | % |
| 31. It is wrong or okay when students tease weaker students in front of others. | 113 | 98.3% | 2 | 1.7% |
| 32. It is wrong or okay when students spread rumors and lies about other students behind their back. | 113 | 98.3% | 2 | 1.7% |
| 33. It is wrong or okay when students tell lies or make fun of less popular students using the Internet (email, cell phone instant messaging, or websites). | 113 | 98.3% | 2 | 1.7% |
| 34. It is wrong or okay when students push, shove, or pick fights with weaker students. | 113 | 98.3% | 2 | 1.7% |
| 35. It is wrong or okay when students encourage others to fight weaker students and cheer them on. | 112 | 97.4% | 3 | 2.6% |
| 36. It is wrong or okay when students encourage others to be mean and spread lies about less popular students. | 112 | 97.4% | 3 | 11.3% |
| 37. It is wrong or okay when students ignore it when someone is being pushed around. | 113 | 98.3% | 2 | 1.7% |
| 38. It is wrong or okay when students defend others who are being shoved around by stronger students. | 112 | 97.4% | 3 | 2.6% |
| 39. It is wrong or okay when students go to the teacher or an adult for help when others are spreading rumors or lies about someone. | 112 | 97.4% | 3 | 2.6% |
| 40. It is wrong or okay when students go to the teacher or an adult for help when others are spreading rumors and lies about someone. | 113 | 98.3% | 2 | 1.7% |

^aTotal N = 115 and Total % = 100.0%.

Table 43

Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students tease weaker students in front of others.

| | | | Really Wrong | Sort of Wrong | Sort of Okay | Perfectly Okay | Total |
|--------|----------------------|-----------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. | Count | 52 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 59 |
| | (Comparison Group) | % within School | 88.1% | 11.9% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. | Count | 46 | 3 | 5 | 0 | 54 |
| | (Treatment Group) | % within School | 85.2% | 5.6% | 9.3% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 98 | 10 | 5 | 0 | 113 |
| | | % within School | 86.7% | 8.8% | 4.4% | 0.0% | 100.0% |

Table 44

Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students spread rumors and lies about other students behind their back.

| | | | Really Wrong | Sort of Wrong | Sort of Okay | Perfectly Okay | Total |
|--------|----------------------|-----------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. | Count | 54 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 59 |
| | (Comparison Group) | % within School | 91.5% | 6.8% | 1.7% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. | Count | 49 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 54 |
| | (Treatment Group) | % within School | 90.7% | 1.9% | 7.4% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 103 | 5 | 5 | 0 | 113 |
| | | % within School | 91.2% | 4.4% | 4.4% | 0.0% | 100.0% |

Table 45

Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students tell lies or make fun of less popular students using the Internet.

| | | | Really Wrong | Sort of Wrong | Sort of Okay | Perfectly Okay | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 53 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 59 |
| | | % within School | 89.8% | 10.2% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 48 | 2 | 4 | 0 | 54 |
| | | % within School | 88.9% | 3.7% | 7.4% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 101 | 8 | 4 | 0 | 113 |
| | % within School | | 89.4% | 7.1% | 3.5% | 0.0% | 100.0% |

Table 46

Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students push, shove, or pick fights with weaker students.

| | | | Really Wrong | Sort of Wrong | Sort of Okay | Perfectly Okay | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 55 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 59 |
| | | % within School | 93.2% | 6.8% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 50 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 54 |
| | | % within School | 92.6% | 1.9% | 5.6% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 105 | 5 | 3 | 0 | 113 |
| | % within School | | 92.9% | 4.4% | 2.7% | 0.0% | 100.0% |

Table 47

Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students encourage others to fight weaker students and cheer them on.

| | | | Really Wrong | Sort of Wrong | Sort of Okay | Perfectly Okay | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 55 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 59 |
| | | % within School | 93.2% | 5.1% | 0.0% | 1.7% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 48 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 53 |
| | | % within School | 90.6% | 5.7% | 1.9% | 1.9% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 103 | 6 | 1 | 2 | 112 |
| | % within School | | 92.0% | 5.4% | 0.9% | 1.8% | 100.0% |

Table 48

Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students encourage others to be mean and spread lies about less popular students.

| | | | Really Wrong | Sort of Wrong | Sort of Okay | Perfectly Okay | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 57 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 59 |
| | | % within School | 96.6% | 3.4% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 48 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 53 |
| | | % within School | 90.6% | 5.7% | 3.8% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 105 | 5 | 2 | 0 | 112 |
| | % within School | | 93.8% | 4.5% | 1.8% | 0.0% | 100.0% |

Table 49

Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students ignore it when someone weaker is being pushed around.

| | | | Really Wrong | Sort of Wrong | Sort of Okay | Perfectly Okay | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 42 | 10 | 7 | 0 | 59 |
| | | % within School | 71.2% | 16.9% | 11.9% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 45 | 5 | 4 | 0 | 54 |
| | | % within School | 83.3% | 9.3% | 7.4% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 87 | 15 | 11 | 0 | 113 |
| | % within School | | 77.0% | 13.3% | 9.7% | 0.0% | 100.0% |

Table 50

Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students defend others who are being shoved around by stronger students.

| | | | Really Wrong | Sort of Wrong | Sort of Okay | Perfectly Okay | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 4 | 0 | 6 | 48 | 58 |
| | | % within School | 6.9% | 0.0% | 10.3% | 82.8% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 0 | 1 | 7 | 46 | 54 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 1.9% | 13.0% | 85.2% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 4 | 1 | 13 | 94 | 112 |
| | % within School | | 3.6% | 0.9% | 11.6% | 83.9% | 100.0% |

Note. The response choices for this statement are reverse scored with a score of 1 attributed to "Perfectly Okay" and a score of 4 attributed to "Really Wrong."

Table 51

Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students go to the teacher or an adult for help when someone is getting beaten up.

| | | | Really Wrong | Sort of Wrong | Sort of Okay | Perfectly Okay | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 3 | 2 | 6 | 47 | 58 |
| | | % within School | 5.2% | 3.4% | 10.3% | 81.0% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 0 | 0 | 7 | 47 | 54 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 0.0% | 13.0% | 87.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 3 | 2 | 13 | 94 | 112 |
| | % within School | | 2.7% | 1.8% | 11.6% | 83.9% | 100.0% |

Note. The response choices for this statement are reverse scored with a score of 1 attributed to "Perfectly Okay" and a score of 4 attributed to "Really Wrong."

Table 52

Moral Approval of Bullying: It is wrong or okay when students go to the teacher or an adult for help when others are spreading rumors and lies about someone.

| | | | Really Wrong | Sort of Wrong | Sort of Okay | Perfectly Okay | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 3 | 2 | 17 | 37 | 59 |
| | | % within School | 5.1% | 3.4% | 28.8% | 62.7% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 0 | 0 | 8 | 46 | 54 |
| | | % within School | 0.0% | 0.0% | 14.8% | 85.2% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 3 | 2 | 25 | 83 | 113 |
| | % within School | | 2.7% | 1.8% | 22.1% | 73.5% | 100.0% |

Note. The response choices for this statement are reverse scored with a score of 1 attributed to "Perfectly Okay" and a score of 4 attributed to "Really Wrong."

Informal social control. The informal social control scale comprises of eight four-point Likert-type questions asking respondents to think about what most students, teachers, and staff in their school would do in certain situations; specifically, the questions ask if the respondents feel that students, teachers, and staff could be counted on to stop what is happening in the given scenarios. Responses range from "never" to "always." Table 53 shows the number of valid and missing cases for each Likert statement that comprised the informal social control scale. Tables 54–61 summarize the number and percentage of students' responses for each of these statements.

Table 53

Valid and Missing Cases for Each Statement of the Informal Social Control Scale

| | Cases ^a | | | |
|---|--------------------|-------|---------|------|
| | Valid | | Missing | |
| | N | % | N | % |
| 41. Students in my school would help out if a student is making fun of and teasing another student who is obviously weaker. | 110 | 95.7% | 5 | 4.3% |
| 42. Students in my school would help out if a student is spreading rumors and lies about another student behind their back. | 110 | 95.7% | 5 | 4.3% |
| 43. Students in my school would help out if a student in my school is telling lies or making fun of another student who gets picked on a lot using the Internet (email, instant messaging, cell phone text messaging, or websites). | 109 | 94.8% | 6 | 5.2% |
| 44. Students in my school would help out if a student or group of students is pushing, shoving, or trying to pick a fight with a weaker student. | 107 | 93.0% | 8 | 7.0% |
| 45. Teachers and staff in my school would help out if a student is making fun of and teasing another student who is obviously weaker. | 107 | 93.0% | 8 | 7.0% |
| 46. Teachers and staff in my school would help out if a student is spreading rumors and lies about another student behind their back. | 106 | 92.2% | 9 | 7.8% |
| 47. Teachers and staff in my school would help out if a student in my school is telling lies or making fun of another student who gets picked on a lot using the Internet (email, instant messaging, cell phone text messaging, or websites). | 104 | 90.4% | 11 | 9.6% |
| 48. Teachers and staff in my school would help out if a student or group of students is pushing, shoving, or trying to pick a fight with a weaker student. | 106 | 92.2% | 9 | 7.8% |

^aTotal N = 115 and Total % = 100.0%.

Table 54

Informal Social Control: Students in my school would help out if a student is making fun of and teasing another student who is obviously weaker.

| | | | Never | Sometimes | Most of the Time | Always | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-------|-----------|------------------|--------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 11 | 20 | 13 | 12 | 56 |
| | | % within School | 19.6% | 35.7% | 23.2% | 21.4% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 12 | 11 | 15 | 16 | 54 |
| | | % within School | 22.2% | 20.4% | 27.8% | 29.6% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 23 | 31 | 28 | 28 | 110 |
| | | % within School | 20.9% | 28.2% | 25.5% | 25.5% | 100.0% |

Table 55

Informal Social Control: Students in my school would help out if a student is spreading rumors and lies about another student behind their back.

| | | | Never | Sometimes | Most of the Time | Always | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-------|-----------|------------------|--------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 11 | 17 | 18 | 10 | 56 |
| | | % within School | 19.6% | 30.4% | 32.1% | 17.9% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 9 | 12 | 17 | 16 | 54 |
| | | % within School | 16.7% | 22.2% | 31.5% | 29.6% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 20 | 29 | 35 | 26 | 110 |
| | | % within School | 18.2% | 26.4% | 31.8% | 23.6% | 100.0% |

Table 56

Informal Social Control: Students in my school would help out if a student in my school is telling lies or making fun of another student who gets picked on a lot using the Internet.

| | | | Never | Sometimes | Most of the Time | Always | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-------|-----------|------------------|--------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 19 | 13 | 12 | 11 | 55 |
| | | % within School | 34.5% | 23.6% | 21.8% | 20.0% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 12 | 9 | 15 | 18 | 54 |
| | | % within School | 22.2% | 16.7% | 27.8% | 33.3% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 31 | 22 | 27 | 29 | 109 |
| | | % within School | 28.4% | 20.2% | 24.8% | 26.6% | 100.0% |

Table 57

Informal Social Control: Students in my school would help out if a student or group of students is pushing, shoving, or trying to pick a fight with a weaker student.

| | | | Never | Sometimes | Most of the Time | Always | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-------|-----------|------------------|--------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 21 | 6 | 13 | 14 | 54 |
| | | % within School | 38.9% | 11.1% | 24.1% | 25.9% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 13 | 10 | 13 | 17 | 53 |
| | | % within School | 24.5% | 18.9% | 24.5% | 32.1% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 34 | 16 | 26 | 31 | 107 |
| | | % within School | 31.8% | 15.0% | 24.3% | 29.0% | 100.0% |

Table 58

Informal Social Control: Teachers and staff in my school would help out if a student is making fun of and teasing another student who is obviously weaker.

| | | | Never | Sometimes | Most of the Time | Always | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-------|-----------|------------------|--------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 12 | 10 | 15 | 19 | 56 |
| | | % within School | 21.4% | 17.9% | 26.8% | 33.9% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 8 | 3 | 19 | 21 | 51 |
| | | % within School | 15.7% | 5.9% | 37.3% | 41.2% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 20 | 13 | 34 | 40 | 107 |
| | | % within School | 18.7% | 12.1% | 31.8% | 37.4% | 100.0% |

Table 59

Informal Social Control: Teachers and staff in my school would help out if a student is spreading rumors and lies about another student behind their back.

| | | | Never | Sometimes | Most of the Time | Always | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-------|-----------|------------------|--------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 12 | 13 | 14 | 16 | 55 |
| | | % within School | 21.8% | 23.6% | 25.5% | 29.1% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 8 | 3 | 20 | 20 | 51 |
| | | % within School | 15.7% | 5.9% | 39.2% | 39.2% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 20 | 16 | 34 | 36 | 106 |
| | | % within School | 18.9% | 15.1% | 32.1% | 34.0% | 100.0% |

Table 60

Informal Social Control: Teachers and staff in my school would help out if a student in my school is telling lies or making fun of another student who gets picked on a lot using the Internet.

| | | | Never | Sometimes | Most of the Time | Always | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-------|-----------|------------------|--------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 14 | 13 | 9 | 17 | 53 |
| | | % within School | 26.4% | 24.5% | 17.0% | 32.1% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 8 | 3 | 20 | 20 | 51 |
| | | % within School | 15.7% | 5.9% | 39.2% | 39.2% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 22 | 16 | 29 | 37 | 104 |
| | | % within School | 21.2% | 15.4% | 27.9% | 35.6% | 100.0% |

Table 61

Informal Social Control: Teachers and staff in my school would help out if a student or group of students is pushing, shoving, or trying to pick a fight with a weaker student.

| | | | Never | Sometimes | Most of the Time | Always | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-------|-----------|------------------|--------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 13 | 7 | 16 | 19 | 55 |
| | | % within School | 23.6% | 12.7% | 29.1% | 34.5% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 7 | 3 | 20 | 21 | 51 |
| | | % within School | 13.7% | 5.9% | 39.2% | 41.2% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 20 | 10 | 36 | 40 | 106 |
| | | % within School | 18.9% | 9.4% | 34.0% | 37.7% | 100.0% |

Bystander intervention willingness. The bystander intervention willingness scale comprises of four four-point Likert-type questions asking students to think about what they, themselves, would do in certain situations; specifically, the questions ask if the respondents feel that they could be counted on to stop what is happening in the given scenarios. Responses range

from “never” to “always.” Table 62 shows the number of valid and missing cases for each Likert statement that comprised the bystander intervention willingness scale. Tables 63–66 summarize the number and percentage of students’ responses for each of these statements.

Table 62

Valid and Missing Cases for Each Statement of the Bystander Intervention Willingness Scale

| | Cases ^a | | | |
|---|--------------------|-------|---------|------|
| | Valid | | Missing | |
| | N | % | N | % |
| 49. I would help out if a student is making fun of and teasing another student who is obviously weaker. | 110 | 95.7% | 5 | 4.3% |
| 50. I would help out if a student is spreading rumors and lies about another student behind their back. | 109 | 94.8% | 6 | 5.2% |
| 51. I would help out if a student in my school is telling lies or making fun of another student who gets picked on a lot using the Internet (email, instant messaging, cell phone text messaging, or websites). | 109 | 94.8% | 6 | 5.2% |
| 52. I would help out if a student or group of students is pushing, shoving, or trying to pick a fight with a weaker student. | 109 | 94.8% | 6 | 5.2% |

^aTotal N = 115 and Total % = 100.0%.

Table 63

Bystander Intervention Willingness: I would help out if a student is making fun of and teasing another student who is obviously weaker.

| | | | Never | Sometimes | Most of the Time | Always | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-------|-----------|------------------|--------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 8 | 12 | 24 | 14 | 58 |
| | | % within School | 13.8% | 20.7% | 41.4% | 24.1% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 6 | 4 | 21 | 21 | 52 |
| | | % within School | 11.5% | 7.7% | 40.4% | 40.4% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 14 | 16 | 45 | 35 | 110 |
| | | % within School | 12.7% | 14.5% | 40.9% | 31.8% | 100.0% |

Table 64

Bystander Intervention Willingness: I would help out if a student is spreading rumors and lies about another student behind their back.

| | | | Never | Sometimes | Most of the Time | Always | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-------|-----------|------------------|--------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 10 | 10 | 24 | 13 | 57 |
| | | % within School | 17.5% | 17.5% | 42.1% | 22.8% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 4 | 5 | 24 | 19 | 52 |
| | | % within School | 7.7% | 9.6% | 46.2% | 36.5% | 100.0% |
| Total | | Count | 14 | 15 | 48 | 32 | 109 |
| | | % within School | 12.8% | 13.8% | 44.0% | 29.4% | 100.0% |

Table 65

Bystander Intervention Willingness: I would help out if a student in my school is telling lies or making fun of another student who gets picked on a lot using the Internet.

| | | | Never | Sometimes | Most of the Time | Always | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-------|-----------|------------------|--------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 11 | 13 | 17 | 16 | 57 |
| | | % within School | 19.3% | 22.8% | 29.8% | 28.1% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 5 | 4 | 24 | 19 | 52 |
| | | % within School | 9.6% | 7.7% | 46.2% | 36.5% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 16 | 17 | 41 | 35 | 109 |
| | % within School | | 14.7% | 15.6% | 37.6% | 32.1% | 100.0% |

Table 66

Bystander Intervention Willingness: I would help out if a student or group of students is pushing, shoving, or trying to pick a fight with a weaker student.

| | | | Never | Sometimes | Most of the Time | Always | Total |
|--------|--|-----------------|-------|-----------|------------------|--------|--------|
| School | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison Group) | Count | 10 | 12 | 19 | 16 | 57 |
| | | % within School | 17.5% | 21.1% | 33.3% | 28.1% | 100.0% |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment Group) | Count | 5 | 6 | 21 | 20 | 52 |
| | | % within School | 9.6% | 11.5% | 40.4% | 38.5% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | | 15 | 18 | 40 | 36 | 109 |
| | % within School | | 13.8% | 16.5% | 36.7% | 33.0% | 100.0% |

Attitude and Perception Scale Scores

The following set of tables and figures provide information on students' scores on each of the seven Likert-type scales included in the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey. Table 67 contains a summary of the valid and missing cases for the seven scales, while Table 68 provides details on the means, standard deviations, variances, skewness values, kurtosis values, ranges and minimum and maximum values for the seven scales. Tables 69–70 provide descriptive statistics (e.g., means, standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis, and ranges) for the seven scales divided by the two respective schools. The figures that follow provide a graphical representation of the frequency distributions for each of the seven scales. Each of the seven figures below (Figures 2–8) contains three graphs—the first graph depicts frequencies for all valid cases of the entire sample (i.e., comparison group and treatment group combined), the second graph depicts

frequencies for all valid cases of the comparison group (Communal Vision High School) only, and the third graph depicts frequencies for all valid cases of the treatment group (Mokpo Jungang High School) only. Each graph contains a summary of the number of valid cases, means, and standard deviations for its respective sample distribution.

Regarding the range of scores for each scale, the scale for social cohesion and trust has a minimum score of 7 and a maximum score of 28, the school climate scale range is 9–36, the perceived peer support scale range is 6–24, the self-esteem scale range is 8–32, the moral approval of bullying scale range is 10–40, the informal social control scale range is 8–32, and the bystander intervention willingness scale range is 4–16. Note that only *recorded* minimum and maximum scores are shown in the tables and charts below. For some scales, there were recorded responses that included the full range of scores (i.e., informal social control and bystander intervention willingness), while others did not (i.e., social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, and moral approval of bullying). For example, although the *complete* range of the social cohesion and trust scale is 7–28, the range shown in Table 68 and Figure 2 is 13–28 since 13 was the lowest minimum score derived from the actual survey (i.e., there were no recorded scores below 13). Similarly, although the *complete* range of the moral approval of bullying scale is 10–40, the *recorded* range shown in the corresponding table and chart is 10–27 since 27 was the highest maximum score derived from the actual survey administration (i.e., there were no recorded scores above 27).

Table 67

Summary of Valid and Missing Cases for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey

| | Cases ^a | | | |
|------------------------------------|--------------------|-------|----------|-------|
| | Valid ^b | | Missing | |
| | <i>n</i> | % | <i>n</i> | % |
| Social Cohesion and Trust | 97 | 84.3% | 18 | 15.7% |
| School Climate | 94 | 81.7% | 21 | 18.3% |
| Perceived Peer Support | 98 | 85.2% | 17 | 14.8% |
| Self-esteem | 106 | 92.2% | 9 | 7.8% |
| Moral Approval of Bullying | 111 | 96.5% | 4 | 3.5% |
| Informal Social Control | 101 | 87.8% | 14 | 12.2% |
| Bystander Intervention Willingness | 109 | 94.8% | 6 | 5.2% |

^aTotal *N* = 115 and Total % = 100.0%.^bValid *n* listwise (i.e., all seven scales combined) = 77.

Table 68

Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, Variances, Skewness, Kurtosis, Ranges, and Minimum and Maximum Values for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey

| Scale | <i>M</i> | | <i>SD</i> | <i>s</i> ² | Skewness | | Kurtosis | | Range | Min–Max |
|------------------------------------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------------------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|-------|---------|
| | Value | <i>SE</i> | | | Value | <i>SE</i> | Value | <i>SE</i> | | |
| Social Cohesion and Trust | 22.39 | .321 | 3.164 | 10.012 | .010 | .245 | -.081 | .485 | 15 | 13–28 |
| School Climate | 28.68 | .499 | 4.842 | 23.445 | -.558 | .249 | .859 | .493 | 22 | 14–36 |
| Perceived Peer Support | 19.09 | .366 | 3.619 | 13.095 | -.178 | .244 | -.970 | .483 | 13 | 11–24 |
| Self-Esteem | 24.24 | .378 | 3.893 | 15.153 | -.015 | .235 | -.778 | .465 | 16 | 16–32 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying | 11.95 | .326 | 3.429 | 11.761 | 2.381 | .229 | 5.912 | .455 | 17 | 10–27 |
| Informal Social Control | 21.52 | .820 | 8.245 | 67.972 | -.257 | .240 | -1.138 | .476 | 24 | 8–32 |
| Bystander Intervention Willingness | 11.57 | .364 | 3.804 | 14.470 | -.633 | .231 | -.512 | .459 | 12 | 4–16 |

Table 69

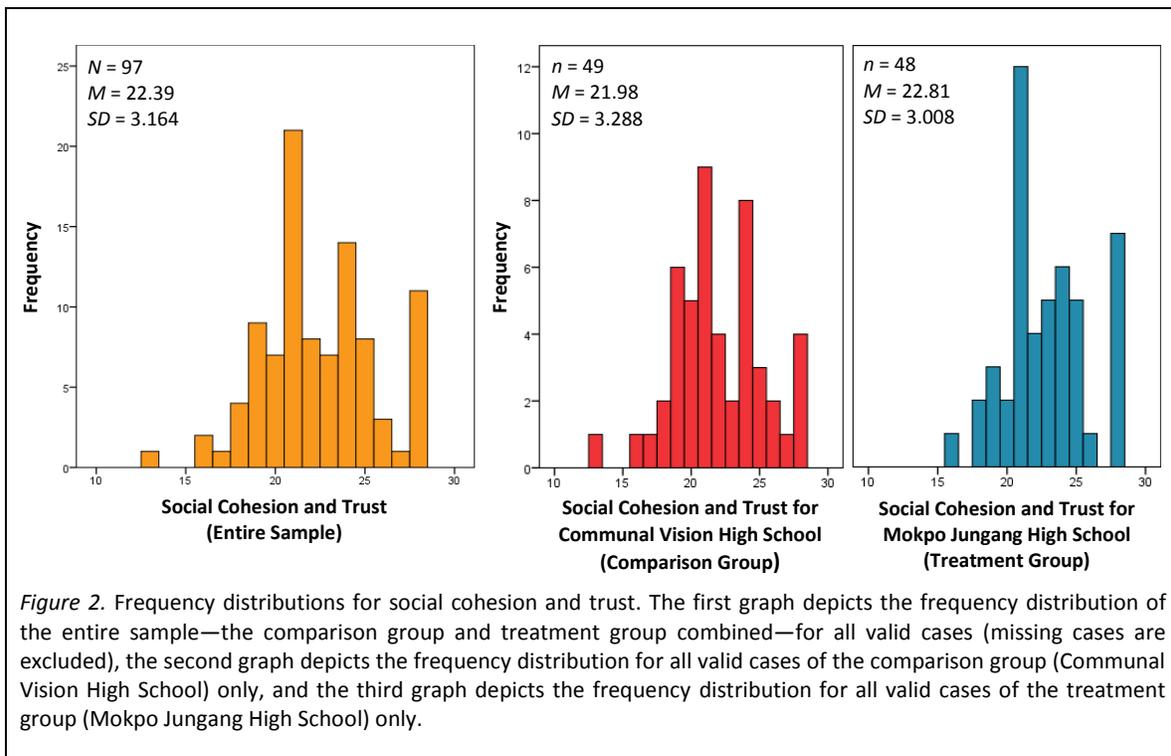
Summary of Valid Cases, Means, Standard Deviations, and Variances for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey Divided by School

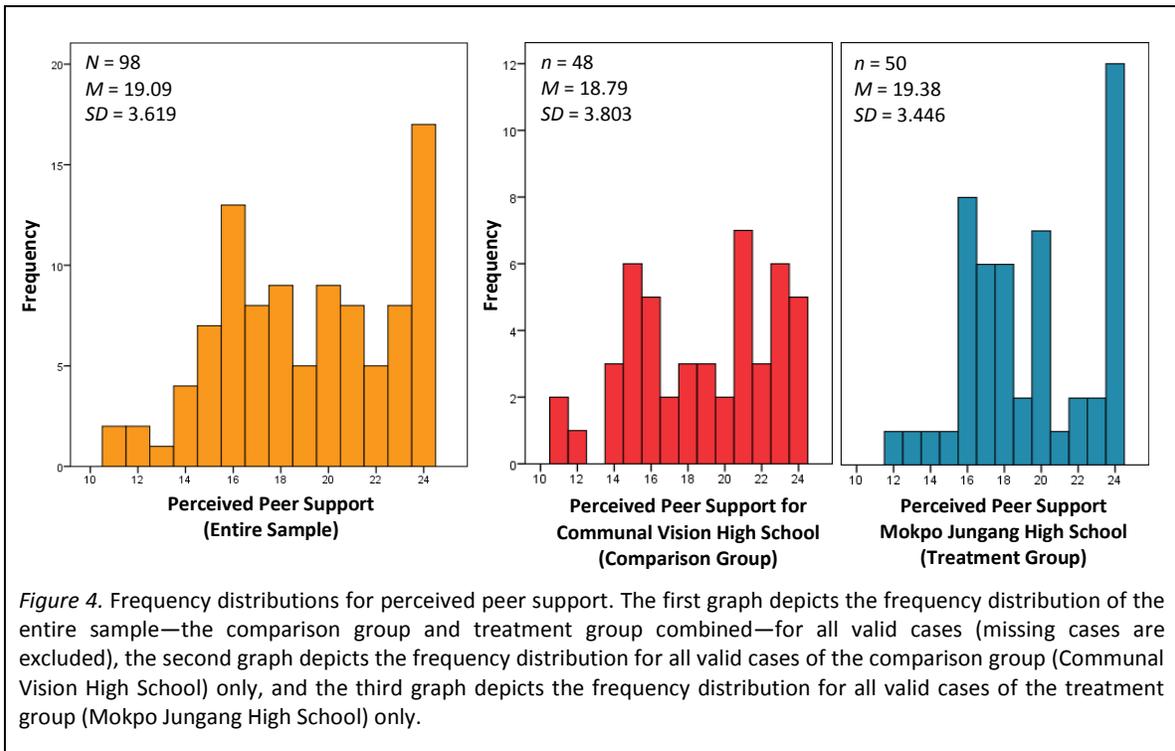
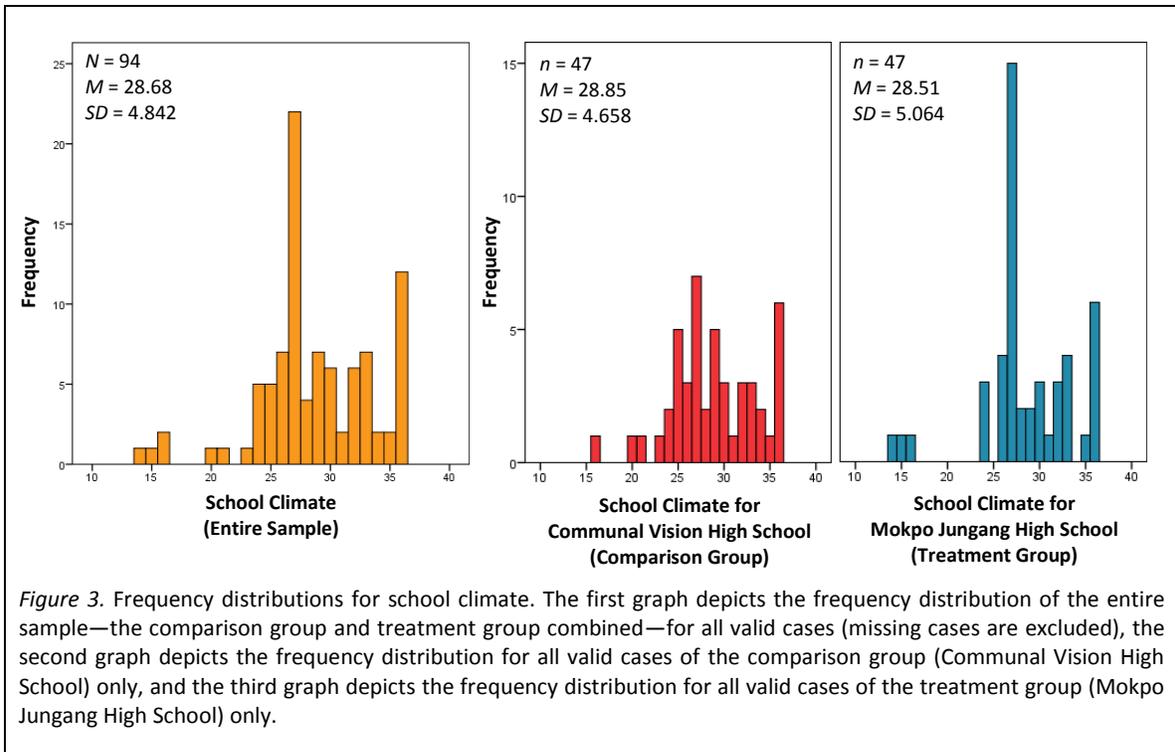
| Scale | School | <i>n</i> | <i>M</i> | | <i>SD</i> | <i>s</i> ² |
|------------------------------------|--|----------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------------------|
| | | | Value | <i>SE</i> | | |
| Social Cohesion and Trust | Communal Vision High School (Comparison) | 49 | 21.98 | .470 | 3.288 | 10.812 |
| | Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment) | 48 | 22.81 | .434 | 3.008 | 9.049 |
| School Climate | Communal Vision High School (Comparison) | 47 | 28.85 | .679 | 4.658 | 21.695 |
| | Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment) | 47 | 28.51 | .739 | 5.064 | 25.647 |
| Perceived Peer Support | Communal Vision High School (Comparison) | 48 | 18.79 | .549 | 3.803 | 14.466 |
| | Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment) | 50 | 19.38 | .487 | 3.446 | 11.873 |
| Self-Esteem | Communal Vision High School (Comparison) | 54 | 23.94 | .548 | 4.025 | 16.204 |
| | Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment) | 52 | 24.54 | .522 | 3.765 | 14.175 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying | Communal Vision High School (Comparison) | 58 | 12.10 | .374 | 2.845 | 8.094 |
| | Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment) | 53 | 11.77 | .549 | 3.993 | 15.948 |
| Informal Social Control | Communal Vision High School (Comparison) | 50 | 20.10 | 1.174 | 8.299 | 68.867 |
| | Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment) | 51 | 22.92 | 1.124 | 8.027 | 64.434 |
| Bystander Intervention Willingness | Communal Vision High School (Comparison) | 57 | 10.82 | .512 | 3.864 | 14.933 |
| | Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment) | 52 | 12.38 | .499 | 3.598 | 12.947 |

Table 70

Summary of Skewness, Kurtosis, Ranges, and Minimum and Maximum Values for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey Divided by School

| Scale | School | Skewness | | Kurtosis | | Range | Min–Max |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------|------|----------|------|-------|---------|
| | | Value | SE | Value | SE | | |
| Social Cohesion and Trust | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison) | -.069 | .340 | .085 | .668 | 15 | 13–28 |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment) | .203 | .343 | -.422 | .674 | 12 | 16–28 |
| School Climate | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison) | -.249 | .347 | -.017 | .681 | 20 | 16–36 |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment) | -.797 | .347 | 1.554 | .681 | 22 | 14–36 |
| Perceived Peer Support | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison) | -.285 | .343 | -1.042 | .674 | 13 | 11–24 |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment) | .007 | .337 | -1.066 | .662 | 12 | 12–24 |
| Self-Esteem | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison) | -.052 | .325 | -.780 | .639 | 16 | 16–32 |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment) | .068 | .330 | -.820 | .650 | 15 | 17–32 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison) | 1.463 | .314 | 1.084 | .618 | 10 | 10–20 |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment) | 2.739 | .327 | 6.998 | .644 | 17 | 10–27 |
| Informal Social Control | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison) | -.084 | .337 | -1.279 | .662 | 24 | 8–32 |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment) | -.441 | .333 | -.875 | .656 | 24 | 8–32 |
| Bystander Intervention Willingness | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison) | -.416 | .316 | -.789 | .623 | 12 | 4–16 |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment) | -.941 | .330 | .258 | .650 | 12 | 4–16 |





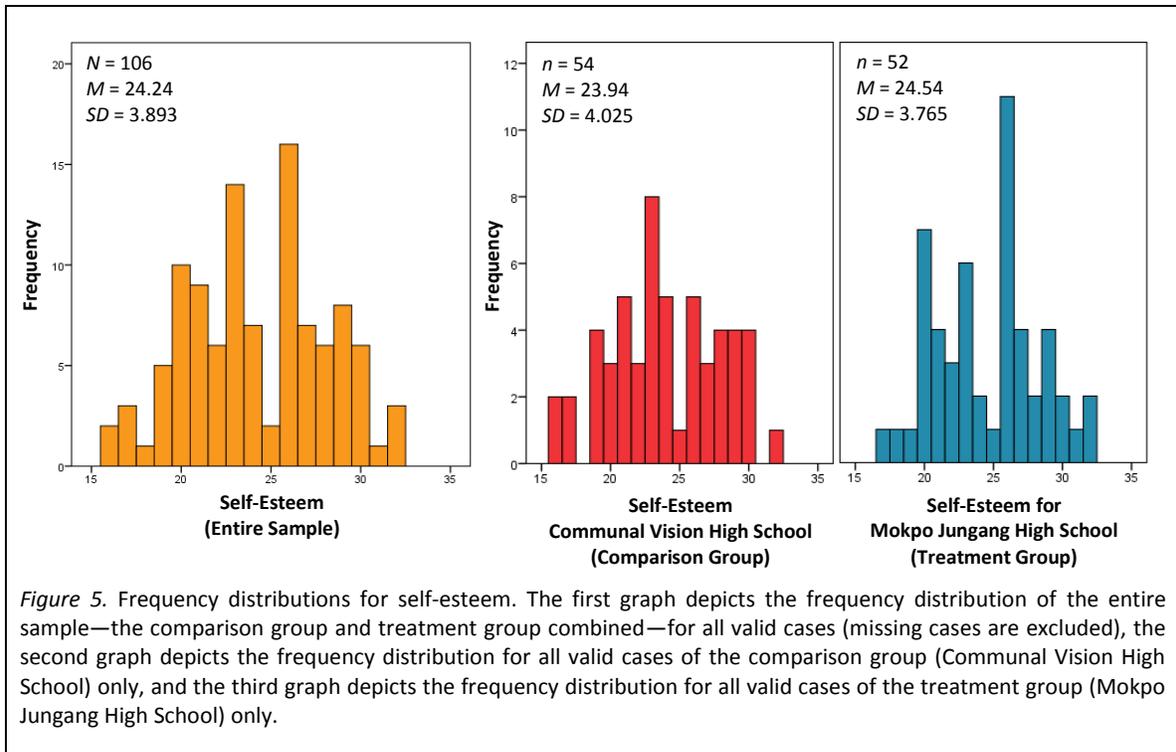


Figure 5. Frequency distributions for self-esteem. The first graph depicts the frequency distribution of the entire sample—the comparison group and treatment group combined—for all valid cases (missing cases are excluded), the second graph depicts the frequency distribution for all valid cases of the comparison group (Communal Vision High School) only, and the third graph depicts the frequency distribution for all valid cases of the treatment group (Mokpo Jungang High School) only.

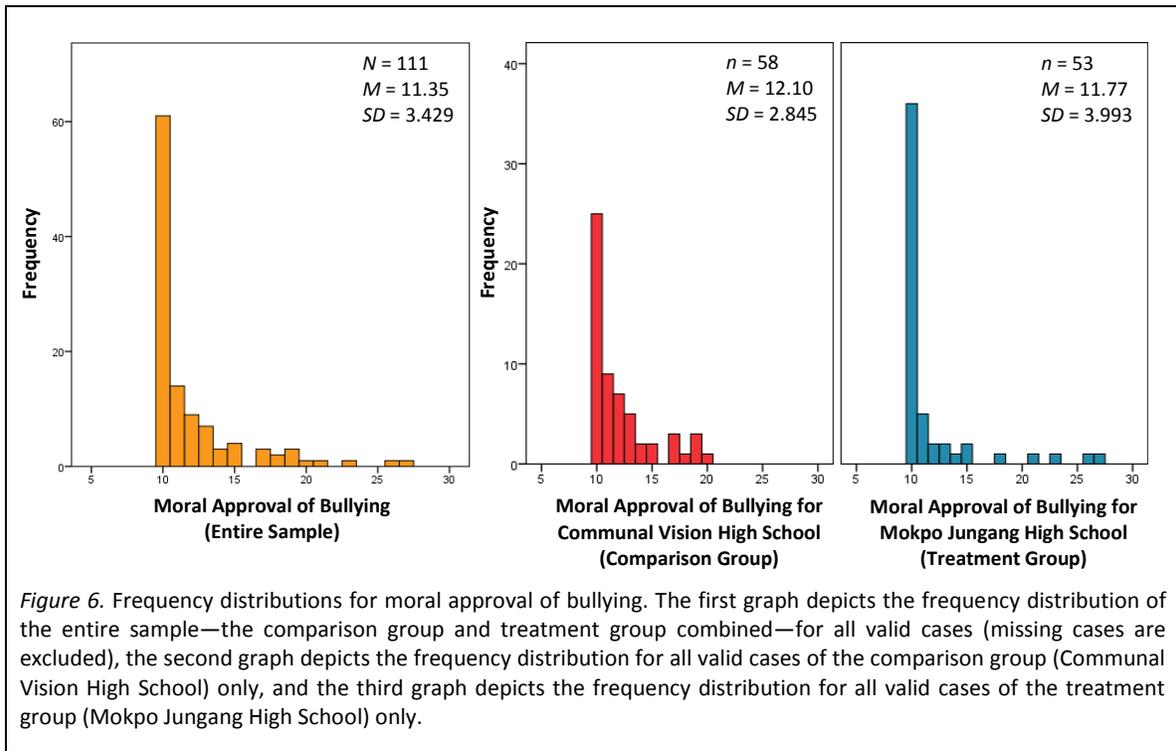


Figure 6. Frequency distributions for moral approval of bullying. The first graph depicts the frequency distribution of the entire sample—the comparison group and treatment group combined—for all valid cases (missing cases are excluded), the second graph depicts the frequency distribution for all valid cases of the comparison group (Communal Vision High School) only, and the third graph depicts the frequency distribution for all valid cases of the treatment group (Mokpo Jungang High School) only.

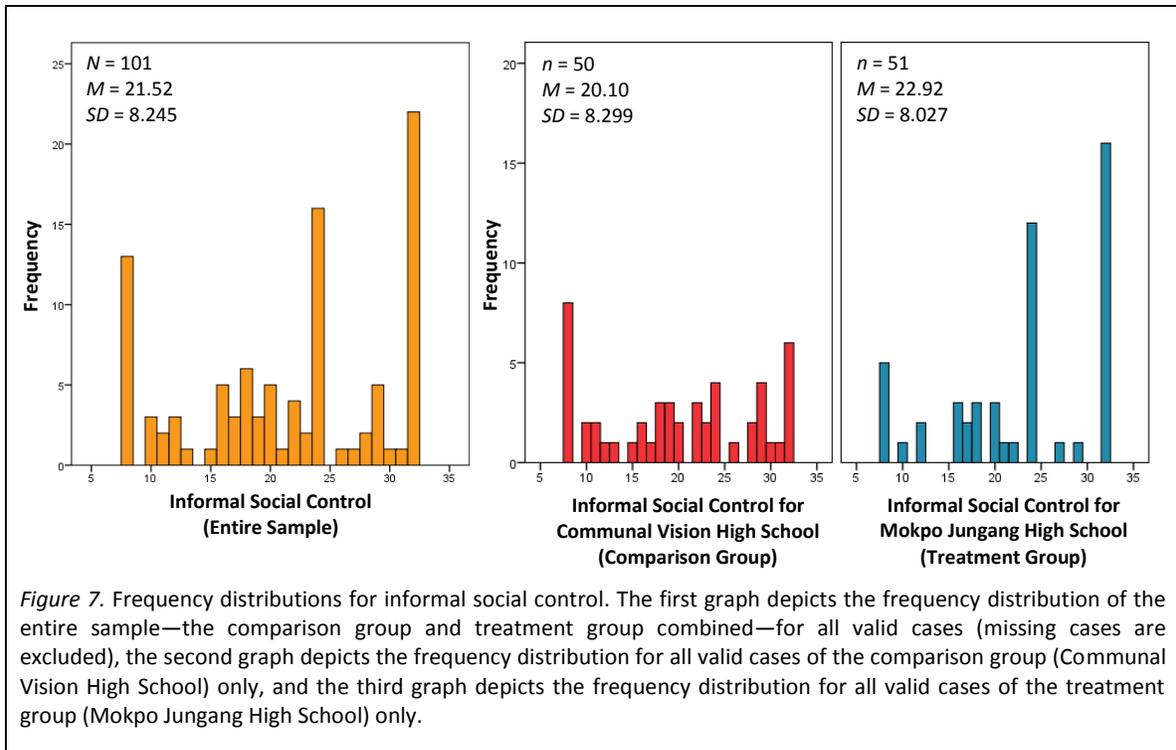


Figure 7. Frequency distributions for informal social control. The first graph depicts the frequency distribution of the entire sample—the comparison group and treatment group combined—for all valid cases (missing cases are excluded), the second graph depicts the frequency distribution for all valid cases of the comparison group (Communal Vision High School) only, and the third graph depicts the frequency distribution for all valid cases of the treatment group (Mokpo Jungang High School) only.

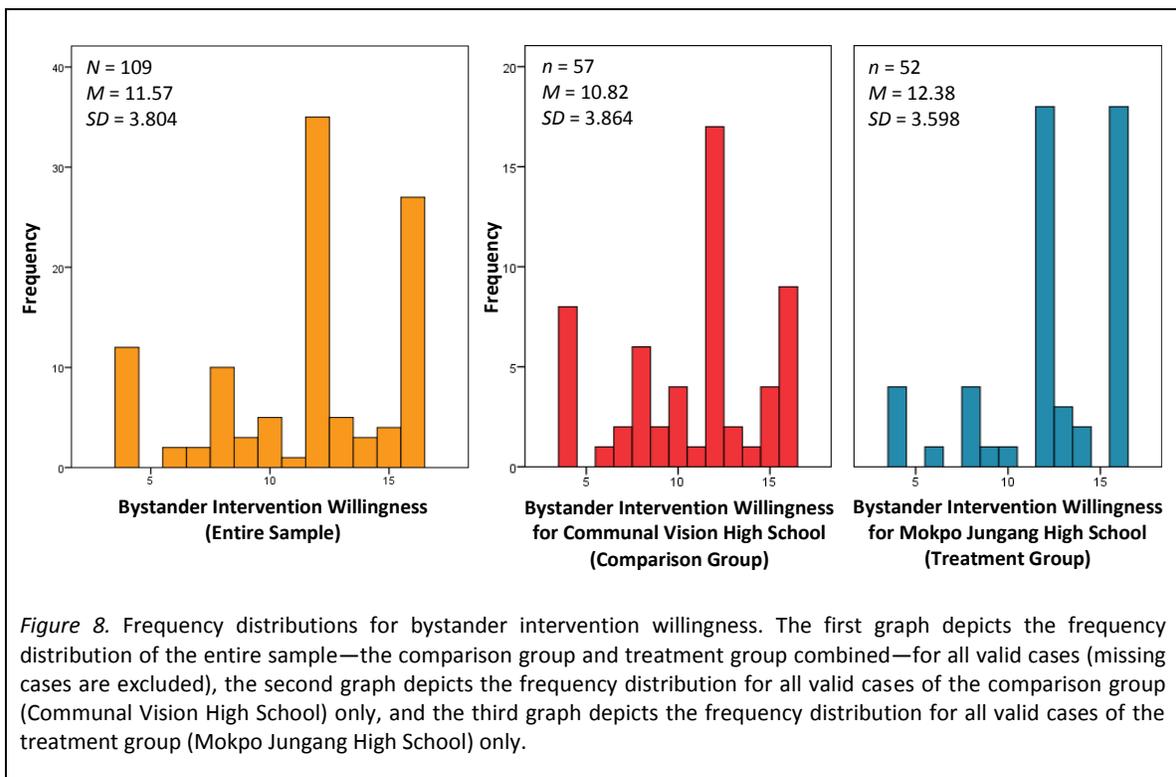


Figure 8. Frequency distributions for bystander intervention willingness. The first graph depicts the frequency distribution of the entire sample—the comparison group and treatment group combined—for all valid cases (missing cases are excluded), the second graph depicts the frequency distribution for all valid cases of the comparison group (Communal Vision High School) only, and the third graph depicts the frequency distribution for all valid cases of the treatment group (Mokpo Jungang High School) only.

Comparative Mean Scores for the Seven Scales Across Demographics

Tables 71–73 summarize the number of valid cases, means, and standard deviations for each of the seven scales across the three demographic variables—gender, age, and grade level—separated by school, while Figures 9–29 offer visual representations of the means for each of the seven scales across the three demographic variables for ease of comparison. Each figure includes two bar graphs: the first graph depicts the means for the entire sample (missing cases excluded), while the adjacent graph depicts means divided by each of the two schools.

Gender. Table 71 provides a summary of valid cases, means, and standard deviations for each of the seven scales divided by school and gender, while Figures 9–15 offer a visual representation of the means for each of the scales across gender for the entire sample combined and divided by the two schools.

Table 71

Summary of Number of Valid Cases, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey Divided by School and Gender

| School | Gender | | Social Cohesion and Trust | School Climate | Perceived Peer Support | Self-Esteem | Moral Approval of Bullying | Informal Social Control | Bystander Intervention Willingness |
|--|--------|-----------|---------------------------|----------------|------------------------|-------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Communal Vision High School (Comparison Group) | Male | <i>n</i> | 32 | 30 | 30 | 33 | 36 | 32 | 36 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 22.69 | 30.10 | 20.07 | 24.70 | 12.47 | 19.56 | 10.61 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 3.074 | 4.139 | 3.362 | 4.019 | 3.247 | 9.635 | 4.448 |
| | Female | <i>n</i> | 17 | 17 | 18 | 21 | 22 | 18 | 21 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 20.65 | 26.65 | 16.67 | 22.76 | 11.50 | 21.06 | 11.19 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 3.535 | 4.821 | 3.614 | 3.833 | 1.946 | 5.263 | 2.639 |
| Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment Group) | Male | <i>n</i> | 31 | 30 | 33 | 34 | 36 | 34 | 34 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 22.97 | 28.33 | 18.85 | 24.47 | 12.14 | 22.09 | 11.97 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 3.381 | 6.138 | 3.692 | 3.918 | 4.649 | 8.712 | 4.019 |
| | Female | <i>n</i> | 17 | 17 | 17 | 18 | 17 | 17 | 18 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 22.53 | 28.82 | 20.41 | 24.67 | 11.00 | 24.59 | 13.17 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 2.239 | 2.298 | 2.717 | 3.565 | 1.904 | 6.355 | 2.550 |
| Entire Sample (CVHS+MJHS) | Male | <i>n</i> | 63 | 60 | 63 | 67 | 72 | 66 | 70 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 22.83 | 29.22 | 19.43 | 24.58 | 12.31 | 20.86 | 11.27 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 3.206 | 5.266 | 3.564 | 3.940 | 3.985 | 9.188 | 4.270 |
| | Female | <i>n</i> | 34 | 34 | 35 | 39 | 39 | 35 | 39 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 21.59 | 27.74 | 18.49 | 23.64 | 11.28 | 22.77 | 12.10 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 2.966 | 3.879 | 3.689 | 3.787 | 1.919 | 6.005 | 2.751 |

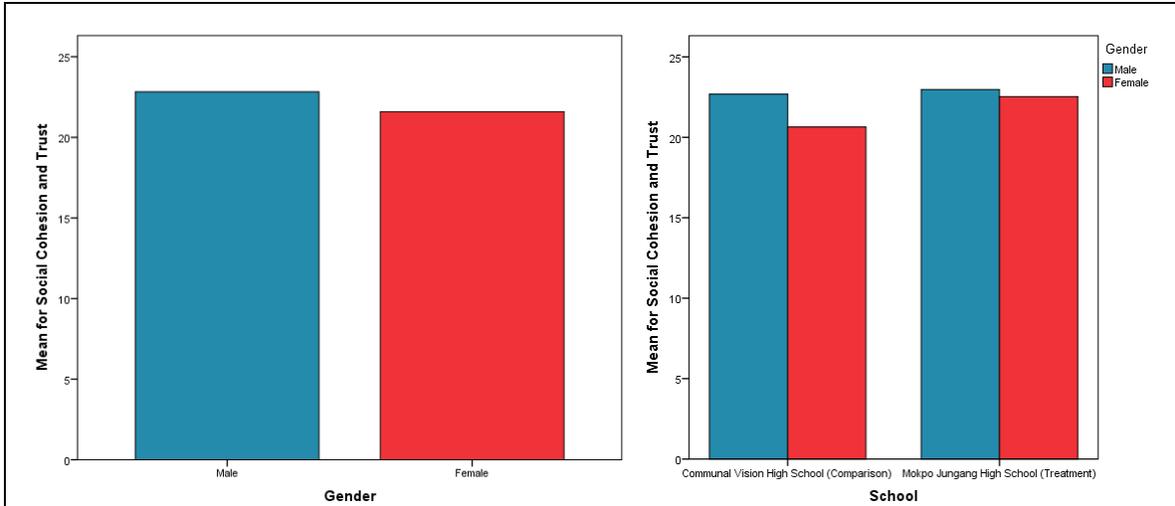


Figure 9. Bar graphs comparing means for social cohesion and trust (SCT) divided by gender and school. The first graph compares SCT means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the SCT means by gender for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the SCT means by gender for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

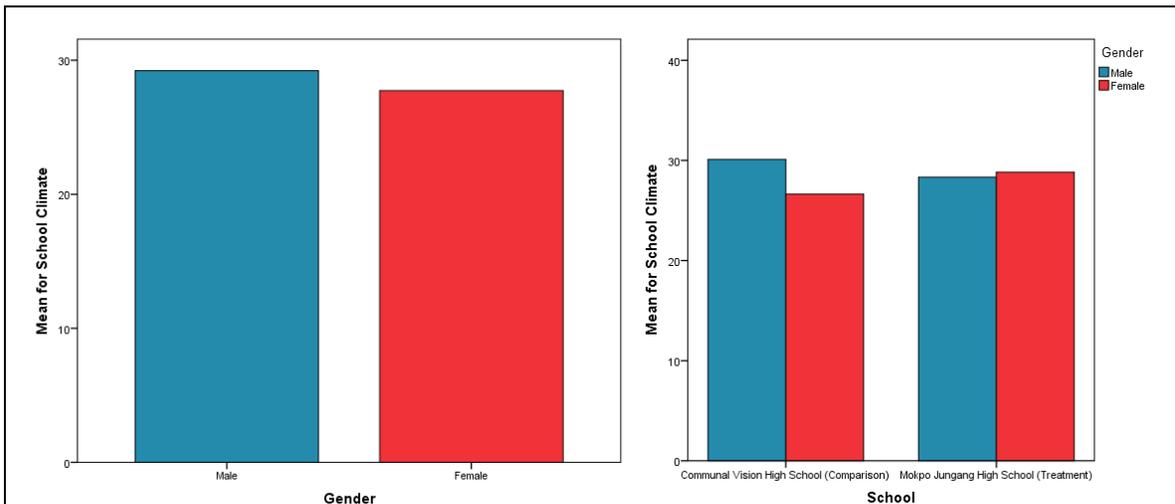


Figure 10. Bar graphs comparing means for school climate (SC) divided by gender and school. The first graph compares SC means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the SC means by gender for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the SC means by gender for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

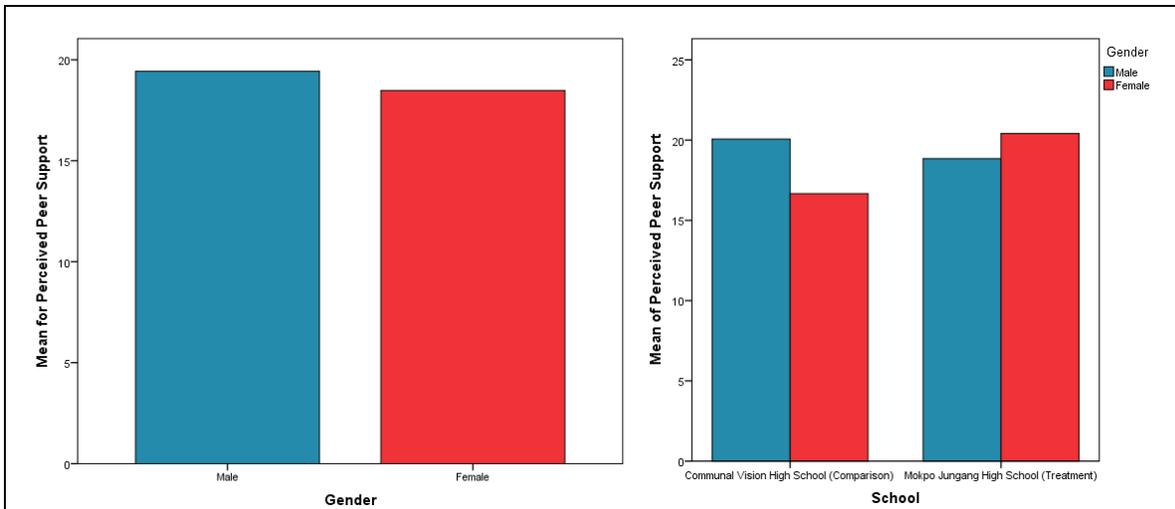


Figure 11. Bar graphs comparing means for perceived peer support (PPS) divided by gender and school. The first graph compares PPS means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the PPS means by gender for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the PPS means by gender for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

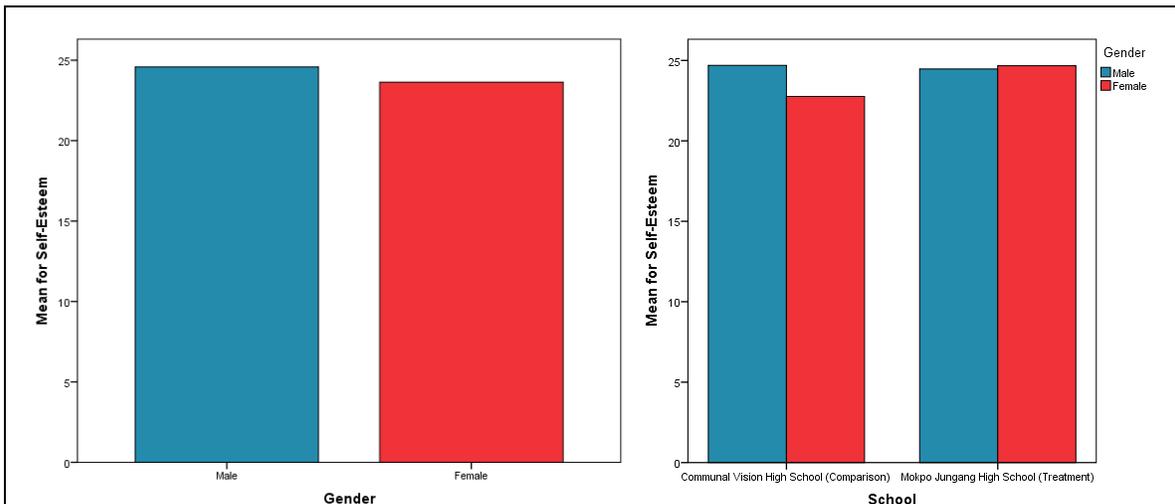


Figure 12. Bar graphs comparing means for self-esteem (SE) divided by gender and school. The first graph compares SE means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the SE means by gender for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the SE means by gender for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

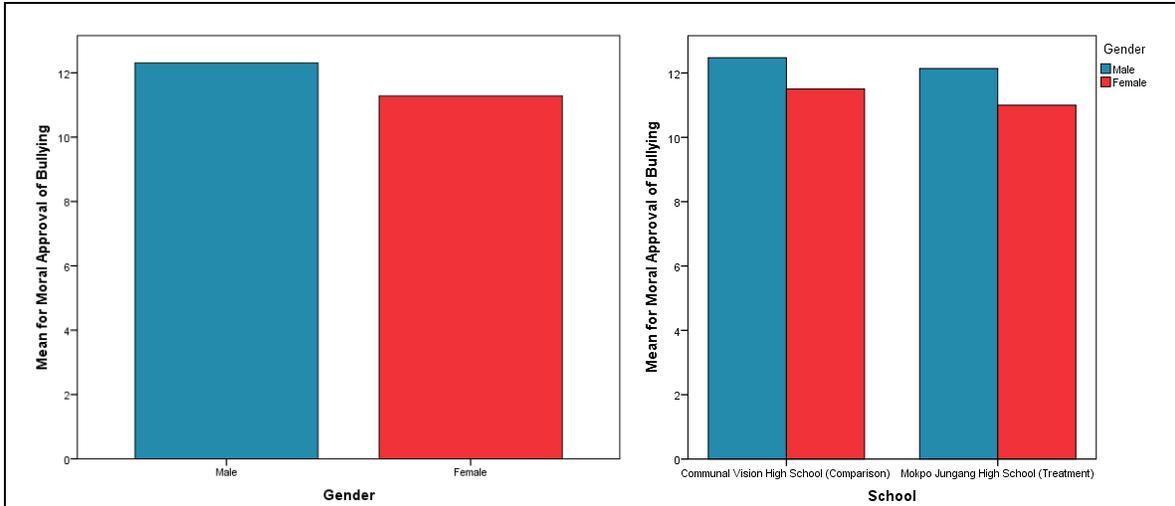


Figure 13. Bar graphs comparing means for moral approval of bullying (MAB) divided by gender and school. The first graph compares MAB means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the MAB means by gender for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the MAB means by gender for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

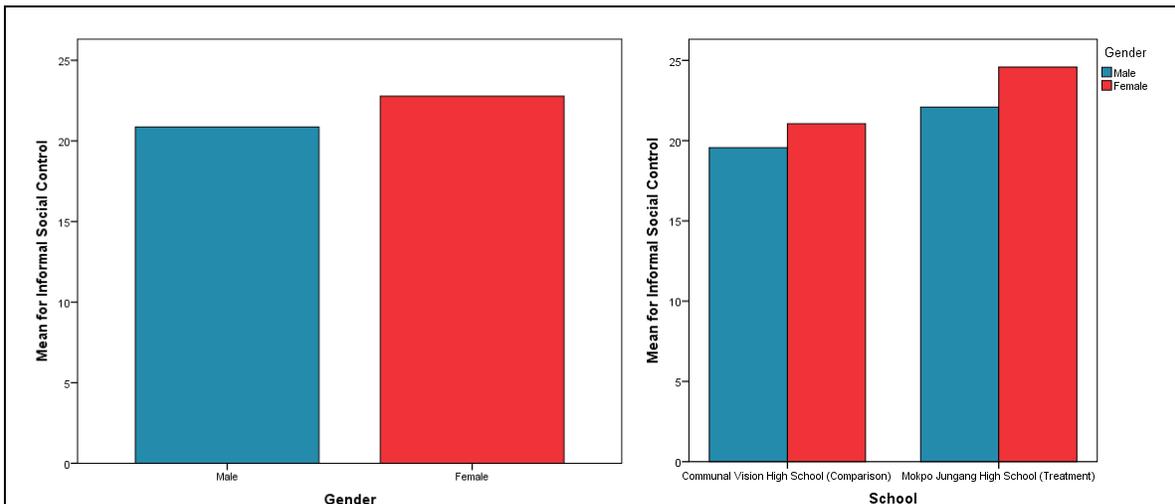
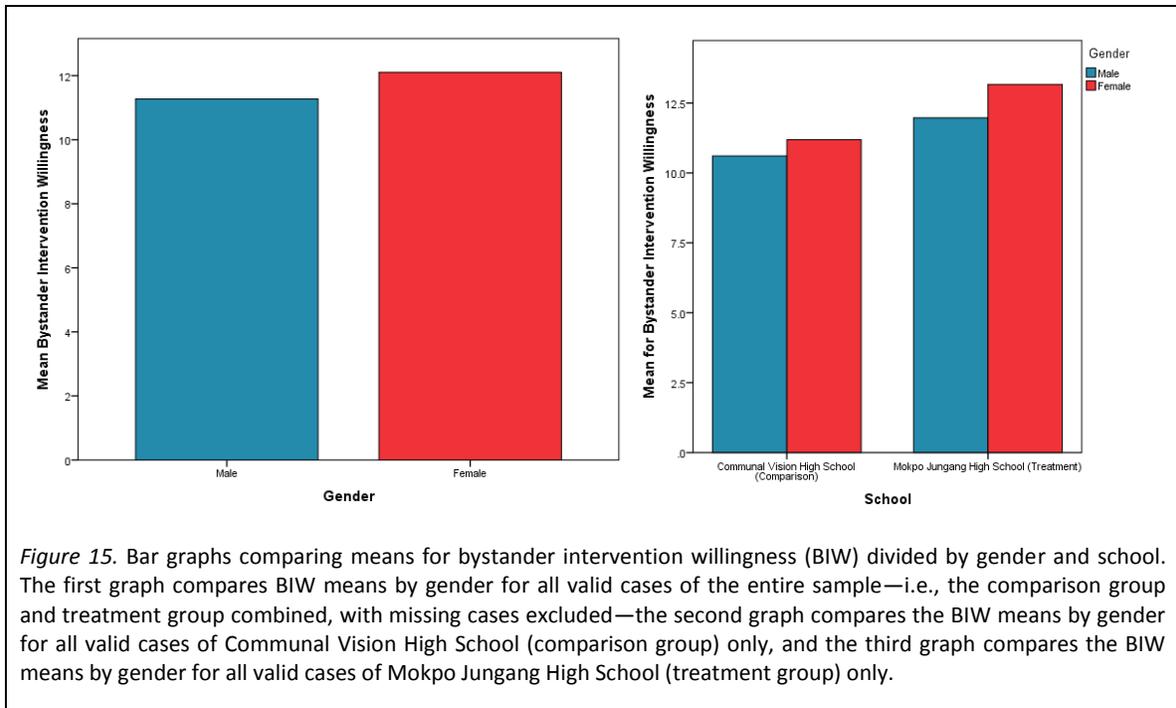


Figure 14. Bar graphs comparing means for informal social control (ISC) divided by gender and school. The first graph compares ISC means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the ISC means by gender for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the ISC means by gender for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.



Age. Table 72 provides a summary of valid cases, means, and standard deviations for each of the seven scales divided by school and age, while Figures 16–22 offer a visual representation of the means for each of the scales across age for the entire sample combined and divided by the two schools.

Table 72

Summary of Number of Valid Cases, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey Divided by School and Age

| School | Age | | Social Cohesion and Trust | School Climate | Perceived Peer Support | Self-Esteem | Moral Approval of Bullying | Informal Social Control | Bystander Intervention Willingness |
|--|-----------|-----------|---------------------------|----------------|------------------------|-------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Communal Vision High School (Comparison Group) | 16 | <i>n</i> | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 21.00 | 27.00 | 18.50 | 22.00 | 13.50 | 10.00 | 8.50 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | . | . | 6.364 | 2.828 | 2.121 | . | 6.364 |
| | 17 | <i>n</i> | 20 | 19 | 17 | 20 | 23 | 18 | 21 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 21.60 | 27.95 | 18.65 | 23.95 | 12.13 | 18.33 | 10.71 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 3.152 | 4.564 | 4.227 | 4.740 | 2.528 | 8.210 | 4.039 |
| | 18 | <i>n</i> | 27 | 26 | 28 | 31 | 32 | 30 | 33 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 22.30 | 29.42 | 19.00 | 24.00 | 12.06 | 21.17 | 10.88 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 3.528 | 4.810 | 3.569 | 3.706 | 3.151 | 8.175 | 3.672 |
| 19 | <i>n</i> | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | |
| | <i>M</i> | 22.00 | 33.00 | 16.00 | 26.00 | 10.00 | 30.00 | 16.00 | |
| | <i>SD</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | |
| Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment Group) | 16 | <i>n</i> | 8 | 8 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 9 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 21.50 | 28.38 | 17.67 | 21.33 | 13.22 | 21.11 | 10.67 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 1.927 | 3.021 | 3.162 | 2.915 | 5.805 | 7.474 | 3.428 |
| | 17 | <i>n</i> | 23 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 23 | 25 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 23.09 | 28.22 | 18.67 | 24.92 | 11.96 | 22.52 | 12.24 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 3.260 | 5.493 | 3.358 | 3.427 | 4.035 | 6.980 | 3.113 |
| | 18 | <i>n</i> | 17 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 18 | 19 | 18 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 23.06 | 29.00 | 21.29 | 25.61 | 10.78 | 24.26 | 13.44 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 3.051 | 5.453 | 2.974 | 3.883 | 2.602 | 9.533 | 4.105 |
| 19 | <i>n</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | |
| | <i>M</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | |
| | <i>SD</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | |
| Entire Sample (CVHS+MJHS) | 16 | <i>n</i> | 9 | 9 | 11 | 11 | 11 | 10 | 11 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 21.44 | 28.22 | 17.82 | 21.45 | 13.27 | 20.00 | 10.27 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 1.810 | 2.863 | 3.488 | 2.770 | 5.236 | 7.874 | 3.771 |
| | 17 | <i>n</i> | 43 | 42 | 41 | 45 | 49 | 41 | 46 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 22.40 | 28.10 | 18.66 | 24.49 | 12.04 | 20.68 | 11.54 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 3.260 | 5.036 | 3.692 | 4.043 | 3.379 | 7.738 | 3.607 |
| | 18 | <i>n</i> | 44 | 42 | 45 | 49 | 50 | 49 | 51 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 22.59 | 29.26 | 19.87 | 24.59 | 11.60 | 22.37 | 11.78 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 3.260 | 5.036 | 3.692 | 4.043 | 3.379 | 7.738 | 3.607 |
| | 19 | <i>n</i> | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 22.00 | 33.00 | 16.00 | 26.00 | 10.00 | 30.00 | 16.00 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |

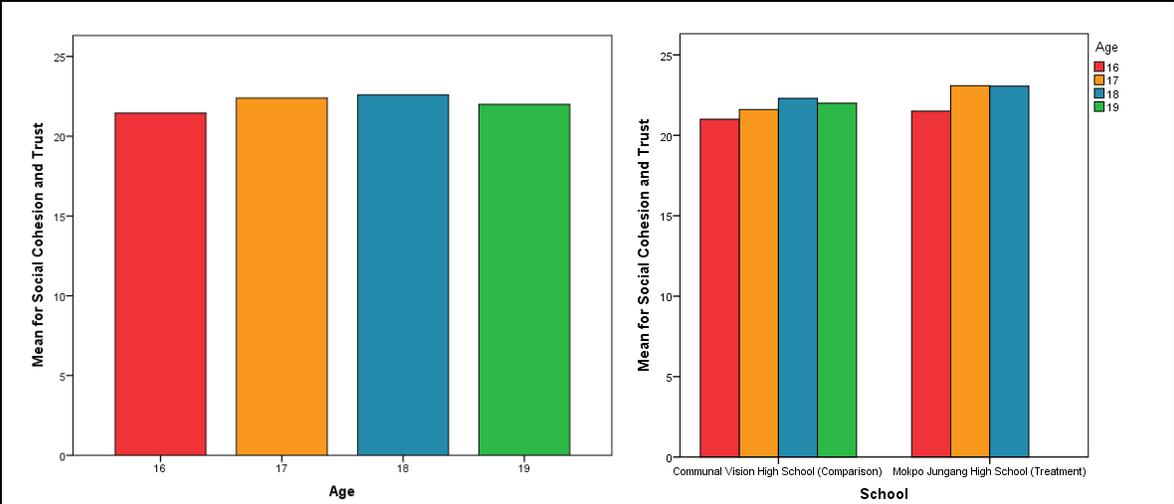


Figure 16. Bar graphs comparing means for social cohesion and trust (SCT) divided by age and school. The first graph compares SCT means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the SCT means by age for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the SCT means by age for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

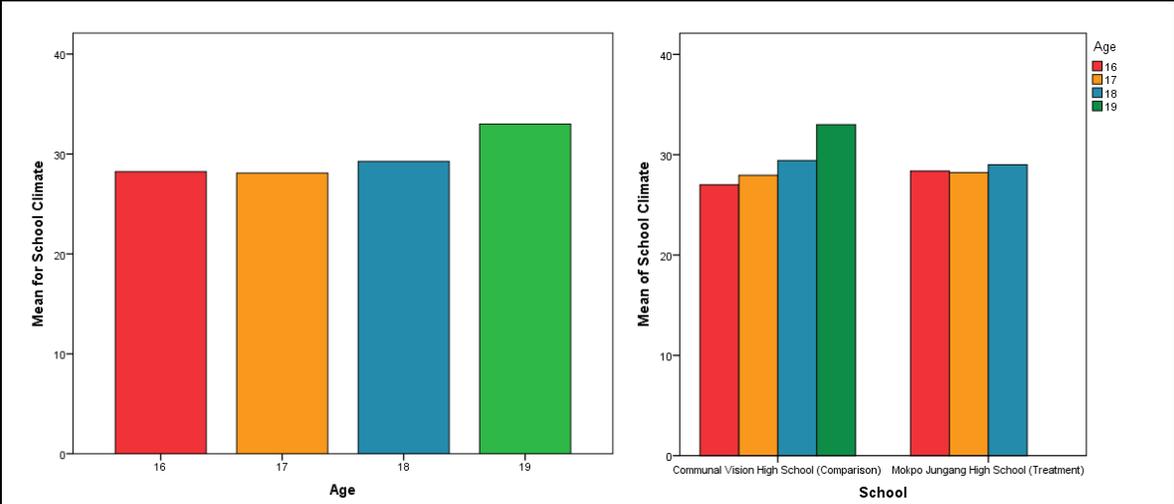


Figure 17. Bar graphs comparing means for school climate (SC) divided by age and school. The first graph compares SC means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the SC means by age for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the SC means by age for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

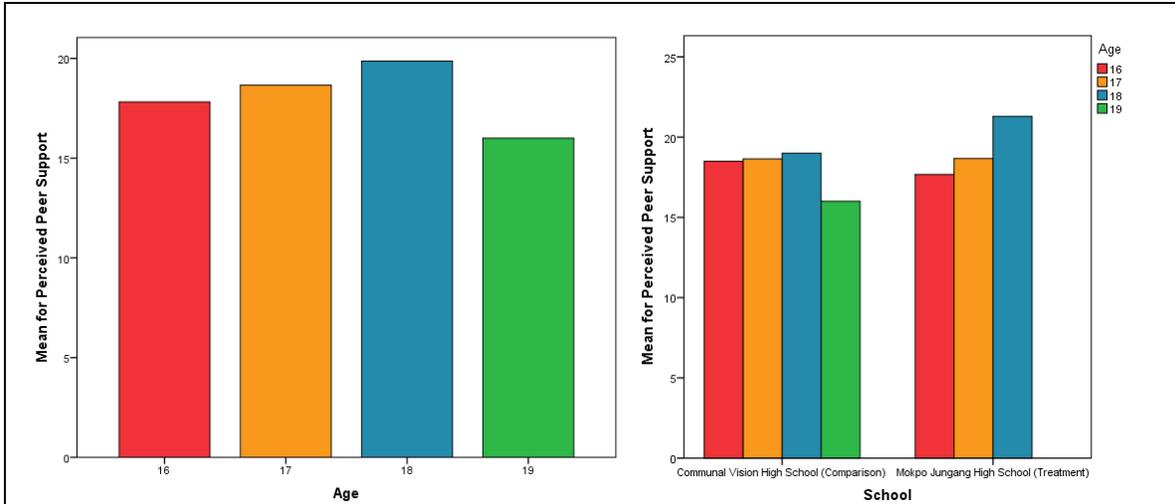


Figure 18. Bar graphs comparing means for perceived peer support (PPS) divided by age and school. The first graph compares PPS means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the PPS means by age for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the PPS means by age for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

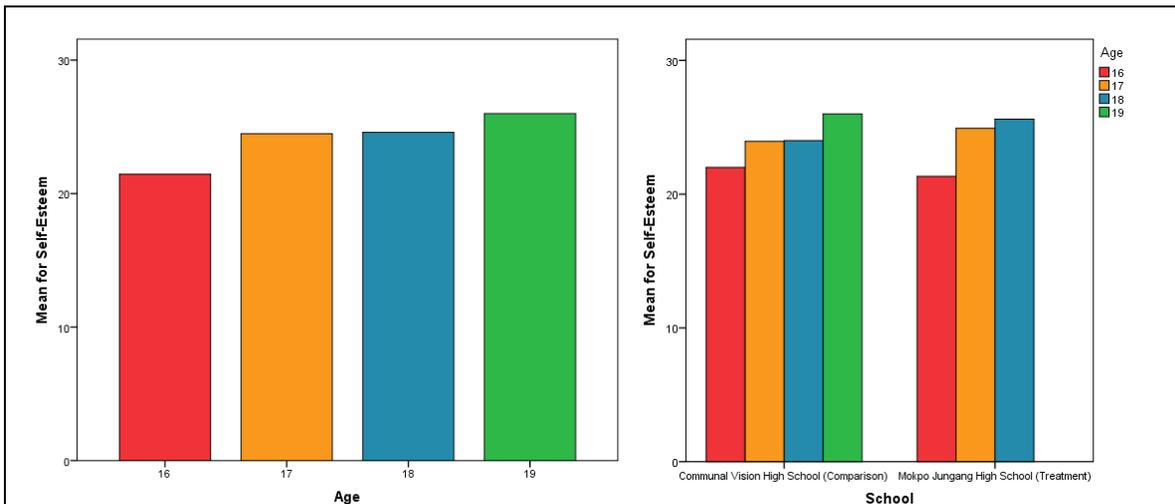


Figure 19. Bar graphs comparing means for self-esteem (SE) divided by age and school. The first graph compares SE means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the SE means by age for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the SE means by age for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

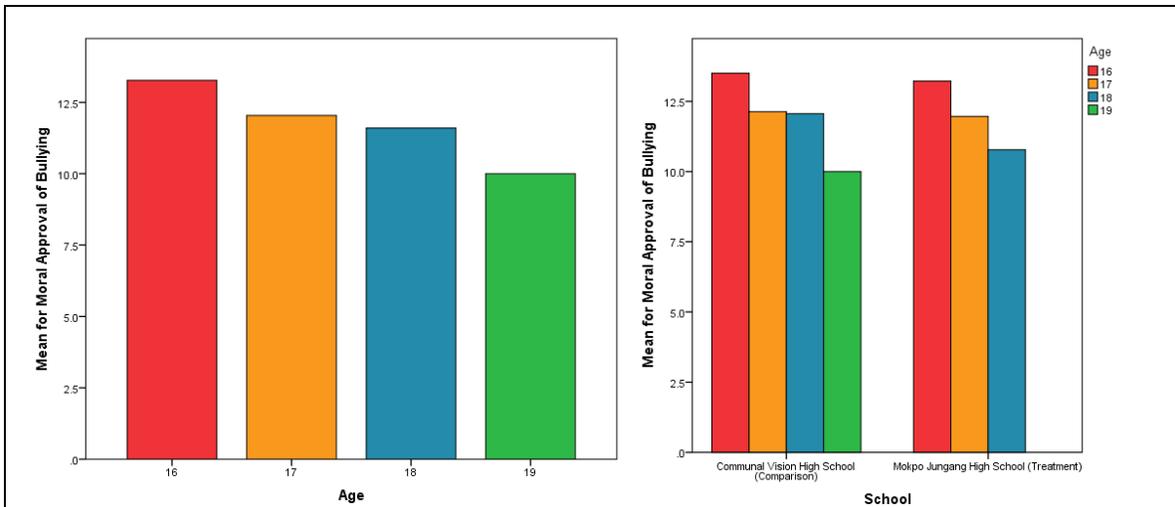


Figure 20. Bar graphs comparing means for moral approval of bullying (MAB) divided by age and school. The first graph compares MAB means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the MAB means by age for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the MAB means by age for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

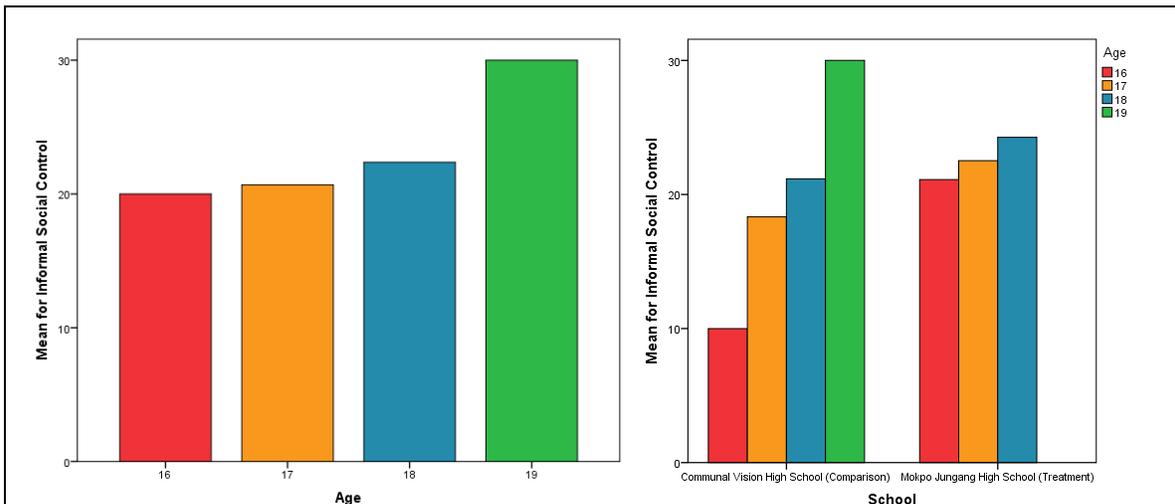
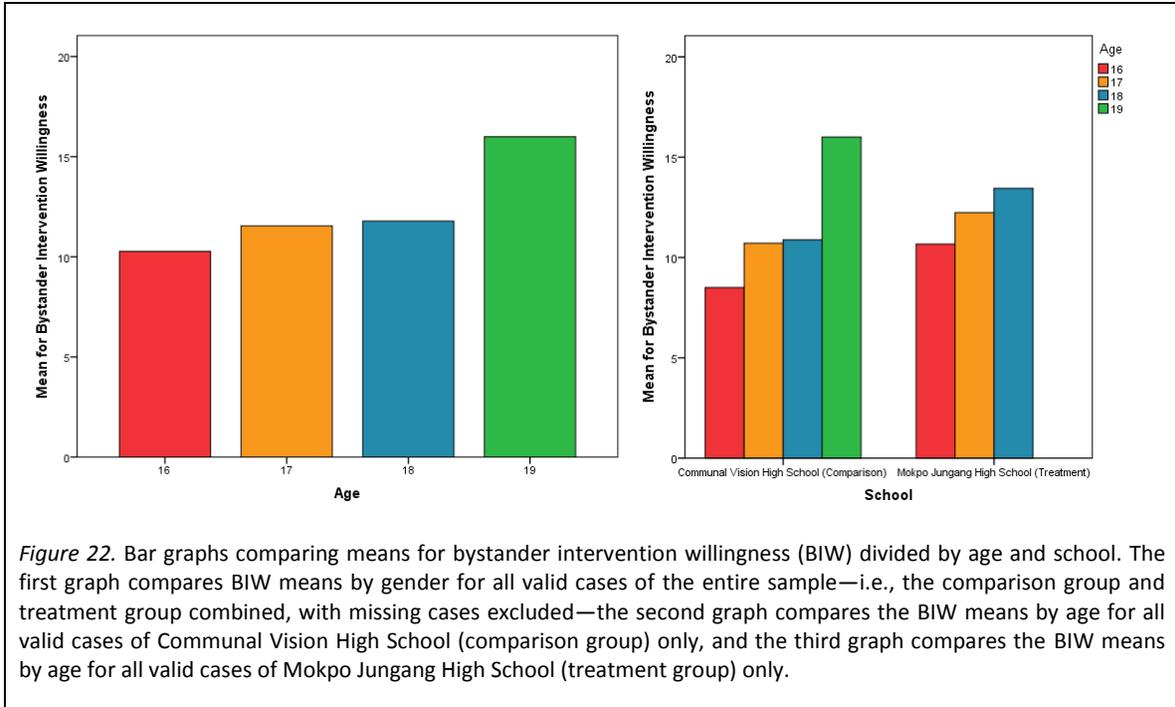


Figure 21. Bar graphs comparing means for informal social control (ISC) divided by age and school. The first graph compares ISC means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the ISC means by age for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the ISC means by age for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

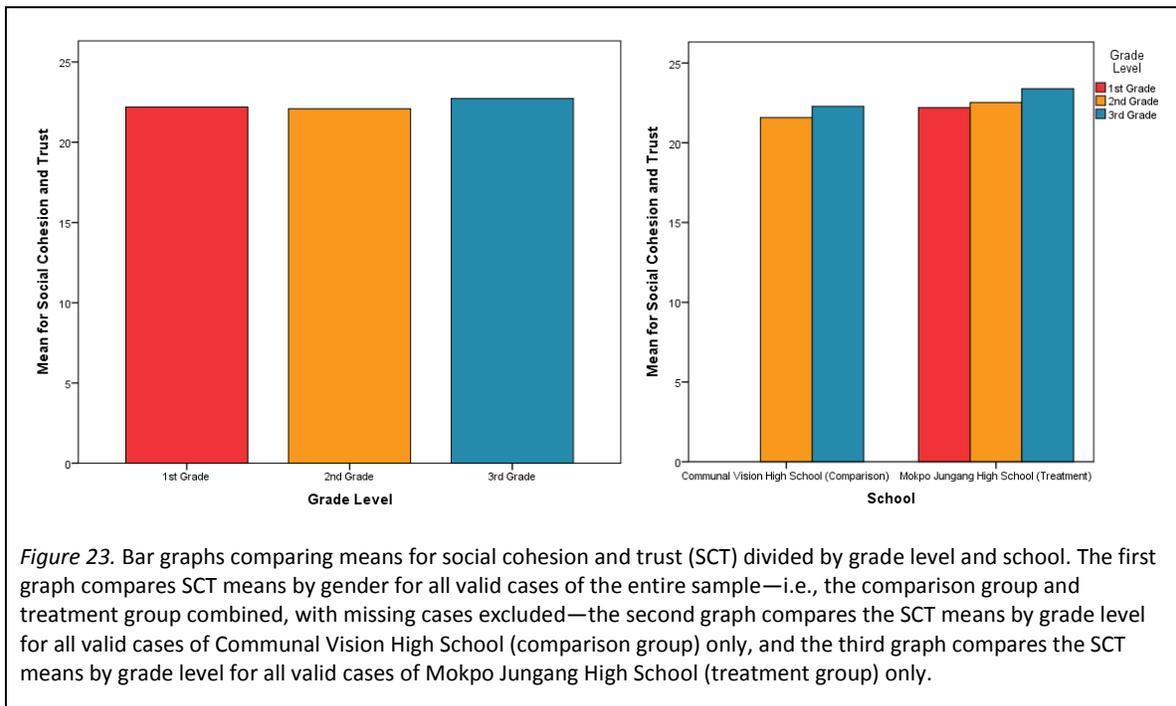


Grade level. Table 73 provides a summary of valid cases, means, and standard deviations for each of the seven scales divided by school and grade level, while Figures 23–29 offer a visual representation of the means for each of the scales across grade level for the entire sample combined and divided by the two schools.

Table 73

Summary of Number of Valid Cases, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey Divided by School and Grade Level

| School | Grade Level | | Social Cohesion and Trust | School Climate | Perceived Peer Support | Self-Esteem | Moral Approval of Bullying | Informal Social Control | Bystander Intervention Willingness |
|--|-----------------------|-----------|---------------------------|----------------|------------------------|-------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Communal Vision High School (Comparison Group) | 1 st Grade | <i>n</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | | <i>M</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | | <i>SD</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | 2 nd Grade | <i>n</i> | 21 | 20 | 19 | 22 | 25 | 19 | 23 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 21.57 | 27.90 | 18.63 | 23.77 | 12.24 | 17.89 | 10.52 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 3.075 | 4.447 | 4.258 | 4.587 | 2.488 | 8.205 | 4.133 |
| 3 rd Grade | <i>n</i> | 28 | 27 | 29 | 32 | 33 | 31 | 34 | |
| | <i>M</i> | 22.29 | 29.56 | 18.90 | 24.06 | 12.00 | 21.45 | 11.03 | |
| | <i>SD</i> | 3.463 | 4.766 | 3.549 | 3.663 | 3.122 | 8.193 | 3.721 | |
| Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment Group) | 1 st Grade | <i>n</i> | 5 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 22.20 | 29.20 | 18.17 | 21.50 | 12.00 | 20.00 | 10.50 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 1.304 | 3.033 | 1.722 | 2.258 | 3.162 | 8.390 | 3.987 |
| | 2 nd Grade | <i>n</i> | 25 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 25 | 27 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 22.52 | 27.64 | 18.00 | 24.15 | 12.82 | 21.44 | 11.81 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 3.177 | 5.139 | 3.250 | 3.676 | 5.070 | 6.609 | 2.896 |
| 3 rd Grade | <i>n</i> | 18 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 19 | 20 | 19 | |
| | <i>M</i> | 23.39 | 29.59 | 21.78 | 26.05 | 10.16 | 25.65 | 13.79 | |
| | <i>SD</i> | 3.177 | 5.139 | 3.250 | 3.676 | 5.070 | 6.609 | 2.896 | |
| Entire Sample (CVHS+MJHS) | 1 st Grade | <i>n</i> | 5 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 22.20 | 29.20 | 18.17 | 21.50 | 12.00 | 20.00 | 10.50 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 1.304 | 3.033 | 1.722 | 2.258 | 3.162 | 8.390 | 3.987 |
| | 2 nd Grade | <i>n</i> | 46 | 45 | 45 | 49 | 53 | 44 | 50 |
| | | <i>M</i> | 22.09 | 27.76 | 18.27 | 23.98 | 12.55 | 19.91 | 11.22 |
| | | <i>SD</i> | 3.133 | 4.792 | 3.677 | 4.070 | 4.036 | 7.464 | 3.542 |
| 3 rd Grade | <i>n</i> | 46 | 44 | 47 | 51 | 52 | 51 | 53 | |
| | <i>M</i> | 22.27 | 29.57 | 20.00 | 24.80 | 11.33 | 23.10 | 12.02 | |
| | <i>SD</i> | 3.344 | 4.962 | 3.569 | 3.758 | 2.647 | 8.711 | 4.031 | |



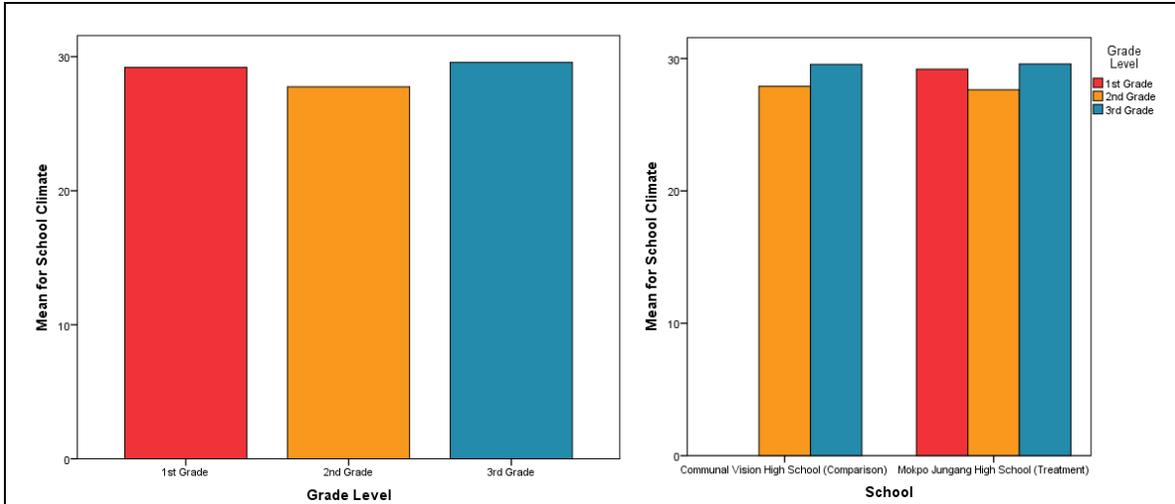


Figure 24. Bar graphs comparing means for school climate (SC) divided by grade level and school. The first graph compares SC means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the SC means by grade level for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the SC means by grade level for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

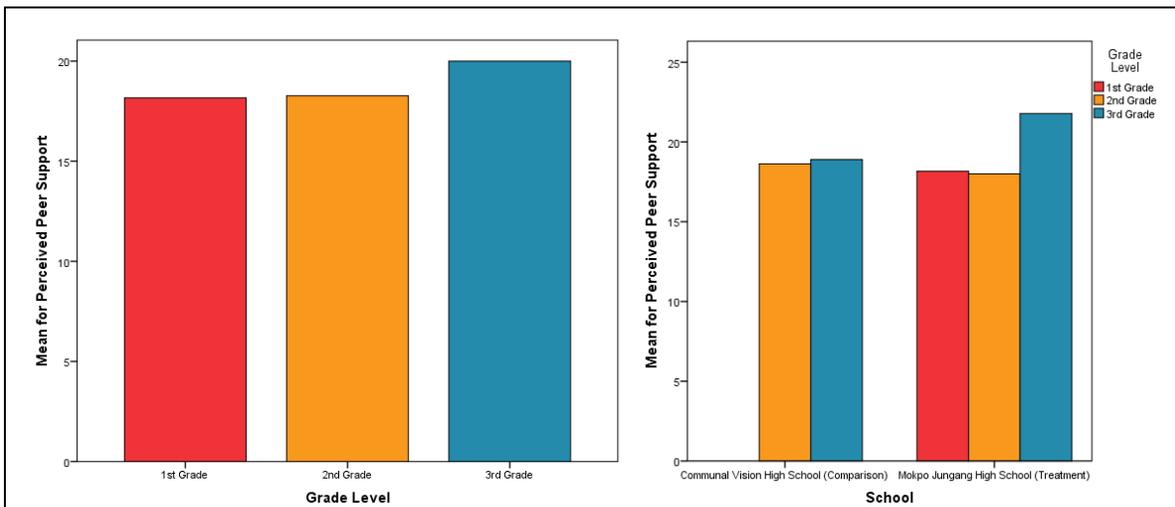


Figure 25. Bar graphs comparing means for perceived peer support (PPS) divided by grade level and school. The first graph compares PPS means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the PPS means by grade level for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the PPS means by grade level for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

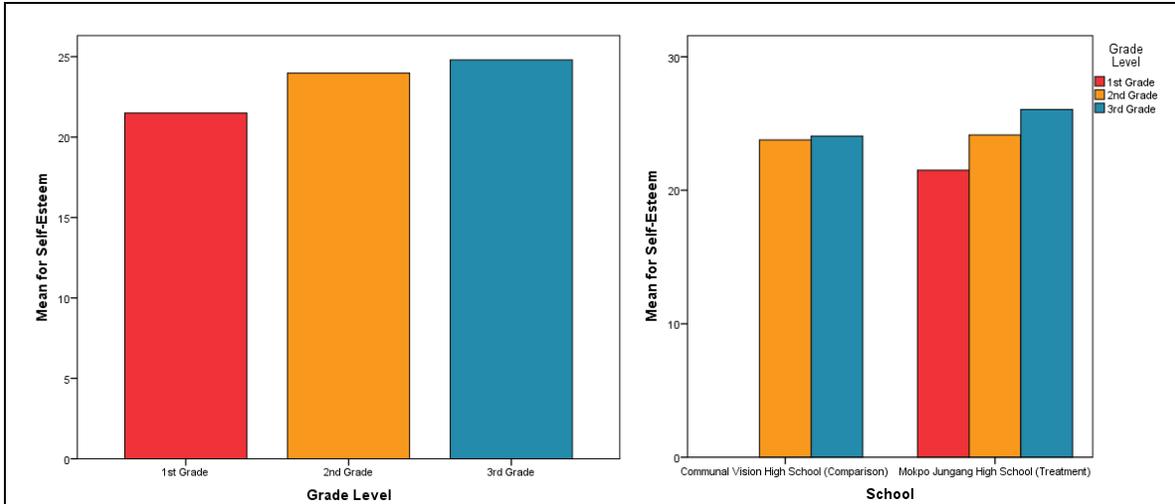


Figure 26. Bar graphs comparing means for self-esteem (SE) divided by grade level and school. The first graph compares SE means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the SE means by grade level for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the SE means by grade level for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

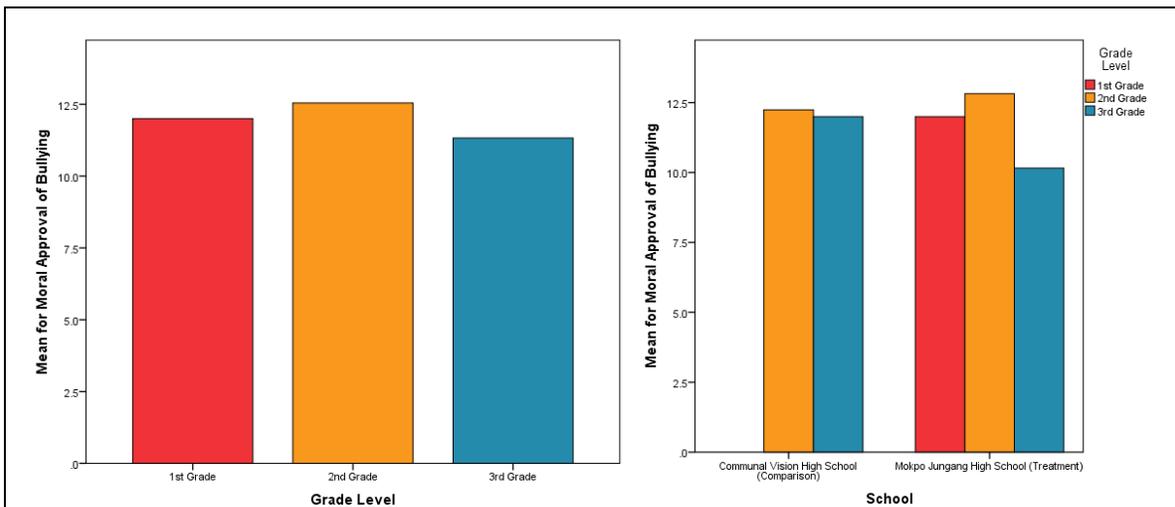


Figure 27. Bar graphs comparing means for moral approval of bullying (MAB) divided by grade level and school. The first graph compares MAB means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the MAB means by grade level for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the MAB means by grade level for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

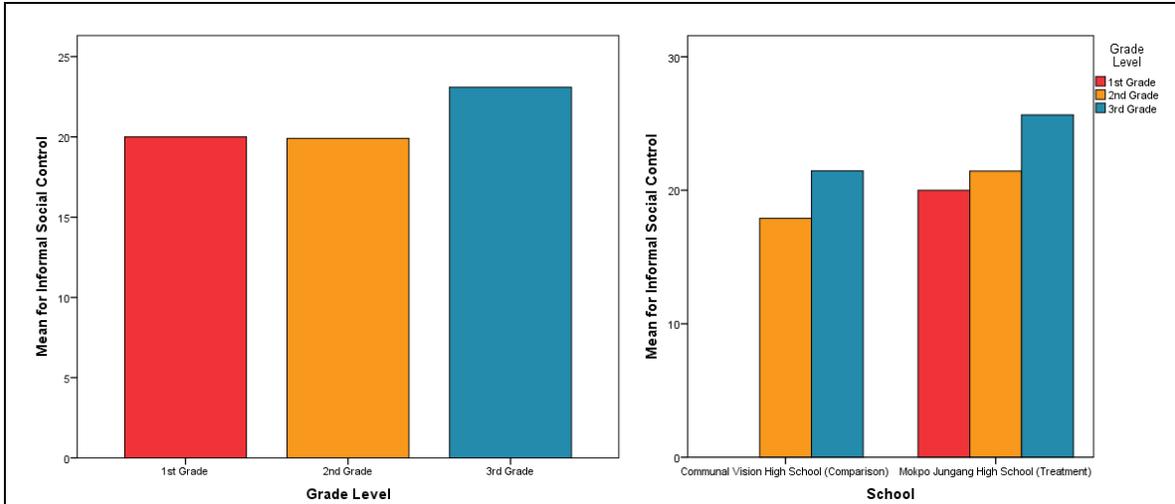


Figure 28. Bar graphs comparing means for informal social control (ISC) divided by grade level and school. The first graph compares ISC means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the ISC means by grade level for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the ISC means by grade level for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

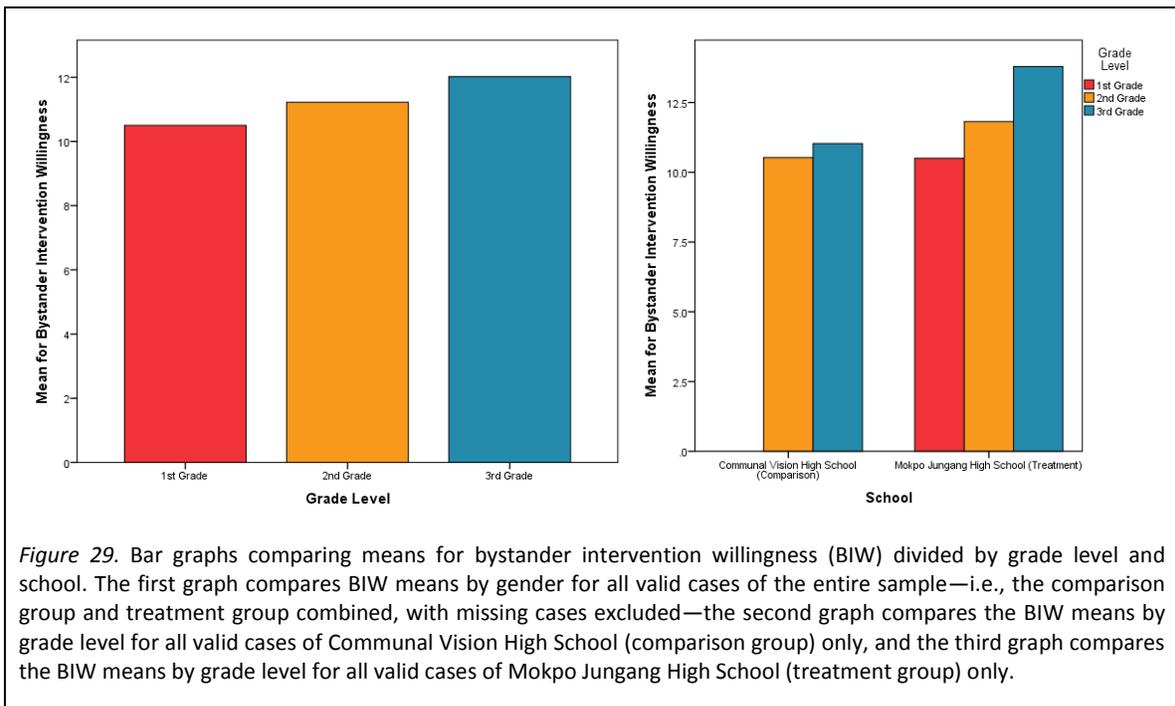


Figure 29. Bar graphs comparing means for bystander intervention willingness (BIW) divided by grade level and school. The first graph compares BIW means by gender for all valid cases of the entire sample—i.e., the comparison group and treatment group combined, with missing cases excluded—the second graph compares the BIW means by grade level for all valid cases of Communal Vision High School (comparison group) only, and the third graph compares the BIW means by grade level for all valid cases of Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) only.

Correlations

Bivariate correlations were obtained for each possible pairwise combination of the seven attitudinal and perception scales, using a two-tailed test of significance at the 95% confidence

level. For ease of readability, the following abbreviations will be used occasionally when referring to the seven scales: SCT for social cohesion and trust, SC for school climate, PPS for perceived peer support, SE for self-esteem, MAB for moral approval of bullying, ISC for informal social control, and BIW for bystander intervention willingness. When responses to individual questions were combined to form each of the seven attitudinal and perceptions measures, missing cases (i.e., statements marked “pass” or left blank) were excluded. Therefore, due to missing values for certain questions, the number of respondents for each of the seven measures do not comprise the total sample of 115 students—specifically, SCT ($n = 97$), SC ($n = 94$), PPS ($n = 98$), SE ($n = 106$), MAB ($n = 111$), ISC ($n = 101$), BIW ($n = 109$). For purposes calculating the correlations, missing cases were excluded pairwise. A summary of the correlations are provided in Table 74.

Table 74

Summary of Correlations for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey

| | | Social Cohesion and Trust | School Climate | Perceived Peer Support | Self- Esteem | Moral Approval of Bullying | Informal Social Control | Bystander Intervention Willingness |
|--|-----------------|------------------------------|-------------------|------------------------------|-----------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|--|
| Social Cohesion and Trust | Pearson's r | 1 | .806*** | .460*** | .333** | -.188 | .107 | .034 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 | .000 | .001 | .069 | .316 | .747 |
| | n | 97 | 94 | 87 | 92 | 94 | 90 | 93 |
| School Climate | Pearson's r | .806*** | 1 | .499*** | .306** | -.145 | .136 | .119 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | | .000 | .004 | .169 | .208 | .263 |
| | n | 94 | 94 | 85 | 89 | 92 | 87 | 90 |
| Perceived Peer Support | Pearson's r | .460*** | .499*** | 1 | .561*** | -.359*** | .248* | .296** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | | .000 | .000 | .020 | .004 |
| | n | 87 | 85 | 98 | 95 | 95 | 88 | 95 |
| Self-Esteem | Pearson's r | .333** | .306** | .561*** | 1 | -.292** | .243* | .345*** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .001 | .004 | .000 | | .003 | .017 | .000 |
| | n | 92 | 89 | 95 | 106 | 104 | 96 | 103 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying | Pearson's r | -.188 | -.145 | -.359*** | -.292** | 1 | -.211* | -.198* |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .069 | .169 | .000 | .003 | | .037 | .041 |
| | n | 94 | 92 | 95 | 104 | 111 | 98 | 107 |
| Informal Social Control | Pearson's r | .107 | .136 | .248* | .243* | -.211* | 1 | .839*** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .316 | .208 | .020 | .017 | .037 | | .000 |
| | n | 90 | 87 | 88 | 96 | 98 | 101 | 100 |
| Bystander Intervention Willingness | Pearson's r | .034 | .119 | .296** | .345*** | -.198* | .839*** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .747 | .263 | .004 | .000 | .041 | .000 | |
| | n | 93 | 90 | 95 | 103 | 107 | 100 | 109 |

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Statistically significant correlations were found for the following pairwise combinations of the attitudinal and perception scales (arranged in order of how they are listed in Table 74): SCT and SC ($r = .806, p < .001$), SCT and PSS ($r = .46, p < .001$), SCT and SE ($r = .333, p = .001$); SC and PPS ($r = .499, p < .001$), SC and SE ($r = .306, p = .004$); PPS and SE ($r = .561, p < .001$), PPS and MAB ($r = -.359, p < .001$), PPS and ISC ($r = .248, p = .02$), PPS and BIW ($r = .296, p < .001$); SE and MAB ($r = -.292, p = .003$), SE and ISC ($r = .243, p = .017$), SE and BIW ($r = .345, p < .001$); MAB and BIW ($r = -.198, p = .041$); ISC and MAB ($r = -.211, p = .037$), and ISC and BIW ($r = .839, p < .001$). Of all possible combinations, the strongest correlation was between informal social control and bystander intervention willingness ($r = .839, p < .001$), followed by the correlation between social cohesion and trust and school climate ($r = .806, p < .001$), and perceived peer support and self-esteem ($r = .561, p < .001$). In each of these three cases, there was a strong positive correlation between the two variables.

To reiterate, of the seven attitudinal scales, moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness are the two outcome variables of interest. With respect to moral approval of bullying, self-esteem and informal social control exhibited a small negative correlation with MAB with $r = -.292$ ($p = .003$) and $-.211$ ($p = .037$), respectively, while perceived peer support had a moderate negative correlation with MAB with $r = .359$ ($p < .001$). As for bystander intervention willingness, perceived peer support had a minor positive correlation with BIW with $r = .296$ ($p = .004$), and self-esteem and BIW exhibited a moderate positive correlation with $r = .345$ ($p < .001$), while moral approval of bullying was shown to have a minor negative correlation with BIW with $r = -.198$ ($p = .041$). Informal social control had a strong positive correlation with BIW with $r = .839$ ($p < .001$), making this particular correlation the strongest of all the correlations among all possible paired combinations of the

seven attitudinal scales. In summary, the three independent variables shown to have statistically significant correlations with both MAB and BIW were PPS, SE, and ISC, while both MAB and BIW were correlated with one another (albeit weakly). SCT and SC were the only variables to not have significant correlations with either of the two dependent variables.

Taking all interval, ordinal, and ratio independent variables into account (i.e., the seven attitudinal scales, age, and grade level), due to the high correlation between social cohesion and trust and school climate ($r = .806, p < .001$) and the high correlation between age and grade level ($r = .91, p < .001$), for the purposes of the regression analyses, which will be discussed in a subsequent section, social cohesion and trust and grade level were removed as explanatory variables to satisfy the assumption of lack of multicollinearity for regression analyses. The rationale for removing SCT and grade level variables from the multiple regression analyses—along with other concerns regarding underlying assumptions of regression analyses—will be addressed in the section focusing on the third and fourth research questions about whether students' moral approval of bullying and other factors help to explain their willingness to intervene as bystanders in bullying incidents. Although before delving into the results of those questions, the next two sections will focus on the first two research questions involving independent-samples t tests and Mann-Whitney U tests examining any significant mean differences in moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness between the treatment group school and comparison group school.

Independent-Samples T Test and Mann-Whitney U Test Results

Independent-samples t tests were used to examine whether the mean scores of moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness between Communal Vision High School students and Mokpo Jungang High School students were equal or significantly different.

The results of these tests provided the information for addressing the first two research questions. To review, the first research question asked whether or not the *Stand By Me* anti-bullying presentation had any significant effect on MJHS students' attitudes toward bullying. The question would be answered in the affirmative if the *t* test showed a statistically significant difference between the means of the MAB scores for CVHS, the comparison group school, and MJHS, the treatment group school. A non-significant finding would indicate that there was no difference between the two schools' MAB mean scores. The second research question concerned whether the *Stand By Me* presentation had any significant effect on MJHS students' willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. The question would be answered affirmatively if the *t* test resulted in a statistically significant difference between the two schools' BIW mean scores. A non-significant finding would indicate that there was no difference between the two schools' BIW mean scores.

As a supplement to the two primary analyses on MAB and BIW, *t* tests were also run on the remaining five attitudinal scales to see if there were any significant differences between the means of social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control when comparing CVHS students and MJHS students. Results of the *t* tests on all seven variables are summarized in Table 75. All seven independent-samples *t* tests were two-tailed and employed an alpha level of .05, i.e., a 95% confidence interval.

Table 75

Independent-Samples t Test Results for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t Test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|---------|-----------------|-----------------|---------------------------|---|-------|
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Standard Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Social Cohesion and Trust | Equal Variances Assumed | .273 | .602 | -1.301 | 95 | .196 | -.833 | .640 | -2.104 | .438 |
| | Equal Variances Not Assumed | | | -1.302 | 94.563 | .196 | -.833 | .640 | -2.103 | .437 |
| School Climate | Equal Variances Assumed | .000 | .989 | .339 | 92 | .735 | .340 | 1.004 | -1.653 | 2.334 |
| | Equal Variances Not Assumed | | | .339 | 91.363 | .735 | .340 | 1.004 | -1.653 | 2.334 |
| Perceived Peer Support | Equal Variances Assumed | .983 | .324 | -.803 | 96 | .424 | -.588 | .733 | -2.042 | .866 |
| | Equal Variances Not Assumed | | | -.801 | 94.168 | .425 | -.588 | .734 | -2.046 | .869 |
| Self-Esteem | Equal Variances Assumed | .067 | .797 | -.784 | 104 | .435 | -.594 | .758 | -2.097 | .909 |
| | Equal Variances Not Assumed | | | -.785 | 103.914 | .434 | -.594 | .757 | -2.095 | .907 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying | Equal Variances Assumed | .633 | .428 | .504 | 109 | .615 | .330 | .654 | -.966 | 1.626 |
| | Equal Variances Not Assumed | | | .497 | 93.143 | .620 | .330 | .664 | -.988 | 1.648 |
| Informal Social Control | Equal Variances Assumed | .284 | .595 | -1.737 | 99 | .086 | -2.822 | 1.624 | -6.045 | .402 |
| | Equal Variances Not Assumed | | | -1.736 | 98.720 | .086 | -2.822 | 1.625 | -6.046 | .403 |
| Bystander Intervention Willingness | Equal Variances Assumed | 1.319 | .253 | -2.175 | 107 | .032 | -1.560 | .717 | -2.982 | -.138 |
| | Equal Variances Not Assumed | | | -2.182 | 106.951 | .031 | -1.560 | .715 | -2.977 | -.143 |

The underlying assumptions for independent-samples *t* tests include the assumptions of independence, normality, and homogeneity of variance. The assumption of independence is fulfilled as a result of the test design utilizing two independent samples—Communal Vision High School (comparison group) and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group). The assumption of homogeneity of variance is fulfilled as indicated by observing the *p*-value for Levene's Test for Equality of Variances for each of the seven variables; all values indicate *p* > .05. Thus, we do not reject the null hypothesis that the variances of the two groups are equal for each of the seven variables that are being examined.

As for the assumption of normality, for the sample as a whole, the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests are indicative of non-normal distributions for all of the seven variables with the exception of self-esteem (see Table 76), although if the sample is divided by school, the assumption of normality is partially fulfilled depending upon what combination of school and variable we are observing (see Table 77). Examining the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests of normality for each of the seven variables, we can assume normality for the following distributions for the comparison group: SCT, SC, and SE. For the treatment group, we can assume normality of the distribution for only SE. If we were to look at the distributions visually (see Figures 2–8), with the exception of SCT and SE, which somewhat approximate a normal distribution, the distributions of the other variables (SC, PPS, ISC, and BIW) are more or less negatively skewed, and in the case of MAB, positively skewed. Additionally, we can examine the skewness and kurtosis values of each of the distributions to determine the actual degree and direction of the skews and kurtosis (see Table 70 or Table 78). By looking at these values, it can be determined that the degree of skewness for most of these variables is relatively small, with the exception of MAB and, to a lesser extent, BIW, which have relatively high skewness values. Specifically, the skewness value of MAB for Communal Vision High School is 1.463, while the skewness value of MAB for Mokpo Jungang High School is 2.739. The skewness value of BIW for CVHS is -0.416 and for MJHS, it is -0.941 . Moreover, from observing the normal probability Q-Q plots for each of the seven variables for the sample as a whole and separated by comparison group and treatment group, we can observe that—with the exception of MAB due to its extreme positive skew—most of the data points cluster on or close to the line and do not deviate too far from the line (see Figures 30–36).

Table 76

Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests of Normality Results for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey

| Scale | Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test | | | Shapiro-Wilk Test | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|-----|------|-------------------|-----|------|
| | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statistic | df | Sig. |
| Social Cohesion and Trust | .134 | 97 | .000 | .962 | 97 | .006 |
| School Climate | .125 | 94 | .001 | .928 | 94 | .000 |
| Perceived Peer Support | .115 | 98 | .003 | .938 | 98 | .000 |
| Self-Esteem | .118 | 106 | .001 | .975 | 106 | .042 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying | .285 | 111 | .000 | .635 | 111 | .000 |
| Informal Social Control | .116 | 101 | .002 | .906 | 101 | .000 |
| Bystander Intervention Willingness | .224 | 109 | .000 | .878 | 109 | .000 |

Table 77

Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests of Normality Results for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey Divided by School

| Scale | School | Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test | | | Shapiro-Wilk Test | | |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|----|-------|-------------------|----|------|
| | | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statistic | df | Sig. |
| Social Cohesion and Trust | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison) | .127 | 49 | .046 | .969 | 49 | .228 |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment) | .143 | 48 | .015 | .947 | 48 | .031 |
| School Climate | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison) | .101 | 47 | .200* | .959 | 47 | .101 |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment) | .182 | 47 | .000 | .886 | 47 | .000 |
| Perceived Peer Support | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison) | .157 | 48 | .005 | .934 | 48 | .009 |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment) | .150 | 50 | .007 | .913 | 50 | .001 |
| Self-Esteem | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison) | .093 | 54 | .200* | .972 | 54 | .236 |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment) | .151 | 52 | .005 | .966 | 52 | .141 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison) | .237 | 58 | .000 | .750 | 58 | .000 |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment) | .351 | 53 | .000 | .515 | 53 | .000 |
| Informal Social Control | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison) | .109 | 50 | .186 | .918 | 50 | .002 |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment) | .185 | 51 | .000 | .884 | 51 | .000 |
| Bystander Intervention Willingness | Communal Vision H.S. (Comparison) | .198 | 57 | .000 | .906 | 57 | .000 |
| | Mokpo Jungang H.S. (Treatment) | .246 | 52 | .000 | .834 | 52 | .000 |

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

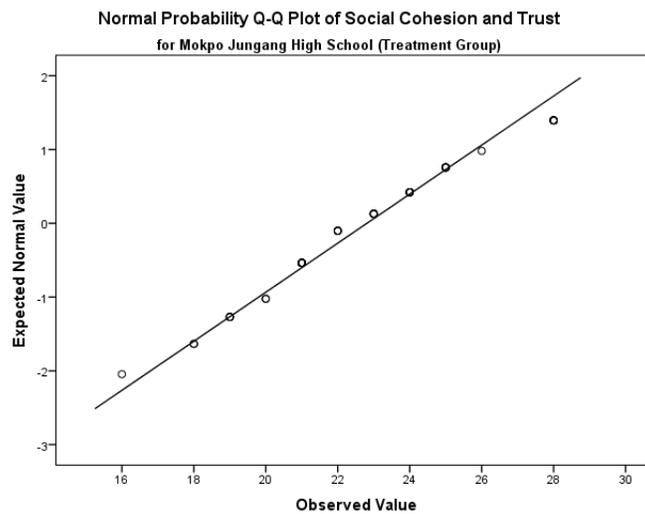
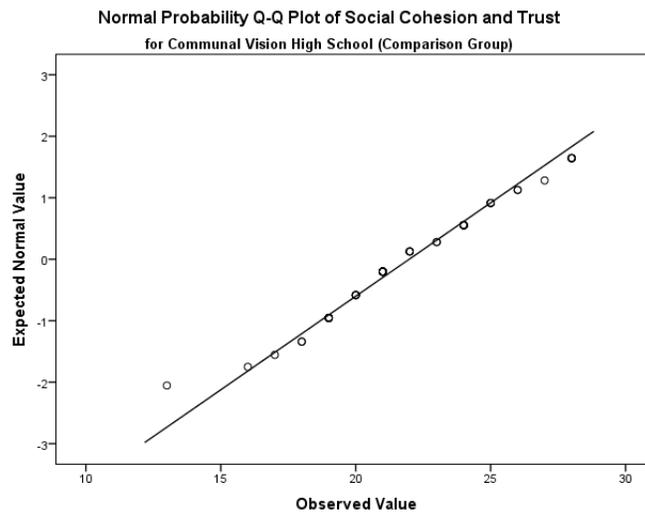
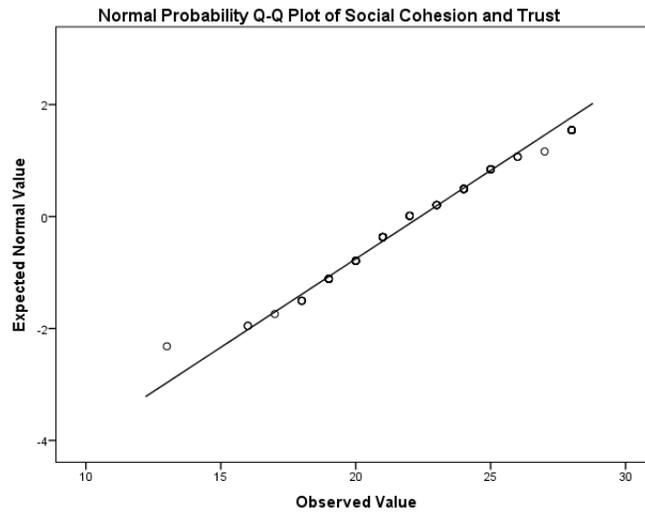


Figure 30. Normal probability Q-Q plots of social cohesion and trust for entire sample, Communal Vision High School (comparison group), and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group).

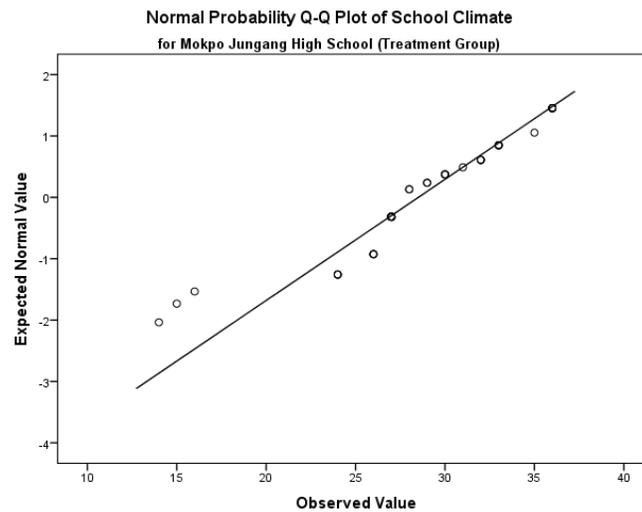
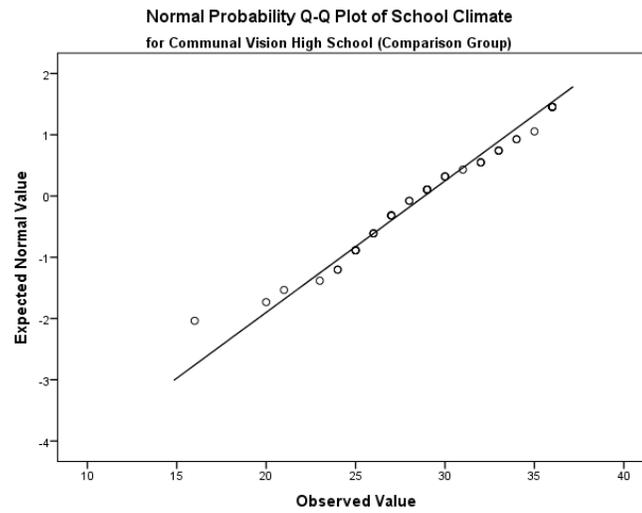
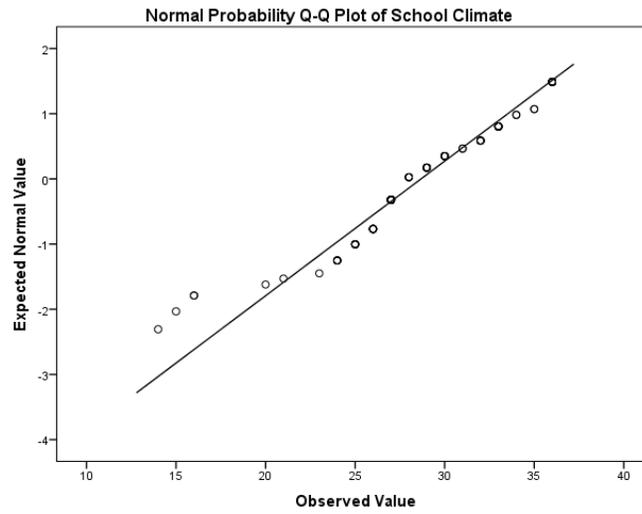


Figure 31. Normal probability Q-Q plots of school climate for entire sample, Communal Vision High School (comparison group) and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group).

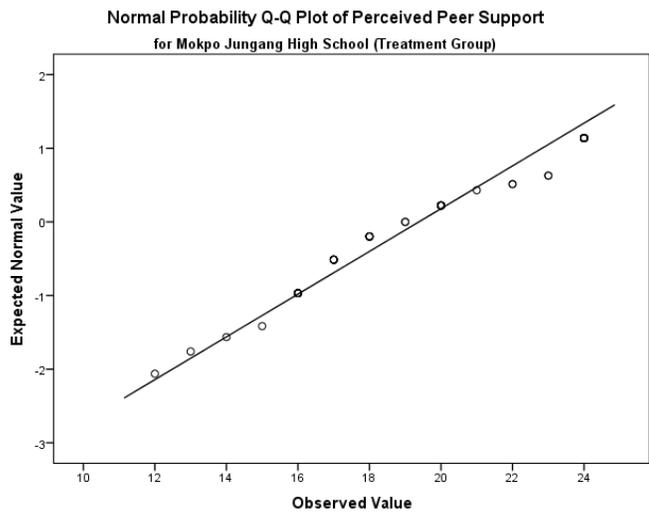
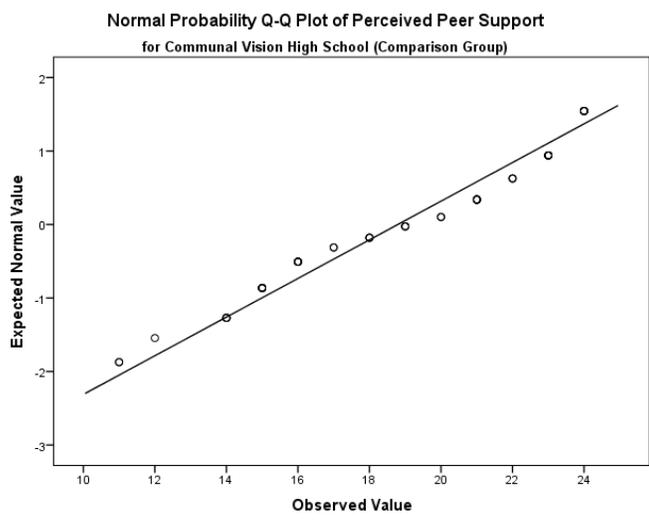
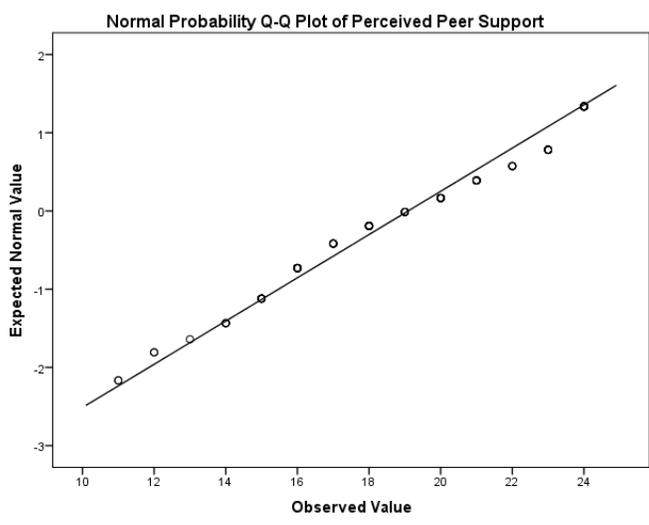


Figure 32. Normal probability Q-Q plots of perceived peer support for entire sample, Communal Vision High School (comparison group) and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group).

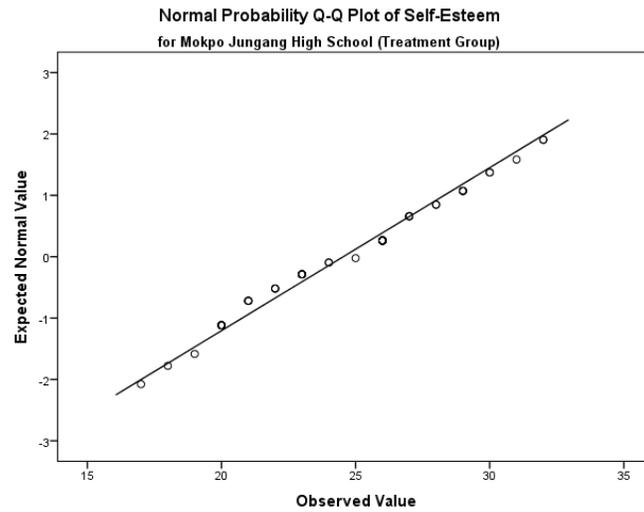
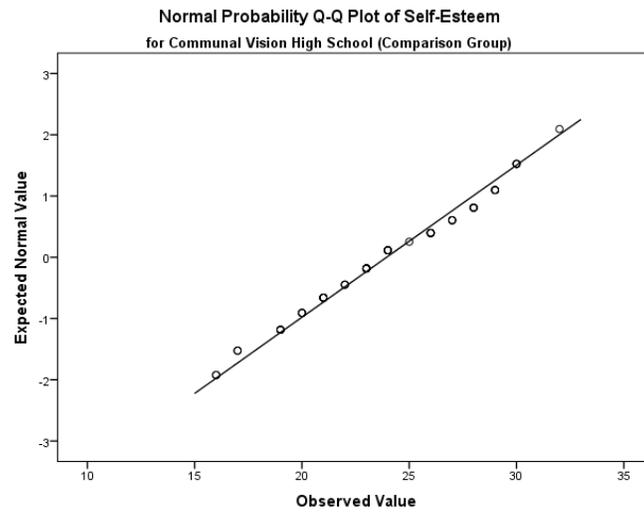
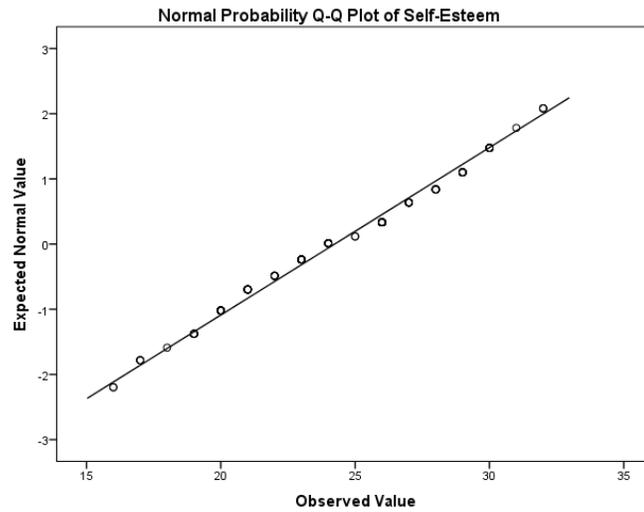


Figure 33. Normal probability Q-Q plots of self-esteem for entire sample, Communal Vision High School (comparison group) and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group).

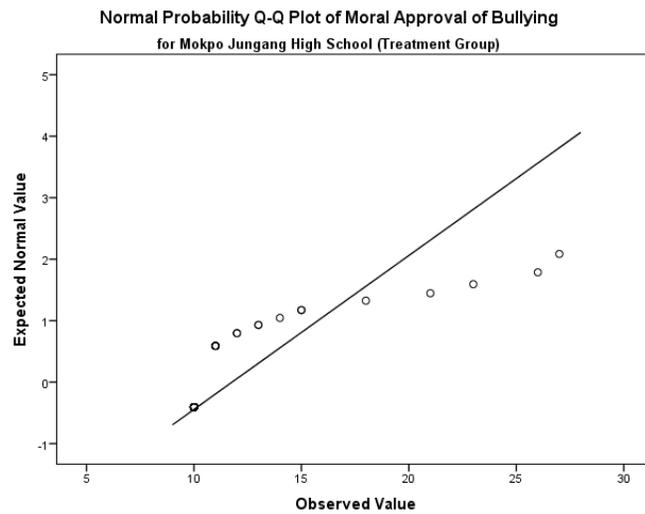
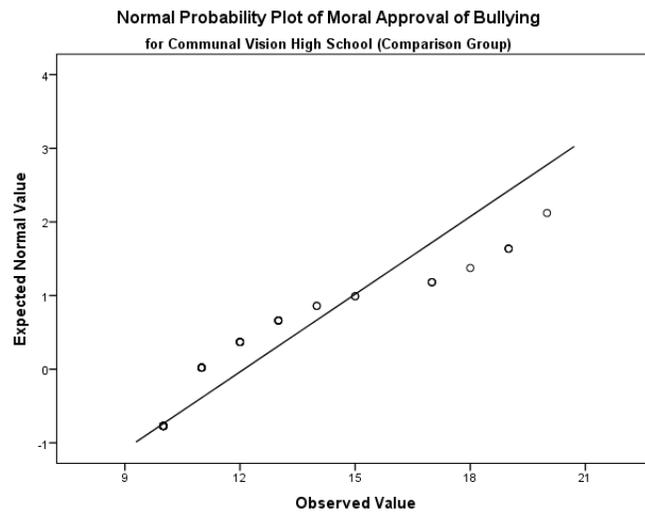
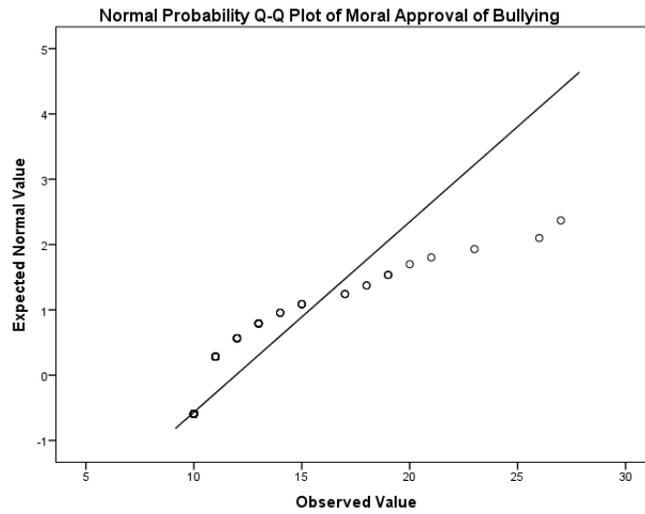


Figure 34. Normal probability Q-Q plots of moral approval of bullying for entire sample, Communal Vision High School (comparison group) and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group).

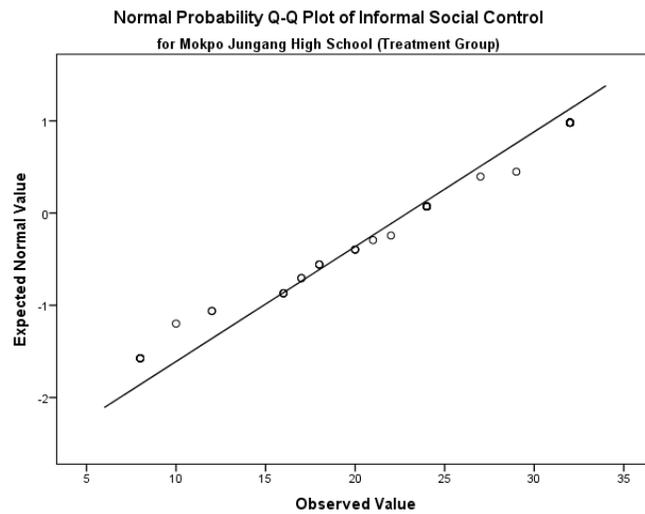
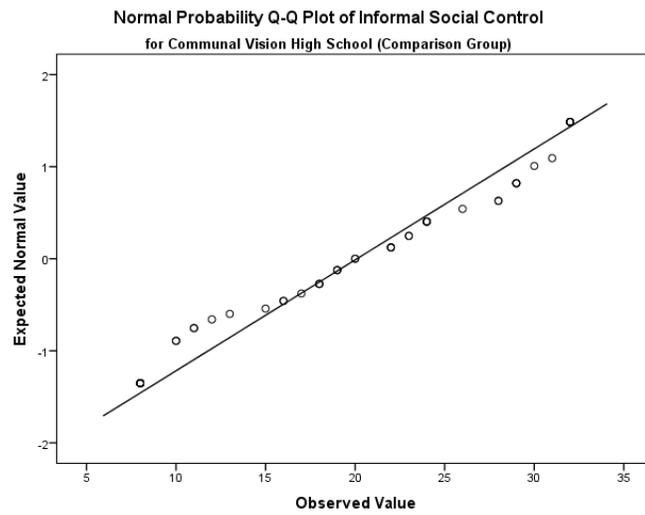
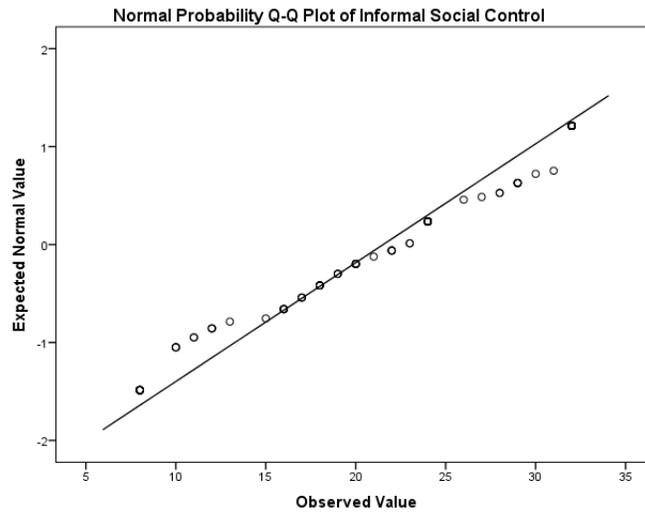


Figure 35. Normal probability Q-Q plots of informal social control for entire sample, Communal Vision High School (comparison group) and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group).

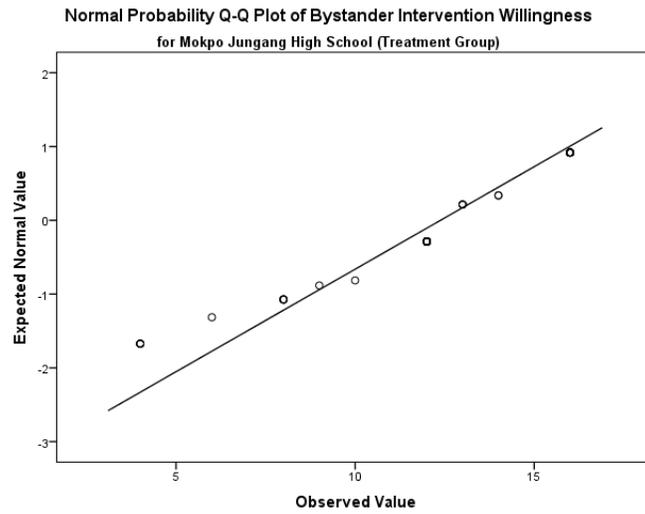
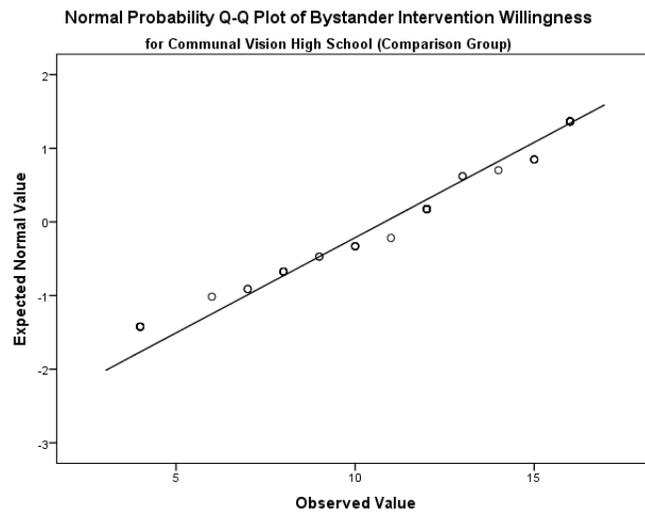
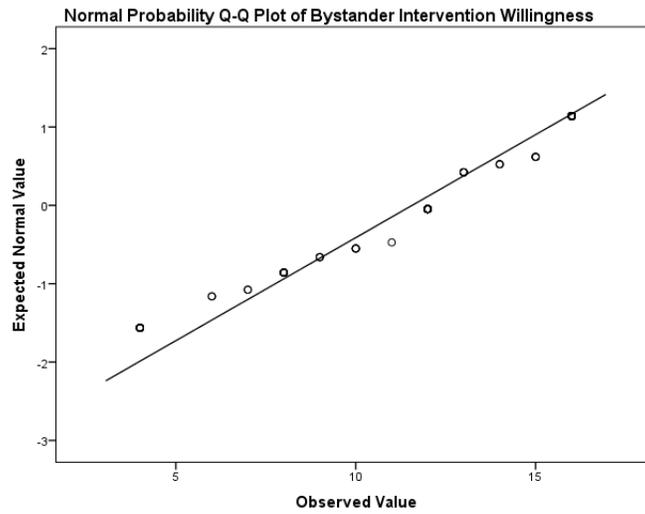


Figure 36. Normal probability Q-Q plots of bystander intervention willingness for entire sample, Communal Vision High School (comparison group) and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group).

Since skewness and kurtosis can be interpreted in terms of the normal curve, the skewness and kurtosis values were divided by their respective standard errors to obtain their z -scores (Munro, 2005). The computed z -scores were then checked to see whether they exceeded ± 1.96 . Values that are greater than $+1.96$ or less than -1.96 are significant at the .05 level since 95% of the scores in a normal distribution would fall between $+1.96$ and -1.96 standard deviations from the mean and therefore be possibly indicative of a non-normal distribution (Munro, 2005; Rose, Spinks & Canhoto, 2015). The ± 1.96 threshold is acceptable for small samples ($n < 50$), although for medium sample sizes ($50 < n < 300$), a threshold of ± 3.29 , which corresponds to an alpha level of .05 may be used (Kim, 2013). Taking into account missing cases, the sample sizes per group ranged from 47 to 57. With respect to the 95% confidence thresholds mentioned above, some groups meet the definition of a “small” sample size, while others may be defined as “large” samples. After skewness and kurtosis z -scores were calculated (see Table 78), taking a conservative approach, the values were evaluated against the more stringent ± 1.96 threshold regardless of whether the sample size exceeded the definition of “small” and thus allowed for a “wider” threshold of ± 3.29 .

Table 78

Summary of Skewness, Kurtosis, and z-Scores for Skewness and Kurtosis for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey

| | Skewness | | Skewness z-score | | Kurtosis | | Kurtosis z-score | |
|------------------------------------|----------|--------|------------------|--------|----------|--------|------------------|--------|
| | CVHS | MJHS | CVHS | MJHS | CVHS | MJHS | CVHS | MJHS |
| Social Cohesion and Trust | -0.069 | 0.203 | -0.203 | 0.592 | 0.085 | -0.422 | 0.013 | -0.626 |
| School Climate | -0.249 | -0.797 | -0.847 | -2.297 | -0.017 | 1.554 | -0.025 | 2.282 |
| Perceived Peer Support | -0.285 | 0.007 | -0.831 | 0.021 | -1.042 | -1.066 | -1.546 | -1.610 |
| Self-Esteem | -0.052 | 0.068 | -0.160 | 0.206 | -0.780 | -0.820 | -1.221 | -1.262 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying | 1.463 | 2.739 | 4.659 | 8.376 | 1.084 | 6.998 | 1.754 | 10.866 |
| Informal Social Control | -0.084 | -0.441 | -0.249 | -1.324 | -1.279 | -0.875 | -1.932 | -1.333 |
| Bystander Intervention Willingness | -0.416 | -0.941 | -1.316 | -1.281 | -0.798 | 0.258 | -2.852 | 0.397 |

For the school climate variable, the distribution that appeared to exhibit a significant deviation from normality is Mokpo Jungang High School with a skewness z -value of -2.297 and kurtosis z -value of 2.282 . For moral approval of bullying, both the distributions for Communal

Vision High School (skewness z -score of 4.659 and kurtosis z -score of 1.754) and Mokpo Jungang High School (skewness z -score of 8.376 and kurtosis z -score of 10.866) are significantly non-normal, exhibiting extreme positive skews, and in the case of MJHS, a high level of kurtosis. Lastly, the bystander intervention willingness distribution for CVHS exhibited an acceptable skewness z -value of -1.316 , which did not exceed the -1.96 cutoff point, but did have a high kurtosis z -value of -2.852 . All other z -values for skewness and kurtosis did not exceed ± 1.96 , and therefore their respective distributions could be considered normal (i.e., not significantly non-normal) for the purposes of the independent-samples t test procedure.

Taking this discussion of t test assumptions into account, it should be noted that the independent samples t test is considered a *robust* test in that it is relatively insensitive to violations of the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance as long as the sample size is large enough ($n > 30$) and the sizes of the two groups being compared are more or less equal (Morgan, Leech, Gloeckner, & Barrett, 2004; Pagano, 2004). Minus missing cases, the size of each group is large enough ($n > 30$) and approximately equal. Furthermore, even though the normality of some of the observed distributions may be suspect, the degree of skewness for a majority of the distributions is small. Thus, the independent-samples t test is considered to be an appropriate test to examine the mean differences of attitude and perception scores between the two schools. Nevertheless, because of the high skewness and kurtosis values of the moral approval of bullying scale for both schools, the Mann-Whitney U test, a non-parametric alternative to the independent-samples t test was also used in conjunction with the t test to evaluate the MAB data. The Mann-Whitney U test was also conducted on the other six variables as well to supplement the results of the t tests due to concerns regarding the underlying assumption of normality for t tests. Like the independent-samples t tests, the Mann-Whitney U

tests were conducted as a two-tailed test at the .05 level. Results of these tests are summarized in Tables 79 and 80.

Table 79

Mean Ranks and Sum of Ranks for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey

| Scale | School | <i>n</i> | Mean Rank | Sum of Ranks |
|------------------------------------|--|----------|-----------|--------------|
| Social Cohesion and Trust | Communal Vision High School (Comparison) | 49 | 45.47 | 2228.00 |
| | Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment) | 48 | 52.60 | 2525.00 |
| | Total | 97 | | |
| School Climate | Communal Vision High School (Comparison) | 47 | 47.72 | 2243.00 |
| | Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment) | 47 | 47.28 | 2222.00 |
| | Total | 94 | | |
| Perceived Peer Support | Communal Vision High School (Comparison) | 48 | 46.95 | 2253.50 |
| | Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment) | 50 | 51.95 | 2597.50 |
| | Total | 98 | | |
| Self-Esteem | Communal Vision High School (Comparison) | 54 | 51.72 | 2793.00 |
| | Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment) | 52 | 55.35 | 2878.00 |
| | Total | 106 | | |
| Moral Approval of Bullying | Communal Vision High School (Comparison) | 58 | 61.98 | 3595.00 |
| | Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment) | 53 | 49.45 | 2621.00 |
| | Total | 111 | | |
| Informal Social Control | Communal Vision High School (Comparison) | 50 | 45.54 | 2277.00 |
| | Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment) | 51 | 56.35 | 2874.00 |
| | Total | 101 | | |
| Bystander Intervention Willingness | Communal Vision High School (Comparison) | 57 | 48.32 | 2754.50 |
| | Mokpo Jungang High School (Treatment) | 52 | 62.32 | 3240.50 |
| | Total | 109 | | |

Table 80

Mann-Whitney U Test Results for the Seven Scales of the Student Attitudes and Perception Survey

| | Social Cohesion and Trust | School Climate | Perceived Peer Support | Self-Esteem | Moral Approval of Bullying | Informal Social Control | Bystander Intervention Willingness |
|------------------------|---------------------------|----------------|------------------------|-------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Mann-Whitney <i>U</i> | 1003.000 | 1094.000 | 1077.500 | 1308.000 | 1190.000 | 1002.000 | 1101.500 |
| Wilcoxon <i>W</i> | 2228.000 | 2222.000 | 2253.500 | 2793.000 | 2621.000 | 2277.000 | 2754.500 |
| <i>Z</i> | -1.259 | -.080 | -.876 | -.609 | -2.247 | -1.870 | -2.369 |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | .208 | .936 | .381 | .542 | .025 | .061 | .018 |

Note. Grouping variable = school.

Moral Approval of Bullying

Independent-samples *t* test. The independent-samples *t* test conducted to examine the difference between moral approval of bullying scores for the comparison and treatment group schools did not yield statistically significant results; $t(109) = 0.504$, $p = .615$. Thus, the MAB mean for CVHS ($M = 12.1$, $SD = 2.845$) and that of MJHS ($M = 11.77$, $SD = 3.993$) were not

significantly different. The 95% confidence interval for the MAB mean ranged from -0.966 to 1.626 .

Mann-Whitney U test. Unlike the independent-samples t test, the Mann-Whitney U test conducted yielded statistically significant results ($U(109) = 1190$, $z = -2.247$, $p = .025$), indicating that students from CVHS ($M = 12.1$, $SD = 2.845$) had significantly higher moral approval of bullying scores, on average, than students from MJHS ($M = 11.77$, $SD = 3.993$). In other words, the significant difference between MAB scores indicates that MJHS students were less likely to approve of bullying than their counterparts from CVHS.

Bystander Intervention Willingness

Independent-samples t test. The independent-samples t test conducted to examine the difference between bystander intervention willingness scores for the comparison and treatment group schools yielded statistically significant results; $t(107) = -2.175$, $p = .032$, $d = .418$. The 95% confidence interval for the BIW mean ranged from -2.982 to $-.138$. The results show that students from Mokpo Jungang High School ($M = 12.38$, $SD = 3.598$) scored significantly higher than students from Communal Vision High School ($M = 10.82$, $SD = 3.864$) in terms of bystander intervention willingness. In other words, the significant difference between BIW mean scores indicates that MJHS students were more likely to be willing to intervene to stop bullying than their counterparts from CVHS.

Mann-Whitney U test. Like the independent-samples t test, the Mann-Whitney U test also yielded statistically significant results ($U(107) = 1101.5$, $z = -2.369$, $p = .018$), indicating that students from MJHS ($M = 12.38$, $SD = 3.598$) had significantly higher bystander intervention willingness scores than students from CVHS ($M = 10.82$, $SD = 3.864$). As with the results of the t test, the significant difference between BIW mean scores for the Mann-Whitney U

test showed that MJHS students displayed a greater inclination towards intervening in bullying incidents than CVHS students.

Social Cohesion and Trust

Independent-samples t test. The independent-samples t test conducted to examine the difference between social cohesion and trust scores for the comparison and treatment group schools did not yield statistically significant results; $t(95) = -1.301$, $p = .062$. Thus, the SCT mean for CVHS ($M = 21.98$, $SD = 3.288$) and that of MJHS ($M = 22.81$, $SD = 3.008$) were not significantly different. The 95% confidence interval for the SCT mean ranged from -2.104 to 0.438 .

Mann-Whitney U test. Like the independent-samples t test, the Mann-Whitney U test for social cohesion and trust did not yield statistically significant results ($U(95) = 1003$, $z = -1.259$, $p = .208$); there is no significant difference between the SCT mean scores for CVHS and MJHS.

School Climate

Independent-samples t test. The independent-samples t test conducted to examine the difference between school climate scores for the comparison and treatment group schools did not yield statistically significant results; $t(92) = 0.339$, $p = .989$. Thus, the SC mean for CVHS ($M = 28.85$, $SD = 4.658$) and that of MJHS ($M = 28.51$, $SD = 5.064$) were not significantly different. The 95% confidence interval for the SC mean ranged from -1.653 to 2.334 .

Mann-Whitney U test. Like the independent-samples t test, the Mann-Whitney U test for school climate did not yield statistically significant results ($U(92) = 1094$, $z = -0.08$, $p = .936$); there is no significant difference between the SC mean scores for CVHS and MJHS.

Perceived Peer Support

Independent-samples *t* test. The independent-samples *t* test conducted to examine the difference between perceived peer support scores for the comparison and treatment group schools did not yield statistically significant results; $t(96) = -0.803$, $p = .324$. Thus, the PPS mean for CVHS ($M = 18.79$, $SD = 3.803$) and that of MJHS ($M = 19.38$, $SD = 3.446$) were not significantly different. The 95% confidence interval for the PPS mean ranged from -2.042 to 0.866 .

Mann-Whitney *U* test. Like the independent-samples *t* test, the Mann-Whitney *U* test for perceived peer support did not yield statistically significant results ($U(96) = 1077.5$, $z = -0.876$, $p = .381$); there is no significant difference between the PPS mean scores for CVHS and MJHS.

Self-Esteem

Independent-samples *t* test. The independent-samples *t* test conducted to examine the difference between self-esteem scores for the comparison and treatment group schools did not yield statistically significant results; $t(104) = -0.784$, $p = .797$. Thus, the SE mean for CVHS ($M = 23.94$, $SD = 4.025$) and that of MJHS ($M = 24.54$, $SD = 3.765$) were not significantly different. The 95% confidence interval for the SE mean ranged from -2.097 to 0.909 .

Mann-Whitney *U* test. Like the independent-samples *t* test, the Mann-Whitney *U* test for self-esteem did not yield statistically significant results ($U(104) = 1308$, $z = -.609$, $p = .542$); there is no significant difference between the SE mean scores for CVHS and MJHS.

Informal Social Control

Independent-samples *t* test. The independent-samples *t* test conducted to examine the difference between informal social control scores for the comparison and treatment group

schools did not yield statistically significant results; $t(99) = -1.737, p = .595$. Thus, the ISC mean for CVHS ($M = 20.10, SD = 8.299$) and that of MJHS ($M = 22.92, SD = 8.027$) were not significantly different. The 95% confidence interval for the ISC mean ranged from -6.046 to 0.403 .

Mann-Whitney U test. Like the independent-samples t test, the Mann-Whitney U test for informal social control did not yield statistically significant results ($U(99) = 1002, z = -1.87, p = .061$); there is no significant difference between the ISC mean scores for CVHS and MJHS.

Summary

In summary, the control group and treatment group's average scores on all but one of the seven attitudinal dimensions examined in this study are not significantly different from one another based on results of the independent-samples t tests. Among the seven attitudinal scales, the only scores to show any significant difference between the two schools were those of the bystander intervention willingness scale. To reiterate, students from Mokpo Jungang High School, who were administered the *Stand By Me* anti-bullying presentation, scored significantly higher in terms of willingness to intervene in bullying incidents compared to students from Communal Vision High School, who did not participate in the *SBM* presentation. The Cohen's d value of $.418$ for the t test indicates a medium effect size. Nonetheless, whether this *statistically* significant finding of a mean difference of 1.56 points between the two schools' BIW scores can be considered to be *meaningfully (practically)* significant will be a topic of discussion in Chapter 5. As for the results of the Mann-Whitney U tests, they coincide with the results of the independent-samples t tests, with one exception. To elaborate, the independent-samples t tests found a significant difference between the two schools' BIW means only, not those of MAB. On the other hand, the Mann-Whitney U tests produced non-significant results for all scales with the

exception of BIW *and* MAB, which were both found to be significant at $p < .05$. This, too, will be a topic of further discussion in Chapter 5.

Two-Way ANOVA Results

Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed on the two outcome variables of interest—moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness—to test for interaction effects between school and gender, school and age, and school and grade level. Six ANOVAs were conducted in all—one ANOVA for school and each of the three demographic variables on MAB (three total) and one ANOVA for school and each of the three demographic variables on BIW (three total). Tables 81–86 summarize the six ANOVA results. For descriptive statistics related to the following analyses, review Tables 69–73.

Moral Approval of Bullying as Dependent Variable

School and gender. A two-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the main effects of school and gender and the interaction effect between school and gender on moral approval of bullying (see Table 81). School included two levels (Communal Vision High School, the comparison group school; and Mokpo Jungang High School, the treatment group school) and gender consisted of two levels (male and female). Neither the main effects nor the interaction effect were statistically significant at the .05 significance level. The main effect for school yielded an F ratio of $F(1, 107) = 0.368, p = .545$, indicating that there was not a significant difference between CVHS students ($M = 12.1, SD = 2.845$) and MJHS students ($M = 11.77, SD = 3.993$) in terms of their MAB scores, which reaffirmed the results of the independent samples t test. The main effect for gender yielded an F ratio of $F(1, 107) = 2.363, p = .127$, indicating that there was also no significant difference between MAB scores for males ($M = 12.31, SD = 3.985$)

and females ($M = 11.28$, $SD = 1.919$). The interaction effect was also non-significant, $F(1, 107) = 0.015$, $p = .904$.

Table 81

Two-Way ANOVA for School and Gender with Moral Approval of Bullying as Dependent Variable

| Source | Type III SS | df | MS | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|-----------------|---------------------|-----|-----------|----------|------|---------------------|
| Corrected Model | 30.898 ^a | 3 | 10.299 | .873 | .458 | .024 |
| Intercept | 13886.044 | 1 | 13886.044 | 1176.618 | .000 | .917 |
| School | 4.345 | 1 | 4.345 | .368 | .545 | .003 |
| Gender | 27.884 | 1 | 27.884 | 2.363 | .127 | .022 |
| School*Gender | .174 | 1 | .174 | .015 | .904 | .000 |
| Error | 1262.778 | 107 | 11.802 | | | |
| Total | 17134.000 | 111 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 1293.676 | 110 | | | | |

^a $R^2 = .024$ (adjusted $R^2 = -.003$).

School and age. A two-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the main effects of school and age and the interaction effect between school and age on moral approval of bullying (see Table 82). School included two levels (Communal Vision High School, the comparison group school; and Mokpo Jungang High School, the treatment group school) and age consisted of four levels (ages 16, 17, 18, and 19). Neither the main effects nor the interaction effect were statistically significant at the .05 significance level. The main effect for school yielded an F ratio of $F(1, 104) = 0.321$, $p = .572$, indicating that there was not a significant difference between CVHS students ($M = 12.1$, $SD = 2.845$) and MJHS students ($M = 11.77$, $SD = 3.993$) in terms of their MAB scores, which reaffirmed the results of the independent samples t test. The main effect for age yielded an F ratio of $F(3, 104) = 0.791$, $p = .502$, indicating that there was also no significant difference between MAB scores for 16 year olds ($M = 13.27$, $SD = 5.236$), 17 year olds ($M = 12.04$, $SD = 3.379$), 18 year olds ($M = 11.6$, $SD = 3.003$), and the one 19 year old student ($M = 10$, $SD = N/A$). The interaction effect was also non-significant, $F(2, 104) = 0.32$, $p = .727$.

Table 82

Two-Way ANOVA for School and Age with Moral Approval of Bullying as Dependent Variable

| Source | Type III SS | df | MS | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|-----------------|---------------------|-----|----------|---------|------|---------------------|
| Corrected Model | 49.064 ^a | 6 | 8.177 | .683 | .663 | .038 |
| Intercept | 2868.784 | 1 | 2868.784 | 293.716 | .000 | .697 |
| School | 3.844 | 1 | 3.844 | .321 | .572 | .003 |
| Age | 28.384 | 3 | 9.461 | .791 | .502 | .022 |
| School*Age | 7.665 | 2 | 3.833 | .320 | .727 | .006 |
| Error | 1244.612 | 104 | 11.967 | | | |
| Total | 17134.000 | 111 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 1293.676 | 110 | | | | |

^a $R^2 = .038$ (adjusted $R^2 = -.018$).

School and grade level. A two-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the main effects of school and grade level and the interaction effect between school and grade level on moral approval of bullying (see Table 83). School included two levels (Communal Vision High School, the comparison group school; and Mokpo Jungang High School, the treatment group school) and grade consisted of three levels (first grade, second grade, and third grade). Neither the main effects nor the interaction effect were statistically significant at the .05 significance level. The main effect for school yielded an F ratio of $F(1, 106) = 0.878$, $p = .351$, indicating that there was not a significant difference between CVHS students ($M = 12.1$, $SD = 2.845$) and MJHS students ($M = 11.77$, $SD = 3.993$) in terms of their MAB scores, which reaffirmed the results of the independent samples t test. The main effect for grade level yielded an F ratio of $F(2, 106) = 2.359$, $p = .10$, indicating that there was also no significant difference between MAB scores for first grade students ($M = 12$, $SD = 3.162$), second grade students ($M = 12.55$, $SD = 4.036$), and third grade students ($M = 11.33$, $SD = 2.647$). The interaction effect was also non-significant, $F(1, 106) = 3.245$, $p = .074$.

Table 83

Two-Way ANOVA for School and Grade Level with Moral Approval of Bullying as Dependent Variable

| Source | Type III SS | df | MS | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|--------------------|---------------------|-----|----------|---------|------|---------------------|
| Corrected Model | 84.482 ^a | 4 | 21.121 | 1.851 | .124 | .065 |
| Intercept | 8597.374 | 1 | 8597.374 | 753.661 | .000 | .877 |
| School | 10.018 | 1 | 10.018 | .878 | .351 | .008 |
| Grade Level | 53.811 | 2 | 26.905 | 2.359 | .100 | .043 |
| School*Grade Level | 37.022 | 1 | 37.022 | 3.245 | .074 | .030 |
| Error | 1209.193 | 106 | 11.407 | | | |
| Total | 17134.000 | 111 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 1293.676 | 110 | | | | |

^a $R^2 = .065$ (adjusted $R^2 = .030$).

Bystander Intervention Willingness as Dependent Variable

School and gender. A two-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the main effects of school and gender and the interaction effect between school and gender on bystander intervention willingness (see Table 84). School included two levels (Communal Vision High School, the comparison group school; and Mokpo Jungang High School, the treatment group school) and gender consisted of two levels (male and female). Only the main effect of school was found to be statistically significant at the .05 significance level. The main effect for school yielded an F ratio of $F(1, 105) = 4.938, p = .028$, indicating a significant difference between CVHS students ($M = 10.82, SD = 3.864$) and MJHS students ($M = 12.38, SD = 3.598$) in terms of their BIW scores, which reaffirmed the results of the independent samples t test. The main effect for gender yielded an F ratio of $F(1, 105) = 1.399, p = .24$, indicating that there was also no significant difference between BIW scores for males ($M = 11.27, SD = 4.27$) and females ($M = 12.1, SD = 2.751$). The interaction effect was also non-significant, $F(1, 105) = 0.169, p = .682$.

Table 84

Two-Way ANOVA for School and Gender with Bystander Intervention Willingness as Dependent Variable

| Source | Type III SS | df | MS | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|-----------------|---------------------|-----|-----------|---------|------|---------------------|
| Corrected Model | 87.470 ^a | 3 | 29.157 | 2.075 | .108 | .056 |
| Intercept | 13739.074 | 1 | 13739.074 | 977.861 | .000 | .903 |
| School | 69.384 | 1 | 69.384 | 4.938 | .028 | .045 |
| Gender | 19.657 | 1 | 19.657 | 1.399 | .240 | .013 |
| School*Gender | 2.372 | 1 | 2.372 | .169 | .682 | .002 |
| Error | 1475.264 | 105 | 14.050 | | | |
| Total | 16151.000 | 109 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 1562.734 | 108 | | | | |

^a $R^2 = .056$ (adjusted $R^2 = .029$).

School and age. A two-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the main effects of school and age and the interaction effect between school and age on bystander intervention willingness (see Table 85). School included two levels (Communal Vision High School, the comparison group school; and Mokpo Jungang High School, the treatment group school) and age consisted of four levels (ages 16, 17, 18, and 19). Neither the main effects nor the interaction effect were statistically significant at the .05 significance level. The main effect for school yielded an F ratio of $F(1, 102) = 3.608, p = .06$, indicating that there was not a significant difference between CVHS students ($M = 10.82, SD = 3.864$) and MJHS students ($M = 12.38, SD = 3.598$) in terms of their BIW scores. The main effect for age yielded an F ratio of $F(3, 102) = 1.555, p = .205$, indicating that there was also no significant difference between BIW scores for 16 year olds ($M = 10.27, SD = 3.771$), 17 year olds ($M = 11.54, SD = 3.607$), 18 year olds ($M = 11.78, SD = 3.987$), and the one 19 year old student ($M = 16, SD = N/A$). The interaction effect was also non-significant, $F(2, 102) = 0.226, p = .798$.

Table 85

Two-Way ANOVA for School and Age with Bystander Intervention Willingness as Dependent Variable

| Source | Type III SS | df | MS | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|-----------------|----------------------|-----|----------|---------|------|---------------------|
| Corrected Model | 151.429 ^a | 6 | 25.238 | 1.824 | .102 | .097 |
| Intercept | 3041.716 | 1 | 3041.716 | 219.836 | .000 | .683 |
| School | 49.915 | 1 | 49.915 | 3.608 | .060 | .034 |
| Age | 64.543 | 3 | 21.514 | 1.555 | .205 | .044 |
| School*Age | 6.255 | 2 | 3.127 | .226 | .798 | .004 |
| Error | 1411.305 | 102 | 13.836 | | | |
| Total | 16151.000 | 109 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 1562.734 | 108 | | | | |

^a $R^2 = .097$ (adjusted $R^2 = .044$).

School and grade level. A two-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the main effects of school and grade level and the interaction effect between school and grade level on bystander intervention willingness (see Table 86). School included two levels (Communal Vision High School, the comparison group school; and Mokpo Jungang High School, the treatment group school) and grade consisted of three levels (first grade, second grade, and third grade). Only the main effect of school was found to be statistically significant at the .05 significance level. The main effect for school yielded an F ratio of $F(1, 104) = 7.373, p = .008$, indicating a significant difference between CVHS students ($M = 10.82, SD = 3.864$) and MJHS students ($M = 12.38, SD = 3.598$) in terms of their BIW scores, which reaffirmed the results of the independent-samples t test. The main effect for grade level yielded an F ratio of $F(2, 104) = 2.304, p = .105$, indicating that there was no significant difference between BIW scores for first grade students ($M = 10.5, SD = 3.987$), second grade students ($M = 11.22, SD = 3.542$), and third grade students ($M = 12.02, SD = 4.031$). The interaction effect was also non-significant, $F(1, 104) = 0.966, p = .328$.

Table 86

Two-Way ANOVA for School and Grade Level with Bystander Intervention Willingness as Dependent Variable

| Source | Type III SS | df | MS | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|--------------------|----------------------|-----|----------|---------|------|---------------------|
| Corrected Model | 137.292 ^a | 4 | 34.323 | 2.504 | .047 | .088 |
| Intercept | 7643.097 | 1 | 7643.097 | 557.639 | .000 | .843 |
| School | 101.058 | 1 | 101.058 | 7.373 | .008 | .066 |
| Grade Level | 63.161 | 2 | 31.580 | 2.304 | .105 | .042 |
| School*Grade Level | 13.239 | 1 | 13.239 | .966 | .328 | .009 |
| Error | 1425.442 | 104 | 13.706 | | | |
| Total | 16151.000 | 109 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 1562.734 | 108 | | | | |

^a $R^2 = .088$ (adjusted $R^2 = .053$).

Regression Results

The third research question asks if students' attitudes about bullying help to explain their willingness to stop bullying. Related to this is the fourth research question regarding whether other specific factors help to explain students' willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. To address both questions, bivariate regression analyses were run on each of the independent variables—including attitudes about bullying, which served as the dependent variable in the first research question—to examine their explanatory power on the dependent variable of bystander intervention willingness.

A simultaneous multiple regression was run including four scaled variables (perceived peer support, self-esteem, moral approval of bullying, and informal social control) as explanatory variables with BIW as the outcome variable. These analyses were done first using the original unaltered scale for MAB, then with a "winsorized" version of the scales, which removed outliers from the dataset. Neither school climate nor social cohesion and trust were included in the multiple regression analysis due to their non-significant effects on BIW as determined by the bivariate regression analyses. The regressions utilized the entire sample of 115 participating students (i.e., both schools combined) minus missing cases.

Next, stepwise multiple regression was run utilizing the four independent variables used for the simultaneous multiple regression and the BIW as the dependent variable. As with the multiple regression analyses, the stepwise regression analyses were done with both original and winsorized versions of the MAB dataset. Again, these analyses utilized the entire sample of 115 participating students (i.e., both schools combined) minus missing cases.

Finally, hierarchical multiple regression was conducted utilizing only two of the predictor variables that were found to be significant based on the results of the simultaneous multiple regression and stepwise multiple regression analyses. Gender and age were also included in the analysis to control for the possible effects of these two variables above and beyond informal social control and self-esteem, the two independent variables.

Regression Assumptions

The purpose of the regression analyses was to examine how well several attitudinal dimensions, individually and in conjunction with one another, helped to explain the participating high school students' willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. Before delving into the results of the regression analyses, the researcher would like to review the assumptions of regression analysis and address how they were addressed for the purposes of analyzing the data for this particular study. Whether dealing with simple linear regression or multiple linear regression, there are several assumptions to take into account: independence, linearity, homoscedasticity, normality, limited or no multicollinearity, and absence of extreme outliers.

Independence of observations. As discussed earlier in the section covering the findings of the independent-samples *t* tests, the assumption of independence of observations is fulfilled due to the nature of the research design, which comprises of two independent groups of students who were administered the survey instrument once and did not assist each other in completing

the surveys. In other words, the value of one observation is unrelated to the value of another; each of the values is based upon each individual student's responses to the survey questions. Furthermore, the Durbin-Watson test was administered for each simple regression model, multiple regression model, stepwise regression model, and hierarchical regression model. The Durbin-Watson statistic for each of the regression models was close to 2, falling well within the acceptable range of 1.5 to 2.5 to indicate that the observations were independent (Norušis, 2010).

Linearity between independent variables and dependent variable. To check for a linear relationship between the independent variables (social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, moral approval of bullying, and informal social control) and the dependent variable (bystander intervention willingness), scatterplots were created to examine the relationship between each independent variable and BIW (see Figures 37–42). The scatterplots indicated positive relationships between each of the independent variables and BIW (i.e., higher scores for SCT, SC, PPS, SE, and ISC tend to result in higher scores for BIW), with the exception of the relationship between MAB and BIW, which appears to be a negative relationship (i.e., higher MAB scores are likely to result in lower BIW scores). Although there was a wide spread among the data points for several of the distributions, the relationships between each explanatory variable and the outcome variable nevertheless appeared to be more or less linear as opposed to curvilinear. Perhaps the only major exception may be the relationship between MAB and BIW, which appeared curvilinear.

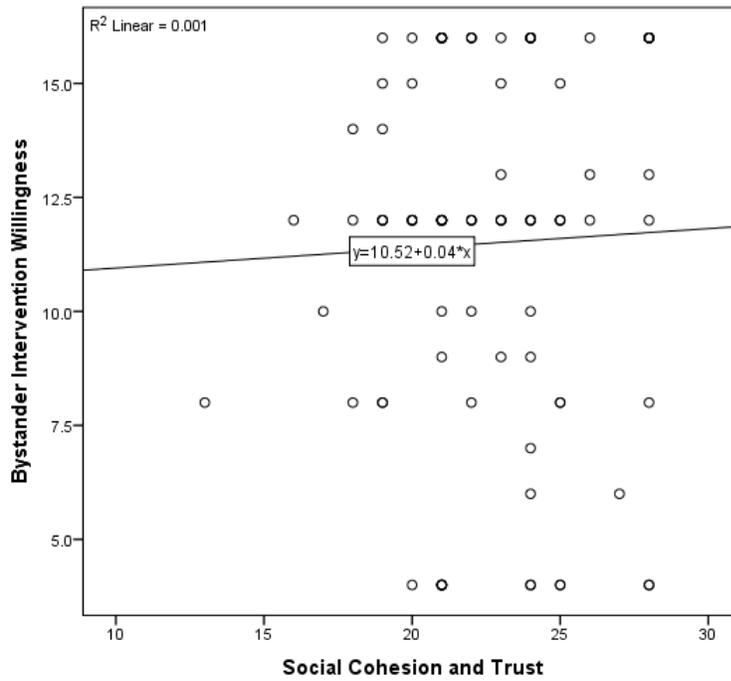


Figure 37. Scatterplot examining the linear relationship between social cohesion and trust (independent variable) and bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

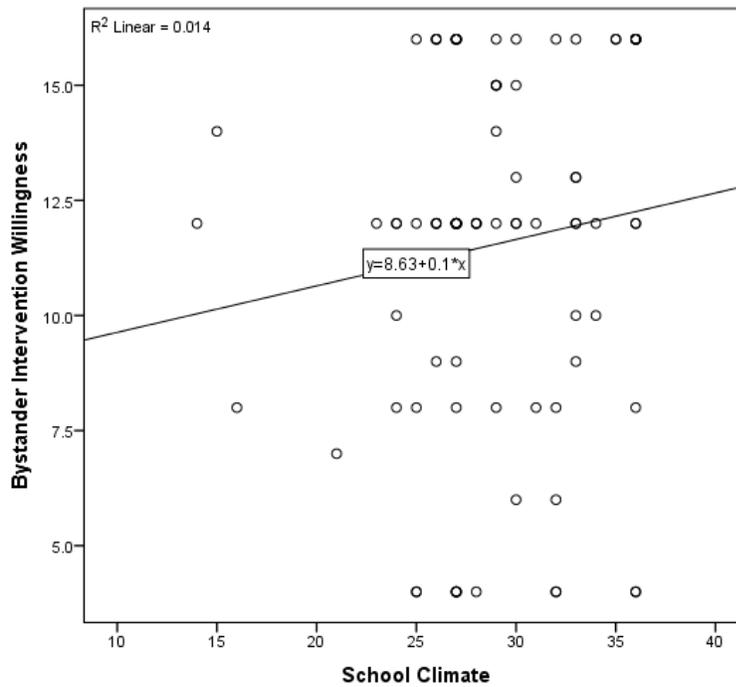


Figure 38. Scatterplot examining the linear relationship between school climate (independent variable) and bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

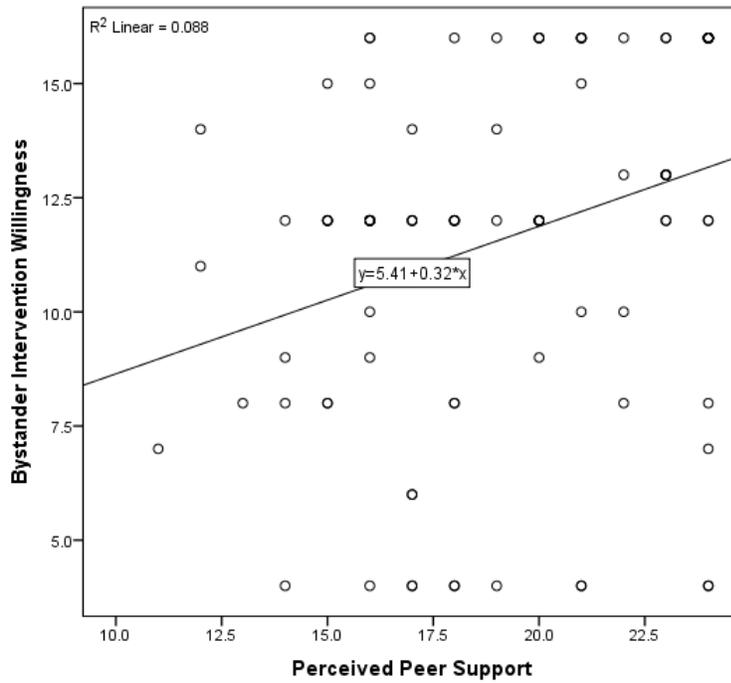


Figure 39. Scatterplot examining the linear relationship between perceived peer support (independent variable) and bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

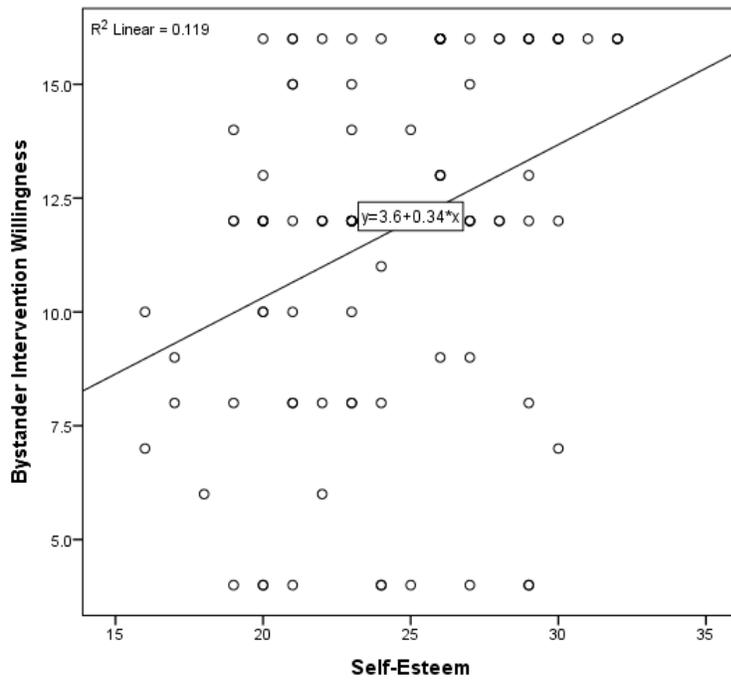


Figure 40. Scatterplot examining the linear relationship between self-esteem (independent variable) and bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

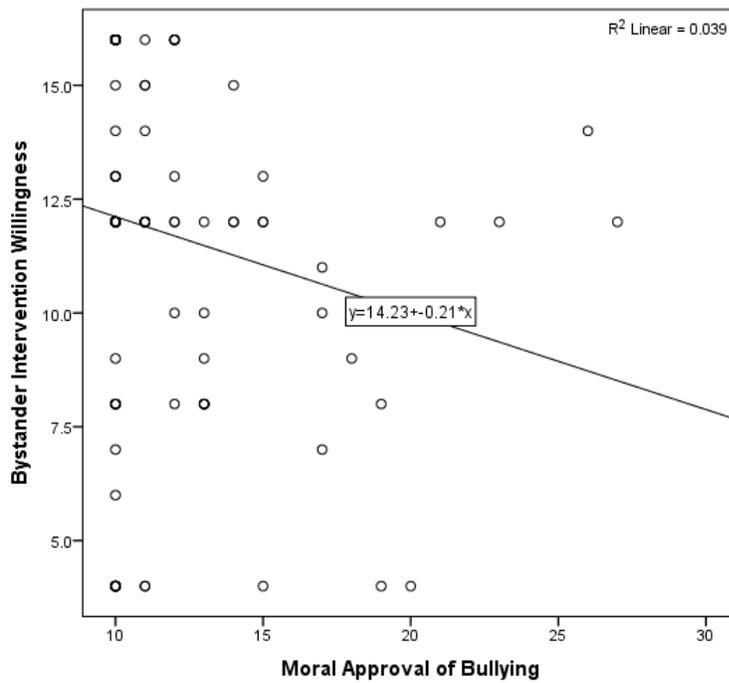


Figure 41. Scatterplot examining the linear relationship between moral approval of bullying (independent variable) and bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

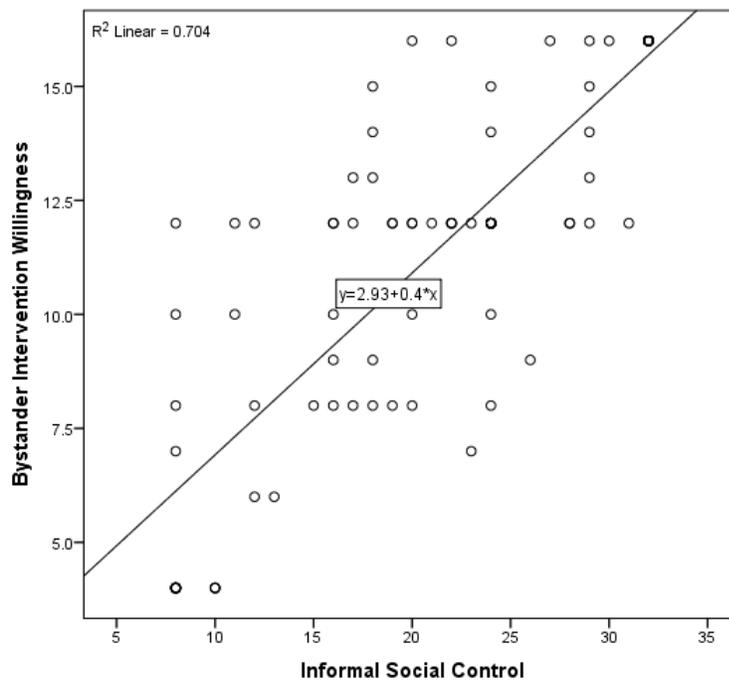
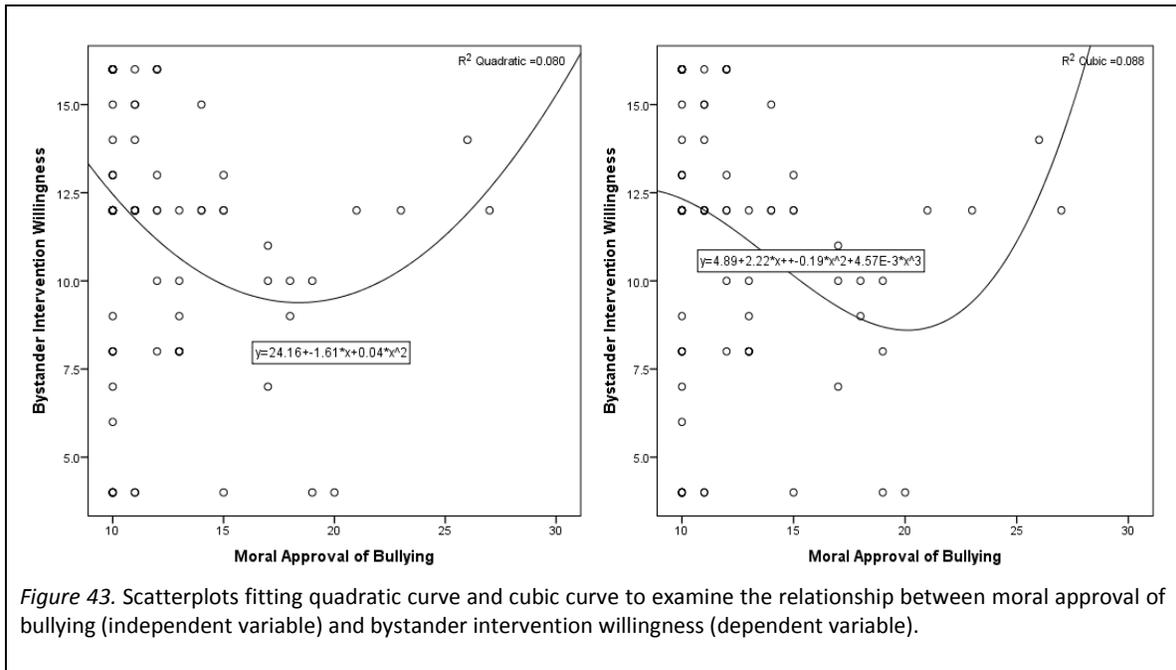


Figure 42. Scatterplot examining the linear relationship between informal social control (independent variable) and bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

Both a quadratic curve and cubic curve with polynomial terms were fitted to the model to inspect the curvilinearity of the relationship between MAB and BIW (see Figure 43). Indeed, based on an examination of the scatterplot and coefficient of determination (R^2), a curve provided a better “fit” for the data points than a straight line. That being said, the plot of BIW and the winsorized version of MAB removing most of the extreme outliers provided for a better linear fit; neither a quadratic nor cubic curve had a noticeably better fit nor made a meaningful change in the R^2 value (see Figure 44) in comparison to the straight line. Additionally, it should be noted that the researcher tried various variable transformations (e.g., Log10, natural log, and square root) and combinations of transformed and original variables (e.g., transformed IV and original DV, original IV and transformed DV, and transformed IV and transformed DV) in an attempt to obtain better fitting linear models. None of these were successful in terms of making for a significantly better fit for the regression line; the regression models produced for the original unaltered data provided the best overall fits compared to those of the transformed data.



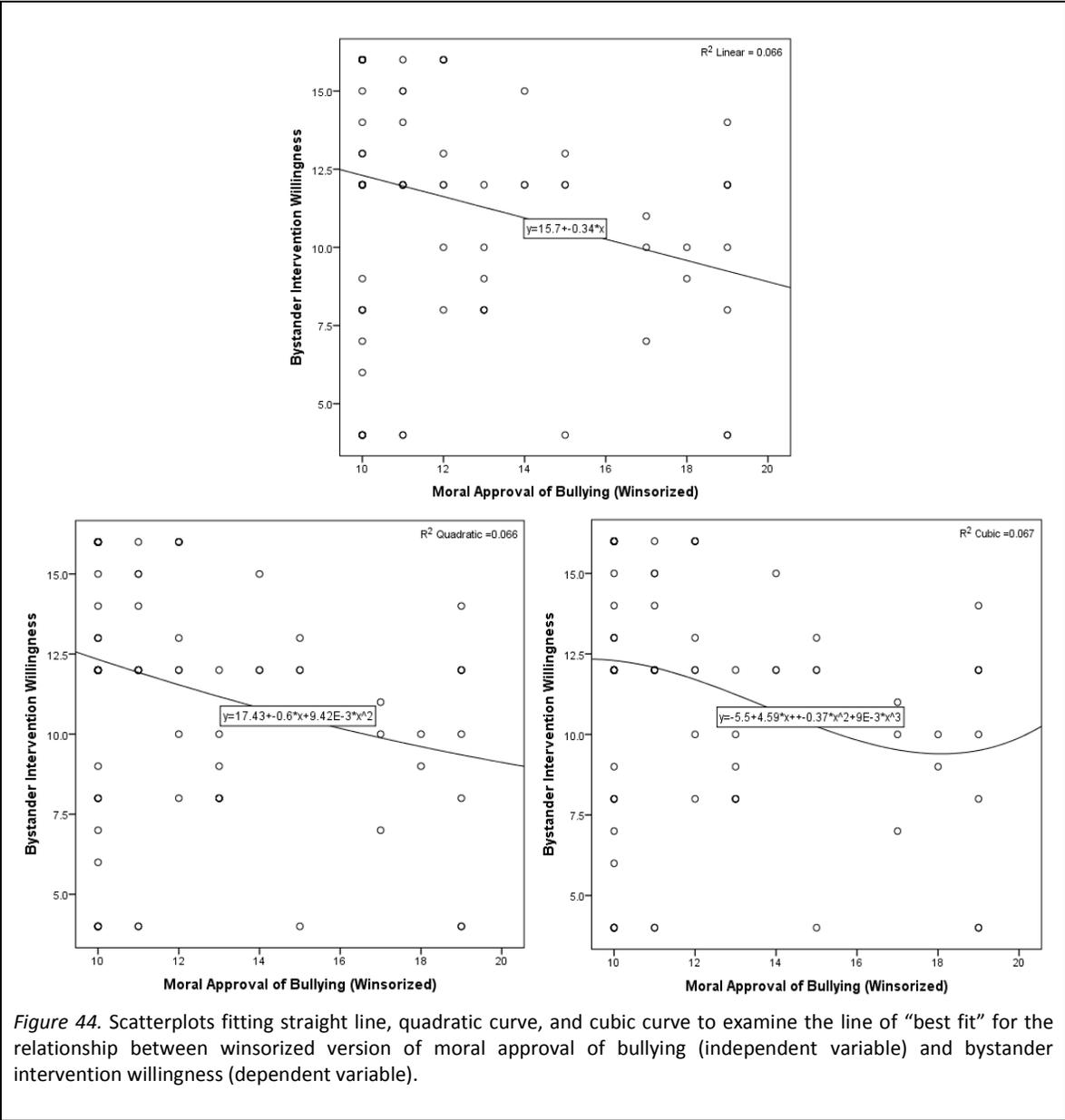


Figure 44. Scatterplots fitting straight line, quadratic curve, and cubic curve to examine the line of “best fit” for the relationship between winsorized version of moral approval of bullying (independent variable) and bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

Homoscedasticity of errors. Homoscedasticity of the errors (“constant variance”) was checked by producing scatterplots of the studentized residuals against the predicted values for each of the independent variables on BIW (see Figures 45–50). The variance appeared to be constant for each independent variable against the dependent variable; the scatterplots were square/rectangular-shaped, with residuals randomly distributed with no distinctive pattern.

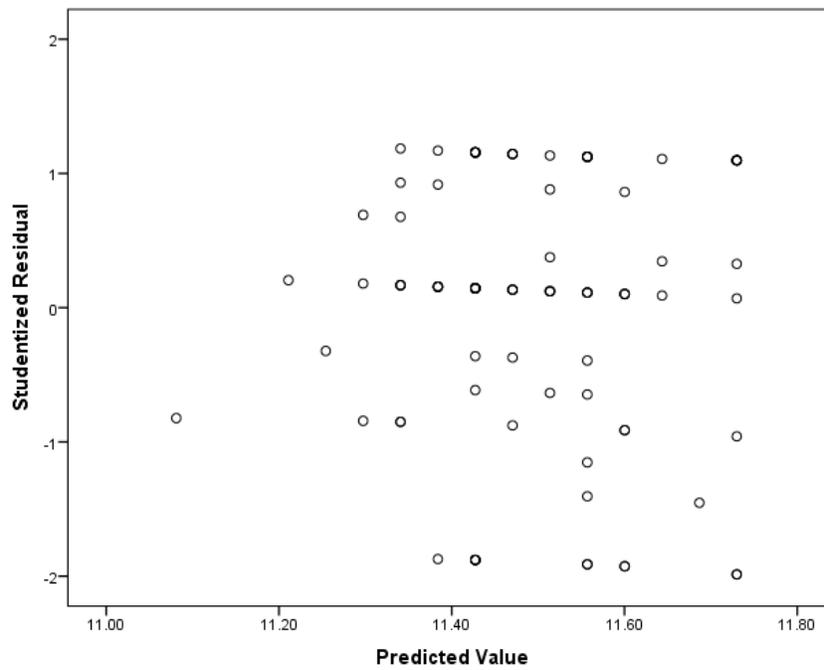


Figure 45. Scatterplot of studentized residuals against predicted values for social cohesion and trust (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

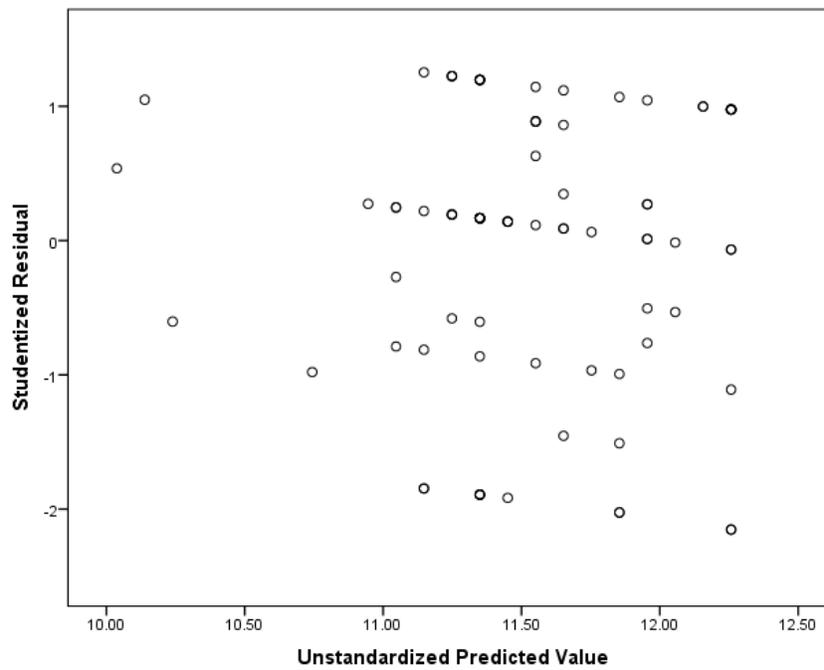


Figure 46. Scatterplot of studentized residuals against predicted values for school climate (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

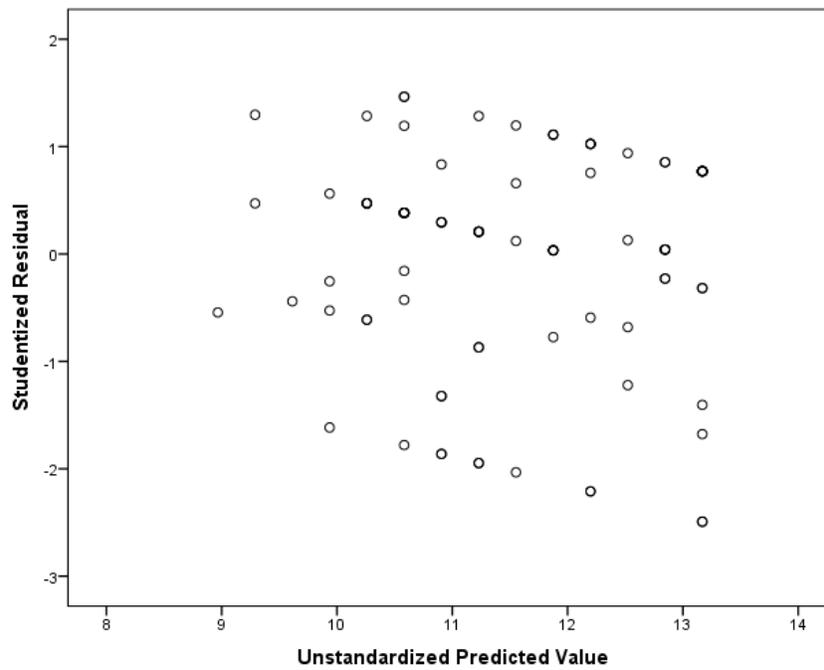


Figure 47. Scatterplot of studentized residuals against predicted values for perceived peer support (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

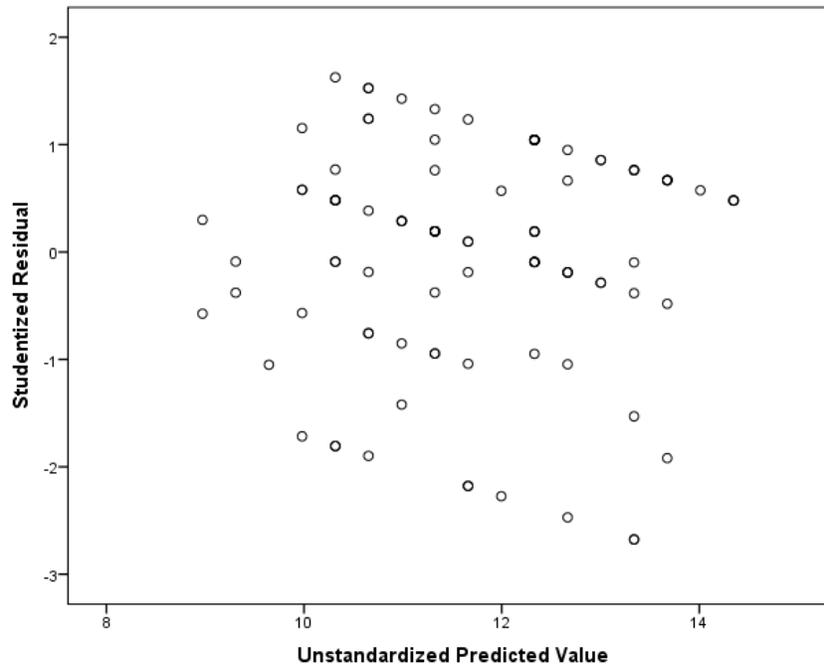


Figure 48. Scatterplot of studentized residuals against predicted values for self-esteem (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

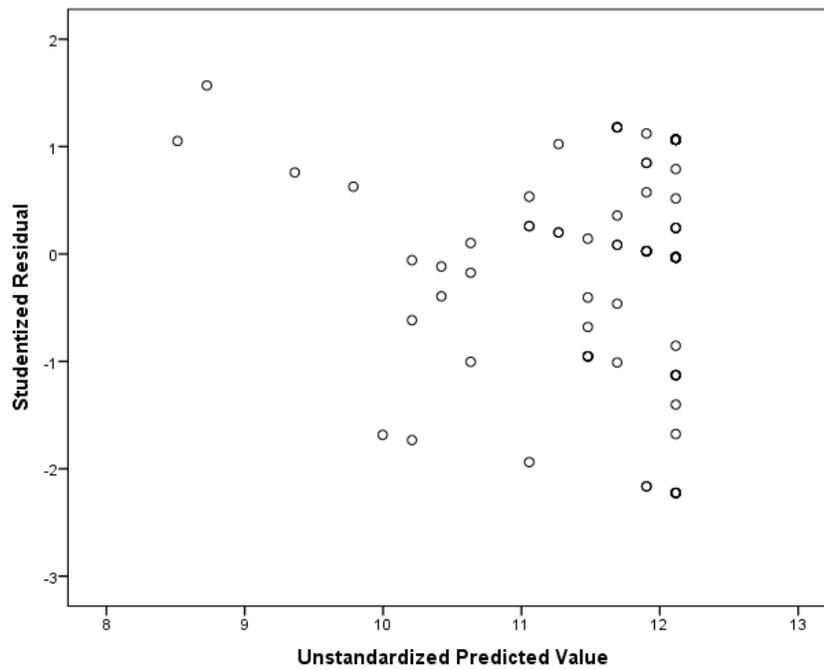


Figure 49. Scatterplot of studentized residuals against predicted values for moral approval of bullying (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

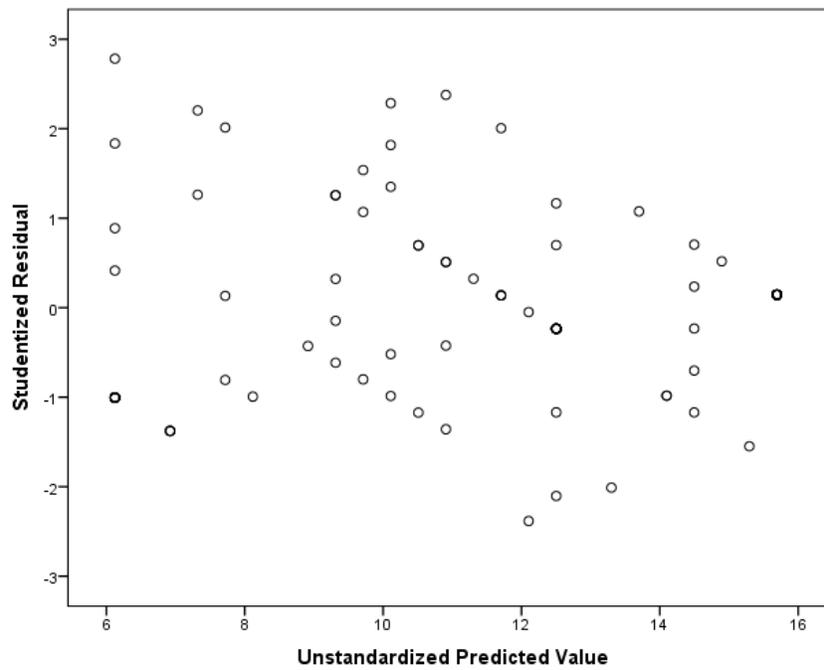


Figure 50. Scatterplot of studentized residuals against predicted values for informal social control (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

Normal distribution of errors. As for normality of the error distribution, this was examined by creating histograms and Q-Q plots and detrended Q-Q plots of the standardized residuals, and running Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality tests of the standardized residuals for each independent variable against the dependent variable (see Figures 51–62 and Tables 87–88). “Eyeballing” the distributions of the standardized residuals (Figures 51–56), we can observe that most of the distributions somewhat approximate a normal distribution, although there may be issues with skewness and outliers; the informal social control distribution appears to have the closest approximation to a normal distribution. For Q-Q plots of the residuals, if the data points align more or less along the diagonal line, the data can be considered derived from a normally distributed population, whereas for the detrended Q-Q plots of the residuals, if the data points “fall randomly in a band around 0,” the data can be said to be from a normal distribution (Norušis, 2010). Looking at the Q-Q plots of the residuals (Figures 57–62) for each independent variable on the dependent variable, most of the data points fall close to the diagonal line, if not directly on it. As for the detrended Q-Q plots (Figures 57–62), the points are randomly distributed along the zero mark line although there are some noticeable outliers.

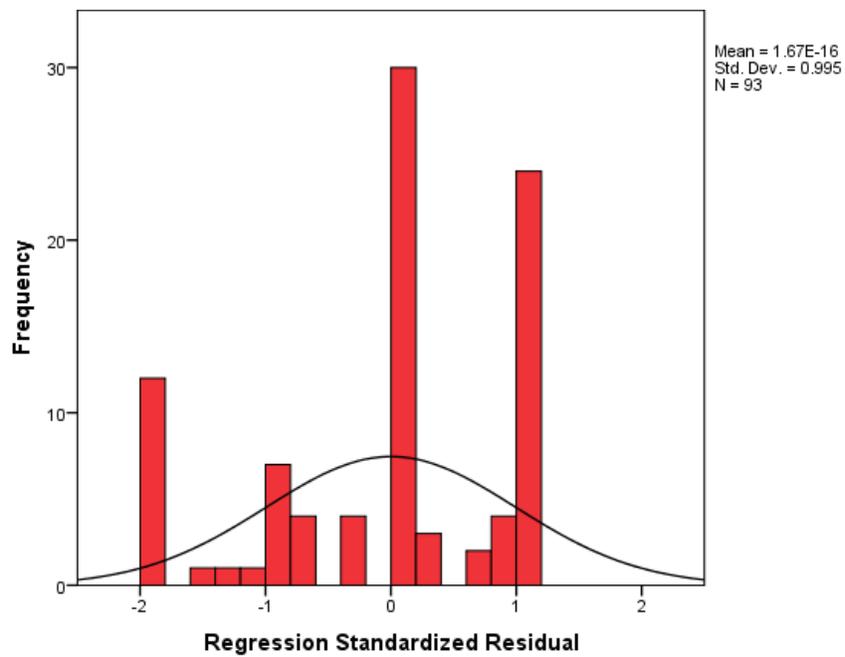


Figure 51. Histogram of residuals for social cohesion and trust (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

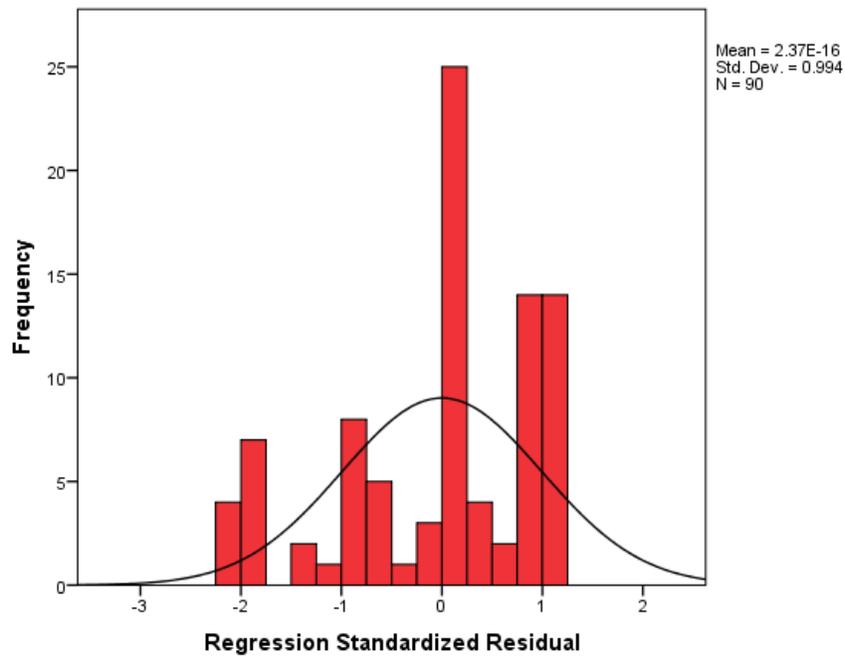


Figure 52. Histogram of residuals for school climate (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

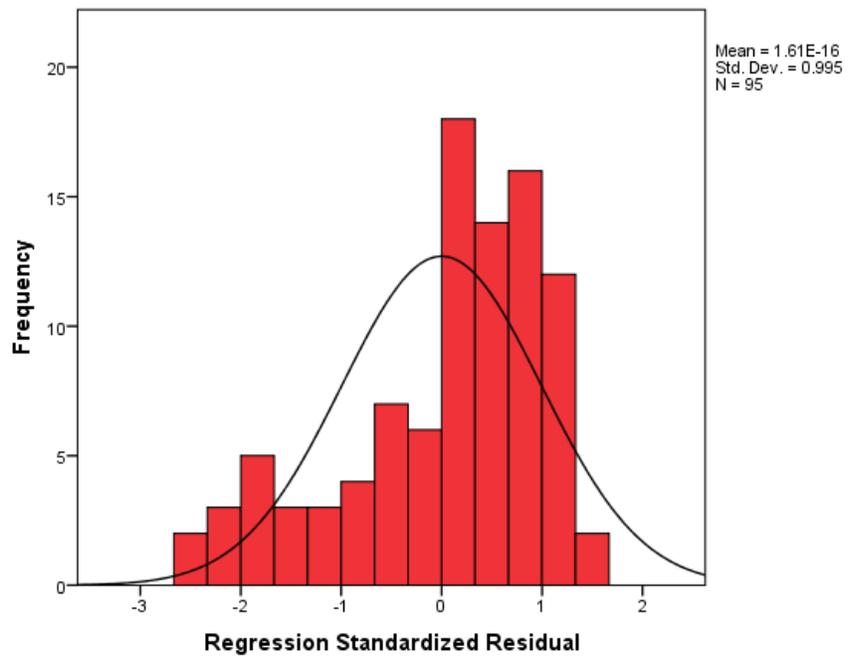


Figure 53. Histogram of residuals for perceived peer support (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

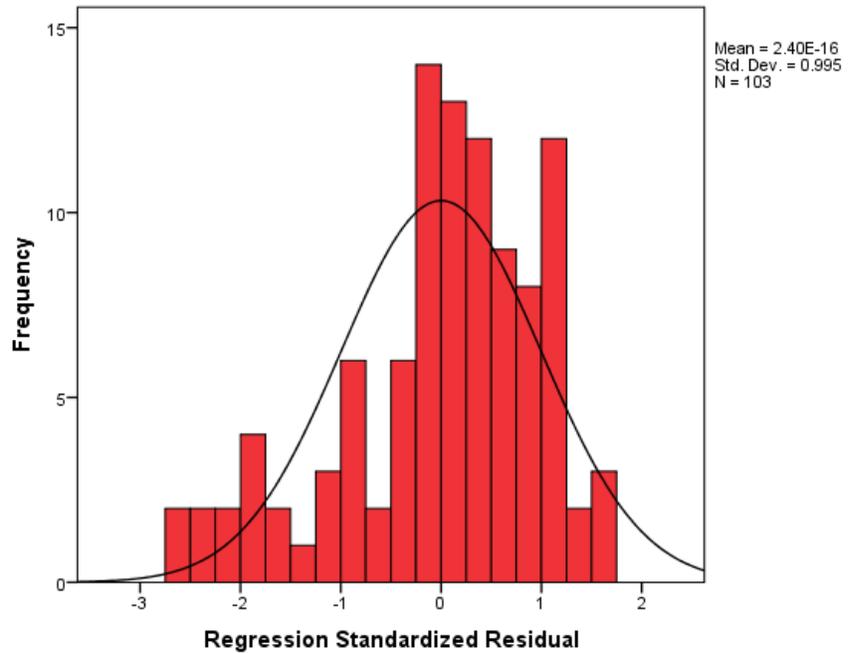


Figure 54. Histogram of residuals for self-esteem (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

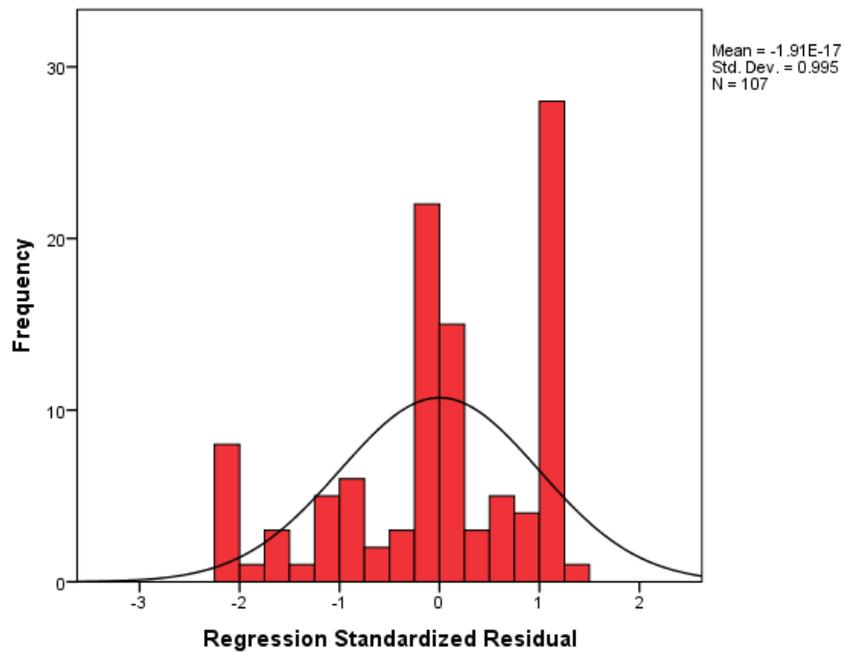


Figure 55. Histogram of residuals for moral approval of bullying (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).

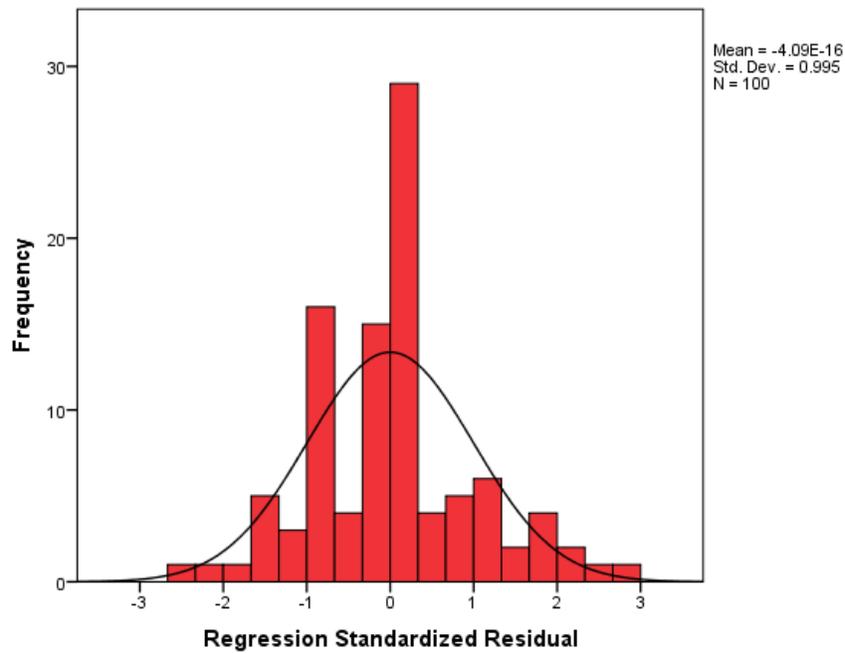
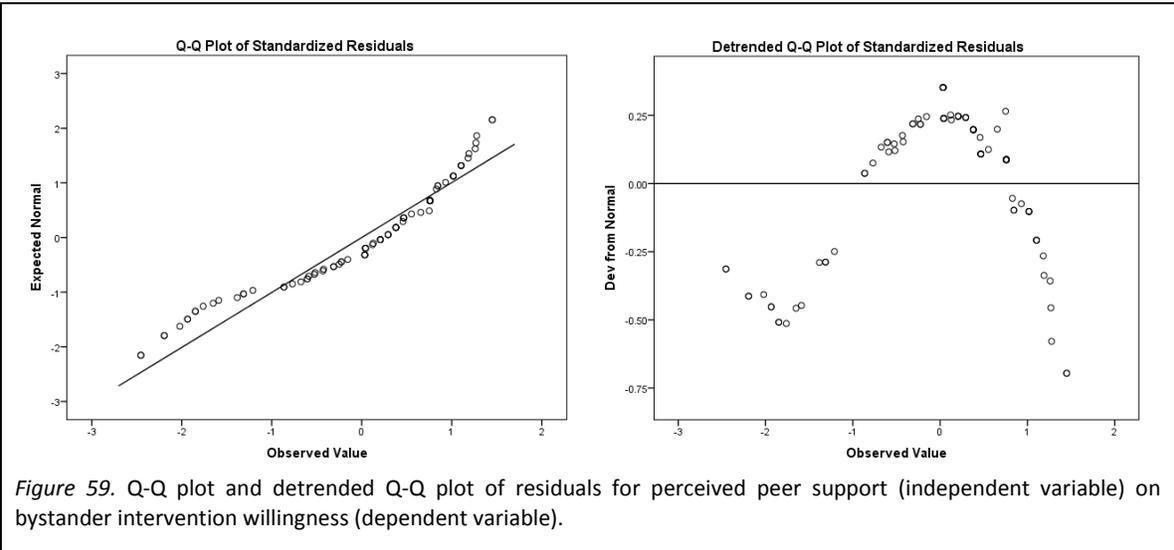
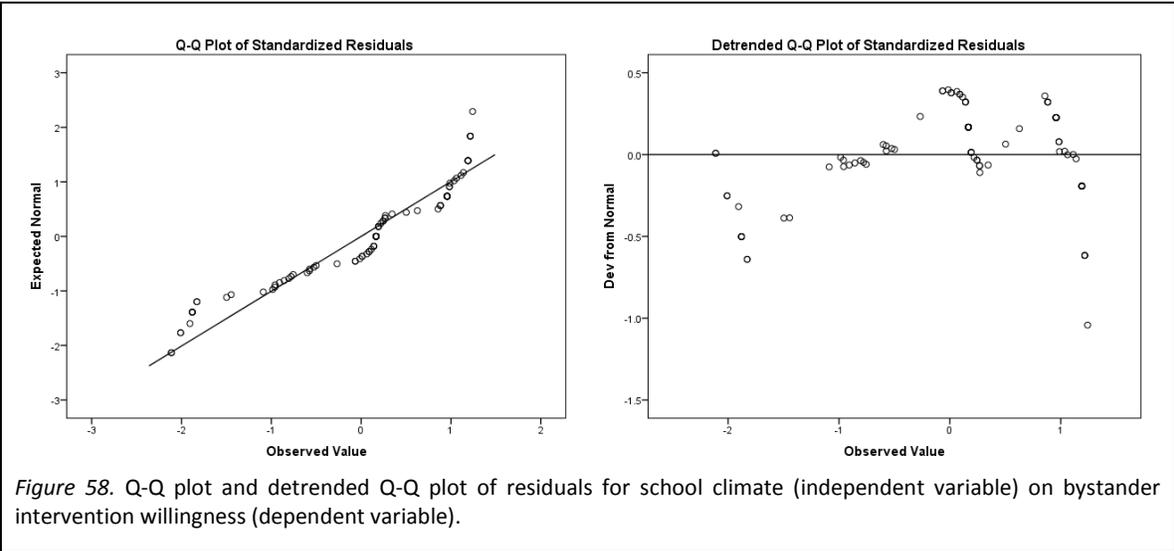
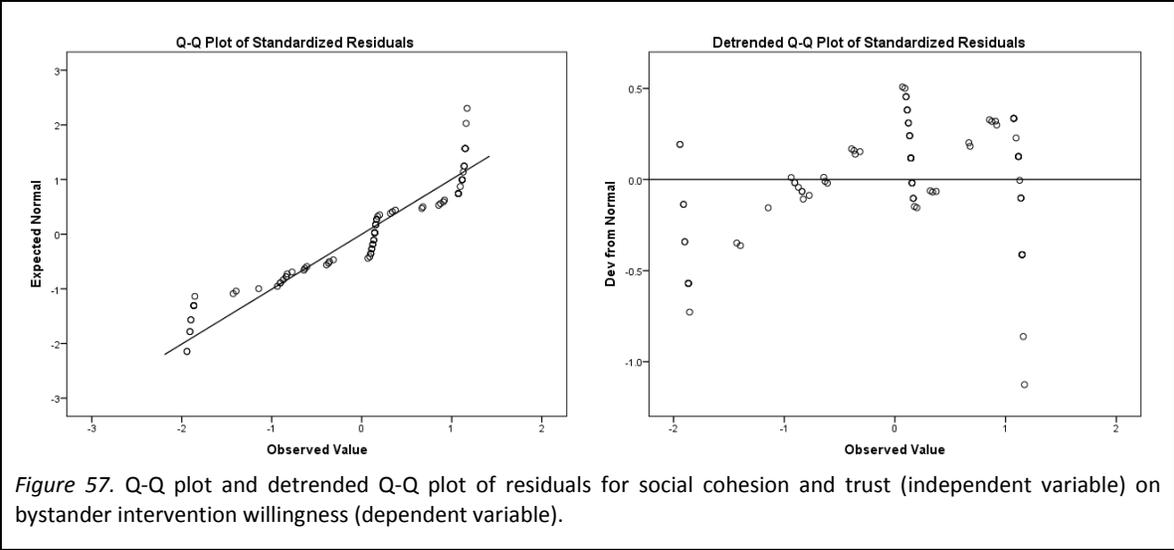
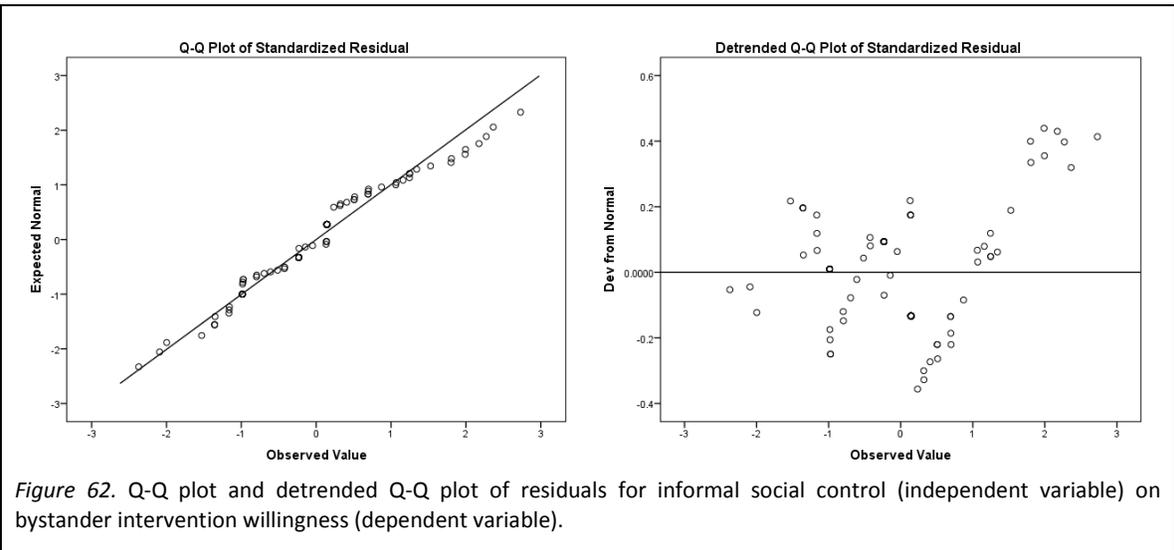
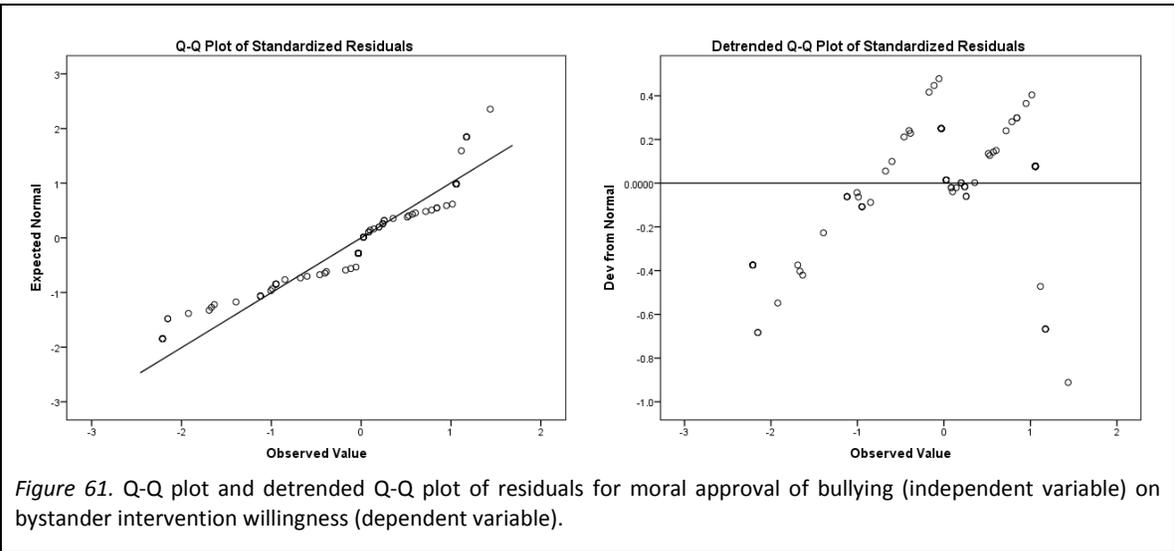
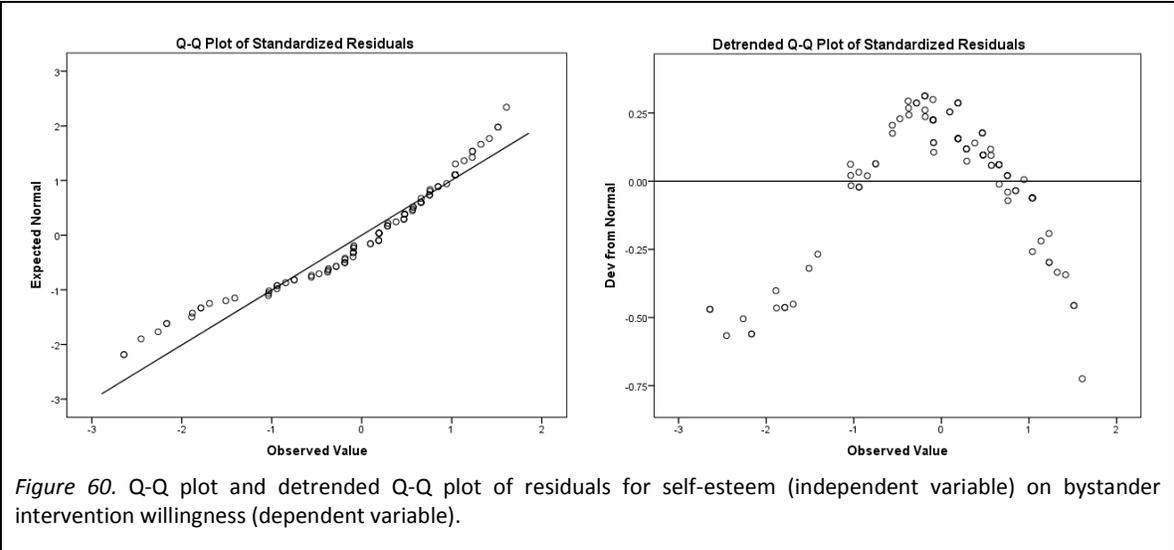


Figure 56. Histogram of residuals for informal social control (independent variable) on bystander intervention willingness (dependent variable).





For all Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests, p -values were less than .05, indicating non-normal distributions for the residuals of each explanatory variable on bystander willingness intervention (see Table 87). Nevertheless, when a sample size is small, significant deviations from normality may not be detected, while given large sample sizes, these tests may lead one to rejecting the assumption of normality as a result of “small departures that won’t affect the regression analysis” (Norusis, 2010, p. 505). Therefore, due to the inherent problems of these normality tests, in addition to an “eyeball test” of examining the histograms and plots of the residual distributions, skewness and kurtosis values were also evaluated to determine whether the violations of the normality of errors assumption were significant or only minor in scope as to not seriously affect the results of the regression analysis.

Table 87

Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests of Normality Results for the Six Independent Variables on Bystander Intervention Willingness

| | Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test | | | Shapiro-Wilk Test | | |
|---|-------------------------|-----|------|-------------------|-----|------|
| | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statistic | df | Sig. |
| Social Cohesion and Trust → Bystander Intervention Willingness | .205 | 93 | .000 | .879 | 93 | .000 |
| School Climate → Bystander Intervention Willingness | .162 | 90 | .000 | .897 | 90 | .000 |
| Perceived Peer Support → Bystander Intervention Willingness | .166 | 95 | .000 | .914 | 95 | .000 |
| Self-Esteem → Bystander Intervention Willingness | .134 | 103 | .000 | .930 | 103 | .000 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying → Bystander Intervention Willingness | .188 | 107 | .000 | .893 | 107 | .000 |
| Informal Social Control → Bystander Intervention Willingness | .163 | 100 | .000 | .962 | 100 | .006 |

Employing the same method used to evaluate skewness and kurtosis to determine a distribution’s deviation from normality for the independent-samples t tests, skewness and kurtosis values for each of the residual distributions were divided by their respective standard errors to see whether their z -score values exceeded the 95% confidence interval. Unlike the distributions for the independent-samples t tests, the samples were not divided by schools, but kept “intact” with all valid cases (i.e., excluding missing cases) used for the regression analyses. All samples for each of the independent variables evaluated against the bystander intervention willingness variable fall into the range for medium-sized samples with the number of cases being

over 50 but not exceeding 300—social cohesion and trust ($n = 93$), school climate ($n = 90$), perceived peer support ($n = 95$), self-esteem ($n = 103$), moral approval of bullying ($n = 107$), and informal social control ($n = 100$). Therefore, the ± 3.29 threshold was used for evaluating the distributions to determine any significant deviations from normality (Kim, 2013). Three of the distributions—PPS, SE, and MAB (as well as the winsorized version of MAB)—were found to be significantly non-normal. Additionally, while the distributions for SCT, SC, and winsorized version of SC had z -scores within the 95% confidence interval, the values were nevertheless on the high end of the scale (i.e., over -2.5), which make the normality assumption suspect for these distributions. Skewness, kurtosis, and z -score values derived from the skewness and kurtosis values divided by their standard errors are summarized in Table 88.

Table 88

Summary of Skewness, Kurtosis, and z-Scores for Skewness and Kurtosis for the Six Independent Variables on Bystander Intervention Willingness

| | Skewness | Skewness z-score | Kurtosis | Kurtosis z-score |
|--|----------|---------------------|----------|---------------------|
| Social Cohesion and Trust → Bystander Intervention Willingness | -0.643 | -2.572 | -0.620 | -1.253 |
| School Climate → Bystander Intervention Willingness | -0.702 | -2.764 | -0.497 | -0.988 |
| Perceived Peer Support → Bystander Intervention Willingness | -0.875 | -3.543 | -0.077 | -0.157 |
| Self-Esteem → Bystander Intervention Willingness | -0.892 | -3.748 | 0.321 | 0.680 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying → Bystander Intervention Willingness | -0.771 | -3.295 | -0.197 | -0.425 |
| Informal Social Control → Bystander Intervention Willingness | 0.402 | 1.668 | 0.359 | 0.751 |
| School Climate (winsorized) → Bystander Intervention Willingness | -0.708 | -2.787 | -0.474 | -0.942 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying (winsorized) → Bystander Intervention Willingness | -0.851 | -3.637 | -0.026 | -0.056 |

Although the assumption of normality was not met for several of the distributions to be examined, the other assumptions were met. Nevertheless, despite these complications with the normality assumption, the trustworthiness of the inferences that can be made with the regression coefficients was not necessarily impeded due to the robustness of linear regression with respect to the assumption of normality of distributed errors. As Williams, Grajales, and Kurkiewicz (2013, p. 3) explain:

On the other hand, the assumption of normally distributed errors is not required for multiple regression to provide regression coefficients that are unbiased and consistent,

presuming that other assumptions are met. Further, as the sample size grows larger, inferences about coefficients will usually become more and more trustworthy, even when the distribution of errors is not normal. This is due to the central limit theorem which implies that, even if errors are not normally distributed, the sampling distribution of the coefficients will approach a normal distribution as sample size grows larger, assuming some reasonably minimal preconditions. This is why it is plausible to say that regression is relatively *robust* to the assumption of normally distributed errors.

Multicollinearity. As explained earlier, grade level and SCT were removed from the multiple regression analyses due to multicollinearity with age and school climate, respectively. The rationale for keeping the age variable as opposed to the grade variable was due to the lack of representation of first graders from CVHS, the comparison group school. As for choosing to retain school climate over social cohesion and trust, the decision was based on SC's higher correlation with a majority of the other variables, including the outcome variable—bystander intervention willingness. That being said, the SC variable was ultimately removed from the multiple regression analyses as well since it did not yield a statistically significant influence on BIW in the bivariate analysis.

Outliers. Upon examining the residuals for each of the six independent variables on bystander intervention willingness for outliers, although there were a few plots with noticeable outliers, none were considered to be extreme outliers, i.e., standardized residuals exceeding ± 3.29 (review Figures 51–62). Nevertheless, despite all data points not exceeding this threshold, the researcher determined that the school climate and moral approval of bullying distributions contained several outliers that could adversely affect the results of the regression analysis. The data were reviewed to check for entry or coding errors on the part of the researcher (there were none) and original surveys were reviewed to examine whether there was a recording error on the part of the individual respondents when marking their answers. After reviewing individual responses for the respondents whose scores were outliers, the ratings marked on the individual

Likert scales for a particular group of scales (i.e., the SC scale and MAB scale) were deemed to be more or less consistent with one another. In short, although these scores were outliers, they were nevertheless valid scores and not the result of recording errors by the respondent or the researcher. Removing these scores would thus invalidate to a certain degree the findings of the analyses. Thus, instead of trimming these valid scores—which would consequently remove several cases from the analysis, thereby, reducing the overall sample size—the researcher chose to winsorize the outliers instead by replacing several, if not all, of the outliers with the largest or smallest value in the dataset not considered to be an outlier.

In the case of the school climate data, all outliers were winsorized, whereas for the moral approval of bullying dataset, only five out of 12 outliers were winsorized. The school climate data was winsorized by converting the four outliers (with values of 14, 15, 16, and 16) to the value of 20, the next highest score in the dataset. This resulted in a winsorization of 4.2%, i.e., winsorizing four out of 94 valid cases. Due to the excessive number of outliers in the MAB dataset, which thus gives the MAB distribution its positive skew, only the top 5% of outliers were winsorized so as not to drastically alter the data, which would have been the case if all outliers (12 scores in all) were winsorized. A total of five outliers (values of 27, 26, 23, 21, and 20) were changed to the value of 19, the next lowest score in the dataset. This represented a winsorization of 4.5%, i.e., winsorizing five out of 111 valid cases. Overall, the winsorization of the school climate and moral approval of bullying dataset helped to decrease the skewness and kurtosis values of both distributions (see Table 89). The skewness and kurtosis of the standardized residuals for the winsorized SC and winsorized MAB on BIW did not decrease by a significant amount; in the case of the standardized residuals for the winsorized version of MAB on BIW, skewness increased while kurtosis decreased, although both not by much (see Table 90).

For the sake of being complete and for comparison purposes, the regression analyses were done using both the original data for SC and MAB and their winsorized versions. Results of both versions of the analyses are included in this report.

Table 89

Comparison of Skewness and Kurtosis for Original Versions and Winsorized Versions of School Climate and Moral Approval of Bullying

| | Skewness | | Kurtosis | |
|---|----------|-------|----------|-------|
| | Value | SE | Value | SE |
| School Climate (original) | -0.558 | 0.249 | 0.859 | 0.493 |
| School Climate (winsorized) | 0.048 | 0.249 | -0.567 | 0.493 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying (original) | 2.381 | 0.229 | 5.912 | 0.455 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying (winsorized) | 1.665 | 0.229 | 1.568 | 0.455 |

Table 90

Comparison of Skewness and Kurtosis of Standardized Residuals of Original Versions and Winsorized Versions of School Climate and Moral Approval of Bullying on Bystander Intervention Willingness

| | Skewness | | Kurtosis | |
|--|----------|-------|----------|-------|
| | Value | SE | Value | SE |
| School Climate (original) → Bystander Intervention Willingness | -0.702 | 0.254 | -0.497 | 0.503 |
| School Climate (winsorized) → Bystander Intervention Willingness | -0.708 | 0.254 | -0.474 | 0.503 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying (original) → Bystander Intervention Willingness | -0.771 | 0.234 | -0.197 | 0.463 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying (winsorized) → Bystander Intervention Willingness | -0.851 | 0.234 | -0.026 | 0.463 |

Regression analysis can be used for either predictive or explanatory (causal) analysis, i.e., making predictions about unknown cases based on observed cases of the independent variable on the dependent variable or inferring the causal effects (and the magnitude of those effects) of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Having discussed in detail all the assumptions for linear regression, it should be emphasized that the primary intent of the regression analyses conducted for this study was to summarize and *explain* the *observed* data as opposed to *predicting* hypothetical data based on the regression line and extrapolating the results for the purposes of hypothesis testing about the *population* regression line. Thus, only one of the assumptions is deemed most relevant for the limited purposes of this study—namely, linearity of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable, while the other

additional assumptions are important factors if the purpose of the analysis was to test hypotheses about the population regression line (Norušis, 2010, p. 478). For the purposes of this study, the assumption of linearity between the six independent variables and dependent variable of bystander intervention willingness has more or less been met. Nonetheless, all other assumptions have also been met, with the exception of the assumption of normality. In short, having addressed these assumptions and concerns, linear regression was deemed to be an appropriate statistical test for examining whether students' attitudes about bullying and other important factors such as self-esteem and perceived peer support help to explain students' willingness to intervene in bullying incidents.

Bivariate Linear Regression

Bivariate linear regression analyses were conducted with bystander intervention willingness serving as the outcome variable and the remaining six scales—social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, moral approval of bullying, and informal social control—as explanatory variables. To mitigate the effects of extreme outliers on the regression analyses, winsorized versions of the SC and MAB data were also used (regression models were created for both original and winsorized versions of the SC and MAB data). The summaries of the findings below are divided by their respective independent variable.

Social cohesion and trust. The simple linear regression run on a sample of $n = 93$ found no significance in the ability of social cohesion and trust ($M = 22.56$, $SD = 3.101$) to explain bystander intervention willingness ($M = 11.49$, $SD = 3.961$), $F(1, 91) = .105$, $p = .747$, $r = .034$, $r^2 = .001$, $r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = -.01$. Although the results showed that as students' perception of social cohesion and trust in their schools increased, so did their willingness to intervene in bullying

incidents, this associated change in BIW scores due to a change in SCT scores is not considered to be significant. Table 91 provides a summary of the regression analysis.

School climate. The simple linear regression run on a sample of $n = 90$ found no significance in the ability of school climate ($M = 28.93$, $SD = 4.627$) to explain bystander intervention willingness ($M = 11.54$, $SD = 3.915$), $F(1, 88) = 1.269$, $p = .263$, $r = .119$, $r^2 = .014$, $r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .003$. Although the results showed that the higher students' rated the atmosphere in their schools, the higher they rated their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents, this associated change in BIW scores due to a change in school climate scores is not considered to be significant. Table 92 provides a summary of the regression analysis.

School climate – winsorized dataset. The simple linear regression run on a sample of $n = 90$ found no significance in the ability of school climate ($M = 29.1$, $SD = 4.184$) to explain bystander intervention willingness ($M = 11.54$, $SD = 3.915$), $F(1, 88) = 1.571$, $p = .213$, $r = .132$, $r^2 = .018$, $r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .006$. Although the results showed that the higher students' rated the atmosphere in their schools, the higher they rated their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents, this associated change in BIW scores due to a change in SCT scores is not considered to be significant. These results were not considerably different from the results of the regression analysis on the original unaltered school climate dataset which retained the outliers. Table 93 provides a summary of the regression analysis.

Perceived peer support. The simple linear regression run on a sample of $n = 95$ found significance in the ability of perceived peer support ($M = 19.15$, $SD = 3.567$) to explain bystander intervention willingness ($M = 11.6$, $SD = 3.891$), $F(1, 93) = 8.955$, $p = .004$, $r^2 = .088$, $r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .078$. Students' perceived peer support explained 8.8% of the variance in their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. There was a medium positive relationship between

the two variables ($r = .296, p = .004$). The bystander intervention willingness score increased by 0.323 points for every one point increase in perceived peer support. Table 94 provides a summary of the regression analysis.

Self-esteem. The simple linear regression run on a sample of $n = 103$ found significance in the ability of self-esteem ($M = 24.23, SD = 3.848$) to explain bystander intervention willingness ($M = 11.74, SD = 3.747$), $F(1, 101) = 13.641, p < .001, r^2 = .119, r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .11$. Students' self-esteem explained 11.9% of the variance in their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. There was a medium positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .345, p < .001$). The bystander intervention willingness score increased by 0.336 points for every one point increase in self-esteem. Table 95 provides a summary of the regression analysis.

Moral approval of bullying. The simple linear regression run on a sample of $n = 107$ found significance in the ability of moral approval of bullying ($M = 12, SD = 3.48$) to explain bystander intervention willingness ($M = 11.69, SD = 3.728$), $F(1, 105) = 4.275, p = .041, r^2 = .039, r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .03$. Students' moral approval of bullying explained 3.9% of the variance in their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. There was a small negative relationship between the two variables ($r = -.198, p = .041$). The bystander intervention willingness score decreased by .212 points for every one point increase in moral approval of bullying. Table 96 provides a summary of the regression analysis.

Moral approval of bullying – winsorized dataset. The simple linear regression run on a sample of $n = 107$ found significance in the ability of moral approval of bullying ($M = 11.79, SD = 2.811$) to explain bystander intervention willingness ($M = 11.69, SD = 3.728$), $F(1, 105) = 7.39, p = .008, r^2 = .066, r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .057$. Students' moral approval of bullying explained 6.6% of the variance in their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. There was a small negative

relationship between the two variables ($r = -.256, p = .008$). The bystander intervention willingness score decreased by 0.34 points for every one point increase in moral approval of bullying. Table 97 provides a summary of the regression analysis.

Informal social control. The simple linear regression run on a sample of $n = 100$ found significance in the ability of informal social control ($M = 21.56, SD = 8.278$) to explain bystander intervention willingness ($M = 11.53, SD = 3.935$), $F(1, 98) = 232.757, p < .001, r^2 = .704, r^2_{Adjusted} = .701$. Students' perceptions of informal social control mechanisms present in their schools explained 70.4% of the variance in their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. There was a strong positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .839, p < .001$). The bystander intervention willingness score increased by 0.399 points for every one point increase in self-esteem. Overall, among the six explanatory variables examined via simple linear regression, informal social control exhibited not only the strongest correlation with bystander intervention willingness, but also explained a significant proportion of the variability in BIW. Table 98 provides a summary of the regression analysis.

Table 91

Bivariate Regression Results for Social Cohesion and Trust and Bystander Intervention Willingness

| Variable | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | 95% CI | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|-------|---------------------------|-------|------|--------|--------|
| | B | SE | β | | | LL | UL |
| Constant | 10.519*** | 3.046 | | 3.453 | .001 | 4.467 | 16.570 |
| Social Cohesion and Trust | .043 | .134 | .034 | .323 | .747 | -.223 | .309 |
| F | .105 | | | | | | |
| R | .034 | | | | | | |
| R ² | .001 | | | | | | |
| Adjusted R ² | -.010 | | | | | | |

Note. $n = 93$. Independent variable = social cohesion and trust, dependent variable = bystander intervention willingness. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

*** $p < .001$.

Table 92

Bivariate Regression Results for School Climate and Bystander Intervention Willingness

| Variable | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | 95% CI | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------|---------------------------|-------|------|--------|--------|
| | B | SE | β | | | LL | UL |
| Constant | 8.625*** | 2.624 | | 3.287 | .001 | 3.411 | 13.839 |
| School Climate | .101 | .090 | .119 | 1.127 | .263 | -.077 | .279 |
| <i>F</i> | 1.269 | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> | .119 | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> ² | .014 | | | | | | |
| Adjusted <i>R</i> ² | .003 | | | | | | |

Note. *n* = 90. Independent variable = school climate, dependent variable = bystander intervention willingness. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

*** *p* < .001.

Table 93

Bivariate Regression Results for School Climate (Winsorized) and Bystander Intervention Willingness

| Variable | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | 95% CI | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------|---------------------------|-------|------|--------|--------|
| | B | SE | β | | | LL | UL |
| Constant | 7.938** | 2.906 | | 2.731 | .008 | 2.162 | 13.714 |
| School Climate (winsorized) | .124 | .099 | .132 | 1.253 | .213 | -.073 | .320 |
| <i>F</i> | 1.571 | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> | .132 | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> ² | .018 | | | | | | |
| Adjusted <i>R</i> ² | .006 | | | | | | |

Note. *n* = 90. Independent variable = school climate (winsorized dataset), dependent variable = bystander intervention willingness. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

** *p* < .01.

Table 94

Bivariate Regression Results for Perceived Peer Support and Bystander Intervention Willingness

| Variable | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | 95% CI | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------|---------------------------|-------|------|--------|-------|
| | B | SE | β | | | LL | UL |
| Constant | 5.410 | 2.104 | | 2.572 | .012 | 1.233 | 9.588 |
| Perceived Peer Support | .323** | .108 | .296 | 2.993 | .004 | .109 | .538 |
| <i>F</i> | 8.955 ** | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> | .296 | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> ² | .088 | | | | | | |
| Adjusted <i>R</i> ² | .078 | | | | | | |

Note. *n* = 95. Independent variable = perceived peer support, dependent variable = bystander intervention willingness. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

** *p* < .01.

Table 95

Bivariate Regression Results for Self-Esteem and Bystander Intervention Willingness

| Variable | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | 95% CI | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------|---------------------------|-------|------|--------|-------|
| | B | SE | β | | | LL | UL |
| Constant | 3.599 | 2.231 | | 1.613 | .110 | -.827 | 8.025 |
| Self-Esteem | .336*** | .091 | .345 | 3.693 | .000 | .155 | .516 |
| <i>F</i> | 13.641*** | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> | .345 | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> ² | .119 | | | | | | |
| Adjusted <i>R</i> ² | .110 | | | | | | |

Note. *n* = 103. Independent variable = self-esteem, dependent variable = bystander intervention willingness. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

*** *p* < .001.

Table 96

Bivariate Regression Results for Moral Approval of Bullying and Bystander Intervention Willingness

| Variable | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | 95% CI | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------|---------------------------|--------|------|--------|--------|
| | B | SE | β | | | LL | UL |
| Constant | 14.234*** | 1.280 | | 11.123 | .000 | 11.696 | 16.771 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying | -.212* | .102 | -.198 | -2.068 | .041 | -.415 | -.009 |
| <i>F</i> | 4.275 | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> | .198 | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> ² | .039 | | | | | | |
| Adjusted <i>R</i> ² | .030 | | | | | | |

Note. *n* = 107. Independent variable = moral approval of bullying, dependent variable = bystander intervention willingness. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

* *p* < .05. *** *p* < .001.

Table 97

Bivariate Regression Results for Moral Approval of Bullying (Winsorized) and Bystander Intervention Willingness

| Variable | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | 95% CI | |
|---|-----------------------------|-------|---------------------------|--------|------|--------|--------|
| | B | SE | β | | | LL | UL |
| Constant | 15.702*** | 1.516 | | 10.356 | .000 | 12.696 | 18.709 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying (winsorized) | -.340** | .125 | -.256 | -2.718 | .008 | -.588 | -.092 |
| <i>F</i> | 7.390*** | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> | .256 | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> ² | .066 | | | | | | |
| Adjusted <i>R</i> ² | .057 | | | | | | |

Note. *n* = 107. Independent variable = moral approval of bullying (winsorized), dependent variable = bystander intervention willingness. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

** *p* < .01. *** *p* < .001.

Table 98

Bivariate Regression Results for Informal Social Control and Bystander Intervention Willingness

| Variable | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | <i>t</i> | Sig. | 95% CI | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------|---------------------------|----------|------|--------|-------|
| | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | β | | | LL | UL |
| Constant | 2.933*** | .603 | | 4.862 | .000 | 1.736 | 4.130 |
| Informal Social Control | .399*** | .026 | .839 | 15.256 | .000 | .347 | .451 |
| <i>F</i> | 232.757*** | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> | .839 | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> ² | .704 | | | | | | |
| Adjusted <i>R</i> ² | .701 | | | | | | |

Note. *n* = 100. Independent variable = informal social control, dependent variable = bystander intervention willingness. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

*** *p* < .001.

Multiple Linear Regression

Two multiple linear regression analyses were conducted—one using the original moral approval of bullying dataset and the other using the winsorized MAB dataset. The criterion variable was bystander intervention willingness. Only four of the six explanatory variables were entered into the models; social cohesion and trust and school climate were excluded from the multiple regression analyses since they did not yield significant results for the simple linear regression analyses. The independent variables were entered into SPSS via the “enter method” and missing variables were excluded pairwise to maximize the sample sizes for each pairing of the dependent variable and independent variables.

First, a multiple regression was performed utilizing bystander intervention willingness as the criterion variable and perceived peer support, self-esteem, moral approval of bullying, and informal social control as explanatory variables in order to determine if students’ willingness to intervene in bullying incidents could be explained as a function of the other four factors. The analysis showed that the model explained 72.6% of the variance in bystander intervention willingness ($F(4, 83) = 54.889, p < .001, r^2 = .726, r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .712$), although only two of the four explanatory variables—informal social control ($\beta = .803, p < .001$) and self-esteem (β

= .142, $p = .046$)—had significant effects on students' willingness to intervene to stop bullying. There was no significant relationship between students' willingness to intervene and the two remaining independent variables of perceived peer support ($\beta = .026$, $p = .720$) and moral approval of bullying ($\beta = .022$, $p < .721$). Informal social control, as indexed by its β value of .803, was shown to have the strongest relationship with bystander intervention willingness. Table 99 provides a summary of the regression analysis.

Second, a multiple regression was calculated using the same variables as above with the exception of moral approval of bullying, which was replaced by its winsorized variant. As with the first analysis, this model explained about 73% of the variance in bystander intervention willingness ($F(4, 83) = 54.798$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = .725$, $r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .712$), and only informal social control ($\beta = .802$, $p < .001$) and self-esteem ($\beta = .141$, $p = .049$) had significant effects on students' willingness to intervene to stop bullying. Again, there was no significant relationship between students' willingness to intervene and the two remaining independent variables of perceived peer support ($\beta = .023$, $p = .754$) and moral approval of bullying ($\beta = .011$, $p = .168$). Informal social control, as indexed by its β value of .802, was shown to have the strongest relationship with bystander intervention willingness just like the first analysis using the original unaltered MAB dataset. Table 100 provides a summary of the regression analysis.

Table 99

Multiple Regression Results with Original Moral Approval of Bullying Dataset

| Variable | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | 95% CI | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------|---------------------------|--------|------|--------|-------|
| | B | SE | β | | | LL | UL |
| Constant | -.590 | 2.032 | | -.290 | .772 | -4.632 | 3.452 |
| Informal Social Control | .370*** | .028 | .803 | 13.314 | .000 | .315 | .426 |
| Self-Esteem | .139* | .069 | .142 | 2.021 | .046 | .002 | .276 |
| Perceived Peer Support | .027 | .076 | .026 | .360 | .720 | -.123 | .178 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying | .025 | .069 | .022 | .359 | .721 | -.113 | .163 |
| <i>F</i> | 54.889*** | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> | .852 | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> ² | .726 | | | | | | |
| Adjusted <i>R</i> ² | .712 | | | | | | |

Note. Independent variables = informal social control, self-esteem, perceived peer support, moral approval of bullying; dependent variable = bystander intervention willingness. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

* $p < .05$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 100

Multiple Regression Results with Winsorized Moral Approval of Bullying Dataset

| Variable | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | 95% CI | |
|---|-----------------------------|-------|---------------------------|--------|------|--------|-------|
| | B | SE | β | | | LL | UL |
| Constant | -.356 | 2.174 | | -.164 | .870 | -4.680 | 3.968 |
| Informal Social Control | .370*** | .028 | .802 | 13.146 | .000 | .314 | .426 |
| Self-Esteem | .138* | .069 | .141 | 2.001 | .049 | .001 | .274 |
| Perceived Peer Support | .024 | .075 | .023 | .314 | .754 | -.126 | .174 |
| Moral Approval of Bullying (winsorized) | .015 | .086 | .011 | .168 | .867 | -.157 | .187 |
| <i>F</i> | 54.798*** | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> | .852 | | | | | | |
| <i>R</i> ² | .725 | | | | | | |
| Adjusted <i>R</i> ² | .712 | | | | | | |

Note. Independent variables = informal social control, self-esteem, perceived peer support, moral approval of bullying (winsorized dataset); dependent variable = bystander intervention willingness. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

* $p < .05$. *** $p < .001$.

Stepwise Multiple Regression

Two stepwise multiple regression analyses were conducted, one using the original moral approval of bullying data set and the other using the winsorized MAB dataset. The criterion variable was bystander intervention willingness. Only four of the six explanatory variables were entered into the models; social cohesion and trust and school climate were excluded from the stepwise regression analyses since they did not yield significant results for the bivariate regression analyses. The independent variables were entered into SPSS via the “stepwise method”

and missing variables were excluded pairwise to maximize the sample sizes for each pairing of the dependent variable and independent variables.

First, a stepwise multiple regression was performed utilizing bystander intervention willingness as the criterion variable and perceived peer support, self-esteem, moral approval of bullying, and informal social control as explanatory variables in order to determine if students' willingness to intervene in bullying incidents could be explained as a function of the other four factors. Model 1, which included only informal social control ($\beta = .839, p < .001$) as the predictor variable, explained 70.4% of the variance in bystander intervention willingness ($F(1, 86) = 204.256, p < .001, r^2 = .704, r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .70$). Model 2, which added self-esteem ($\beta = .15, p = .012$) as a predictor variable, provided only a minor increase ($\Delta r^2 = .021$) in the explanatory ability of the model on the variability of BIW ($F(2, 85) = 112.033, p < .001, r^2 = .725, r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .719$). All other predictors were subsequently excluded as they did not contribute any significant impact on BIW beyond self-esteem and ISC. The correlation coefficient resulting from the analysis showed that there is a strong positive correlation ($r = .851$) between students' self-esteem and their perceptions of informal social control mechanisms present in their schools and their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. The coefficient of determination ($r^2 = .725$) for self-esteem ($\beta = .15, p = .012$) and informal social control ($\beta = .802, p < .001$) combined was a strong indicator of explaining bystander intervention willingness. In brief, the regression model accounted for 72.5% of the variance in students' willingness to intervene as bystanders in bullying incidents. Table 101 provides a summary of the regression analysis.

An additional stepwise multiple regression was calculated using the same variables as before with the exception of moral approval of bullying, which was replaced by its winsorized variant. Just like the prior stepwise regression analysis, the winsorized version of MAB did not

exhibit any significant effect on BIW beyond what had already been explained by ISC and self-esteem, and was subsequently eliminated from the model along with PPS. Thus, the results of the second stepwise regression analysis were identical to those of the first analysis (see Table 101).

Table 101

Stepwise Multiple Regression Results

| Model | Variable | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | 95% CI | |
|---------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|-------|---------------------------|--------|------|--------|-------|
| | | B | SE | β | | | LL | UL |
| Model 1 | Constant | 3.238*** | .624 | | 5.191 | .000 | 1.998 | 4.478 |
| | Informal Social Control | .387*** | .027 | .839 | 14.292 | .000 | .333 | .441 |
| Model 2 | Constant | .040 | 1.386 | | .029 | .977 | -2.716 | 2.796 |
| | Informal Social Control | .370*** | .027 | .802 | 13.685 | .000 | .316 | .424 |
| | Self-Esteem | .147* | .057 | .150 | 2.564 | .012 | .033 | .261 |
| Model 1 | F | 204.256*** | | | | | | |
| | R | .839 | | | | | | |
| | R ² | .704 | | | | | | |
| | Adjusted R ² | .700 | | | | | | |
| | ΔF | 204.256*** | | | | | | |
| Model 2 | F | 112.033*** | | | | | | |
| | R | .851 | | | | | | |
| | R ² | .725 | | | | | | |
| | Adjusted R ² | .719 | | | | | | |
| | ΔF | 6.573* | | | | | | |
| | ΔR ² | .021 | | | | | | |

Note. Independent variables inputted = informal social control, self-esteem, perceived peer support, moral approval of bullying; independent variables removed via stepwise regression = perceived peer support, moral approval of bullying; dependent variable = bystander intervention willingness. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

* $p < .05$. *** $p < .001$.

Hierarchical Multiple Regression

Lastly, a hierarchical multiple regression was run, which included two demographic variables in the analysis to examine if they had any significant influence in helping to explain bystander intervention willingness. Just like the previous analyses, bystander intervention willingness served as the criterion variable. Based on the results of the simultaneous multiple regression and stepwise multiple regression, perceived peer support and moral approval of bullying were determined to be insignificant explanatory factors for BIW, and were thus excluded from the hierarchical multiple regression analysis. The two demographic variables included in the analysis were age and gender, along with informal social control and self-esteem

serving as the primary explanatory variables. As discussed previously in the section on regression assumptions, the grade level demographic variable was excluded due to multicollinearity issues with age. For the purposes of the regression analysis, gender was dummy coded (female = 0, male = 1).

The demographic control variables were entered together on the first step of the regression, followed by informal social control and self-esteem entered simultaneously on the second step. Model 1 showed that although gender ($\beta = -.096, p = .354$) and age ($\beta = .114, p = .269$) accounted for only 2.4% of the variance in bystander intervention willingness, the effects of the two variables were insignificant ($F(2, 93) = 1.145, p < .323, r^2 = .024, r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .003$). Model 2, which included informal social control ($\beta = .798, p < .001$) and self-esteem ($\beta = .158, p = .008$) as predictor variables, provided a significant increase ($\Delta r^2 = .702$) in the explanatory ability of the model above and beyond age and gender alone on the variability of BIW ($F(4, 91) = 60.394, p < .001, r^2 = .726, r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .714$). In brief, age and gender did not have a significant influence on students' willingness to intervene in bullying incidents, while combined with informal social control and self-esteem, the regression model explained 72.6% of the variance in bystander intervention willingness. Table 102 provides a summary of the regression analysis.

Table 102

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results

| Model | Variable | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | <i>t</i> | Sig. | 95% CI | |
|---------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------|---------------------------|----------|------|---------|--------|
| | | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | β | | | LL | UL |
| Model 1 | Constant | .766 | 10.231 | | .075 | .940 | -19.551 | 21.083 |
| | Gender | -.761 | .817 | -.096 | -.931 | .354 | -2.384 | .862 |
| | Age | .650 | .585 | .114 | 1.111 | .269 | -.512 | 1.812 |
| Model 2 | Constant | 1.523 | 5.482 | | .278 | .782 | -9.366 | 12.413 |
| | Gender | -.291 | .446 | -.037 | -.653 | .515 | -1.177 | .594 |
| | Age | -.083 | .320 | -.015 | -.259 | .796 | -.719 | .553 |
| | Informal Social Control | .368*** | .026 | .798 | 13.936 | .000 | .316 | .421 |
| | Self-Esteem | .155** | .057 | .158 | 2.728 | .008 | .042 | .267 |
| Model 1 | <i>F</i> | 1.145 | | | | | | |
| | <i>R</i> | .155 | | | | | | |
| | <i>R</i> ² | .024 | | | | | | |
| | Adjusted <i>R</i> ² | .003 | | | | | | |
| | ΔF | 1.145 | | | | | | |
| | ΔR^2 | .024 | | | | | | |
| Model 2 | <i>F</i> | 60.394*** | | | | | | |
| | <i>R</i> | .852 | | | | | | |
| | <i>R</i> ² | .726 | | | | | | |
| | Adjusted <i>R</i> ² | .714 | | | | | | |
| | ΔF | 116.791*** | | | | | | |
| | ΔR^2 | .702 | | | | | | |

Note. Independent variables inputted = age, gender, informal social control, self-esteem; dependent variable = bystander intervention willingness. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Summary

This chapter presented descriptive statistics, summarizing the data derived from the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey administered to students from Communal Vision High School (comparison group) and Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group), followed by the results of several statistical tests conducted to answer the study's four research questions. These tests included independent-samples *t* tests, Mann-Whitney *U* tests, two-way ANOVAs, and linear regression analyses. The first two research questions were the primary focus of the study, examining a police-administered anti-bullying presentation's effect on students' attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. The latter two questions were ancillary and sought to explore whether attitudes about bullying or other key factors such as school climate and perceived peer support had any significant influence over students' willingness to intervene.

Independent-samples *t* tests were utilized to address the first two research questions regarding whether the *Stand By Me* anti-bullying presentation conducted by a ROK police officer had any significant effect on Korean high school students' moral approval of bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying. In addition to running the *t* tests on the two criterion variables of interest—moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness—*t* tests were also performed on the other five dimensions included in the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey administered to students (i.e., social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control). The results of the *t* tests indicated that of the seven dimensions, students from the comparison and treatment groups only differed significantly on bystander intervention willingness. Specifically, mean scores for the treatment group were found to be significantly higher than those of the comparison group at the .05 significance level.

Despite the robustness of independent-samples *t* tests, due to concerns with certain *t* test assumptions, Mann-Whitney *U* tests were also conducted to corroborate the results of the *t* tests. The Mann-Whitney *U* tests affirmed the results of the *t* tests, with one exception—a significant difference between the two schools was also found for mean scores of moral approval of bullying. In brief, based on the results of the independent-samples *t* tests and Mann-Whitney *U* tests, the first two research questions may be answered in the affirmative; i.e., the anti-bullying presentation did have an effect on students' attitudes toward bullying and their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents.

Prior to addressing the latter two research questions, several two-way ANOVAs were performed to test for interaction effects between certain variables on moral approval of bullying, then on bystander intervention willingness. The interaction effects examined were school and

gender, school and age, and school and grade level. A total of six ANOVAs were performed, three per dependent variable. The results for all six analyses indicated no interaction effects, while affirming the results of the independent-samples *t* tests.

Finally, the third and fourth research questions were addressed via simple regression and three different types of multiple regression including simultaneous multiple regression, stepwise multiple regression, and hierarchical multiple regression. In brief, all predictor variables with the exception of school climate and social cohesion and trust had a significant influence on BIW, with informal social control and self-esteem explaining much of the variance in BIW.

This concludes the presentation of results. The next chapter will provide interpretations of these results, highlighting key findings and discussing their implications for both future research and potential areas of improvement for anti-bullying programs in South Korea, including the *Stand By Me* project developed by the researcher for the purposes of this study.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

Introduction

For the past four years, the Korean government has pressed law enforcement and education officials throughout the nation to directly address the issue of school bullying. This focus on combatting bullying and violence in South Korea's elementary and secondary schools is part of the overall Four Social Evils initiative implemented by the Republic of Korea national government, which also includes sexual violence, domestic violence, and unsafe food products. Since 2013, when the Park administration announced its interest in tackling the Four Social Evils plaguing Korean society, various schools and police departments around the country have made efforts to develop and implement anti-bullying measures including "Youth Leadership for Community Sharing" campaigns, the "Wee (We + Education + Emotion) Project," and "School Police" programs, the latter of which is South Korea's equivalent of the school resource officer and school liaison officer programs that are popular in countries such as the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom. These South Korean youth programs are still in their infancy, and very little, if any, empirical research has been done on their efficacy on mitigating school bullying and violence.

The impetus for this research project was to help directly contribute to the ongoing intellectual discussion among academics, school officials, policymakers, and criminal justice professionals, about effective means of dealing with bullying in schools. To do so, the researcher researched and developed his own anti-bullying presentation, the effectiveness of which was the

focus of the present study, as opposed to evaluating an already established program either implemented by a ROK police department or individual school or school district in the ROK. The primary reasons for going this route were two-fold. First, school-based and police-administered anti-bullying programs in the Republic of Korea are still relatively limited in scope and may or may not have been developed based on empirically researched bullying prevention methods. Thus, the researcher was interested in employing a program he created which was based on empirical research and data on effective anti-bullying programs and methods, while examining the feasibility of adapting to the Korean context elements from anti-bullying approaches which were found to be effective in other countries including the United States. Second, the unfortunate reality that the researcher is an “outsider” (i.e., a foreigner and not a member of the ROK police force or ROK elementary/secondary school system) added to the difficulty of acquiring permission to examine and evaluate police-administered or school/government-sponsored programs, which may or may not have resulted in negative findings which key stakeholders may not want revealed to the general public for the sake of “saving face,” something which is highly valued in the ROK and other Confucian-based societies such as Japan and China. In the researcher’s humble opinion, the desire of certain government and school officials to save face, i.e., to avoid outward humiliation or embarrassment while maintaining one’s dignity and reputation, may very well be a significant factor hindering empirical research on—and perhaps more importantly, impartial evaluation of—these newly implemented bullying prevention programs in the Republic of Korea, but that is a discussion beyond the scope of this dissertation, although it would be a topic worth further exploration in future research.

Over the course of several months, the researcher worked in consultation with two ROK police officers, staff members from the Korean-American Educational Commission (Fulbright-Korea Office), and teachers from Mokpo Jungang High School (treatment group) and Communal Vision High School (comparison group) to create the presentation administered as part of this study. Entitled *Stand By Me: Bullying Prevention and Bystander Empowerment*, the presentation incorporated elements from Utterly Global Youth Empowerment's (2010a, 2010b) *Stand Up, Speak Out* middle school and high school anti-bullying programs, which utilized content from Olweus' (1978, 1991, 1993a, 1993b, 1994) extensive research on bullying prevention as well as information from various sources and research on effective bullying prevention methods (see Barton, 2006; Coloroso, 2008; Davis, 2007; Hinduja & Patchin, 2015; Miller & Lowen, 2012), while modifying several components and topics to suit a Korean audience. After creating the presentation, including PowerPoint slides, presenter notes, and student activity prompts, the researcher consulted with the participating police officers, teachers, and KAEC staff and revised the presentation and supplemental documents based on their input. Due to time constraints and the degree to which administrators and teachers from both the treatment and comparison group schools were willing to have students participate, the *SBM* program was designed as a one-shot presentation that was administered within a two-hour period to the treatment group school.

The study was relatively simple in scope, employing a nonequivalent groups design with a treatment group and comparison group. Mokpo Jungang High School, the treatment group, provided 55 participants, while Communal Vision High School, the comparison group, provided 60 participants. In April 2016, student participants from the comparison group school were administered the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey (SAPS), a modified and translated version of Williams and Guerra's (2007) Student School Survey. A month later, participants

from the treatment group school were administered the *Stand By Me* anti-bullying presentation conducted by Officer Joo Woo-nam, a ROK police officer assigned to the Criminal Investigative Division (Juvenile and Family Affairs Section) of Ulsan Jungbu Police Station. The presentation lasted approximately an hour and a half. Students were then administered the survey. The SAPS contained various Likert-type scales gauging students' attitudes toward bullying, their willingness to intervene to stop bullying, and other key factors such as school climate, self-esteem, and perceived peer support. Due to the limited scope of the study, the research was focused on exploring the presentation's effect on students' *attitudes* only and not on long-term change, if any, in students' bullying behavior. Upon completion of data collection, the survey data was examined via quantitative analysis, the results of which have been provided in the previous chapter, and which will be further discussed in the sections below.

Overall, the purpose of this research was to examine the role police officers can play in shaping South Korean youths' attitudes about bullying and their willingness to stop bullying via an interactive bullying prevention presentation, while also exploring what specific factors may help idle bystanders become "upstanders," i.e., proactive bystanders who are willing to intervene in bullying incidents. Given the paucity of empirical research on school-based anti-bullying programs in South Korea, especially those conducted by the police, one of the goals of this project is to add to the criminal justice knowledgebase with regard to effective (or ineffective) means of addressing school violence in the Republic of Korea, and in the process, further the discussion on means to develop and improve ROK police-administered and/or school-based bullying prevention programs.

Interpretation and Implication of the Findings

This study sought to answer four research questions; two questions were the primary focus of the study, while the other two were ancillary, yet helped to illuminate the answers to the first two questions while delving deeper into explaining the overarching factors that may help influence South Korean youths' willingness to intervene in bullying incidents, which was the overarching theme of the *Stand By Me* presentation. To elaborate, while the statistical analyses run for the first two questions provided simple yes or no answers to whether the *Stand By Me* anti-bullying presentation had any significant impact on Korean high school students' attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying, the answers to the latter two questions provided the *how* and *why* bystander intervention willingness is affected. As a review, the four research questions are presented below:

1. Does an anti-bullying presentation conducted by a ROK police officer have a significant effect on South Korean high school students' attitudes toward bullying?
2. Does an anti-bullying presentation conducted by a ROK police officer have a significant effect on South Korean high school students' willingness to intervene to stop bullying?
3. Do South Korean high school students' attitudes about bullying help to explain their willingness to intervene to stop bullying?
4. Besides attitudes about bullying, do other specific factors—i.e., social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control—help to explain South Korean high school students' willingness to intervene to stop bullying?

The following interpretations of the results of this study will be discussed in the order of how the research questions are presented and in the order of each of the statistical analyses run for each of the research questions. Specifically, the discussion will begin with a review of the

bivariate correlations between each of the seven attitudinal dimensions included in the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey, highlighting significant correlations and their effect sizes, followed by an examination of the independent-samples *t* tests and Mann-Whitney *U* tests, which were conducted to address the first two research questions. This will be followed by a brief discussion of the two-way analyses of variance run to examine possible interaction effects among several of the independent variables on moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness. Finally, interpretations of the various linear regression analyses will be offered, which were conducted to address the third and fourth research questions, as well as a discussion of the accompanying correlation analyses.

A Discussion on Significant Correlations and Effect Sizes

In examining correlations between the various attitudinal scales and the two primary criterion variables of interest (i.e., moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness), perceived peer support, informal social control, and self-esteem were significantly correlated with both moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness. To recap, moral approval of bullying had a weak negative correlation with informal social control ($r = -.211, p = .037$) and self-esteem ($r = -.292, p < .001$), and a moderate negative correlation with perceived peer support ($r = -.359, p < .001$). Bystander intervention willingness, on the other hand, was positively correlated with the three above explanatory variables, but to varying degrees. To elaborate, bystander intervention willingness had a small to medium positive relationship with perceived peer support ($r = .296, p < .001$), a moderate relationship with self-esteem ($r = .345, p < .001$), and a very strong positive relationship (in fact, the strongest of all pairwise correlations among the key attitudinal variables tested in this study) with informal social control ($r = .839, p < .001$). In sum, perceived peer support, informal social control, and

self-esteem were directly associated with moral approval of bullying and indirectly associated with bystander intervention willingness.

Taking these relationships into account, we can see that the school environment as well as one's own perception of self can have a significant influence on youths' attitudes toward bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying. The variables of perceived peer support and informal social control are both representative of school environmental factors—specifically, youths' perceptions of fellow students and teachers' roles, responsibilities, and engagement. Each of these factors was significantly correlated with both moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness. In brief, students' moral approval of bullying decreased while their willingness to intervene increased with an increase in perceived peer support or informal social control. These findings indicated that positive or negative perceptions of one's peers (e.g., if a fellow student can be trusted or cares about one's feelings) and perceptions of the willingness and extent to which peers, teachers, and school staff would get involved to stop bullying influenced not only students' attitudes about bullying but also their own willingness to intervene in bullying incidents.

Overall, these correlations support social control theory, while helping to illuminate issues regarding the bystander effect and concept of diffusion of responsibility. To recap succinctly, social control theory contends that strong social bonds lower the chance of a person committing criminal or delinquent acts, while weak social bonds have the opposite effect, instead increasing the likelihood of a person engaging in criminal and delinquent behavior (Hirschi, 1969). As for the bystander effect, situations in which a person will not render assistance to a victim if other people are present due to a perceived "diffusion of responsibility" to act among the entire group, the results of the correlations between BIW and PPS and ISC imply that the

opposite would occur—at least, with respect to the study’s 115 high school student participants. Contrary to this assertion, the correlation analyses appear to indicate that the stronger students’ perceptions of peer and/or teacher involvement in stopping bullying, the stronger their likelihood of becoming involved themselves. In other words, instead of shying away from intervening in a bullying incident given the prevalence of a greater number of actors, student participants indicated that they themselves would act in defense of another if they felt that fellow students or teachers would render assistance as well. The research findings’ support for sociological theories will be addressed in greater detail in the section on recommendations for improving the *Stand By Me* presentation and South Korean bullying prevention programs in general.

In addition to the external factors of perceived peer support and perceived informal control mechanisms present in the school environment, the internal factor of self-esteem also played a role in influencing respondents’ bullying attitudes and intervention willingness. The results indicated an indirect association between self-esteem and bullying attitudes and a direct association between self-esteem and willingness to intervene. In other words, higher self-esteem was indicative of less tolerance for bullying and a higher inclination to intervene to stop bullying. This correlation supports the generally held belief that people with higher self-esteem will act in a responsible manner while treating others with respect (Curran & Renzetti, 2001), albeit going one step further in supporting the probability that those with higher self-esteem are more likely to act altruistically by coming to the aid of someone in danger—in this particular case, a victim of bullying. Additionally, informal social control has a direct relationship with both perceived peer support ($r = .248, p = .02$) and self-esteem ($r = .243, p = .017$), while all three factors have a direct relationship with bystander intervention willingness and an indirect relationship with

moral approval of bullying, illustrating the role of both external and internal factors in shaping one's attitudes about bullying and willingness to stop bullying.

In summary, there is interplay between one's perception of others (i.e., fellow students and school officials) and one's own perception of self-worth in influencing a young person's views about bullying and her or his disposition to get involved in preventing bullying. Taking these external and internal factors into account, bullying prevention programs that may be the most effective are those that target improvement of peer-to-peer and student-to-teacher relations as well as development of positive self-esteem, while those programs that may not include such components should consider incorporating them in their respective curricula. To reiterate, the informal social control scale on the SAPS included statements pertaining not only to students' perceptions of peers' willingness to intervene in bullying, but teachers and school staff's willingness as well. In the end, not only do other students' behavior (or perceived behavior) have an influence on one's bystander actions, the behavior of teachers and other school staff members also have a contributing role. As prior studies have noted, how teachers respond to bullying can have an effect—positive or negative—on bullying victimization in their respective schools (see Crothers, Kolbert, & Barker, 2006; Lee, 2010; Marachi, Astor, and Benbenishty, 2007; Yoon et al., 2011).

Of all the variables examined via the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey, the strongest relationships existed between informal social control and bystander intervention willingness ($r = .839, p < .001$), social cohesion and trust and school climate ($r = .806, p < .001$), and perceived peer support and self-esteem ($r = .561, p < .001$). Since social cohesion and trust and school climate are fairly similar measures pertaining to the school environment (i.e., students' perceptions of fellow students, teachers, and staff), it makes sense that these two variables are

highly correlated. With respect to perceived peer support and self-esteem, this association is supported by the comprehensive studies by Kaplan (1975, 1980) on the self-esteem model of crime and delinquency, which is premised on the belief that others' perceptions of an individual (in other words, perceived peer support) will shape a person's "self-attitudes," or sense of self-worth. As for the correlation between informal social control and bystander intervention willingness, although this relationship was elaborated upon in detail in the paragraphs above, it should be stressed that given such a strong direct relationship between these two factors, the strengthening of informal (or even formal) social control mechanisms in the school setting ought to be further explored in the research and development of existing and proposed anti-bullying programs in the Republic of Korea. A detailed discussion on improvement of existing and future school-based anti-bullying initiatives and police-administered bullying prevention programs will be addressed in a subsequent section.

Although neither school climate nor social cohesion and trust were significantly related to the two dependent variables, they nevertheless displayed statistically significant associations with perceived peer support and self-esteem, both of which were significantly correlated with moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness. To review, school climate had a moderate positive correlation with perceived peer support ($r = .499, p < .001$) and self-esteem ($r = .306, p < .001$), while social cohesion and trust exhibited a moderate positive correlation with perceived peer support ($r = .46, p < .001$) and self-esteem ($r = .333, p < .001$). Thus, while perceived peer support and self-esteem influenced students' attitudes toward bullying and their willingness to intervene, taking a step back and looking at the bigger picture, we can discern that students' perception of their peers and individual perception of self are influenced in some way by the school environment. That being said, Olweus (1993a) states that

school-based bullying intervention programs should be comprehensive, addressing not only individual-level attitudes and behavior, but the school environment as a whole. Furthermore, Coloroso (2008) asserts that bullying can be significantly mitigated if teachers, students, and parents alike work with each other to foster a school environment promulgating *esprit de corps*, the concept of working together as a group and for the group toward achieving a common goal benefiting all members.

With respect to the two dependent variables, moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness exhibited a small indirect correlation ($r = -.198, p = .041$); as moral approval of bullying increases, there is a decrease in willingness to intervene, and vice versa. Although the relationship between these two variables is statistically significant, the correlation is nevertheless small. This suggests that even though a relationship may exist between bullying attitudes in willingness to intervene, attitudes toward bullying may not be the strongest or overarching explanatory factor of bystander intervention willingness, and that other factors may have better explanatory power over a bystander's willingness to stop bullying. The relationship between these two variables will be discussed in more detail in a subsequent section pertaining to the results of the regression analysis run to address the third research question, which asks whether students' attitudes about bullying help to explain their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents.

The *Stand By Me* Presentation's Effect on Moral Approval of Bullying

The first two research questions sought to answer whether the *Stand By Me* anti-bullying presentation had any significant effect on participating students' attitudes toward bullying and their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. These two questions were addressed via independent-samples *t* tests and Mann-Whitney *U* tests, which were used to evaluate any

significant difference between the mean scores of the comparison group school and treatment group school. Despite the independent-samples t test being a robust test, the Mann-Whitney U test was also employed to supplement the t test due to concerns with high levels of skewness and kurtosis—especially for the moral approval of bullying dataset. For moral approval of bullying, results of the independent-samples t test indicated no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two schools, but the Mann-Whitney U test did result in significant differences between the two schools' mean scores. As for bystander intervention willingness, both the t test and Mann-Whitney U test affirmed significant differences in the mean scores of both schools.

As stated above, there were discrepancies in the results of the independent-samples t test and the Mann-Whitney U test when comparing the moral approval of bullying mean scores between the two schools—the t test yielded non-significant results whereas the Mann-Whitney U test yielded results indicating a statistically significant difference between the two schools' MAB means. Despite the non-significant results of the t test, it should be noted that the MAB mean for Mokpo Jungang High School (MJHS), the treatment group school ($M = 11.77$, $SD = 3.993$), was nevertheless lower than the MAB mean for Communal Vision High School (CVHS), the comparison group school ($M = 12.1$, $SD = 2.845$). Thus, despite the lack of statistical significance between the two means, the difference between the treatment and comparison group did indicate a move in the “right direction,” so to speak (i.e., there was a decline in MAB mean scores between the treatment group and comparison group). All that being said, the purpose of including the Mann-Whitney U test—the nonparametric alternative to the independent-samples t test—was to compensate for the inherent issues pertaining to the validity of the t test results due to the MAB data challenging the assumption of normality.

Because of the extreme positive skews of the MAB data distributions for both CVHS and MJHS, and very high level of kurtosis in the case of MJHS's MAB distribution, and how these factors can affect the validity of the t test results, the results of the Mann-Whitney U test were accepted by the researcher to be the superior indicator of a presence or absence of significant differences between the two MAB means. To reiterate, the Mann-Whitney U test yielded statistically significant results, indicating that students from MJHS exhibited lower MAB scores than students from CVHS. In brief, students from MJHS, who were administered the *Stand By Me* anti-bullying presentation, exhibited a (slightly) lesser tolerance for bullying than did students from CVHS, who did not receive the presentation. Having discussed the statistical significance of the mean difference, it is worth noting whether this *statistical* significance can be said to be *practically*—or meaningfully—significant as well.

Looking at the data, we can see that the difference between the mean of moral approval of bullying for the treatment group school and comparison group school is only a fraction of a point. Mokpo Jungang High School students exhibited only a 0.33 decrease in moral approval of bullying compared to their counterparts in Communal Vision High School. As much as the researcher would like to argue in favor of the *SBM* presentation making a significantly meaningful impact on students' attitudes toward bullying—especially when the presentation was designed by the researcher, thereby making him as much a key stakeholder in the research project as the other research participants and supporters were—such an attempt would not only be futile, but dishonest. In short, regardless of any statistical significance between the two schools' MAB means, the actual difference between the means is relatively minor and doesn't indicate any “real world” significant impact on altering students' attitudes towards bullying. That being said, this was to be expected given the limited scope of the project—i.e., being a one-shot

presentation delivered in a span of two hours versus a comprehensive, long-term program administered over several weeks or months. Nonetheless, assuming that the two schools are as alike as possible and the presentation was the sole (or major) factor in affecting students' moral approval of bullying, the minute difference between the two schools' MAB mean scores are indicative of the presentation's *potential* to effect the desired change in students' attitudes toward bullying.

Overall, in spite of the minuscule difference between moral approval of bullying scores between MJHS and CVHS, the results indicate that the *SBM* anti-bullying presentation *may* have had an effect on decreasing students' MAB scores, with the caveat being that we do not know for certain due to the limitations of the research design. For instance, since a convenience sample was used as opposed to a random sample, and due to a lack of a pretest component to determined baseline scores for MAB and other key variables for both schools, it is difficult to say with a high degree of confidence whether the difference between the two scores, no matter how slight, could be primarily attributed to the anti-bullying presentation. This issue will be discussed in further detail in the subsequent section offering a review the study's limitations as well as proposals for improving the research design for future studies. In the end, a more prolonged program and a stronger research design are required in order to affirm or deny these initial findings regarding the *SBM* presentation's effect on students' attitudes about bullying.

The *Stand By Me* Presentation's Effect on Bystander Intervention Willingness

While the first research question involved the *SBM* presentation's effect on students' attitudes about bullying, the second research question took this issue one step further and asked whether or not the presentation had any effect on students' actual willingness to get involved in stopping bullying. As with the first research question, both parametric and nonparametric tests

were employed to answer this question. Unlike the data for moral approval of bullying scores, when obtaining a z -score by dividing skewness and kurtosis values by their standard errors, the data for bystander intervention willingness were determined to be not extremely skewed nor did they exhibit an excessive level of kurtosis, with the exception of CVHS's BIW scores (the section on independent-samples t tests and Mann-Whitney U tests in Chapter 4 present a detailed discussion on this). Although it is somewhat of a moot point to decide which is the more valid test since both the t test and Mann-Whitney U test yielded statistically significant results for BIW, unlike the results for MAB, in which the results of the t test and Mann-Whitney U test contradicted each other (again, the Mann-Whitney U test was determined to be the more superior of the two types of statistical tests due the extreme level of skew and kurtosis exhibited by the MAB data).

The BIW mean score for MJHS ($M = 12.38$, $SD = 3.598$), which was slightly higher than CVHS's BIW mean score ($M = 10.82$, $SD = 3.864$), was determined to be a statistically significant difference based on results of the t test and Mann-Whitney U test. Thus, according to these findings, MJHS students, who participated in the *SBM* presentation, exhibited a stronger propensity to get involved in stopping bullying than did their counterparts from CVHS. Nonetheless, as discussed earlier with respect to moral approval of bullying, even though the difference between the treatment group and comparison group's bystander intervention willingness scores were found to be statistically significant, is this finding also practically significant? The answer may not be as clear-cut as it was for MAB. To recap, the difference between the two schools' MAB scores was only .33—a fraction of a point—which can hardly be said to be meaningfully significant in the larger scheme of things. The difference between the mean of bystander intervention willingness for the treatment group school and the comparison

group school, on the other hand, was 1.56. This difference of 1.56, although much higher than a difference of .33, may seem like a relatively small value and may not look to have any practical or meaningful significance at first glance. Although when we take into account the actual scales of MAB and BIW—which are *different*—we can see that the difference of 1.56 is quite meaningful. For comparative purposes, the minimum and maximum possible scores for the MAB scale are 10 and 40, respectively; whereas for the BIW scale, the range of possible scores is 4 to 16. The BIW scale has a narrow range of possible scores—a range much smaller than that of the MAB scale—and therefore, the difference of 1.56 points for BIW scores can be said to be somewhat meaningful given such a small range. This point is made clearer if we examine the MAB and BIW mean differences in terms of standard scores so that a meaningful comparison can be made.

Converted to z -scores, which have a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one, the bystander intervention willingness mean score for Mokpo Jungang High School is 0.214 with a standard deviation of 0.946; the BIW mean score for Communal Vision High School is -0.197 with a standard deviation of 1.02. The BIW mean difference between MJHS and CVHS is, thus, 0.41. If we were to compare this to moral approval of bullying means, in terms of z -scores, we will notice a significant gap in terms of mean differences between BIW and MAB. The z -mean score for moral approval of bullying for MJHS is -0.05 with a standard deviation of 1.16; and the mean score for CVHS is 0.046 with a standard deviation of 0.83. The MAB mean difference between MJHS and CVHS is 0.096, which is a minute difference when compared to the mean difference of 0.41 for BIW. In summary, the *Stand By Me* did exhibit an effect on participating students' attitudes toward bullying and their willingness to intervene when compared to students who did not participate in the presentation. Even though the mean scores between the treatment

group school and comparison group school were found to be statistically significant for both moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness, in terms of any practical significance, these mean differences were relatively minor, especially in the case of moral approval of bullying.

As discussed earlier when addressing the *SBM* presentation's effect on MAB specifically, the minor difference in mean scores for BIW between the treatment and comparison groups can be attributed to the length and scope of the presentation. Had the presentation been longer (e.g., spanning several weeks or months) and more comprehensive in scope (e.g., including more interactive activities and projects for students), perhaps the study would have yielded stronger results with respect to the difference between MAB and BIW scores for the treatment and comparison groups. Nevertheless, the findings of the present study affirm that an evidence-based bullying prevention initiative, even a short-term project, can have a positive impact on shaping South Korean youths' attitudes toward bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying. Furthermore, the results support the potential of the *Stand By Me* presentation, specifically, for greater success if it were to build upon its current design (e.g., method of presentation, content, and topics presented) and subsequently administered in an expanded capacity.

The *Stand By Me* Presentation's Effect on Other Key Factors Related to Bullying

Having examined the *SBM* presentation's impact on students' attitudes toward bullying and their willingness to intervene, and before moving onto the discussion of the regression analyses administered to address the final two research questions, we should briefly examine the *SBM* presentation's influence—or lack thereof—on the other dependent variables measured by the SAPS as the findings would help to illuminate not only the possible inherent similarities or

differences between the two schools, but also whether an anti-bullying presentation may have an impact on other key factors related to bullying. Upon examining the results of the independent-samples *t* tests and Mann-Whitney *U* tests run on the remaining five attitude and perception variables, no statistically significant results were found. Unlike the differing results between the *t* test and Mann-Whitney *U* test for moral approval of bullying (the *t* test yielded a non-significant finding, whereas the *U* test yielded a significant finding), both types of tests returned identical results—i.e., no significant difference between sample means—for social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control. In the end, the researcher did not expect any significant impact on these factors as a result of the *SBM* presentation due to the unlikelihood of a one-shot presentation—especially one focused on addressing school bullying, and not these other miscellaneous factors—to affect attitudes pertaining to factors inherent within the school environment as opposed to being inherent to the students’ themselves (i.e., students’ own attitudes about bullying and students’ own willingness to intervene).

The finding of non-significance for each of these factors is relevant and noteworthy when comparing this to the statistically significant findings for moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness. Regardless of the minor impact that the *Stand By Me* presentation had on MAB and BIW scores, the difference between the treatment and comparison groups’ mean scores were nevertheless statistically significant, while no such statistical significance between mean scores was found for the other variables. In other words, assuming equivalence of the two groups demographically and in terms of baseline attitudes and perceptions, the *SBM* presentation affected only MAB and BIW scores—lowering MAB and increasing BIW in the treatment group—while SCT, SC, PPS, SE, and ISC among students

remained the same. To take this a step further and taking into account that the two schools were selected with the goal that they be as equivalent as possible in terms of key demographic factors (e.g., co-ed private schools located in coastal regions with assigned Fulbright English Teaching Assistants and no formal on-campus anti-bullying programs) to allow for a fairly decent comparison, since there was no difference between mean scores of the other key attitudinal variables, these findings help to affirm that the schools are indeed similar; particularly, the schools are similar with regard to students' overall attitudes and perceptions of their school environment, teacher and peer support, and self-esteem.

Due to these findings supporting similarities between the two schools, as we compare the MAB and BIW scores of the two schools, we can have more confidence in the study's findings that the *SBM* presentation had an impact on students' attitudes toward bullying and willingness to intervene in bullying incidents above and beyond other possible factors. The researcher acknowledges that we cannot be certain of the schools' similarities with respect to these other variables, nor can we know for sure whether or not the presentation did indeed have an impact on these factors *within* the treatment group since the study was limited to a posttest only and did not employ a pretest. Nonetheless, as stated above, since the schools were selected with key criteria in mind to ensure the two schools were as equivalent as possible, it is not too much of a stretch to say that the non-significant findings of the independent-samples *t* tests and Mann-Whitney *U* tests for the attitudinal and perception variables other than MAB and BIW, at the very least, help to affirm the similarities between students from the treatment and comparison group schools. In the end, taking into account the similarities among several of the attitudinal factors combined with demographic similarities, it appears that the two schools are indeed more alike than they are different, with the *Stand By Me* presentation having an impact—even if just a slight one—on

participating students' moral approval of bullying and willingness to intervene in bullying incidents.

Key Factors That Explain Bystander Intervention Willingness

The final two research questions were ancillary to the primary focus of the study, seeking to address overall, whether attitudes about bullying and other related attitudes and perceptions helped to influence South Korean students' willingness to intervene to stop bullying. Whereas the first two research questions simply asked whether the *Stand By Me* presentation had any effect on students' attitudes toward bullying and propensity to stop bullying, the third and fourth research questions delved deeper into the topic by asking what factors influenced one's willingness to get involved to stop bullying. For the former two inquiries, moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness served as the dependent variables, with the presence or absence of the *Stand By Me* bullying prevention presentation as the independent variable. The third research question positioned bystander intervention willingness as the sole criterion variable, while transitioning moral approval of bullying into the role of the explanatory variable. The fourth research question retained BIW as the dependent variable, while examining the possible influence of several independent variables—social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control—on BIW. Several types of regression were used to examine these two research questions, including bivariate linear regression, simultaneous multiple regression, stepwise multiple regression, and hierarchical multiple regression.

Although the findings were statistically significant, the results of the bivariate regression analysis indicated that moral approval of bullying had only a minor impact on bystander intervention willingness. Specifically, MAB accounted for only about 3% to 6% of the variance

in BIW, depending on whether the original data ($r^2 = .039$, $r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .03$) or winsorized data ($r^2 = .066$, $r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .057$) removing several outliers were used. This affirms the correlation results which showed that the relationship between MAB and BIW was a relatively small one ($r = -.198$ for the original dataset; $r = -.256$ for the winsorized dataset). For the sake of simplicity when these results are discussed in comparison to the results of the regression analyses on the other independent variables, we will take the average of the percentages above and say that about 5% of the variance in BIW was explained by MAB.

Besides moral approval of bullying, three other factors were found to have a significant influence on students' willingness to intervene. These factors were perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control. The bivariate regression results for social cohesion and trust and school climate were non-significant; neither SCT nor SC had a meaningful effect on bystander intervention willingness. Perceived peer support explained nearly 9% of the variance in bystander intervention willingness, while self-esteem explained about 12% of the variance. Noteworthy is the impact of informal social control on bystander intervention willingness. Of all the independent variables, informal social control had not only the highest overall impact, but also a very high level of influence, on students' inclination to stop bullying, accounting for over half of the variation in BIW. Compared to the relatively small amount of variance in BIW that the other three variables accounted for on their own—12% for self-esteem, 9% for perceived peer support, and only about 5% for moral approval of bullying—informal social control explained 70% of the variance in bystander intervention willingness. In short, informal social control mechanisms appear to play a significant role in influencing students' willingness to intervene in bullying incidents.

As discussed in Chapter 4, when conducting the multiple regression analyses, social cohesion and trust and school climate were excluded from the model due to the statistically non-significant effects these two variables had on bystander intervention willingness during the bivariate regression analysis. Taken together, the four criterion variables of perceived peer support, self-esteem, informal social control, and moral approval of bullying accounted for about 72% of the variance in bystander intervention willingness scores, although only informal social control ($\beta = .803, p < .001$) and self-esteem ($\beta = .142, p = .046$) yielded statistically significant effects on BIW. Thus, what were already relatively weak influences on BIW on the part of MAB and PPS individually, essentially became non-existent once the effects of the criterion variables were taken into account together. With the stepwise multiple regression analyses, two models were constructed. The first model, which included only ISC, explained about 70% of the variability in BIW, while the second model, which included self-esteem in addition to ISC, provided a minor increase ($\Delta r^2 = .021$) in the explanatory ability of the model on the variability of BIW, bringing the explanatory ability of the regression model to 72%; MAB and PPS did not yield any significant effect on BIW beyond what ISC and self-esteem had contributed. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis generated essentially the same results as the stepwise multiple regression due to ISC and SE being the only statistically significant influences on BIW; all other variables were automatically excluded from the models due to non-significance.

A Note on Moral Approval of Bullying and Closing Remarks

Besides pinpointing the strong influences of informal social control mechanisms and self-esteem on students' attitudes toward bullying and their willingness to intervene, one important takeaway from the results of the study is the minor effect moral approval of bullying had on bystander intervention willingness, especially compared to other attitudinal factors. When the

researcher developed the research questions and designed the study, he had the underlying assumption that not only would there be a significant relationship between moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness, but that this would be a strong relationship. Specifically, in terms of correlation, the researcher expected to obtain a Pearson correlation coefficient greater than $-.5$, which would have indicated a strong relationship between MAB and BIW, or at the very least a correlation between $-.3$ and $-.5$, indicating a moderate relationship. As for the results of the regression analysis, the researcher expected to obtain a relatively moderate or large value for r^2 , indicating a moderate or large amount of the variance in BIW explained by MAB. In actuality, after correlation and regression analyses were run on the two variables, results indicated a weak correlation between moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness ($r = -.198$, $p = .021$) and only about 4% of the variance in BIW being explained by MAB ($r^2 = .039$, $r^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .03$).

In the end, based on the results of this study, students' attitudes about bullying is not the overarching factor influencing their willingness to get involved in preventing bullying. Instead, students' perceptions of their peers and teachers—specifically, their perception of their teachers and peers' willingness to intervene in bullying incidents—along with students' level of self-esteem have a far greater impact on their intervention willingness. Overall, these findings seem to support social control theory and highlight the relevance of the bystander effect with respect to bullying, elucidating that the actions of others (or at the very least, perceptions of others' probable actions) can and do influence one's own individual actions given the same or similar circumstances. As a review, Hirschi's (1969) social control theory postulates that when one's social bonds are weak, one is more likely to engage in criminal and delinquent behavior; conversely, when one's social bonds are strong, one is less likely to engage in such behavior.

The bystander effect, also known as bystander apathy, refers to situations in which an individual will not intervene to help a victim if others are present, and was a phenomenon that was popularized as a result of the 1964 murder of Kitty Genovese in New York City, who was stabbed multiple times outside of her apartment, while bystanders looked on and did nothing to render assistance (Darley & Latané, 1968). A more detailed discussion on criminological theories—in particular, social control theory—and their relation to this study will be addressed in the section on how to improve anti-bullying programs in the Republic of Korea. Ultimately, whether these findings hold constant in a follow-up study with the same participants or other students from these two schools, or if the study were to be replicated in other schools, is worth exploring in the near future.

With regard to demographic variables, the regression analyses as well as ANOVAs run to examine the direct and interactive effects, respectively, of age, grade level, and gender on moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness, all yielded non-significant results. In fact, age, grade, and gender each explained only about 1% of the variance in BIW, hardly significant compared to the other criterion variables under consideration. To elaborate further, in the case of testing the presence or absence of an anti-bullying presentation on students' MAB and BIW, age, grade level, and gender did not influence the results; while in the case of examining the effects of various factors on BIW, these demographic variables did not account for any significant influence on BIW above and beyond the other independent variables (specifically, ISC and self-esteem).

Recommendations for Future Research

Although this study obtained valuable data on the efficacy of a bullying prevention presentation administered to South Korean high school students, as well as data pertaining to

factors linked to students' willingness—or unwillingness—to intervene in bullying situations, the research design was nevertheless limited in scope. Therefore, first and foremost, future studies on the *Stand By Me* presentation (and other anti-bullying presentations and programs administered in the Republic of Korea) should address and ameliorate the deficiencies of the current study. Thus, this section on recommendations for future research will begin with a review of the limitations of the present study, followed by a discussion of how to mitigate or eliminate such limitations in future studies including the implementation of true experiments with randomization. Thereafter, other potential improvements that build upon the strengths of the study and lessons learned from the implementation of the study will be discussed. Finally, impediments, challenges, and setbacks experienced by the researcher will be elaborated upon, followed by proposals on how to address such difficulties in the future.

Limitations Revisited

With respect to reliability and validity concerns of the research design and survey instrument, they were noted and taken into account, with measures employed to mitigate or eliminate them, prior to implementation of the study. Nevertheless, two significant limitations that could not be eliminated due to the nature of the research design were selection bias and cross-population generalizability issues. Due to the nonequivalent groups design, selection bias was unavoidable. Since the study employed nonprobability sampling (availability sampling) to select the two participating schools and subsequently the participating students, the results are severely limited in terms of cross-population generalizability. At a minimum, the results are generalizable only to the two participating high schools. At best, the results can be generalized to the population of Fulbright-designated high schools in the ROK, i.e., schools who participate in the Fulbright English Teaching Assistant Program.

In an earlier discussion on generalizability issues in Chapter 2, the researcher noted the standardized education system that exists in the Republic of Korea, which thereby limits the differences among a majority of Korean schools in terms of standards, curriculum, and quality (Ministry of Education, 2014; Moon et al., 2014). Thus, although we would not know for certain without having done random sampling (and eventually, repeated studies utilizing random sampling), given the high degree of standardization in the Korean education system, one could argue that the participants selected for the study are fairly representative of the general high school student population in South Korea. The findings of the study appear to support this; with the exception of moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness, the results of the independent-samples *t* tests and Mann-Whitney *U* tests yielded no statistically significant differences for the other attitudinal factors measured by the survey instrument. Specifically, students from both the treatment group and comparison group shared similar perspectives on social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control. Furthermore, the two schools were selected based on their similarities in key demographics such as type of school and student population. These findings, therefore, imply that the students from the treatment and comparison groups are more alike than they are different. Although if a cross-sectional design with both a pretest and posttest component had been employed, the researcher would have greater confidence in making such an assertion since the pretest would have provided baseline scores for each group to serve as points of comparison. In brief, the researcher concedes that the generalizability of this study is severely limited, although the data and results derived from the study are nevertheless meaningful in the larger context of addressing the problem of bullying and school violence in the Republic of Korea.

To remedy issues with selection bias and generalizability in the future, subsequent studies would have to employ a true experimental model with random sampling. Additionally, a larger sample size than the one obtained for this study ($N = 115$) would be preferred, although the number of participants in this study were considered sufficient given the number of variables examined. Ideally, the sample of participating high schools would have to be selected from the entire population of high schools in South Korea, and not be limited to Fulbright ETA schools; although researchers who wish to replicate or expand upon this study would have to note the distinctions between ‘regular’ high schools and those that are considered ‘specialty’ schools (e.g., single gender schools, science high schools, and art high schools). Sampling can either be done using simple random sampling, systematic random sampling, or stratified random sampling, the latter of which would probably be the best option given the inherent differences among regular high schools and specialty high schools. After the participating schools are selected, they would be randomly assigned to either the control group or experimental group. Thereafter, a randomly selected sample of students from each school or the entire student body would participate in the study, depending on the level of cooperation attained from the principals of the respective schools. In short, utilizing random sampling with a sufficient number of participants will help to reduce sampling error.

Utilizing True Experiments with Pretesting

To recap, the presentation administered for this study was a ‘one-shot’ conducted within approximately one hour and 30 minutes, with another half-hour devoted to the completion of the survey. The study itself was also limited in terms of complexity, utilizing a cross-sectional design with a posttest only. These study limitations were the result of limitations in time, finances, and personnel available to the researcher, as well as significant resistance from

potential participating schools, which ultimately led to a ‘streamlined’ version of the study than what had been originally planned. The study was also restricted to examining the *Stand By Me* anti-bullying presentation’s impact on students’ attitudes only as opposed to both attitudes and behavior. Nonetheless, despite these limitations, one benefit of starting with a relatively small-scale research design was the conservation of time, financial resources, as well as human capital to test a program that has never been implemented before and thus, not knowing for certain whether the program would yield positive or negative results, and to what degree.

To invest a significant amount of resources into a comprehensive true experiment or even a more involved quasi-experiment than the one actually undertaken could be considered wasteful should the results be negative (i.e., if the *SBM* presentation yielded no significant effects on moral approval of bullying or bystander intervention willingness). This study, despite its limited nature compared to a more comprehensive quasi-experimental design, true experiment, or mixed-methods design, cost nearly \$7,000 to implement and was primarily self-financed by the researcher himself. A more comprehensive study including a larger sample size of students, additional schools, and more police officers—and for that matter, an expanded *SBM* program—would cost significantly more and would certainly require external funding in the form of grants or donations. Since the study, as limited as it was, did result in findings supportive of the *SBM* presentation and also yielded supplemental data (i.e., specific factors that were related to bystander intervention willingness) that the researcher considers to be worthy of exploring in depth in future research, it provides an impetus for pursuing additional and more rigorous studies, while providing empirical evidence of ‘success’ that the researcher could use to garner external support and funding for future studies and the expansion of the *Stand By Me* program.

Ideally, along with a true experiment comprising of random selection and random assignment of participants, a longitudinal design would be implemented collecting data at two or more points in time as opposed to the cross-sectional design with a posttest only as was employed in the present study. At a minimum, for both the comparison group and treatment group, a pretest would be administered before the *SBM* program to obtain baseline scores and one posttest would be administered at the end of the *SBM* program. Alternatively, additional posttest surveys can also be administered at certain points throughout the program between the pretest and final posttest depending on the purposes of the researchers carrying out the study and how comprehensive they wish the study to be. In the case of utilizing a cross-sectional research design, provided there are sufficient resources available to the researchers to implement it, the Solomon four-group design could be used to test for possible interaction effects of pretesting. With the Solomon four-group design, research participants would be randomly assigned to at least four distinct groups: two experimental groups and two control groups, with one experimental and one control group being administered a pretest, while the other two would not receive a pretest. If there is indeed an interaction effect between testing and treatment, there will be a significant difference in scores between participants who took the pretest survey and those who did not when comparing both experimental groups and both control groups.

In addition to specific components of various anti-bullying programs, Ttofi and Farrington's (2009, 2011, 2012) meta-analytical studies examined efficiency in terms of type of research design used based on the magnitude of their effect sizes for bullying and victimization. The four types of designs the researchers looked at were true (random) experiments, intervention-control comparisons with before-and-after measures, other intervention-control comparisons, and age-cohort designs. The types of design that had the most significant effects on

bullying and/or victimization were before-and-after quasi-experiments for bullying, intervention-control comparisons for victimization, and age-cohort designs for bullying and victimization. True experiments with random assignment were found to have the lowest overall effect sizes for victimization and no significant effects for bullying. Despite these findings, Ttofi and Farrington (2012) still supported the need for more true experimental designs with respect to studies on bullying prevention programs, concluding their 2012 report by stating that “the best method of assessing the effect of program components on effect size is in a randomized experiment (p. 459). Thus, in summary, one general way of improving the *SBM* research design would be changing it from a quasi-experimental nonequivalent groups design, which was used for this study, to a true experimental design. Furthermore, any future studies, whether utilizing a true experiment or quasi-experimental design, should include a pretest component, which was lacking from this study. All this having been said, there are “real world” obstacles to implementing a true experiment—especially one with a qualitative component in the form of focus group interviews. One case-in-point is the obstacles the researcher himself faced when attempting to implement his original research plan, which was more comprehensive than the study that was carried out. Actually, these obstacles were the overarching factors that resulted in the streamlining of the research design in the first place, a topic that will be detailed in a subsequent section of this report.

The Survey Instrument and Administration

Despite pretesting the survey prior to administration at the participating schools, there were a few inherent problems with the survey that came to the researcher’s attention as students completed them. The first problem pertained to the translation of the word “pass” into Korean, and the second involved the length of the survey. After the survey was translated into Korean, it

was proofread and pretested by five university students and two high school students who were acquainted with the researcher. Final revisions to the wording of certain statements and questions as well as the formatting of the survey were made by the researcher based on comments and suggestions from the pre-testers. Nonetheless, the two issues above were raised by the actual survey respondents at both the treatment and comparison schools.

First and foremost, there was much confusion regarding the word “pass” in the survey. The problem is not necessarily a mistranslation of the word English “pass” into Korean, but students using the English word “pass” more commonly than its native Korean equivalent, “tong-gwa,” which was how it was translated and written in the Korean version of the survey. This is the case with many other English loanwords in the Korean language (e.g., phone, ticket, and shopping), which may or may not have a native Korean equivalent word. In short, although most students understood what was meant by the word “tong-gwa,” several students expressed initial confusion, stating that they did not know what it meant or what the word was referring to in the context of the survey. For subsequent administrations of the survey, the word “tong-gwa” will probably be replaced with the Korean phonetic equivalent of “pass.” It should be noted, though, that the statement about the option to pass on certain statements was explicitly written in the instructions and reiterated by the researcher when verbally explaining the instructions to complete the survey. If the researcher were to conjecture as to the initial confusion in spite of clear directions (both written and verbal), it may be due to certain students either glossing over the instructions and/or not listening to the researcher’s directions and just “jumping right into” filling out the survey.

The second area of concern with the survey involves its length. The survey was three pages in length and consisted of eight Likert-type scales with a combined total of 52 questions,

plus four demographic questions. Most students completed the surveys with no problems or complaints, although some students expressed, either formally (e.g., approaching the researcher or their teacher to say so) or informally (e.g., an off-the-cuff comment to a classmate or muttering under their breath) that the survey was “too long” and “has too many questions.” The researcher even overheard one student say quietly to himself, “What? There’s another page?” Regardless of students’ fatigue and mild frustrations with the length of the survey, all participating students completed the survey; i.e., no student declined to take the survey nor did any student stop midway and request to drop out of the study. Nonetheless, there were varying degrees of non-responses (either responses marked as “pass” or left blank) depending on the individual student, which may or may not be partially attributable to student fatigue or lack of interest. One means of alleviating possible responder fatigue or frustration with respect to the length of the survey—especially in the case of the survey being revised and expanded to include behavioral questions in addition to questions evaluating the *SBM* presenter’s effectiveness and opinions about the police—is to split the survey administration into two or more sessions with a few minutes in between sessions for students to take a break.

While on the topic of students’ reception toward the survey, the researcher would like to mention the necessity of incentives and the importance of receiving the school staff’s support and assistance during the survey session. First, the knowledge that they would be receiving incentives (i.e., thank you gifts) for their participation in the study appeared to help motivate students, especially during the survey session. Second, teachers helped the researcher to explain the survey instructions to students and address students’ questions and concerns, while also assisted in keeping students “on task,” especially those that exhibited lethargy as they progressed through the survey. Also noteworthy was how several of the teachers from the comparison group

school also, on their own volition without any prompting from the researcher, assisted in double-checking all surveys to ensure completion. Participating teachers also provided a tremendous service to the researcher during the administration of parental consent and student assent forms, helping the researcher to answer questions from students and parents, as well as motivating them to partake in the study. In the case of the treatment group school, the two teachers who served as liaisons to the researcher were quite helpful in ensuring participating students arrived on time for the *SBM* presentation and in assisting the researcher to administer the survey. With respect to students' motivation, it is interesting to note that given the proper motivation and incentives, Korean students are highly efficient in completing an assigned task (in this case, completing a survey) promptly and accurately with practically no resistance or grievances.

It should be noted that the survey was initially to consist only of the scales concerning the two primary variables of interest (moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness) and a few demographic questions. Upon the suggestion of the Criminal Justice Ph.D. Program Director and dissertation committee, the survey was revised to include all attitudinal and behavioral scales that comprised Williams and Guerra's (2007) Student School Survey, as well as the BIW scale, which was created specifically for this study. The committee and director's rationale for administering the complete Student School Survey was the acquisition of supplemental data related to school bullying (school climate, self-esteem, informal social control mechanisms, and so forth) that could be used to enrich the analysis of the data on MAB and BIW, while providing valuable data available for use in future studies. Although after subsequent discussions and compromises with the Korean-American Educational Commission and participating schools, scales related directly to students' actual bully, bystander, and victim experiences and behaviors, and a scale about students' perspectives on the degree to which

bullying was a problem in their respective schools were all removed as these questions were considered “too sensitive” by the KAEC, school administrators, and teachers. Questions that remained in the final survey involved only students’ attitudes and perceptions, and demographic variables.

Taking these issues and student feedback into account, the researcher will revise the survey accordingly prior to implementing future studies utilizing the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey, which will most likely be retitled to the Student Attitudes and Behavior Survey, or something along those lines, if questions on bullying perpetration, bystander behavior, and victimization are added to the survey. That being said, assuming there are no objections from school administrators to do so, it is recommended that future studies on *SBM* utilize the complete version of Williams and Guerra’s (2007) Student School Survey, which includes the bullying perpetration, bystander behavior, and bully victimization scales that had been removed for the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey at the behest of school officials for the present study. Including these scales would provide valuable data on students’ actual behaviors and experiences that could be cross-referenced with their responses for the attitudinal scales, including moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness. Additionally, it would open the door to a comparative study between the United States and the ROK utilizing data derived from William and Guerra’s (2007) study and data from future *SBM* studies.

What About Behavior? Examining Attitudes is Only Half of the Story

Williams and Guerra (2007) found a strong, positive association between moral approval of bullying and bullying behavior, whether it was physical bullying, verbal bullying, or cyberbullying. Additionally, their research found low levels of perceived peer support linked to higher prevalence of all three types of bullying. Per Williams and Guerra’s (2007)

recommendations, the *Stand By Me* presentation was specifically designed to target students' attitudes about bullying and enhance perceptions pertaining to peer relationships. Furthermore, although prior studies (see Boulton et al., 2002; Espelage & Swearer, 2003; Glasman & Albarracin, 2006; Shin, 2000; van Goethem et al., 2010) in addition to Williams and Guerra's (2007) research have indicated a strong link between attitudes and behavior which may permit us to extrapolate from the data that students who exhibit a low moral approval of bullying are less likely to engage in bullying and that students who indicated higher bystander intervention willingness would actually intervene if faced with a real-life bullying incident, the only way we can have greater confidence in this hypothesis would be to actually test it. Thus, the researcher highly recommends that future studies on *SBM* or any study on school bullying in South Korea include tools, be it quantitative or qualitative, that measure and examine behaviors in addition to attitudes of all key players in a bullying incident—i.e., the bully, victim, and bystander. Although limited to bullying-related attitudes and perceptions only, this study did provide some insightful results for discussion and further exploration in future research, and is noteworthy in that it is the first to actually examine such bullying-related attitudes as well as bystander intervention willingness in the South Korean context in addition to gauging the effectiveness of a police-led anti-bullying presentation in the Republic of Korea. Previous studies on bullying in Korea have only focused on bullying behavior and victimization, while ignoring the bystander completely. Furthermore, no detailed empirical studies have really been done on the efficacy of ROK police anti-bullying initiatives. Nonetheless, one of the major limitations of this study is that it was restricted to examining attitudes only as opposed to both attitudes and behavior.

When studying bullying attitudes, either alone or in conjunction with bullying behavior, it is important to note the significance and relevance of the study conducted by van Goethem and

his colleagues (2010) on the distinction between “implicit” and “explicit” bullying attitudes, and their relation to actual bullying behavior. The study, its methodology, and conclusions were thoroughly discussed in the literature review so will not be repeated in detail here, but to summarize briefly the distinction between implicit and explicit attitudes, an implicit attitude is one’s impulsive, instant, and unconscious “true” feelings or beliefs while an explicit attitude are those feelings and beliefs that are reflective and deliberate, outwardly expressed based on others’ or society’s expectations—i.e., what one believes others want or expect to hear. The importance of this study is that it strengthens the validity of results based on research concerning people’s attitudes and opinions, especially regarding topics considered to be “sensitive” such as bullying and school violence. The study from van Goethem and his associates (2010) help address the following question: “How do you know if someone’s telling you what he really believes or simply what you want to hear?” In the context of school bullying, the question would be: “What if the student actually supports bullying, or engages in it, but tells you that he doesn’t because he knows that you—and others—consider bullying to be wrong? If the student essentially ‘lies’ on the survey, how can your data be considered valid?” For example, a student who actually supports bullying (implicit pro-bully attitude), but indicates on a survey form or in a focus group interview that he is against bullying (explicit anti-bully attitude), would be expressing his explicit attitude, while his implicit attitude (true beliefs) remain unknown to the researcher. In fact, these were questions and concerns that the researcher himself actually received from a colleague.

The issue above is a valid concern, and this is where van Goethem and his associates’ (2010) study is important as it showed that explicit attitudes—not implicit attitudes alone—had a direct correlation with bullying behavior, although the study did find an interaction effect between implicit and explicit attitudes (i.e., implicit attitudes helped to predict bullying behavior

in youth with positive explicit bullying attitudes). To extrapolate from these findings, with respect to bullying, it can be seen that what a respondent specifies in a survey with respect to her or his attitudes and opinions about bullying can most likely be trusted as being indicative of her or his ‘true feelings’ on the matter. In brief, van Goethem and his associates’ (2010) study on implicit and explicit bullying attitudes is invaluable to research in this field as it provides empirical support for a counterargument to the assertion that research examining bullying attitudes (especially those that examines attitudes only without a component assessing behaviors) are not meaningful, and at worse, essentially worthless. Although the *Stand By Me* study was limited to attitudes only, prior research, including that of van Goethem et al. (2010), provide strong support for the link between attitudes about bullying and bullying behavior. Nevertheless, future studies on *SBM* should include measures that acquire data on bullying behavior in addition to bullying attitudes.

The restriction of this study to measuring bullying-related attitudes only was an inevitable consequence of two primary factors: (1) the one-shot nature of the anti-bullying presentation and cross-sectional design of the study and (2) school administrators and teachers’ resistance to having questions pertaining to actual bullying behavior and victimization included on the survey instrument. First, for a study to provide *meaningful* data with respect to behavior—be it bullying behavior, bystander behavior, or victim behavior—it would be ideal for the *Stand By Me* program to last a lot longer than just a two-hour period in one day. Overall, prolonged anti-bullying programs, both in terms of duration (number of days) and intensity (contact hours) have been shown to be most effective in influencing *behavior* (see Ttofi & Farrington, 2009, 2011, 2012). Plus, common sense would dictate that a one-shot presentation would have very limited, if any, impact on bullying behavior; although such a presentation may have an immediate, albeit

probably short-term, impact on bullying-related attitudes. This study was premised upon this assumption and the results do indicate statistically significant—albeit practically minute—differences in attitudes about bullying and bystander intervention willingness between the treatment group and comparison group. If a longer and more intensive version of *SBM* had been implemented, perhaps the difference in moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness scores between the treatment and comparison groups may have been greater. Or perhaps they would be similar. In the end, we will not know unless future studies are done with a more comprehensive version of *SBM* both in terms of duration and intensity. Second, without questions pertaining to actual bullying-related behavior included on the survey instrument (or related questions asked in a focus group interview), there obviously would be no data acquired on bully, victim, and/or bystander behavior. In short, for the sake of stronger results in future studies, school administrators and teachers should be willing to let researchers ‘dive deeper’ to examine not only bullying-related attitudes but bullying-related behavior.

Although resistance from school officials and teachers to have a survey that gauges actual bullying behavior and incidences of victimization among their students is understandable, and already well-documented in prior research on teachers’ ignorance or even denial of the existence of bullying in their schools (see Korean Educational Development Institute, 1998; Lee, 2005; Yoon et al., 2011), it is problematic. From the researcher’s own observations and experience working in the Korean education system, this hesitation on the part of school teachers and administrators to including questions about bullying behavior on a survey instrument specifically, and resistance to any type of empirical study on school bullying in general (despite assurance that precautions would be taken to ensure student anonymity and confidentiality) is due in large part to the desire of teachers and administrators to protect their respective school’s reputation as

well as their own personal reputations, which could, in their mind's eye, be tarnished if even one incident of bullying is acknowledged, whether publicly or in private. Again, this concern is understandable as incidences of bullying may not only tarnish reputations but could lead to official reprimands or even the elimination of certain staff or faculty members for failing to carry out what is implicitly one of their principal duties—to nurture and protect the students under their aegis. Ultimately, with respect to those working in the field of education, this narrow and, some may argue, self-centered mindset is unacceptable since it comes with a significant price—the safety and welfare (and in the worst-case scenario, the lives) of the young people that these teachers and administrators are expected and obligated to protect. In fact, the researcher proposes that a future study be done to examine a possible association between teachers' ignorance and/or denial of bullying and students' bullying attitudes and behavior (as well as victim and bystander attitudes and behavior).

Assessing the Value of Police Officers' Participation in *Stand By Me* and Other Korean Anti-Bullying Initiatives

With respect to SRO and SLO programs in the United States and the United Kingdom, the rationale of involving police officers in school affairs is so that they can serve in a mentor role in addition to their role as law enforcement officers, thereby strengthening ties between the police and youth and fulfilling the public servant role that Wilson (1968) mentions, which is often sidelined or ignored by law enforcement personnel. One would assume, as with the U.S. and the U.K. police, this two-pronged objective—law enforcement and public service (specifically, developing amiable ties with youth)—is the impetus for ROK police officers' involvement in school and youth-centric initiatives. Taking this into account, how effective this mentor role for police officers is in actually influencing young people's attitudes about bullying

and their willingness to get involved in stopping bullying was not examined in this study due to its limited design, but would be worth exploring in the future.

Based on the researcher's personal observations during and after the *SBM* presentation at Mokpo Jungang High School, it was clear that Officer Joo Woo-nam, the *SBM* presenter, was quite popular and made a positive impression on the students, as well as with the teacher assigned to be the researcher's liaison during the study. Initially indifferent to the study and "just doing her job," as the presentation progressed, the researcher noticed the teacher getting more involved and assisting Officer Joo to engage students during the presentation's discussion sessions. Students were engaged for the most part and, even though they were prompted by the teacher to return to class after completing the posttest survey and receiving their certificates of participation, many of them stayed several minutes after the certificate presentation ceremony to talk one-on-one with Officer Joo, not only about school bullying, but about his career as a police officer and their own academic and career goals (some students expressed interest in pursuing careers in law enforcement).

Taking into account students' warm reception and rapport with Officer Joo, besides including questions on the survey measuring students' actual bullying-related behavior and the possible inclusion of a focus group interview with students (and other key players including teachers and police officers), another worthwhile addition to the research design would be the inclusion of measures examining students' attitudes about the police officers who serve as facilitators/presenters for the *SBM* program. These questions could either be included as a separate section of the SAPS or as a separate survey form. This "Presenter Evaluation and Feedback Survey" would be administered at the end of the program and consist of Likert-type scales and open-ended questions asking students to evaluate the effectiveness of the specific

police officer who served as a presenter and their overall general opinion of the officer. Besides providing additional data for anti-bullying research and evaluation purposes, the responses to these additional questions will also be a useful assessment tool that the *SBM* presenters can use to improve upon their own performance for future presentations. In addition to the presenter evaluation questions, the survey could include questions pertaining to students' attitudes and opinions about police officers in general. Using this data, we can examine if there exists a significant relationship between students' moral approval of bullying and attitudes about the *SBM* presenter and police officers in general, as well as between students' bystander intervention willingness and opinions about the *SBM* presenter and police officers.

To expand this inclusion of police officer evaluations one step further, a future study could be implemented to examine whether specifically having a police officer as a presenter for an anti-bullying program has any meaningful influence at all on students' attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. Based on the hypothesis that a police officer is a crucial component to the *SBM* program (or any other police-administered bullying prevention program for that matter), the primary research question for this potential study would be: Does the *Stand By Me* program conducted by a police officer have a greater impact on students' moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness compared to the *SBM* program conducted by someone who is not a police officer? For this study, the control group would consist of students who participate in the *SBM* program "as is" (i.e., with a police officer administering the program), while the experimental group would be comprised of students who participate in the *SBM* program with a presenter who is not a ROK police officer (or other uniformed ROK LEO including corrections officers and immigration officers). The replacement could be another civil servant, teacher, or individual whose occupation is in some

way related and relevant to school bullying prevention. In short, all program components (format, topics, activities, etc.) between the experimental and control groups would be the same with the exception of the presenter's occupation (i.e., LEO vs. non-LEO). This would be an interesting topic to study, and the findings would be invaluable, not only for the *SBM* program, but for other anti-bullying programs in the ROK that primarily utilize police officers as program facilitators/presenters.

A Further Examination of Social Control Theory

Ttofi and Farrington (2009) note that most anti-bullying programs tend to be based upon “common sense ideas about what works in preventing bullying” as opposed to developed and tested theories such as defiance theory or reintegrative shaming theory (Ttofi & Farrington, 2008a, 2008b). Thus, future studies should be developed to test theories of bullying and victimization as they relate to bullying prevention programs. Given the findings of this particular study, the researcher would be interested in testing the degree to which social control theory is applicable to bully and bystander attitudes and behavior among South Korean youth. To reiterate, the most comprehensive studies on school bullying in South Korea have been done by Byongook Moon and his associates. These studies, already discussed in detail in the literature review, have sought to examine associations between bullying and several criminological theories including general strain theory (the primary focus on Moon's various studies on school bullying in South Korea), self-control theory, and differential association theory (see Moon, Blurton, & McCluskey, 2008; Moon, Hwang, & McCluskey, 2011; Moon, McCluskey, Blurton, & Hwang, 2014; Moon & Morash, 2004; Moon, Morash, & McCluskey, 2012; Moon, Morash, McCluskey, & Hwang, 2009). Although these studies have provided valuable insight into the links between criminological theories and school bullying there may be more to add to this discussion.

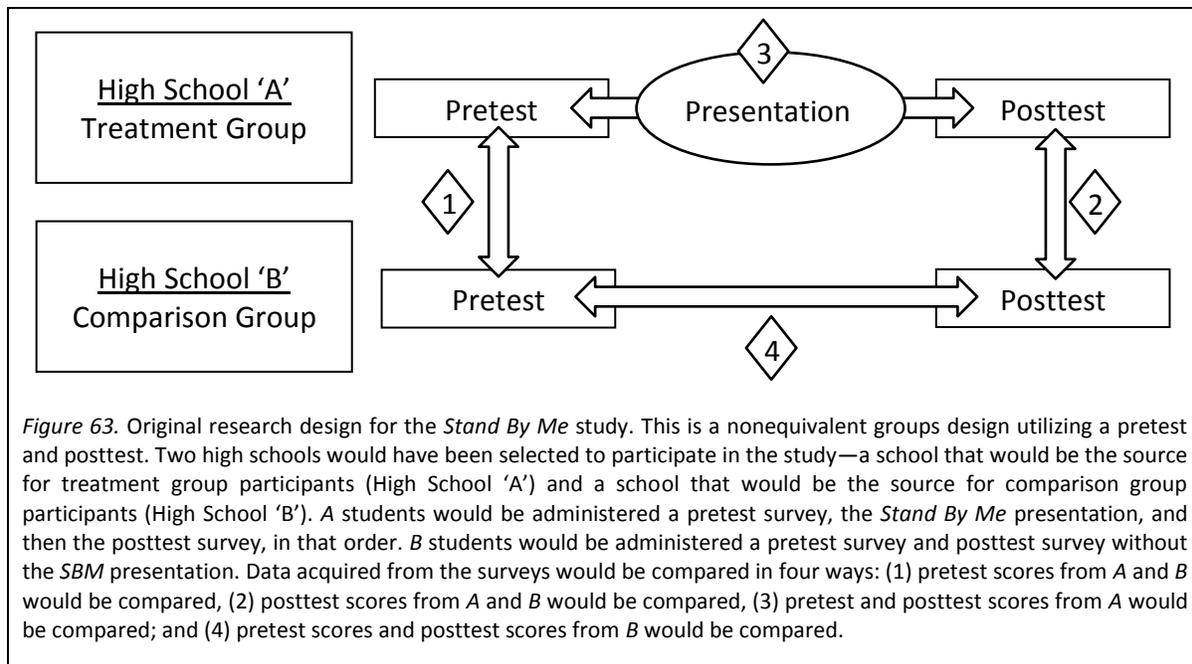
Specifically, social control theory was not one of the theories tested by Moon and his colleagues, and given the results of the *Stand By Me* study, the link between social control theory and bullying in South Korea may be worth exploring in the near future. Although exploring any possible relationship between school bullying among South Korean students and social control theory was not the primary purpose of this study, the results of the study do elucidate the link between social control and bystander intervention willingness and, to a lesser extent, attitudes about bullying. Given these findings, subsequent research could expand upon this study, focusing on the relationship between social control theory and attitudes and behavior of the key players of bullying—namely, the bully, the victim, and the bystander—in the South Korean context. The Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey (SAPS) already includes key social control theory-related scales (i.e., social cohesion and trust, perceived peer support, and informal social control) and scales pertaining to bully and bystander attitudes. As discussed earlier, the SAPS would simply need to be modified to include scales gauging bully, bystander, and victim behavior to provide for a more comprehensive measurement tool that encompasses students' attitudes *and* behavior.

The Original Dissertation Proposal Revisited: A Starting Point for Future Research

The original research plan, like the plan that was actually implemented, employed a nonequivalent groups design, but also included a pretest survey, focus group interview, and additional questions on the survey instrument (i.e., Likert-type scales inquiring about actual bullying perpetration, bystander behavior, and victimization). Had this original plan been implemented, both the comparison group and treatment group would have been administered a pretest survey (the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey). Thereafter, only the treatment group would have participated in the *SBM* presentation. Upon completion of the presentation,

both comparison and treatment groups would have then again been administered the SAPS (posttest), which would have been identical to the survey they had taken previously. Since students' pretest scores would have to be matched to their posttest scores, students would have been asked to write their student ID numbers on the survey form (repeated measures design). Attendance would also be taken during all "test" periods (i.e., days of the pretest, presentation, and posttest).

The following comparisons would have been made based on the data acquired from the pretest and posttest surveys from the treatment and comparison groups: (1) a comparison of the treatment and comparison groups' pretest scores to determine the "baseline" for each, which would be compared to each respective group's posttest scores to determine any significant initial differences in these baseline scores; (2) a comparison of the treatment and comparison groups' posttest scores to examine the overall effectiveness of the police-conducted anti-bullying presentation (i.e., is there a significant difference between the two groups' posttest scores?); (3) a comparison of the treatment group's pretest and posttest scores; and (4) a comparison of the comparison group's pretest and posttest scores to examine any changes in the two groups' baseline (pretest) scores, i.e., whether one group, both groups, or neither group's scores changed over time (it is expected there will be a significant change between the treatment group's pretest and posttest scores, but no significant change between the comparison group's pretest and posttest scores). Figure 63 below depicts these comparisons and the overall research design for the original proposed study.



Had it not been cut from the final version of the research project, the focus group interview would have provided answers to at least four additional (qualitative) research questions. First, what are students' overall experiences with the *Stand By Me* bullying prevention presentation? Follow-up questions would have delved into how students would improve upon the *SBM* program and their impressions of the police officer that facilitated the presentation. Second, do students feel bullying is a significant problem in their schools? Third, what are students' perspectives on police officers' role in anti-bullying initiatives, particularly in school-based bullying prevention programs? Fourth, what are students' ideas for effective bullying prevention initiatives? In other words, students would be asked what they would do if they could design their own anti-bullying program. The focus group interview would have been conducted with a group of approximately 5 to 10 students selected from the treatment group. "Natural groups," i.e., participants already acquainted with one another and having an "existing connection" (Maxfield & Babbie, 2011, p. 274), would be used. Interviews would be semi-structured, thereby allowing the researcher flexibility to "explore themes that emerge in the interview" (Maxfield & Babbie,

2011, p. 273). In short, the study as originally proposed would have employed mixed methods, combining quantitative and qualitative research methods to provide an overall picture of *Stand By Me* in particular, and students' thoughts on school bullying and law enforcement's role in mitigating it, in general.

A collective case study (multiple case study) approach would be used for this qualitative component of the study since the researcher's goal would have been to develop a detailed understanding of the participants while analyzing several cases of individuals with common characteristics—specifically, South Korean high school students who participated in the *SBM* presentation. Had it been employed, the focus group interview was expected to last approximately one hour, utilizing an interview protocol comprising of open-ended questions, and would have been relatively informal to allow for participants to be “at ease” during the interview process. This component of the study was to be concerned with students' subjective perceptions and assessments and therefore the open-ended design of the questions would have allowed for them to elaborate in detail on their viewpoints and experiences with the *SBM* presentation.

As Shaffir and Stebbins (2003) note, studies focusing on the lives of others should seek “to acquire an intimate, firsthand understanding (*Verstehen*) of the human acts being observed” (p. 4). That was the overarching objective of the qualitative research component and was the rationale for including the focus group interviews in the original study plan. Although the focus group interview component was scrapped from the final project due to reasons discussed earlier pertaining to school administrators' resistance, the researcher acknowledges the importance of qualitative research, either on its own or carried out in conjunction with a quantitative component. In fact, during conversations the researcher had with some of the teachers and students (and a few parents) from the two schools that participated in the *Stand By Me* study,

they expressed their concern with school bullying and their interest in prevention initiatives being developed in the ROK. For example, one of the teachers from the comparison group school, who initially appeared to be apathetic towards the study and school bullying in general, delved into a deep and enlightening conversation with the researcher, which lasted nearly two hours, after learning more about the study and the researcher's personal motivations for engaging in this particular research topic. The conversation concluded with the teacher expressing his desire to become more involved in bullying prevention at his own school.

Although these discussions the researcher had with teachers and students were informal and no formal interview was conducted, the comments and perspectives shared candidly with the researcher were insightful. In the researcher's opinion, a formal interview with appropriate authorization and consent from participants to share their comments would have supplemented the quantitative data acquired from the survey and would have enriched the study significantly. Thus, the researcher recommends that subsequent studies on the *SBM* program or other ROK anti-bullying initiatives incorporate a focus group interview with student participants—and time and participant willingness permitting, interviews with participating police officers, teachers and school staff, and students' parents as well—to gauge more in depth their attitudes, feelings, and experiences that go beyond just numbers alone.

The Value of Mixed Methods in Bullying Prevention Research

Of all the limitations discussed above pertaining to the present study, the one that the researcher was most disappointed with was the lack of a qualitative component resulting from the removal of the focus group interview to appease school administrators and teachers' concerns over the information students would possibly divulge during the interview. In the end, as will be elaborated upon in further detail in the concluding remarks of this report, it is a combination of

this fear of acknowledging and making public students' concerns and the ignorance or conscious denial of school bullying on the part of teachers and school administrators that hinders initiatives to effectively address school bullying. Anti-bullying presentations and programs—be they administered by law enforcement officers, school teachers, parents, or others who have a vested interest in quelling bullying and school violence—are conducted for the sake of ensuring the protection and welfare of their intended audience—our youth. As such, it is vital that young people have a say and that their voices be heard regarding these programs. If youngsters themselves—potential bullies, victims, and bystanders—do not find such presentations engaging or meaningful, what is the point? This is the rationale for including a qualitative component such as focus group interviews as a supplement to quantitative measures on bullying prevention programs. Although the quantitative data derived from a survey can help to elucidate whether a particular program had an influence—and how much of an influence—on youths' attitudes about bullying, numbers alone can only do so much to describe their *beliefs, feelings, and experiences*. In the end, the value of employing mixed methods in bullying prevention research is that qualitative data can serve to enrich quantitative data and vice versa.

Creswell (2013) mentions the importance of reciprocity, i.e., of “giving back” to study participants: “Giving back to participants for their time and efforts in our projects—*reciprocity*—is important, and we need to review how participants will gain from our study” (p. 55, emphasis in original). One way of “giving back” to students who participate in *Stand By Me* or other anti-bullying programs is the inclusion of interviews with them, thereby providing participating students a chance to talk about not only their experiences with the program, but their thoughts about law enforcement's role in preventing bullying and their own ideas on how to effectively address bullying and school violence. Since bullying claims so many victims worldwide,

students' voices should not be subdued and silenced, but encouraged and expressed. As these students' perspectives and ideas are shared and disseminated through academic publications, popular press, and other media, their voices will be heard, and in that sense, they will be directly contributing to the safety and welfare of many of their peers across the Republic of Korea and around the globe who fall victim to the 'social evil' of bullying.

Challenges, Setbacks, and Lessons Learned

The original research plan that was initially approved by the dissertation committee and department was ultimately abridged due to difficulty in obtaining willing participants to commit to what they perceived to be a comprehensive and time-consuming project. Some potential participants even considered the research to be "too intrusive" due to the focus group interview component and inclusion of questions on the survey instrument that asked students about their actual bullying and victimization experiences. Even the *SBM* program was originally designed to be a multi-tiered program lasting at least one month and culminating in student-led projects, but was reduced to a one-shot presentation for most of the same reasons mentioned above. The researcher began the initial recruitment process for schools in September 2015 and received a total of 16 rejections—some immediate and others after school representatives "gave it some thought," while another initially confirmed participation only to back out a few months later—before receiving affirmative responses in December 2015 from the two high schools (and two back-up schools) that ended up serving as the treatment and comparison group schools. Even after obtaining the principals' initial authorization to conduct the study at their respective schools, the researcher had to agree to streamline the study to meet the schools' requests regarding time and the number of students they were willing to provide for the study. During the recruitment process, although the original dissertation proposal passed the approval process up to the

department level, as previously discussed, the proposal had to be revised after compromises made between the researcher and the Korean-American Educational Commission (KAEC) and participating schools, then resubmitted for approval beginning at the committee level. After official authorization was obtained in writing from the schools and KAEC, the IRB protocol was completed and submitted for approval.

One of the strategies the researcher recommends to others who wish to pursue research on school-based anti-bullying initiatives in South Korea, whether or not they include police officer involvement, is to develop a strong rapport with key stakeholders, especially those at the highest possible echelon, in addition to getting “proper” introductions to said stakeholders by a mutual acquaintance or intermediary. Based on the researcher’s own personal experience of having worked in Korea for nearly a decade, given Korean society’s hierarchical structure and deeply rooted respect for and deference to one’s *sunbae* (seniors) by one’s *hubae* (juniors or subordinates), especially in the workplace, including educational institutions, without the senior’s authorization or blessing, it is very difficult to get things accomplished. The researcher learned this lesson the hard way as the research was delayed for nearly half a year because he initially applied a bottom-up approach instead of a top-down approach to recruiting potential participants. Specifically, the Fulbright ETA Coordinator put the researcher in contact with several Fulbright English Teaching Assistants, then those ETAs who expressed initial interest in the project informed their supervisory native Korean teachers. For a variety of reasons, most of the Korean teachers were apathetic towards or adamantly opposed the project and never brought the project up to their superiors. At a majority of these schools, the project essentially died at the lowest echelons, i.e., with teachers or head teachers and department chairs. It was only after intervention by the KAEC Executive Director and Chief Administrative Officer, who contacted

school principals directly and arranged formal introductions, did the researcher finally begin making headway in recruiting schools and subsequently, teacher cooperation. In the end, the two schools that became involved in the project were those that had principals who were strong advocates of bullying prevention and expressed a high level of interest in the research project.

Perhaps the most efficient and effective means of acquiring school participation is obtaining the support and endorsement of a government entity, be it at the local, regional, or national level. This was explained in a conversation the researcher had with an acquaintance after he had already completed the survey research at the two participating schools. Specifically, the acquaintance, who is a Foreign Service Officer assigned to the U.S. diplomatic mission in South Korea explained to the researcher that if one were to acquire the sponsorship of a city's department of education, or ideally, the ROK Ministry of Education, in support of his or her research project, "there is practically no way the schools could say no" (R. Roberts, personal communication, June 10, 2016). Obtaining such support is obviously difficult unless one has direct connections with someone working for the ROK MOE or local departments of education or is acquainted with someone who has such connections and could serve as an intermediary to make the appropriate introductions between the researcher and education official. In short, some sort of support or endorsement from a government entity is vital not only to expedite the process of school recruitment, but to obtain permission to conduct more comprehensive and prolonged research on school-based and/or police-administered anti-bullying programs.

Ultimately, when partaking in bullying prevention research in South Korea, acquiring some sort of "official" endorsement, be it from a government agency or at the very least the respective school's principal, is particularly vital for a researcher who may be considered an "outsider" on account of not being a member of the school community or, in the case of this

researcher in particular, a foreigner trying to conduct research on what Koreans consider to be a “very sensitive” topic (J. Lee, personal communication, June 17, 2016; Y. Lee, personal communication, March 17, 2016). From personal experience, the researcher believes that one of the major obstacles in acquiring school participation was the fact that he is a foreigner. Despite the researcher’s academic and professional background in youth development and criminal justice, many school officials probably did not see a professor of police administration or criminal justice doctoral student. Instead, in their mind’s eye, they simply saw a foreigner who wanted to intrude into their inner sanctum to possibly shed light on a dilemma (i.e., school bullying) that they may not want revealed, especially to someone who, as a foreigner, is very much an outsider. That being said, as the study progressed and the researcher developed an amiable rapport with school administrators, teachers, and students (and several of the students’ parents) of the participating schools, the researcher was seen no longer as a foreigner, stranger, or outsider but as a colleague, friend, and by some, a brother. In fact, one of the teachers at the treatment group school eventually asked the researcher to drop formalities and address her as “nuna,” the Korean word for older sister (used by males only). Even after the conclusion of the study, teachers informed the researcher that the participating students—in particular, those from the comparison group high school—continually expressed to them their desire for the researcher to return to visit their schools someday. Needless to say, with that level of rapport came a significantly high degree of cooperation and support from practically all participants and concerned parties. Overall, the researcher’s experience highlights the importance of people-to-people relations and cultivating a strong rapport with research participants in order to ensure a relatively hassle-free research process.

One other important lesson learned by the researcher, and one he wishes to share with future researchers as a cautionary note, is a lesson pertaining to trust and honesty. In the early stages of planning for this research project, the researcher was able to speak directly with the vice principal of a high school in the city of Pohang, with whom he had been acquainted for seven years. After a long and seemingly productive conversation, the vice principal expressed his interest in bullying prevention and subsequently agreed to participate in the program, while also offering to introduce the researcher to other schools. Several weeks later, the researcher was informed by one of the teachers that after a meeting between the English department chair, vice principal, and principal, the school decided to decline to participate in the study. He went on to state candidly that although the others had supported participation in the project, the vice principal unilaterally vetoed the decision, essentially backtracking on what he had initially told the researcher. Needless to say, the vice principal did not assist in introducing the researcher to other schools as he originally promised, and essentially severed all communication with the researcher after that point. It was only a few weeks after this announcement that the researcher discovered that the school used the researcher's template for the *Stand By Me* program, which he provided to the vice principal as they were making plans to prepare for the study, to implement an anti-bullying program of their own without the researcher's involvement. In short, the school—in particular, the vice principal—backed out of the project in a deceitful manner, while dishonestly appropriating the researcher's idea as a “publicity stunt” and for their own personal benefit. May the researcher's own experience be a warning to other researchers, program designers or anyone with intellectual property to be cautious of the associates whom they place their trust in before divulging sensitive or confidential information.

In sum, several important lessons were learned through the process of completing this study, lessons that are not only applicable to academic research but people-to-people relations in general. Needless to say, the researcher will take to heart the lessons learned when implementing future studies on *Stand By Me* or other bullying prevention initiatives in the ROK. These lessons are: (1) utilization of a top-down approach in establishing initial contact with key stakeholders such as school administrators, (2) proper and formal introductions to key stakeholders by a mutual acquaintance, (3) the importance of developing a strong rapport with school administrators, teachers, and students, and (4) ensuring a high degree of certainty that stakeholders can be trusted before providing detailed plans of the study and the *Stand By Me* program design and curriculum. On a side note, the generally positive results of the present study may be useful in helping to overcome initial resistance from school administrators in the future, while helping to foster support for the *Stand By Me* program among school staff, police administrators, and government officials alike.

Recommendations for Improving *Stand By Me* and Other Korean Anti-Bullying Programs

As discussed in the literature review, several detailed studies have examined the efficacy of various bullying prevention programs, pinpointing what specific elements were most effective in preventing bullying behavior in youth. Most notable among this research are the various studies conducted by Dan Olweus (1993a, 2004, 2005), considered to be the world's leading expert on bullying prevention, and Maria M. Ttofi and David P. Farrington (2009, 2011, 2012), who performed meta-analyses covering over 25 years' worth of research on school-based bullying prevention programs in the United States, Europe, and some non-European countries. Ttofi and Farrington's meta-analyses are the most compressive to date on anti-bullying programs, going beyond prior meta-analytic reviews available at the time (see Ferguson, Miguel, Kilburn,

& Sanchez, 2007; Smith, Pepler, & Rigby, 2004; Smith, Schneider, Smith, & Ananiadou, 2004; Vreeman & Carroll, 2007). Olweus' studies are too numerous to list here, although the bibliography of his book, *Bullying at School: What We Know and What We Can Do* (Olweus, 1993a), provides a decent selection of several of his major studies on the topic of school bullying.

Elements of an Effective Bullying Prevention Program

Olweus' own anti-bullying program, known as the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (OBPP) is a multi-level program that targets the community, school, classroom, and the individual. The primary objective of the OBPP, several components of which have been adapted for use by various anti-bullying programs in the United States and other countries around the world (as well as for the *SBM* presentation administered for this study), is to reduce, and ideally eliminate, existing problems between bullies and victims, while preventing the development of future problems (Olweus, 1993a). Rephrased in a more "positive manner," Olweus (1993a) states that the goal of his bullying program is to develop better peer relations in the school environment and foster conditions conducive for both bullies and victims "to get along and function better" in and outside of the school environment (p. 66). To achieve these goals, Olweus (1993a) recommends that anti-bullying programs focus on four key factors: (1) adult awareness and involvement, in and outside of the school setting, which is considered a prerequisite for the other three components; (2) school-level initiatives such as conferences and meetings between bullies and victims, to also include parental and teacher involvement; (3) classroom-level initiatives like anti-bullying rules and bullying awareness lectures; and (4) individual-level initiatives such as bystander empowerment and bully-victim counseling sessions. The particulars of these four factors are detailed in Olweus' (1993a) *Bullying at School*.

Regarding Olweus's four general components of effective bullying prevention programs, because of the limited nature of the *SBM* presentation, only the fourth component—individual-level measures—was emphasized (specifically, bystander involvement and empowerment), although the other three were briefly touched upon during the presentation and Q&A session after the presentation, with Officer Joo Woo-nam, the presenter, providing suggestions and “starting points” to students on what they and their teachers, as well as parents, could do to cultivate an anti-bullying atmosphere in their school. That being said, one of the first steps to take to improve upon *SBM* in the future would be to increase the length of the program and expand upon the one-shot format of the presentation, transforming the nearly two-hour presentation into a multi-session program lasting several weeks or months and including more interactive activities and discussion sessions in addition to the lecture component of the program. The increased length of the program and addition of more activities and discussion sessions would allow the program to adequately cover all four of Olweus' components of effective bullying intervention. It is important to reiterate the presentation that was implemented for the study was only limited to influencing students' *attitudes* about bullying and their *willingness* to intervene to stop bullying; it was not designed to affect actual bully or bystander behavior, at least not in the long term. Likewise, the study was only limited to examining the presentation's impact on students' attitudes and perceptions. As stated above, future administrations of the *SBM* program and studies evaluating the revised program should include components targeting and evaluating the program's impact on bully and bystander behavior as well.

The purpose of Ttofi and Farrington's 2009 meta-analysis (including updates in 2011 and 2012), which provided a review and evaluation of 30 different anti-bullying programs over a 25-year period, was to examine the effectiveness of bullying prevention programs and highlight the

components that were most effective. The key point is that not all programs are created equal, with some programs being more effective than others. Ttofi and Farrington (2009) sought to determine which programs were indeed effective and why they were so. Of the 20 distinct elements that the researchers looked at, they determined the most important elements to be classroom rules against bullying, school conferences and assemblies that provided students information about bullying, classroom management techniques used to detect and deter bullying, peer work (e.g., peer mediation and peer mentoring), providing bullying awareness information to parents, improved playground supervision, disciplinary methods, parent training, and showing students anti-bullying videos. Again, because of the limited scope of the *SBM* presentation, it was unable to focus on any of these key components in depth. Of these elements, the only two that *SBM* included were the school conference and assembly component since that was essentially what the *SBM* presentation was, and the anti-bullying video viewing component. The police officer who facilitated the presentation also briefly touched upon establishing anti-bullying rules in the classroom, peer mediation and mentoring, and classroom management. As mentioned earlier, the obvious way to remedy this deficiency would be to increase the length of the program to allot sufficient time to cover most, if not all, of these key components.

Other pertinent findings of Ttofi and Farrington's (2009, 2011) studies pertain to refuting the argument that older youth are a "lost cause" in terms of bullying intervention and the efficacy of the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program. Despite the generally held belief among researchers and academics that bullying prevention programs have relatively little impact on older youth (i.e., high school-aged youth), Ttofi and Farrington's (2011) research found that such programs did exhibit a large impact on older students, most likely due to their increased cognitive abilities and emotional quotient. Thus, high school-based bullying prevention programs, like their

counterparts at the elementary and middle school level, are beneficial and should by no means be reduced or eliminated. Moreover, the programs that were determined to have the greatest impact on mitigating bullying were those that were longer in terms of duration and intensity (i.e., contact hours), utilized social learning theory (e.g., rewarding prosocial behavior while punishing antisocial behavior), applied firm and appropriate disciplinary action against perpetrators of bullying, and involved parents and teachers. Perhaps the most important takeaway from the meta-analyses is the effectiveness of the OBPP and programs inspired by the works of Dan Olweus. In fact, Ttofi and Farrington (2009) go as far as to recommend that the OBPP be used as a template for any future bullying prevention initiatives. In brief, any youth anti-bullying program administered in the Republic of Korea should be based upon the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program, although obviously modified to suit a South Korean audience—just as the *Stand By Me* presentation was, despite its truncated format—to be most effective in combatting bullying and school violence among Korean youth.

In addition to examining the most effective components of an anti-bullying program, Ttofi and Farrington (2009) noted that the most useful research design for evaluating bullying prevention programs were ones that employed experimental and control groups, which the *Stand By Me* study utilized. That being said, Ttofi and Farrington's (2011) updated meta-analysis four years later noted that the most effective designs in terms of yielding the largest overall effect sizes were before-and-after quasi-experimental designs and intervention-control comparisons; surprisingly, of all the types of designs evaluated, true experiments that utilized randomization resulted in the smallest effect sizes for victimization and no significant effects for bullying. As discussed in the section for proposed improvements for future research, there were limitations that kept this project from being a true experimental design with random assignment; thus, given

the time and resources that were available, a quasi-experimental design was utilized—specifically, a nonequivalent groups design. According to the findings of Ttofi and Farrington’s (2011) meta-analysis, a true experiment may very well not have been the best possible option, with programs evaluated using quasi-experimental and intervention-control comparisons shown to yield the largest and most significant overall effect sizes on either bullying or victimization. A follow-up study by Ttofi, Farrington, and Fox (2012) affirmed the results of the 2011 study, noting that quasi-experimental and age-cohort designs had the largest effect sizes, while true experiments with randomization yielded small effect sizes. Nonetheless, in another follow-up study in 2012, Ttofi and Farrington supported the need for more studies utilizing a true experiment with random assignment, stating that despite the results of their meta-analyses, randomized experimental designs are still “the best method” for assessing effect size (p. 459).

Mentors and Role Models: The Vital Role of Police Officers in Bullying Prevention

With respect to the decision to include police participation as a component of the *SBM* presentation, the rationale was based on the multi-tier positive effect of school resource officer and school liaison officer programs in the United States, United Kingdom, and Canada in reducing school crime and violence, providing counsel and guidance to students, and fostering a safe school environment (see Atkinson, 2001; Benigni, 2004; Flynn & McDonough, 2004; Johnson, 1999; May et al., 2004; McDevitt & Panniello, 2005), and the recent development of school police initiatives by the ROK National Police Agency as a means of tackling the problem of bullying. The School Police program in Korea is currently limited in scope compared to SRO/SLO programs in western countries, with only about 1,075 officers with jurisdiction over 11,590 schools across the nation, with a ratio of one officer for every nine schools (Lee, 2016). This 9:1 ratio is a concern for the South Korean government, both at the national and local levels,

including the Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education (SMOE), which noted, “Most of our concern is that the officers are not there when students need them” (Lee, 2016). Besides manpower, roles and responsibilities of school police officers (SPOs) are also somewhat limited “to receiving reports on school violence, or visiting schools just once a year to attend anti-bullying committee meetings” (Lee, 2016). Nonetheless, compared to years’ past, the School Police program is continuing to grow in terms of participating officers and responsibilities, with the ROK national government praising the police for their efforts in working with community partners to address the problem of school bullying (Ministry of Education, 2016).

Overall, along with parents and teachers, police officers can serve in the role of mentors and positive adult role models for students (Finn et al., 2005; Flynn & McDonough, 2004). As discussed in the previous section on improvement to the research design, future studies should also examine the “value added” element of including a police officer as a component of the *SBM* program. This can take the form of including questions on the survey instrument (or focus group interview) gauging participants’ attitudes about the specific police officer who served as the presenter and facilitator of the *SBM* program, or a comparative study utilizing a control group with the *SBM* program administered by a police officer and an experimental group with the *SBM* presentation administered by someone who is not a police officer. This latter option would probably be reserved until after the efficacy of the revised and updated *SBM* program “as is” (i.e., *SBM* facilitated by a police officer) has been determined.

Key Areas of Focus for *Stand By Me* Program Revision

As we look at improving the *Stand By Me* presentation for future use, there is much to expand upon in terms of length, format, and content. Obviously, the first revision would be increasing the length of the program from a one-shot presentation given on one day to a more

intensive and prolonged program lasting several weeks or months (e.g., one semester). The *SBM* “baseline” presentation would be retained but expanded upon, with more interactive and student-centric activities included. Possible activities can include group discussion sessions, interactive games and roleplaying scenarios focused on bullying and bystander intervention, and “school anti-bullying campaign” activities (e.g., poster, essay, or speech contests) that students would be assigned as “homework” in one session and be expected to present during the final *SBM* meeting prior to the closing and awards ceremony, as well as the establishment of programs or initiatives in the host school that are designed to last long after the *SBM* program is concluded (e.g., bullying prevention-centric classroom rules or an on-campus bullying prevention student club). Ultimately, given the requisite time and resources (and creativity on the part of program designers and participants), the sky is the limit in terms of what a revised *SBM* program and others like it can provide to South Korean youth to help combat the ‘social evil’ of school bullying. The key point is ensuring that most, if not all, program components utilize the evidence-based research of Dan Olweus and others (e.g., Maria M. Ttofi and David P. Farrington) in the field of bullying prevention, while nevertheless allowing room for experimentation, revision, and innovation, the efficacy of which future studies would examine.

Williams and Guerra (2007), whose Student School Survey was adapted and modified into the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey for the *Stand By Me* study, suggested that bullying intervention programs be designed to target not only students’ behavioral traits but their attitudes and beliefs related to bullying (i.e., the underlying thoughts, perspectives, and beliefs that influence behavior—either positively or negatively) as well as peer support. This recommendation was based upon the study’s finding that moral approval of bullying had a positive relationship with bullying regardless of type (e.g., physical, verbal, or cyber).

Specifically, pro-bullying attitudes were indicative of greater bullying behavior, while anti-bullying attitudes were indicative of less bullying behavior. Van Goethem et al. (2010), whose study also determined a link between bullying attitudes and behavior, offered similar recommendations, supporting intervention programs' emphasis on addressing bullying attitudes as well as emotional factors in order to mitigate bullying behavior. Taking this into account, the *SBM* presentation was designed to appeal to students' emotions, while cultivating an anti-bully and proactive bystander mindset. Based on the results of this study, subsequent administrations of *SBM* will continue to emphasize developing proactive bystanders, while targeting students' self-esteem, peer support, and social control mechanisms, which were found to be key factors related to moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness.

Regarding lecture content-specific revisions—not only for *SBM* but for other existing or future ROK anti-bullying programs conducted by other agencies and organizations—we can look to the results of the study to serve as a guide for what areas to focus on. Specifically, given the overarching influence of informal social control, perceived peer support, and self-esteem on the study participants' willingness to intervene in bullying incidents, these three factors may be worth expanding upon for future administrations of *SBM*, while being incorporated into other bullying prevention programs that do not currently emphasize these factors. With respect to social control, Curran and Renzetti (2001) summarize the role and importance of socialization—i.e., social interaction—in people's lives:

Although we typically associate socialization with early childhood, it is actually an ongoing process that continues throughout an individual's life. The fact that socialization is a process of *social interaction* tells us that it occurs through *communication* with other people; it is not something we do on our own, in isolation. ... Agents of socialization influence us over the course of our lives: they are individuals, groups, and institutions that have as one of their primary functions the socialization of members of a society by providing explicit instruction in or modeling of social expectations. (p. 135, emphases in original)

Revisiting Social Control Theory: Social Factors as the ‘Nucleus’ of *Stand By Me*

With respect to willingness to intervene in bullying incidents, sociological theories—in particular, social control theory—may help to explain the results of the *Stand By Me* study as we can see how heavily students’ bystander intervention willingness scores were influenced by their perceptions of informal social control mechanisms present in their schools. To explicate, the research participants exhibited a stronger willingness to intervene if they felt that their peers and teachers were willing to do the same. In other words, students’ potential actions would have mimicked how they felt other students, teachers, and staff in their schools would have acted given similar circumstances. In short, as “agents of socialization” who shape youths’ experiences and model how to act and behave in a given social environment, how one’s teachers and classmates handle bullying situations can have a significant impact on one’s own willingness to get involved in stopping bullying and school violence. Related to this is the concept of reference groups, which postulates that a person tends to view oneself in reference to the beliefs, values, and conduct held by a group or groups to which one belongs (or merely identifies with), mimicking or modeling one’s attitudes and behaviors based on that of the members of the group, especially those members that one exhibits the most respect and admiration for (Glaser, 1956, 1973; Hyman, 1942, 1968; Merton, 1957; Merton & Kitt, 1950).

The findings of this study indicate that as bystanders witnessing a bullying incident, students would act in a way that mirror how they thought or expected their teachers and peers would act in similar circumstances. This echoes Tarde’s (1912) laws of imitation, which influenced Sutherland’s (1947) differential association theory and asserted that people “imitate one another in proportion as they are in close contact” (p. 326). Moreover, as Sutherland (1947) noted with respect to associations, they differ in terms of frequency, duration, priority, and

intensity. In terms of the school environment, these four factors are influenced by teacher-to-student associations and peer-to-peer associations, and can be quite strong due to the fact that students remain at school for a majority of their day. Ultimately, “[t]hose with whom one has the greatest contact—those who reinforce or punish a person the most—will have the greatest influence over that individual” (Curran & Renzetti, 2001). That being said, future studies on this topic would be enhanced if the survey instrument included questions and scales that measured the degree of reinforcement and punishment with respect to students’ actual bullying and bystander behavior. Nevertheless, the findings of this study lend some support to Curran and Renzetti’s (2001) comment pertaining to Sutherland’s (1947) assertion that prolonged and frequent contact with a certain person or group of people will have an impact on one’s behavior (specifically, students’ perceptions of how they would behave given certain hypothetical scenarios).

Based on the researcher’s personal observations, in the case of South Korean high school students, most, if not all, essentially reside at their respective schools from morning to night due to after-school study sessions that certain schools implement. For example, in the case of third-year students, who are under pressure from parents, teachers, and peers alike to excel on their university entrance examinations, it is not unheard of for them to remain in their classrooms for self-study up to 10 p.m. or even well into the midnight hours every weeknight. Thus, these associations with one’s peers and teachers occur frequently, last for a long period of time, occur early on in life (priority), and can be “intense,” i.e., association with those that one exhibits admiration towards, which could be one’s teachers, senior classmen, and/or peers. In brief, due to the frequency, duration, priority and intensity of contact a typical Korean high school student has with her or his teachers and classmates, it can be argued that one’s pattern of behavior may

be strongly influenced by the actions and behavioral traits of one's peers and teachers, including one's willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. In fact, as the study indicates, the stronger one's perception of informal social control by teachers, staff, and students, as well as perceived peer support, the stronger one's willingness to intervene to stop bullying.

Overall, the results of the study—particularly, the link between informal social control and bystander intervention willingness—strongly support social control theory in the context of bystander behavior. To recap, Hirschi's (1969) social control theory asserts that strong social bonds would decrease the likelihood of an individual engaging in delinquent and criminal behavior, while weak social bonds would increase the likelihood of engaging in such behavior. Similarly, with respect to witnesses to bullying, we may conjecture that strong social bonds would increase the likelihood of an individual engaging in proactive bystander behavior—i.e., intervening in a bullying incident—while weak social bonds would decrease the likelihood of engaging in proactive bystander behavior—i.e., *not* intervening in a bullying incident. In brief, taking the findings of this research project into account, as well as the results of prior studies by other scholars and researchers on school bullying prevention, effective anti-bullying programs—especially those administered in the Republic of Korea—ought to focus on enhancing social control mechanisms in the school environment among teachers and students, in addition to developing individual students' confidence and self-esteem, with the overarching goal of developing “upstanders.”

Hirschi (1969) makes note of four elements of social bonding: attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief. This would be a good starting point to consider as anti-bullying programs are being developed, or in the case of existing programs, being revised. First, *attachment*, which Hirschi (1969) considers the most important of the four elements of social

bonding, can be addressed via the overarching message of the *Stand By Me* program as well as specific topics and activities focused on enhancing attachment between the individual student and her/his peers and between the student and her/his teachers and school staff. As mentioned in *Stand By Me*'s mission statement, "You are not alone. We can stop bullying and school violence together." In other words, the goal of the presentation is to develop *attachment* among students so that they can rely on each other to prevent bullying in their schools. Although the presentation administered for the study was limited only to a lecture and brief discussion sessions, a more intensive and longer term program can include interactive, student-led, and student-focused activities designed to cultivate emotional bonds among the student population, and also between students and their teachers. Thus, teachers, too, would be encouraged to become involved in these activities, despite the program being primarily focused on improving students' anti-bullying attitudes and behavior. As the study indicated, informal social control influencing one's willingness to intervene to stop bullying is not limited to the attitudes and actions of one's classmates, but one's teachers and other school staff as well.

The second element of social bonding, *commitment*, is based on rational judgment and is the concept that "people develop a stake in playing by the rules" (Curran & Renzetti, 2001). In the end, this element can be considered to be somewhat self-centered in that it deals with the question of "what's in it for me?" This element is addressed in the three objectives—taught to students as "The Three E's"—of *Stand By Me*: education, empowerment, and empathy. The last E, empathy, is particularly relevant to commitment, as participants are encouraged to develop a strong familial-like bond and emotional connection with their friends, classmates, and other students in their school. In fact, several professionals involved in school-based anti-bullying initiatives emphasized the importance of developing "moral intelligence" or "emotional

literacy”—in other words, empathy—in youths as a means of reducing bullying (Aronson, 2000; Coloroso, 2008; Davis, 2007). Ultimately, based on the researcher’s personal observations and experiences not only as an educator in South Korea but as someone who grew up in a household blending both Asian and American values, strong empathy and familial bonds are probably easier to cultivate in a South Korean youth (and East Asian youth in general) than in their western counterparts given Korean culture’s roots in Confucianism and collectivism, and the deeply engrained concept of *woori*, i.e., we and us. That being said, some police officers and teachers have commented that a collectivist mentality and familial solidarity seem to be gradually disappearing among today’s youth in South Korea, which may attribute to modern youths’ greater propensity to “act out” and engage in deviant and delinquent acts, including bullying, compared to previous generations (K. Kim & M. Kim, personal communication, December 20, 2014; J. Yoo, personal communication, May 23, 2015; E. Park, personal communication, October 30, 2015). Thus, addressing the need to develop empathy in youths was taken into account when the researcher designed the *SBM* program. The researcher’s goal after students complete *SBM* is for them to walk away with the idea that bullying isn’t someone else’s problem, but everyone’s problem—that a harm inflicted upon one student is also a harm inflicted upon all students. As empathy for others and familial bonds are developed, the element of commitment—specifically, a commitment to stopping bullying and school violence—is transformed from a question of “what’s in it for me?” to “what’s in it for *us*?”

Third, *involvement* refers to opportunity—i.e., the opportunity to commit crime or delinquent acts. To state succinctly, if youths are engaged in other activities, they will not have the time to engage in criminal activity. The paradox occurs when the rationale of keeping students “involved” in school for most of their day still results in cases of bullying, violence, and

other harmful acts. On a related note, Hirschi's (1969) own research results did not support his hypothesis of the link between involvement and lower prevalence of delinquency, although a subsequent study by Agnew and Petersen (1989) discussed specific types of (leisure) activities linked to increased and decreased delinquency. As discussed in the literature review, there are many causes and theories that address the prevalence of school violence and bullying and thus need not be repeated here. With respect to anti-bullying initiatives and getting youths involved, instead of involvement, the researcher prefers to use the term *engagement*, which could be considered the "fourth E" of *Stand By Me*. The engagement component for the *SBM* presentation as administered for the purposes of this study was severely limited because of time and resource limitations. As previously mentioned, ideally, a revised and enhanced *SBM* program would go significantly beyond the one-shot presentation and discussion session and incorporate long-term activities that would keep students engaged not only during the duration of the *SBM* program but long after the program is complete. Ultimately, *SBM* would seek to cultivate lifelong engagement in anti-bullying initiatives, encouraging students to partake in bullying prevention activities and initiatives in their schools and in their communities.

Lastly, the fourth element, *belief*, pertains to the degree to which one feels she or he should conform to the laws and rules of society. As summarized by Curran and Renzetti (2011), with regard to the element of belief, "The less a person believes a rule should be obeyed—the lower the person's belief in the moral validity of the rule—the greater the likelihood that he or she will violate that rule" (p. 148). Therefore, to address this, the *SBM* presentation is purposely designed to be conducted by a police officer, who is a symbol of law, order, and justice in society. Furthermore, having the police officer deliver the presentation in uniform instead of in civilian clothing helps to enhance this symbolism visually in the mind's eye of student

participants. Additionally, in the presentation that was actually administered to treatment group students during the study, the element of belief was addressed by having the police officer discuss with students some of the legal consequences of certain types of bullying.

Perhaps more important than the title, occupation, and authority of the person giving the presentation, is what kind of person is giving the presentation. To explicate, it is not farfetched to make the argument that a police officer who doesn't like children, has poor oral presentation skills, and is not really interested in the issue of school bullying would be less likely to develop a rapport with high school students than an officer who is friendly and has an "approachable" personality while interacting with youngsters, exhibits excellent communication skills, and has a keen interest in the topic of bullying prevention. Recall from the literature review American police officer Carole Moore's (2013) comments about a fellow officer who she deemed "unfit" for the role of school resource officer: "One high school in my area had a deputy who refused to ... attempt to build a rapport with the kids with whom he dealt on a daily basis. As a result, neither the administration nor the students respected him" (p. 38).

When reviewing candidates for presenter/facilitator of the *SBM* presentation, the researcher sought officers who had a certain set of skills and mindset. Specifically, the researcher sought officers with most, if not all, of the following traits: Prior experience with, or an interest in, teaching and/or youth mentoring; the ability to quickly develop a rapport with youth, in particular, high school-aged students; strong oral communication and interpersonal communication skills; and a lively, energetic, and enthusiastic personality. With respect to social bonding, having such an officer, as a representative of law and order in society, involved in the *SBM* program would help to enhance the element of belief—one's willingness to obey the law. In the end, the researcher selected two ROK police officers—one male, one female—that

exhibited all the qualities above to participate in the study, although the actual presentation was administered by only one of the officers due to scheduling conflicts with the other. Nevertheless, the police officer that did administer the presentation received a positive reception and praise from students and teachers alike, although no official evaluation was done gauging the level of students' reception toward the officer. Therefore, this would be something worth exploring in future administrations of *SBM* and future studies on *SBM* and, for that matter, other police-administered anti-bullying programs. As stated in the discussion on how to improve the research design, a revised version of the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey should include not only scales measuring actual bullying and bystander behavior, but scales measuring students' attitudes toward the police in general and the specific police officer who administered the *SBM* program as one way of gauging students' respect and deference to law enforcement and how this element relates to attitudes about bullying and willingness to intervene.

All in all, the four elements of social bonding are interrelated (Hirschi, 1969), yet distinct in that each element can have a unique effect on deviant behavior (Matsueda, 1989). Given the importance of these elements together and individually in shaping one's social bonds, and in the case of this particular research topic, in influencing a student's bonds with peers and teachers, it is recommended that future administrations of *SBM* and other South Korean anti-bullying programs consider incorporating topics and activities addressing attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief. Likewise, future studies on an enhanced *Stand By Me* program and other school-based youth bullying prevention programs administered in the ROK should include measurement tools to evaluate whether, and to what degree, the programs improve the four elements of social bonding in the student participants.

The Bystander Effect: To Help or Not to Help?

Quoting author William S. Burroughs, Officer Joo Woo-nam began the *Stand By Me* presentation with the following words, which he would go on to reiterate throughout the presentation: “There are no innocent bystanders.” While examining the role of social control in influencing youths’ willingness to intervene in bullying incidents, it is worth discussing the bystander effect and diffusion of responsibility, topics that were incorporated into the *SBM* presentation. To recap, the bystander effect is defined as the inaction of an individual to render assistance to a victim as a result of the presence of others in the immediate vicinity (Darley & Latané, 1968). This bystander apathy is attributed to a perceived diffusion of responsibility—the responsibility to act is shared among the larger group and thus, the fewer bystanders that are present, the more likely an individual will come to the aid of the victim—and social influence—individuals taking social cues from others on how to act appropriately in a given situation (Latané & Darley, 1968). Miller and Lowen (2012) explain some of the reasons why bystanders do not act when witnessing bullying, stating, “Often kids won’t intervene in bullying because they don’t feel anyone will join them, they don’t know what to say, they’re afraid of being embarrassed, and they don’t feel they’ll get support from adults” (p. 62). Thus, related to diffusion of responsibility is the role that perceived peer support and informal social control (i.e., perceived intervention support from fellow students as well as teachers and school staff) can play with respect to bystander action or inaction.

Although the bystander effect stipulates that responsibility to act is “diffused” into the larger group identity and therefore the greater the number of bystanders, the less likely individual bystanders will take action, the results of this study imply the contrary. Specifically, according to correlation and regression results, students’ higher perception of peer support and willingness of

other students and school staff to intervene increased students' perceived likelihood of getting involved to stop bullying. Nonetheless, even though the study participants indicated that they were more likely to come to the defense of a victim of bullying if they believed their peers, teachers, and school staff would do the same, we do not know for certain whether they would *actually* do so unless we included questions on actual bystander behavior in the survey. Thus, since this study was limited only to students' thoughts and perceptions, it would be worth exploring in future research how well students' behavior (i.e., cases of bystander intervention, or non-intervention, in a bullying incident) actually matched what they said they *would* do. In the end, it is important to foster "upstander" and "defender" responses in students, empowering them to act when they witness bullying. Not doing so can lead down a slippery slope where empathy for others is lost due to feelings of one's own helplessness. As Miller and Lowen (2012) lament, "In schools where bystanders have stopped feeling empathy as a result of their own sense of helplessness, bullying behaviors will be normalized and targets will be ostracized and socially marginalized" (p. 62).

Self-Esteem: Fight or Flight?

As indicated by the study's results, self-esteem exhibited moderate correlations with both MAB and BIW, while self-esteem explained about 12% of the variance in BIW. Overall, as Curran and Renzetti (2001) note, a widely held belief is that people's behavior is largely influenced by whether they have a positive or negative opinion of themselves. Furthermore, those with high self-esteem are assumed to "behave responsibly and treat others respectfully" while those with low self-esteem may become withdrawn and isolated from others and may possibly partake in behavior that is self-destructive as an attempt to elevate low self-esteem (Curran & Renzetti, 2001). Thus, various crime prevention and rehabilitation programs have as a

central premise that crime and delinquency are directly related to lower self-esteem (Curran & Renzetti, 2001). Olweus (1993a) also highlights the importance of self-esteem with regard to victims and potential victims of bullying, stating that having greater self-confidence can help decrease students' chances of being targeted for bullying, while helping them achieve better peer-to-peer relations at school. Coloroso (2008) affirms Olweus' (1993a) comments, stating that having a strong sense of self is what she considers one of the "four antidotes to bullying," with the other three being having at least one good friend, being a friend, and being able to be part of a group (p. 137). Coloroso (2008) further notes that if children "see themselves as being capable, competent, cooperative, responsible, resourceful, and resilient"—in other words, having a strong sense of self—they are less likely to become "cruel and combative" bullies, while also more likely to effectively defend themselves (and others) against bullying (p. 138).

Studies by Kaplan (1975, 1980) have been regarded as the most comprehensive on the topic of self-esteem and delinquency. Branching off from the basic premise of social control theory that agents of socialization—be it our peers, family or others we surround ourselves with—influence our actions and behaviors, Kaplan (1975) asserts that we cultivate our sense of self via our interactions with these agents of socialization. How others' react to us helps determine, in a sense, how we react to ourselves. Moreover, after a certain amount of time, these external thoughts and reactions become internalized to shape one's self-concepts or self-attitudes (Kaplan, 1975). As Kaplan (1975) explains, individuals who, through their experiences with agents of socialization, develop a negative sense of self are "significantly more likely to adopt deviant response patterns in a specified future period than persons who in the course of their group experiences have developed relatively positive self-attitudes" (p. 51). Nevertheless, low self-esteem does not necessarily mean that one will engage in criminal or deviant behavior; it

merely predisposes one toward such behavior as a means of “self-enhancing” one’s sense of self (Kaplan, 1975, 1980; Scheff, Retzinger, & Ryan, 1989).

With respect to this study, just as low self-esteem can predispose someone toward deviant behavior, high self-esteem, as the findings appear to indicate, predispose one toward just and honorable behavior—in this particular case, the willingness to intervene in bullying incidents and thereby, helping those in danger or in risk of harm. Therefore, given the link between self-esteem and bystander intervention willingness, as well as with moral approval of bullying, an expanded *SBM* program should incorporate topics covering self-esteem, while maintaining a greater emphasis on addressing school social control mechanisms by enhancing peer-to-peer relationships and teacher-to-student relationships given the significant correlations between self-esteem and perceived peer support ($r = .561, p < .001$) and self-esteem and informal social control ($r = .243, p = .017$). Similarly, other existing anti-bullying programs or future programs in the ROK may also consider incorporating the topic of self-esteem into their curriculum. Nonetheless, the study utilized a relatively small sample size comprised of students from only two high schools that were selected via availability sampling and yielded results indicating that self-esteem explained only a small amount (12%) of the variation in students’ willingness to intervene. Thus, as these bullying prevention programs are implemented, further studies should be conducted on the association between self-esteem and bystander intervention willingness—both perceived willingness and actual bystander behavior—to see whether they support or contest the results of this study.

Putting It All Together: The Cultivation of “Upstanders”

Given the moderate to strong associations that informal social control, perceived peer support, and self-esteem have on bystander intervention willingness and moral approval of

bullying, bullying prevention programs may benefit from incorporating or expanding upon lecture topics and activities that focus on enhancing these factors in individual students and in the school environment as a whole. The *SBM* presentation, as administered for the purposes of this study, emphasized these three factors in its primary message of cultivating “upstanders,” i.e., proactive bystanders. The presentation discussed the three key players in any bullying situation—the bully (the perpetrator), the victim (the target), and the bystander—with a particular focus placed on the bystander. Specifically, along with the terms ‘bully’ and ‘perpetrator’ and ‘victim’ and ‘target,’ Officer Joo Woo-nam, who delivered the *SBM* presentation, provided students a specific definition of the term ‘bystander,’ then talked about bystander roles, excuses and “blockers” to bystander intervention. He also explained proactive bystander strategies and actions, culminating in a discussion with students on the bystander effect and the Kitty Genovese incident. This concept of being a proactive bystander is incorporated into various anti-bullying programs in the United States, including Utterly Global’s (2010a, 2010b) *Stand Up, Speak Out* bullying prevention program, which was one of the programs used as a basis for developing the *SBM* presentation.

The idea of being a proactive bystander, of looking out for one another, is akin to the “Battle Buddy System” or “Wingman Concept” emphasized in basic military training in the U.S. armed forces and also incorporated into military-supported cadet youth leadership programs such as the Junior Reserve Officers’ Training Corps and the Civil Air Patrol (see Civil Air Patrol, 2014; Dunz, 2010; Sellers, 2010; Suits, 2014). Essentially, a “battle buddy,” or “wingman” in air force parlance, is a friend and partner that looks out for the safety and wellbeing of another; being a battle buddy or wingman is “a pledge, promise and commitment between [service members] to take care of themselves and those around them” (Suits, 2014). As U.S. Air Force

Colonel Trent H. Edwards, commander of the 37th Training Wing, explains about the Wingman Concept: “The other thing we are expressing to the trainees is the need to take care of each other. If you see your wingman in trouble you have to do something—you are obliged to do something and take care of each other. That then extends to the family of professional Airmen” (Suits, 2014).

In a similar manner to the Battle Buddy System and Wingman Concept, the *SBM* presentation conveyed to student participants that all students are not only members of the school community, but members of a family. Therefore, as an “upstander” or a “defender,” each student has an obligation to ensure the safety and welfare of her or his fellow students—of her or his fellow brothers and sisters—especially those who are targets of bullying. Ultimately, fostering an upstander mentality among youth may help to increase bystander intervention willingness while decreasing moral approval of bullying, as indicated by the results of this study, as well as enhancing one’s self-esteem and perception of peer and teacher support. In short, future *SBM* presentations, which ideally would be expanded in terms of length from a one-day presentation to a program lasting several weeks or months, would likely retain the lecture content in its current format, although would expand discussion sessions and include teambuilding activities focused on reiterating the upstander concepts taught in the lectures. When all is said and done, it is the proactive bystander that could make a difference between someone continually being targeted for bullying or being free from the cycle of bullying, or even the difference between life and death. As noted by U.S. Army Specialist James V. Dunz (2010) regarding the Battle Buddy System: “We should never underestimate the power of our actions. With one small gesture, we can change a person’s outlook ... or prospects. So what does it mean to be a battle buddy to someone? It could mean saving a life” (pp. 22–23). By the same token, a student being a

proactive bystander—being a friend and an upstander—to a victim of school bullying could mean saving that person’s life.

The findings of this study indicate that even a short-term one-shot presentation on the topic of school bullying can have an impact—albeit a minor one—on South Korean youths’ attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents; this supports prior research (as discussed in the literature review) on a plethora of anti-bullying initiatives in the U.S. and other countries around the world that have been shown to be effective to varying degrees. Thus, whether or not a bullying prevention program should be implemented in South Korean schools is not the issue at hand. Instead, the key questions that policymakers and school administrators must consider are *how* anti-bullying programs should be implemented and *what topics* such programs should cover. To review, according to the findings of this study, the factors that had the strongest correlations with bystander intervention willingness were informal social control ($r = .839, p < .001$), self-esteem ($r = .345, p < .001$), and perceived peer support ($r = .296, p < .001$). As for moral approval of bullying, the top three correlations were with perceived peer support ($r = -.359, p < .001$), self-esteem ($r = -.292, p < .001$), and informal social control ($r = -.211, p = .037$). As we can see, the same three explanatory variables have the strongest correlations with both criterion variables, just in different orders. Therefore, these are three of the key factors to consider when seeking to improve upon the *Stand By Me* program as well as other anti-bullying programs designed for South Korean youth.

In summary, based on the findings of this study and prior research (in particular, Ttofi and Farrington’s 2009 and 2011 meta-analyses), bullying prevention programs administered in the Republic of Korea, including a revised *SBM* program, should be based on the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program, but appropriately modified to suit a Korean audience; be long-

term and intensive in scope, permeating all levels of the school environment, from the individual student to individual classrooms and the school as a whole; include interactive activities and discussion sessions that, along with the lecture component, help to foster empathy and prosocial behavior, positive peer support, and proactive bystander actions; and provide for teacher and parental involvement in some capacity, which prior studies have determined to be a vital component attributing to the reduction of bullying among youth (see Coloroso, 2008; Crother, Davis, 2007; Kolbert, & Barker, 2006; Moon & Morash, 2012; Ttofi & Farrington, 2009, 2011; Yoon et al., 2011).

Summary and Conclusion: Towards a Better Tomorrow

Inspired by the Korean national government's goal of finding solutions to the country's Four Social Evils, of which school bullying is included, and its desire for greater police involvement in anti-bullying initiatives, the *Stand By Me: Bullying Prevention and Bystander Empowerment* presentation was created by the researcher and examined via empirical research to determine its impact on participants' attitudes toward bullying and their willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. The researcher worked in collaboration with ROK police officers and the Korean-American Educational Commission to develop the *Stand By Me* presentation, utilizing prior research on effective bullying prevention methods and programs, which were adapted to suit a Korean audience. The study employed a nonequivalent groups design with a designated treatment group and comparison group, although was restricted to a posttest only due to time and resource limitations. Both test groups comprised of a convenience sample of high school students; 60 students from the comparison group school and 55 students from the treatment group school for a total sample size of 115 students. Students in the treatment group were administered the *Stand By Me* presentation, then took the Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey, which gauged

their attitudes toward bullying, their willingness to intervene to stop bullying, and other key variables including school climate and self-esteem. Students in the comparison group were only administered the survey without the presentation.

The results of the study addressed four research questions. First, does an anti-bullying presentation conducted by a ROK police officer have a significant effect on South Korean high school students' attitudes toward bullying? Second, does an anti-bullying presentation conducted by a ROK police officer have a significant effect on South Korean high school students' willingness to intervene to stop bullying? Third, do South Korean high school students' attitudes about bullying help to explain their willingness to intervene to stop bullying? Fourth, besides attitudes about bullying, do other specific factors—i.e., social cohesion and trust, school climate, perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control—help to explain South Korean high school students' willingness to intervene to stop bullying? The quantitative data derived from the surveys were analyzed via independent-samples *t* tests, Mann-Whitney *U* tests, and bivariate and multiple regression analyses.

The first two research questions addressed the primary focus of the study—whether a police anti-bullying presentation had an effect on students' attitudes toward bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying—and was examined using independent-samples *t* tests and Mann-Whitney *U* tests. The third and fourth research questions were ancillary and sought to examine the relationship between the two initial dependent variables—moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness—as well as other key variables' influence on bystander intervention willingness. These questions were examined via bivariate linear regression, simultaneous multiple regression, stepwise multiple regression, and hierarchical multiple regression. Significance levels for all statistical tests were set at .05 (two-tailed test).

The findings affirmed the first two research questions—the *Stand By Me* presentation did have a significant effect on moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness. Specifically, students who were administered the anti-bullying presentation were found to be less likely to support bullying and more likely to express a willingness to intervene to stop bullying compared to students who did not participate in the presentation.

Although the independent-samples t test is considered a robust statistical test, the Mann-Whitney U test was utilized to complement the results of the t tests because of concerns regarding the high degree of skewness and kurtosis, in particular for the data distribution of moral approval of bullying scores. Although both the independent-samples t test and Mann-Whitney U test both affirmed significant differences in the mean bystander intervention willingness scores between the treatment and comparison groups, the two tests yielded conflicting results for moral approval of bullying. Specifically, the t test produced non-significant results, while the Mann-Whitney U test produced results indicating a statistically significant difference between the two schools' MAB means. Due to the high level of skewness in the MAB data distributions for both groups, and high level of kurtosis in the case of the treatment group's MAB distribution, and how these factors can affect the validity of the t test results, the results of the Mann-Whitney U test were considered to be the superior indicator of a presence or absence of significant differences between the two MAB means.

With regard to factors that influence bystander intervention willingness, moral approval of bullying had only a minor impact, explaining only 5% of the variance in bystander intervention willingness. Although prior studies have indicated a strong link between bullying attitudes and actual bullying behavior (see Boulton et al., 2002; Espelage & Swearer, 2003; Glasman & Albarracin, 2006; Shin, 2000; van Goethem et al., 2010; Williams & Guerra, 2007),

research on bullying has not really explored in depth the relationship between attitudes about bullying and bystander intervention. Thus, the researcher recommends that further studies examine the relationship between attitudes toward bullying and bystander attitudes and behavior. That having been said, according to the results of this study, the relationship between moral approval of bullying and bystander intervention willingness are quite limited although other factors have a much stronger explanatory power over one's willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. Specifically, moral approval of bullying had only a minor impact, explaining only 5% of the variance in bystander intervention willingness, whereas perceived peer support, self-esteem, and informal social control played a major role in influencing one's propensity to intervene in bullying incidents. Informal social control, in particular, had the highest correlation with bystander intervention willingness ($r = .839, p < .001$), explaining approximately 70% of the variation in students' willingness to intervene.

In summary, the results of the study indicate that an anti-bullying program administered by the police can have a positive impact on South Korean high school students' attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene, while highlighting the influence of self-esteem, peer support, and social control mechanisms on bystander intervention willingness. Future studies should include a more comprehensive research design than the one employed for this study such as a true experiment with random sampling, including a pretest and posttest component while utilizing a larger sample size. It is also recommended that further studies include a focus group interview with study participants in addition to a component focused specifically on capturing students' perceptions of the police officers that serve as program facilitators/presenters and students' attitudes about the role of police involvement in anti-bullying efforts. In terms of improving bullying prevention programs for South Korean youth, curriculum should focus on

altering students' attitudes about bullying and addressing social control factors, with the overarching goal of "activating" the bystander.

The Long-term Consequences of Tolerating Bullying

The need for effective anti-bullying initiatives, whether in South Korea or elsewhere, lies in the fact that bullying is not only a short-term problem limited to one's childhood, but is something that can have long-term repercussions if not addressed earlier in life. Bullying can have serious long-term consequences for all involved, whether it is the bully, victim, or bystander. In the worst-case scenario, an unrestrained bully can grow up perceiving of his or her behavior as "normal," rationalizing such misdeeds as acceptable and going through life continuing to abuse others—be it a coworker or subordinate at work, or even a spouse or child—going so far as to engage in criminal behavior (Coloroso, 2008). As for the victim of bullying who doesn't receive appropriate peer or adult support, he or she may grow up struggling with "depression, anxiety, and low self-esteem, and harbor revenge fantasies," or become addicted to alcohol or drugs to "numb the pain" (Miller & Lowen, 2012). In the worst-case scenario, an early tragic end for the victim could come in the form of pent up aggression released against the bully or others, suicide, or a combination of both resulting in a murder-suicide scenario. For the bystander that remains idle and does nothing, he or she will probably continue to go through life doing nothing, turning a blind eye and a deaf ear to cries for help, while developing feelings of powerlessness in other aspects of their lives as well (Coloroso, 2008; Miller & Lowen, 2012).

In a sense, once a bully, always a bully—unless one is taught at an early age that bullying is unacceptable and not to be tolerated. The same can be said of victims and bystanders. As Miller and Lowen (2012) so eloquently state, a serious problem occurs "when behaviors don't grow up, but people do" (p. 39). Elaborating on their statement, Miller and Lowen (2012) go on

to explain that adult bullies do not differ all that much from their adolescent counterparts—they can be verbally abusive and use threatening behavior, while stifling others’ success through purposeful sabotage or social exclusion, or fostering a work environment based on fear and intimidation. Bullying in the adult world is not uncommon with 35% of the U.S. workforce admitting that they had been victims of workplace bullying (Miller & Lowen, 2012). This phenomenon is also present in South Korea with a growing concern these days of the rise in workplace bullying and harm caused not only to employee morale but also to productivity and resulting in profit loss (Choi, 2016). In short, unless we actively intervene to stop bullying in the formative years of a child’s life, the vicious cycle of pain and suffering will continue for the unforeseeable future as young people grow up maintaining their roles as bully, victim, and bystander, while passing their negative attitudes and behavior onto future generations.

The Importance of Evaluation

Based on the researcher’s personal observations from visiting individual schools and through conversations with acquaintances who are school administrators and teachers in South Korea, most schools’ individual bullying prevention initiatives appear not to have any basis in empirical research and are propped up “just for show” to meet the national government’s mandate that schools take appropriate measures against bullying. The *Stand By Me* presentation, on the other hand, was developed based on “what works?” research such as the works of Dan Olweus, the leading pioneer in anti-bullying research, and adapted such research and program elements for use in the South Korean context. This is the key factor that distinguishes the *Stand By Me* project from many of the “pop-up” bullying prevention initiatives implemented by individual schools, which are neither based on empirical research nor evaluated for their effectiveness via a rigorous research design utilizing the scientific method.

As the Korean Ministry of Education, National Police Agency, provincial and local government agencies, and individual schools create new or improve upon existing bullying prevention programs, they must all keep in mind the importance of evaluation, which is something that appears to be a missing vital component for existing programs, including the School Police initiative and Youth Police Academies. In the end, since the onset of the ROK national government's initiative to combat Korea's Four Social Evils—sexual violence, domestic violence, school bullying, and unsafe food products—anti-bullying programs of all shapes and sizes have sprouted out, seemingly as an effort to give the semblance—but minus the substance—that something is being done to appease the government's mandate or to simply indulge certain school administrators' less-than-altruistic and attention-grabbing motives by getting their schools “in the spotlight.” As discussed earlier, some teachers and school administrators either ignore bullying or completely deny its existence on their campuses (see Korean Educational Development Institute, 1998; Lee, 2005). Even school officials who do acknowledge bullying as a problem and have implemented in one form or another a bullying prevention program in their schools, whether it takes the form of a bullying awareness presentation or an “anti-bullying office” situated on campus, are still reluctant to have their respective initiatives evaluated (D. Kim, personal communication, February 26, 2016; Y. Lee, personal communication, March 17, 2016).

This adverse attitude towards evaluations apparently stems from the desire of school officials not to “lose face” in front of superiors or subordinates, colleagues, parents, students, and the community at large, if such initiatives were (empirically) determined to be less than effective, or even a complete failure; this is also a reason why some school officials will not even admit that bullying takes place in their schools (J. Lee, personal communication, June 17, 2016; Y. Lee,

personal communication, March 17, 2016). The researcher himself has even seen firsthand some South Korean schools (even the high school that he used to work for as a Fulbright English Teaching Assistant) that have implemented seemingly elaborate programs with a lot of “pomp and circumstance” which have received blind praise from the public and those involved without any sort of evaluation—whether by the school itself or by an external agency—to determine if these programs are indeed effective in reducing school bullying. To state bluntly, bullying prevention is a realm without room for publicity stunts, ego trips, and empty promises on the part of ROK government officials, police executives, and school administrators. In the end, children’s lives are at stake.

Regardless of how “great” a certain anti-bullying program may appear to be and blind praise given to it, without appropriate evaluation systems in place or empirical studies from which to draw conclusions, how can we label a certain program or initiative as “good,” “effective,” or “successful”? Furthermore, how can we determine which specific factors are working and which are not without proper evaluations? A lack of evaluations and therefore, determining which programs are indeed ineffective can result in wasted time and resources by the government, schools, and other key stakeholders, and perhaps even continued—or even increased—bullying (and all the dire consequences that it entails for bullies, victims, and bystanders alike) due to program inefficacy. One merely has to look to Drug Awareness Resistance Education (D.A.R.E.) as an example of a failed prevention program, despite its comprehensive program components, widespread implementation in schools across the nation, and popularity among the general public.

In its original incarnation prior to its revamp in 2009, D.A.R.E. was touted as the premier drug-prevention program in the United States, although research determined it to be subpar in

terms of what it purported to do—i.e., reducing drug use among youth (Greenwood, 2006; Lawrence, 2007). D.A.R.E., created in 1983 through a joint venture between the Los Angeles Police Department and Los Angeles Unified School District, is the most well-known and largest drug-prevention program in the country, operating in all 50 states and several foreign countries (Lawrence, 2007). Soon after the program was created, it was widely disseminated across the country before any evaluation results were published; most of the primary evaluations were “posttest only” designs that did not incorporate any pretest surveys (Greenwood, 2006). Notwithstanding the lack of data from rigorous studies to show to what degree D.A.R.E. was effective, many federal, state, and local governments supported the program; even Presidents George H.W. Bush and Bill Clinton were strong supporters during their time in office (Greenwood, 2006). Despite its strong reputation, several empirical studies done on the program throughout the 1990s and early 2000s determined that D.A.R.E. had very little significant impact on students’ drug use (see Ennett, Tobler, Ringwalt, & Flewelling, 1994; Gottfredson, 1997, 2001; Gottfredson, Wilson, & Najaka, 2002; Harmon, 1993; Rosenbaum et al., 1994; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2001). Nonetheless, even knowing the truth of the D.A.R.E. program’s lackluster impact on drug use, D.A.R.E. supporters, including police executives, sought to cover up the truth, even going so far as to use “scare tactics” to discourage and prevent dissemination of research findings and news stories that cast D.A.R.E. in a negative light (Glass, 1997; Greenwood, 2006). Under pressure from the Departments of Justice and Education, D.A.R.E. administrators eventually redesigned the program and adopted a new curriculum in 2009 (Hecht, Colby, & Miller-Day, 2010).

With respect to bullying intervention programs in the ROK, how do we know if one or several of South Korea’s anti-bullying programs are simply another D.A.R.E. unless empirical

studies and evaluations are done? Furthermore, research that is undertaken needs to be trustworthy in the sense that it is unobstructed by key stakeholders with findings presented in an honest and transparent manner and, in the case of undesirable results, not sugar-coated or swept under the rug by government or school officials who do not want to accept the fact that their specific programs may not be as effective as they want or claim them to be. Failing to conduct rigorous empirical studies or, even worse, altering results or completely ignoring them when they cast doubt on the efficacy of certain programs, and therefore, perpetuate bullying prevention programs and initiatives that do not work is not only senseless but costly—not only in terms of finances (funding for D.A.R.E. and related marketing and dissemination costs totaled nearly \$500 million a year; Greenwood, 2006) but in terms of young people’s lives. To do so is unjust to those who provide financial and human resources to the programs and to the youths who are expected to benefit from such programs. Greenwood (2006) notes that D.A.R.E. “provides one of the most dramatic examples of how a program can be put into practice nationwide with little in the way of supportive evidence, and then continue to flourish and prosper despite mounting evidence that it is ineffective in reducing drug use” (p. 90). This is a cautionary tale that South Korean government officials, police executives and school administrators must heed or risk heading down the same path with their own anti-bullying programs.

Barton (2006) makes note of the valuable information evaluations of youth violence prevention programs in the United States have provided over the years, although explains that evaluations of prevention programs targeting bullying specifically are “not as prolific” as the former, explaining, “In fact, anti-bullying efforts in U.S. schools are relatively new” (p. 94). In the years since Barton (2006) made those comments, the meta-analyses by Ttofi and Farrington (2008a, 2008b, 2009, 2011, 2012) examining studies evaluating several anti-bullying programs

in the United States and other countries are certainly a starting point to say the least, and are, to date, the most comprehensive works done summarizing what works and what doesn't in bullying prevention initiatives. Barton (2006) summarizes the importance of evaluation, even for programs in their infancy or programs without prior studies as a reference point: "Evaluation of programming, regardless of the availability of previous empirical data, is important for anti-bullying initiatives. Results of evaluations may demonstrate the importance of reviewing and modifying anti-bullying initiatives" (p. 94). She goes on to say, "The data may also provide important information about why implemented programming initiatives have been effective" (Barton, 2006, p. 94). The researcher would like to add to the aforementioned statement by saying that data may also provide information as to why certain program elements are *not* effective, thereby allowing program designers and administrators to revise their programs accordingly. The Republic of Korea currently lacks such meta-analytical studies, and for that matter, any sort of comprehensive, empirical research on the effectiveness of their anti-bullying programs. In short, given the relative infancy of police anti-bullying programs in the Republic of Korea compared to other countries, evaluation is a necessity.

Challenges to South Korea's School Police Program

Sadly, only a few months after this study was completed, sex scandals involving school police officers and high school students have mired the reputation of the ROK's School Police program. Two male police officers from Busan engaged in sexual intercourse with female high school students during private counseling sessions. In one case, the student reported the incident to the school nurse a little less than a week after the incident, while the other student attempted suicide, but eventually reported the case to a social welfare center. The two officers involved have since resigned in the summer of 2016, but have not received any disciplinary action against

them by their respective departments, leading to allegations of attempted cover-ups by the departments. As a result of this scandal, some Korean people have called for the revision of rules and regulations governing the School Police initiative so that such incidents will not happen in the future, while others have expressed their desire for the entire School Police program to be abolished (Shin, 2016). Two staunch opponents of the School Police program are Kim Seok-jun, Superintendent of Education for the City of Busan, and Kim Sang-won, a professor of police administration at Dong-eui University. Professor Kim states that in order to “prevent school violence you need a professional understanding of adolescents and juvenile delinquents, and I doubt we can expect such expertise from average police officers,” adding that he feels a better option would be to leave school bullying and violence prevention up to individual schools (Shin, 2016). Similarly, Superintendent Kim asserts that there is no longer a need for school police officers and supports replacing SPOs with professional school counselors (Shin, 2016).

Although they present important viewpoints, the two gentlemen’s arguments are premised upon the lack of training and education expected of SPOs and, by extension, selection standards of officers to fill such duties. These flaws can be remedied without the mass elimination of School Police programs nationwide if police departments focus on improving education and training of police officers to help mitigate and rectify inappropriate conduct by law enforcement personnel, especially those assigned to work with youth. On a related note, despite the knowledge and experience the two officers selected to participate in *Stand By Me* already had, the researcher provided several hours of individual training and instruction to the officers in bullying prevention, adolescent development, youth mentoring, teaching methods, classroom management techniques, and oral communication skills, so that they would be effective in performing their duties as presenters and facilitators of the *SBM* program. The

researcher concedes to Professor Kim's assertion that perhaps "average police officers" shouldn't be heavily involved in youth-centric assignments. That being said, in lieu of, or in addition to appropriate training and education, why not assign as SPOs those officers who are indeed experts in youth development, education, and counseling? Professor Kim seems to discount the possibility of the existence of such subject matter experts in the ranks of the police force (one case-in-point is an acquaintance of the researcher who is currently a ROK police officer and has both an academic and professional background in counseling and adolescent development; her goal is to be assigned as a school police officer in the near future). With respect to Superintendent Kim's comments, how do we know for sure if school police officers are effective or not and if school counselors are indeed "better" alternatives unless empirical research is done to test these claims? In the end, these two individuals' comments are nothing more than conjecture and opinion, not supported by facts or findings from any scientific studies on the efficacy (or inefficacy) of police-administered school programs. Rash and emotionally-charged comments such as these—especially from academics and high-ranking government officials—which are not backed up by empirical evidence, illustrates the need for more scientific studies on school bullying prevention programs in the ROK, especially those involving law enforcement personnel.

Like police officers from various nations across the globe, the ROK police force is comprised of individuals from various educational and professional backgrounds, including those who may have experience in counseling psychology and/or youth development prior to pursuing a career in law enforcement. One can argue that individuals with these specialized backgrounds would make promising candidates for the School Police program. Alternatively, the ROK National Police Agency (NPA), or individual police departments, could consider

implementing hiring incentives to recruit personnel with the necessary academic and career experience to become SPOs. Given the relative infancy of School Police programs compared to the decades-long establishment of School Liaison Officer programs in the United Kingdom and Canada, and School Resource Officer programs in the United States, perhaps the Korean National Police Agency can look to these countries for examples of training standards, while adapting and modifying curriculum and training to meet the needs of Korean police officers.

Given prior research results on several positive effects of SRO programs in other countries, and the generally positive findings of the *Stand By Me* study, the researcher argues in favor of police involvement in anti-bullying initiatives in South Korea. The School Police initiative in South Korea should not be abolished due to the misconduct of two “bad apples,” although improvements and revisions are always welcome and should be the goal of any bullying prevention program—police-administered or otherwise. In light of the recent sex scandals, combined with a lack of empirical studies done on the efficacy of School Police programs (including measures gauging students’ reception to police officers as mentors and counselors), the researcher would like to stress the importance of establishing appropriate standards for selection and training of School Police Officers or any police officer assigned to deal primarily with youth so that the “right people” are selected for the job. In fact, the researcher applied specific selection criteria (discussed in detail in an earlier section) when reviewing ROK LEO candidates who would serve as presenters and facilitators for the *SBM* presentation. In the end, quality officer selection standards appear to be severely lacking in the various School Police programs across the nation, which is something that will need to be addressed as the NPA and individual police departments begin the process of revamping their School Police programs. As Jang Sin-joong, a former police officer, laments:

School police officers do not have educational backgrounds in adolescent psychology, or consultation for that matter ... Young, handsome officers are usually selected, which is nothing more than a shallow attempt to appeal to teenagers who like good-looking celebrities. They, unlike older officers with their own children, lack the experience to counsel adolescents. (Cited in Lee, 2016)

On a related note, although Officer Joo Woo-nam, who served as the presenter for the *Stand By Me* project, and Officer Park Eun-yu, who was a consultant for the project, could fit the description of “young, handsome and beautiful officers,” their knowledge and experience (especially in the case of Officer Joo, whose detailed knowledge of bullying intervention programs, including the works of Dan Olweus, deeply impressed the researcher) were what appealed to the researcher and led to their selection to participate in the study. The officers’ interest in working with and mentoring youth was also a plus. In the end, these are the types of officers—in terms of knowledge, experience, as well as personality—that Korean police departments should look to fill the ranks of the School Police corps. Ultimately, any youth-centric program involving police officers will only be as strong as the professionalism and commitment of those who are selected to implement it.

Although the National Police Agency currently has no intention of suspending the School Police program, these sex scandals have led to some immediate changes (e.g., banning private off-campus counseling sessions with students unless two or more officers are present) and prompted the NPA and the Ministry of Education (MOE) to reevaluate the School Police program, while the Busan Metropolitan Police Agency has temporarily suspended all School Police programs. Given the desire of the ROK national government, and the necessity of the NPA and MOE to examine the pros and cons of their youth programs (especially with respect to the training and recruitment of officers to participate in such programs), the time is ripe for more empirical research on police anti-bullying and youth mentoring programs in order to improve

upon initiatives that will impact Korea's posterity in the years and decades to come. Given additional time and resources, as well as the necessary support and sponsorship of key stakeholders from the ROK government, education, and law enforcement, the researcher hopes to expand the *Stand By Me* program in the near future and have it administered in various schools across the Republic of Korea, either as a stand-alone program or as an "add-on" component to other anti-bullying programs. In brief, it is the researcher's desire that the *Stand By Me* study adds to the currently limited knowledgebase on what works and, perhaps more importantly, what doesn't work, in terms of bullying intervention initiatives in the Republic of Korea, while serving as the initial spark to encourage further studies, discussion, and debate on the role of law enforcement in bullying prevention and youth mentoring.

No Innocent Bystanders

When Moon and his associates (2011) embarked on their research on school bullying in South Korea, they had three specific goals in mind: first, bridging the gap between criminology and school bullying; second, exploring the applicability of criminological theories in the international context; and third, encouraging additional empirical research on bullying in South Korea (p. 850). These three goals provided the foundation for this study on the *Stand By Me* anti-bullying presentation's effect on South Korean high school students' attitudes about bullying and willingness to intervene in bullying incidents. When Moon and his colleagues (2011) conducted their studies, bullying in South Korea was still considered a "mundane" issue (p. 850). Today, bullying is perceived of as a serious epidemic—or to use the parlance coined by the ROK government, a 'social evil'—that negatively impacts so many youths nationwide.

Due to the limitations of this study, it is highly recommended that further studies be conducted on the *Stand By Me* program as well as other bullying prevention programs in the

ROK to evaluate methods to mitigate bullying and youth violence in South Korean schools. Nevertheless, given the paucity of empirical research on the role of law enforcement in anti-bullying initiatives in the ROK, and the limited number of studies on Korean anti-bullying programs in general, one of the overarching goals of this study is to fuel the flames of debate and discussion among academics and policymakers so that they may further engage in a dialogue on solutions for dealing with school bullying, one of the endemic social evils plaguing today's youth, not only in South Korea but worldwide, and the proper role of law enforcement in this arena. That being said, the starting point for any anti-bullying initiative is to acknowledge that bullying—be it physical, verbal, relational, or cyber—does exist and that it is a problem that many youths face all over the globe.

In a November 2000 interview with Oprah Winfrey, Nobel Peace Prize laureate and Holocaust survivor Elie Wiesel said, “The opposite of love is not hate, but indifference. ... Indifference creates evil. ... Hatred is evil itself. Indifference is what allows evil to be strong, what gives it power” (cited in Winfrey, 2000). These words by Mr. Wiesel, who passed away in July 2, 2016, serve as the concluding statement to the *Stand By Me* presentation, highlighting to student participants the vital role of bystanders in our society. Ignorance and denial of bullying, especially by those in a position of power to stop it ultimately fosters an environment that tolerates or even embraces bullying. Therein lies the importance of activating the bystander since the vast majority of youths involved in bullying incidents are neither bullies nor victims, but bystanders (Davis, 2007; Mullin-Rindler, 2003). Bystanders are not limited to the child that has directly witnessed bullying or heard about a bullying incident from a friend; bystanders also include school principals, teachers, and parents—and in this day and age, even police officers—

who may be aware that bullying takes place in their schools and communities, but turn a blind eye and do nothing to stop it.

The *Stand By Me* program emphasizes to students that *there are no innocent bystanders*, while reminding them that they are not alone and encouraging familial-like solidarity among their peers based on the concept of empathy in order to empower youth to take a stand against bullying *together* as “upstanders.” As Officer Joo Woo-nam told students during the *Stand By Me* presentation in May 2016:

Remember, there are no innocent bystanders. An act of omission—doing nothing—can cause a victim [of bullying] just as much pain and suffering as the act [of bullying] itself. ... Everything each one of us does has an effect on everyone else because we are all connected. One small act of kindness from you may save a person’s life, even if you don’t realize it. ... Every act, no matter how small, can make a difference. *You* can make a difference.

References

- Agnew, R. (1992). Foundation for a general strain theory of crime and delinquency. *Criminology*, 30(1), 47–87.
- Agnew, R. (2001). Building on the foundation of general strain theory: Specifying the types of strain most likely to lead to crime and delinquency. *Journal of Research in Crime & Delinquency*, 38(4), 319–361.
- Agnew, R., Brezina, T., Wright, J. P., & Cullen, F. T. (2002). Strain, personality traits, and delinquency: Extending general strain theory. *Criminology*, 40(1), 43–71.
- Agnew, R., & Petersen, D. M. (1989). Leisure and delinquency. *Social Problems*, 36(4), 332–350.
- Ah, Y., Jeong, W., & Cha, T. (2005). The study on the actual conditions of bullying and the psychosocial factors affecting bullying behavior. *Journal of Fish and Marine Science of Education*, 17, 390–403.
- Ahn, H. (2002). *A study of the fact that "ijime" affects "wangtta."* Jechon-shi, Republic of Korea: Semyung University.
- Aronson, E. (2000). *Nobody left to hate: Teaching compassion after Columbine*. New York: Owl Books.
- Arum, R., & Beattie, I. R. (1999). High school experience and the risk of adult incarceration. *Criminology*, 37(3), 515–540.
- Aseltine, R. H., Gore, S., & Gordon, J. (2000). Life stress, anger and anxiety, and delinquency: An empirical test of general strain theory. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 41(3), 256–275.
- Astor, R. A., Pitmer, R. O., Bernbenishty, R., & Meyer, H. (2002). Public concern and focus on school violence. In L. Rapp-Paglicci, A. Roberts, & J. Woodarski (Eds.), *Handbook of violence* (pp. 262–302). New York: Wiley.
- Atkinson, A. J. (2001). School resource officers: Making schools safer and more effective. *Police Chief*, 68(3), 55–57, 60–62.
- Bachman, R., & Schutt, R. K. (2012). *Fundamentals of research in criminology and criminal justice* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Bachman, R., & Schutt, R. K. (2014). *The practice of research in criminology and criminal justice* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

- Baldry, A. C. (2003). Bullying in schools and exposure to domestic violence. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 27(7), 713–732.
- Baldry, A. C., & Farrington, D. P. (2000). Bullies and delinquents: Personal characteristics and parental styles. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 10(1), 17–31.
- Baron, S. W. (2003). Self-control, social consequences, and criminal behavior: Street youth and the general theory of crime. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 40(4), 403–425.
- Barton, E. A. (2006). *Bullying prevention: Tips and strategies for school leaders and classroom teachers* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Batsche, G. M., & Knoff, H. M. (1994). Bullies and their victims: Understanding a pervasive problem in the schools. *School Psychology Review*, 23(2), 165–174.
- Benigni, M. D. (2004). Need for school resource officers. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, 73(5), 22–24.
- Bentley, K. M., & Li, A. K. (1995). Bully and victim problems in elementary schools and students' beliefs about aggression. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology*, 11(2), 153–165.
- Bosworth, K., Espelage, D. L., & Simon, T. R. (1999). Factors associated with bullying behavior in middle school students. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 19(3), 341–362.
- Boulton, M. J., Trueman, M., & Flemington, I. (2002). Associations between secondary school pupils' definitions of bullying, attitudes towards bullying, and tendencies to engage in bullying: Age and sex differences. *Educational Studies*, 28(4), 353–370.
- Boutwell, B. B., & Beaver, K. M. (2010). The intergenerational transmission of low self-control. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 47(2), 174–209.
- Bowers, L., Smith, P. K., & Binney, V. (1994). Perceived family relationships of bullies, victims, and bully/victims in middle childhood. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 11(2), 215–232.
- Brown, B. (2006). Understanding and assessing school police officers: A conceptual and methodological comment. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 34(6), 591–604.
- Burt, C. H., Simons, R. L., & Simons, L. G. (2006). A longitudinal test of the effects of parenting and the stability of self-control: Negative evidence for the general theory of crime. *Criminology*, 44(2), 353–396.

- Burton, V. S., Evans, D. T., Cullen, F. T., Olivares, K. M., & Dunaway, G. R. (1999). Age, self-control, and adults' offending behaviors: A research note assessing a general theory of crime. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 27(1), 45–54.
- Carbone-Lopez, K., Esbensen, F., & Brick, B. T. (2010). Correlates and consequences of peer victimization: Gender differences in direct and indirect forms of bullying. *Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice*, 8(4), 332–350.
- Cho, H. (1995). Children in the examination of war in South Korea: A cultural analysis. In S. Stephens (Ed.), *Children and the politics of culture*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Choi, S. (2016, October 28). Workplace bullying leads to loss of 5 trillion won. *Korea Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.koreatimes.co.kr/>
- Choi, T. H. (2006, March 20). School police. *Korea Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.koreatimes.co.kr>
- Chug, K. H., & Kwon, S. S. (2013, June 6). Police boast of effective attacking of 'social evils.' *Korea Joongang Daily*. Retrieved from <http://koreajoongangdaily.joins.com>
- Civil Air Patrol (2014). *Cadet encampment handbook*. Maxwell AFB, AL: Civil Air Patrol.
- Clark, S. (2011). The role of law enforcement in schools: The Virginia experience—A practitioner report. *New Directions for Youth Development*, 129, 89–101.
- Cohen, L. E., & Felson, M. (1979). Social change and crime rate trends: A routine activity approach. *American Sociological Review*, 44(4), 588–608.
- Cohn, A., & Canter, A. (2002). What schools and parents can do. *National Mental Health & Education Center*. Retrieved from http://www.naspcenter.org/factsheets/bullying_fs.html
- Coloroso, B. (2008). *The bully, the bullied, and the bystander: From preschool to high school—How parents and teachers can help break the cycle of violence*. New York: HarperCollins.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crothers, L. M., Kolbert, J. B., & Barker, W. F. (2006). Middle school students' preferences for anti-bullying interventions. *School Psychology International*, 27(4), 475–487.

- Cullen, F. T., Unnever, J. D., Hartman, J. L., Turner, M. G., & Agnew, R. (2008). Gender, bullying victimization, and juvenile delinquency: A test of general strain theory. *Victims and Offenders, 3*(4), 346–364.
- Curran, D. J., & Renzetti, C. M. (2001). *Theories of crime* (2nd ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Darley, J. M. & Latané, B. (1968). Bystander intervention in emergencies: Diffusion of responsibility. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 8*(4p1), 377–383.
- Davis, S. (2007). *Schools where everyone belongs: Practical strategies for reducing bullying* (2nd ed.). Champaign, IL: Research Press.
- DeCamp, W., & Newby, B. (2015). From bullied to deviant: The victim-offender overlap among bullying victims. *Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice, 13*(1), 3–17.
- Dunz, J. V. (2010, May). What it means to be a battle buddy. *Engineer*, pp. 22–23. Retrieved from <http://www.wood.army.mil/engrmag/>
- Elliott, D. S., & Menard, S. (1996). Delinquent friends and delinquent behavior: Temporal and developmental patterns. In D. Hawkins (Ed.), *Delinquency and crime: Current theories* (pp. 28–67). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Elliot, D. S., & Voss, H. H. (1974). *Delinquency and dropout*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Endresen, I. M., & Olweus, D. (2001). Self-reported empathy in Norwegian adolescents: Sex differences, age trends, and relationship to bullying. In A. C. Bohart, C. Arthur, & D. J. Stipek (Eds.), *Constructive & destructive behavior: Implications for family, school, and society* (pp. 147–165). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Ennett, S. T., Tobler, N. S., Ringwalt, C. L., & Flewelling, R. L. (1994). How effective is Drug Abuse Resistance Education? A meta-analysis of Project DARE outcome evaluations. *American Journal of Public Health, 84*(9), 1394–1401.
- Espelage, D. L., Bosworth, K., & Simon, T. R. (2000). Examining the social context of bullying behaviors in early adolescence. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 78*(3), 326–333.
- Espelage, D. L., & Swearer, S. M. (2003). Research on school bullying and victimization: What have we learned and where do we go from here? *School Psychology Review, 32*(3), 365–383.
- Evans, D. T., Cullen, F. T., Burton, V. S., Dunaway, G. R., & Benson, M. L. (1997). The social consequences of self-control: Testing the general theory of crime. *Criminology, 35*(3), 475–501.

- Farrington, D. P. (1991). Childhood aggression and adult violence: Early precursors and later-life outcomes. In D. J. Pepler & K. H. Rubin (Eds.), *The development and treatment of childhood aggression*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Farrington, D. P. (1993). Understanding and preventing bullying. *Crime and Justice*, 17, 381–458.
- Ferguson, C. J., Miguel C. S., Kilburn, J. C., & Sanchez, P. (2007). The effectiveness of school-based anti-bullying programs: A meta-analytic review. *Criminal Justice Review*, 32(4), 401–414.
- Finn, P., & McDevitt, J. (2005). *National assessment of school resource officer programs: Final project report*. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates, Inc.
- Finn, P., Shively, M., McDevitt, J., Lassiter, W., & Rich, T. (2005). *Comparison of program activities and lessons learned among 19 school resource officer (SRO) programs*. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates, Inc.
- Flouri, E., & Buchanan, A. (2003). The role of mother involvement and father involvement in adolescent bullying behavior. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 18(6), 634–644.
- Flynn, W. J., & McDonough, B. (2004). Police work with juveniles: Discretion, model programs, and school police resource officers. In A. R. Roberts (Ed.), *Juvenile justice sourcebook: Past, present, and future* (pp. 199–215). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Fox, B. H., Farrington, D. P., & Ttofi, M. M. (2012). Successful bullying prevention programs: Influence of research design, implementation features, and program components. *International Journal of Conflict and Violence*, 6(2), 273–282.
- Gladstone, G.L., Parker, G.B., & Malhi, G.S. (2006). Do bullied children become anxious and depressed adults? A cross-sectional investigation of the correlates of bullying and anxious depress. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, 194(3), 201–208.
- Glaser, D. (1956). Criminology theory and behavioral images. *American Journal of Sociology*, 61, 433–444.
- Glaser, D. (1973). Role models and differential association. In E. Rubington & M. S. Weinberg (Eds.), *Deviance: The interactionist perspective* (pp. 369–373). New York: Macmillan.
- Glasman, L. R., & Albarracin, D. (2006). Forming attitudes that predict future behavior: A meta-analysis of the attitude-behavior relation. *Psychology Bulletin*, 132(5), 778–822.
- Glass, S. (1997, March 3). Don't you D.A.R.E. *New Republic*, 18–28.

- Gottfredson, D. C. (1997). School-based crime prevention. In L. W. Sherman, D. Gottfredson, D. MacKenzie, J. Eck, P. Reuter, and S. Bushway (Eds.), *Preventing crime: What works, what doesn't, what's promising* (pp. 5-1-5-74). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Gottfredson, D. C. (2001). *School and delinquency*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Gottfredson, D. C., Wilson, D., & Najaka, S. S. (2002). School-based crime prevention. In L. W. Sherman, D. P. Farrington, B. C. Welsh, & D. L. MacKenzie (Eds.), *Evidence-based crime prevention* (pp. 56-164). London: Routledge.
- Gottfredson, M. R., & Hirschi, T. (1990). *A general theory of crime*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Grasmick, H., Tittle, C., Bursik, R. J., & Arneklev, B. J. (1993). Testing the core empirical implications of Gottfredson and Hirschi's general theory of crime. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 30(1), 5-29.
- Greenbaum, S., Turner, B., & Stephens, R. D. (1988). *Set straight on bullies*. Los Angeles: Pepperdine University Press.
- Greenwood, P. W. (2006). *Changing lives: Delinquency prevention as crime-control policy*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Hahn, H. C., & Guterman, N. (2001). The emerging problem of physical child abuse in South Korea. *Child Maltreatment*, 6(2), 169-179.
- Harmon, M. A. (1993). Reducing the risk of drug involvement among early adolescents: An evaluation of Drug Abuse Resistance Education (DARE). *Evaluation Review*, 17(2), 221-239.
- Hartjen, C. A. (2008). *Youth, crime & justice: A global inquiry*. New Jersey: Rutgers University Press.
- Hatch, J. A. (2002). *Doing qualitative research in education settings*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Hay, C. (2001). Parenting, self-control, and delinquency: A test of self-control theory. *Criminology*, 39(3), 707-736.
- Haynie, D. L., Nansel, T., Eithel, P., Crump, A. D., Saylor, K., Yu, K., et al. (2001). Bullies, victims, and bully/victims: Distinct groups of at-risk youth. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 21(1), 29-49.

- Hecht, M., Colby, M., & Miller-Day, M. (2010). The dissemination of keepin' it REAL through D.A.R.E. America: A lesson in disseminating health messages. *Health Communication, 25*(6-7), 585–586.
- Hinduja, S., & Patchin, J. W. (2015). *Bullying beyond the schoolyard: Preventing and responding to cyberbullying* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Huesmann, L. R., & Eron, L. D. (1984). Cognitive processes and the persistence of aggressive behavior. *Aggressive Behavior, 10*(3), 243–251.
- Hunter, L., MacNeil, G., Elias, M. (2004). School violence: Prevalence, policies, and prevention. In A.R. Roberts (Ed.), *Juvenile justice sourcebook: Past, present, and future* (pp. 101–125). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Hyman, H. H. (1942). The psychology of status. *Archives of psychology, 269*, 5–91. (Reprinted from *Readings in reference group theory and research*, pp. 147–165, by in H. Hyman & E. Singer, Eds., 1968, New York: Macmillan)
- Hyman, H. H. (1968). Reference groups. In David Sills (Ed.), *International encyclopedia of the social sciences*, vol. 13 (pp. 353–359). New York: Macmillan.
- Ito, A. (2011). Enhancing school connectedness in Japan: The role of homeroom teachers in establishing a positive classroom climate. *Asian Journal of Counselling, 18*(1-2), 41–62.
- Jackson, A. (2002). Police-school resource officers' and students' perception of the police and offending. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management, 25*(3), 631–650.
- Jarjoura, G. R. (1993). Does dropping out of school enhance delinquent involvement? Results from a large-scale national probability sample. *Criminology, 31*(2), 149–171.
- Jeynes, W. H. (2008). Effects of parental involvement on experiences of discrimination and bullying. *Marriage and Family Review, 43*(3-4), 255–268.
- Johnson, I. M. (1999). School violence: The effectiveness of a school resource officer program in a southern city. *Journal of Criminal Justice, 27*(2), 173–192.
- Juvonen, J., Graham, S., & Schuster, M. (2003). Bullying among young adolescents: The strong, the weak, and the troubled. *Pediatrics, 112*(6), 1231–1237.
- Kang, J. K. (2013, July 24). Anti-bullying plans are announced. *Korea Joongang Daily*. Retrieved from <http://koreajoongangdaily.joins.com>
- Kaplan, H. B. (1975). *Self-attitudes and deviant behavior*. Pacific Palisades, CA: Goodyear.

- Kaplan, H. B. (1980). *Deviant behavior in defense of self*. New York: Academic Press.
- Kim, B. S., Atkinson, D., & Yang, P. (1999). The Asian Values Scale: Development, factor analysis, validation, and reliability. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 46*(3), 342–352.
- Kim, E. J., Kim, I., & Jung, T. (2001). Psychological vulnerabilities victimization at school bullying. *Korean Journal of Clinical Psychology, 20*, 245–257.
- Kim, H. (2001). Bullying and school-related variables. *Korean Journal of Youth Studies, 8*, 119–142.
- Kim, H. Y. (2013). Statistical notes for clinical researchers: Assessing normal distribution (2) using skewness and kurtosis. *Restorative Dentistry & Endodontics, 38*(1), 52–54.
- Kim, J. (2002). *An application of general strain theory to Korean adolescents: A test of the relations between negative stimuli at school and delinquency*. Unpublished master's thesis, Michigan State University, East Lansing.
- Kim, J. (2008). Investigation of terms used in Korean by school children to describe bullying behavior in primary schools in the state of New South Wales, Australia and Gyeonggi Province, South Korea. *Studies on Korean Youth, 19*, 61–90.
- Kim, S. (2014, August 1). Assault upon our children: South Korea's education system hurts children. *New York Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.nytimes.com>
- Kim, Y. S., Koh, Y. J., & Leventhal, B. (2005). School bullying and suicidal risk in Korean middle school students. *Pediatrics, 115*(2), 357–363.
- Kim, Y. S., Koh, Y., Noh, J. S., Park, M. S., Sohn, S. H., Suh, D. H., Kim, S. J., Choi, N., & Hong, S. (2001). School bullying and related psychopathology in elementary school students. *Journal of the Korean Neuropsychiatric Association, 40*(5), 876–884.
- Konishi, C., Hymel, S., Zumbo, B. D., Li, Z., Taki, M., Slee, P., Pepler, D., Sim, H., Craig, W., Swearer, S., & Kwak, K. (2009). Investigating the comparability of a self-report measure of childhood bullying across countries. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology, 24*(1), 82–93.
- Koo, H. (2007). A time line in the evolution of school bullying in differing social contexts. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 8*(1), 107–116.
- Korean Educational Development Institute (1998). *A study on school bullying*. Seoul, Republic of Korea: Korean Educational Development Institute.

- Korean Institute of Criminal Justice Policy (1997). *The actual condition and the preventing plans for school violence*. Seoul, Republic of Korea: Korean Institute of Criminal Justice Policy.
- Korean National Statistical Office (2006). *Report on the population and housing census: 2005*. Daejeon, Republic of Korea: Korean National Statistical Office.
- LaGrange, T. C., & Silverman, R. A. (1999). Low self-control and opportunity: Testing the general theory of crime as an explanation for gender differences in delinquency. *Criminology*, 37(1), 41–72.
- LaLonde, M. (1995). The Canadian experience: School policing perspective. *School Safety* (Fall), 20–21.
- Lawrence, R. (2007). *School crime and juvenile justice* (2nd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Lee, C. (2000). *Analysis of differences in personality traits and sociometric status of bully/victim*. Cheongwon-gun, Republic of Korea: Korea National University of Education.
- Lee, C. (2010). Personal and interpersonal correlates of bullying behaviors among Korean middle school students. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 25(1), 152–176.
- Lee, C., & Song, J. (2012). Functions of parental involvement and effects of school climate on bullying behaviors among South Korean middle school students. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 27(12), 2437–2464.
- Lee, J. (2006). Collective ostracism among youth in Korea. In C. Daiute, Z. Beykont, C. Higson-Smith, L. Nucci (Eds.), *International perspectives on youth conflict and development* (pp. 124–138). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lee, J., Jang, H., & Bouffard, L. A. (2011). Maternal employment and juvenile delinquency: A longitudinal study of Korean adolescents. *Crime & Delinquency*, 59(7), 1064–1084.
- Lee, K. (2016, June 28). Police officers caught having ‘affairs’ with students under their aegis. *Korea Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.koreatimes.co.kr>
- Lee, M., & Larson, R. (2000). The Korean “examination hell”: Long hours of studying, distress, and depression. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 29(2), 249–271.
- Lee, S. G. (2005). Effects of eco-systemic factors on peer violence at middle schools. *Journal of the Korean Society of Child Welfare*, 19, 141–170.

- Lieber, M. J., Nalla, M. K., & Farnsworth, M. (1998). Explaining juveniles' attitudes toward the police. *Justice Quarterly*, *15*(1), 151–174.
- Long, M., & Cullen, S. (2008). United Kingdom: Democratic policing – Global change from a comparative perspective. In M. R. Haberfeld & I. Cerrah (Eds.), *Comparative policing: The struggle for democratization* (pp. 277–299). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Longshore, D. (1998). Self-control and criminal opportunity: A prospective test of the general theory of crime. *Social Problems*, *45*(1), 103–114.
- Longshore, D., Chang, E., Hsieh, S., & Messina, N. (2004). Self-control and social bonds: A combined control perspective on deviance. *Crime & Delinquency*, *50*(4), 542–564.
- Longshore, D., & Turner, S. (1998). Self-control and criminal opportunity: Cross-sectional test of the general theory of crime. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *25*(1), 81–98.
- Ma, X. (2001). Bullying and being bullied: To what extent are bullies also victims? *American Educational Research Journal*, *38*(2), 351–370.
- MacNeil, G. (2002). School bullying: An overview. In L. Rapp-Paglicci, A. Roberts, & J. Woodarski (Eds.), *Handbook of violence* (pp. 247–261). New York: Wiley.
- MacNeil, G., & Stewart, C. (2000). Crisis intervention with school violence problems and volatile situations. In A.R. Roberts (Ed.), *Crisis intervention handbook: Assessment, treatment and research* (2nd ed., pp. 229–248). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Marachi, R., Astor, R. A., & Benbenishty, R. (2007). Effects of teacher avoidance of school policies on student victimization. *School Psychology International*, *28*(4), 501–518.
- Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion and motivation. *Psychological Review*, *98*, 224–253.
- Matsueda, R. L. (1989). The dynamics of moral beliefs and minor delinquency. *Social Forces*, *68*(2), 428–457.
- May, D. C., Fessel, S. D., & Means, S. (2004). Predictors of principals' perceptions of school resource officer effectiveness in Kentucky. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, *29*(1), 75–93.
- Maxfield, G., & Babbie, E. R. (2011). *Research methods for criminal justice and criminology* (7th ed.). Stamford, CT: Cengage Learning.

- Mazerolle, P., & Maahs, J. (2000). General strain and delinquency: An alternative examination of conditioning influences. *Justice Quarterly*, 17(4), 753–778.
- Mazerolle, P., Piquero, A., & Capowich, G. E. (2003). Examining the links between strain, situational and dispositional anger, and crime: Further specifying and testing general strain theory. *Youth & Society*, 35(2), 131–157.
- McConville, D. W., & Cornell, D. G. (2003). Aggressive attitudes predict aggressive behavior in middle school students. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 11(3), 179–187.
- McDevitt, J., & Panniello, J. (2005). *National assessment of school resource officer programs: Survey of students in three large new SRO programs*. Boston: Northeastern University.
- McDonough, B. (2002). Crime prevention in public housing. In D. M. Robinson (Ed.), *Policing and crime prevention* (pp. 115–125). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- McNeece, C. A., & Jackson, S. (2004). Juvenile justice policy: Current trends and 21st-century issues. In A. R. Roberts (Ed.), *Juvenile justice sourcebook: Past, present, and future* (pp. 41–68). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Merton, R. K. (1957). Continuities in the theory of reference groups and social structure. In R. K. Merton, *Social theory and social structure*, 2nd ed. (pp. 281–386). Glencoe, IL: Free Press.
- Merton, R. K., & Kitt, A. S. (1950). Contributions to the theory of reference group behavior. In R. K. Merton & P. F. Lazarsfeld (Eds.), *Continuities in social research: Studies in the scope and method of the American soldier* (pp. 40–105). Glencoe, IL: Free Press.
- Miller, A., & Chandler, K. (2003). *Violence in U.S. public schools: 2000 school survey on crime and safety*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.
- Miller, C., & Lowen, C. (2012). *Bullying prevention and intervention: Protecting children and teens from physical, emotional, and online bullying*. New York: Alpha Books.
- Ministry of Education (2014). Education system. *Republic of Korea Ministry of Education*. Retrieved from http://english.moe.go.kr/web/1692/site/contents/en/en_0203.jsp
- Ministry of Education (2016). *2016 Second Wave School Violence Survey Results*. Seoul: Republic of Korea Ministry of Education.

- Moon, B., Blurton, D., & McCluskey, J. D. (2008). General strain theory and delinquency: Focusing on the influences of key strain characteristics on delinquency. *Crime & Delinquency*, 54(4), 582–613.
- Moon, B., Hays, K., & Blurton, D. (2009). General strain theory, key strains, and deviance. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 37(1), 98–106.
- Moon, B., Hwang, H., & McCluskey, J. D. (2011). Causes of school bullying: Empirical test of a general theory of crime, differential association theory, and general strain theory. *Crime & Delinquency*, 57(6), 849–877.
- Moon, B., McCluskey, J. D., Blurton, D., & Hwang, H. (2014). Parent and teacher practices as sources of low self-control: Evidence from Korea. *Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice*, 12(2), 167–187.
- Moon, B., & Morash, M. (2004). Adaptation of theory for alternative cultural contexts: Agnew's general strain theory in South Korea. *Journal of International and Comparative Criminal Justice*, 28(2), 77–104.
- Moon, B., & Morash, M. (2012). General strain theory as a basis for the design of school interventions. *Crime & Delinquency*, 59(6), 886–909.
- Moon, B., Morash, M., & McCluskey, J. D. (2012). General strain theory and school bullying: An empirical test in South Korea. *Crime & Delinquency*, 58(6), 827–855.
- Moon, B., Morash, M., McCluskey, C. P., & Hwang, H. (2009). A comprehensive test of general strain theory: Key strains, situational- and trait-based negative emotions, conditioning factors, and delinquency. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 46(2), 182–212.
- Moore, C. (2013). Law enforcement officers patrolling schools. *Law Enforcement Technology*, (May), 38.
- Moore, M. H. (1992). Problem-solving and community policing. In M. Tonry & N. Morris (Eds.), *Crime and justice: An annual review of research – Vol. 15: Modern policing* (pp. 99–158). Chicago: Chicago University Press.
- Morash, M., & Moon, B. (2007). Gender differences in the effects of strain on three types of delinquency: A test of theory outside of the United States. *Youth & Society*, 38(3), 300–321.
- Morgan, G. A., Leech, N.L., Gloeckner, G. W., & Barrett, K. C. (2004). *SPSS for introductory statistics: Use and interpretation* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Moskos, P. C. (n.d.). The real Peel: five principles of policing. Retrieved from http://petermoskos.com/files/Real_Peel.pdf
- Mullin-Rindler, N. (2003). *Relational aggression and bullying: It's more than just a girl thing*. Wellesley, MA: Center for Research on Women.
- Munro, B. H. (2005). *Statistical methods for health care research* (5th ed.). Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
- Naito, T., & Gielen, U. P. (2005). Bullying and Ijime in Japanese schools. In F. L. Denmark, H. H. Krauss, R. W. Wesner, E. Midlarsky, & U. P. Gielen (Eds.), *Violence in schools: Cross-national and cross-cultural perspectives* (pp. 169–190). New York: Springer.
- Nansel, T. R., Overpeck, M., Pilla, R.S., Ruan, W. J., Simons-Morton, B., & Scheidt, P. (2001). Bullying behaviors among US youth: Prevalence and association with psychosocial adjustment. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 285(16), 2094–2100.
- National Police Agency (2005, December 31). Creating a safer school environment. Republic of Korea National Police Agency. Retrieved March 1, 2006, from <http://www.police.go.kr>
- National Police Agency (2015, December 2). Today I'm a police officer, too! Youth police school daily life. *Republic of Korea National Police Agency*. Retrieved from <http://polinlove.tistory.com/10839>
- National Youth Commission (2003). *School violence findings through the Internet in the first six months of 2003 (1 January 2003–30 June 2003)*. Seoul, Republic of Korea: National Youth Commission.
- Norušis, M. J. (2010). *PASW statistics 18: Guide to data analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Olweus, D. (1978). *Aggression in the schools: Bullies and whipping boys*. New York: John Wiley.
- Olweus, D. (1991). Bully/victim problems among school children: Basic facts and effects of a school-based intervention program. In K. Rubin & D. Pepler (Eds.), *The development and treatment of childhood aggression* (pp. 411–448). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Olweus, D. (1993a). *Bullying at school: What we know and what we can do*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

- Olweus, D. (1993b). Bully/victim problems among school-children: Long-term consequences and an effective intervention program. In S. Hodgins (Ed.), *Mental disorder and crime*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Olweus, D. (1994). Bullying at school: Long-term outcomes for the victims and an effective school-based intervention program. In L. R. Huesmann (Ed.), *Aggressive behavior: Current perspectives*. New York: Plenum.
- Olweus, D. (2004). The Olweus bullying prevention programme: Design and implementation issues and a new national initiative in Norway. In P. K. Smith, D. Pepler, & K. Rigby (Eds.), *Bullying in schools: How successful can interventions be?* (pp. 13–36). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Olweus, D. (2005). A useful evaluation design, and effects of the Olweus bullying prevention programme. *Psychology, Crime and Law*, *11*(4), 389–402.
- Pagano, R. R. (2004). *Understanding Statistics in the Behavioral Sciences* (7th ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson/Wadsworth.
- Park, E. (2002). Bullying (Wangtta) study in elementary schools. *Open Education Practice Study*, *5*, 145–166.
- Park, J. A. (2013, February 16). Finding the cause of juvenile crimes. *Korea Joongang Daily*. Retrieved from <http://koreajoongangdaily.joins.com>
- Park, S. (1999). *Wangtta: From causes to solutions*. Seoul, Republic of Korea: Uri Education.
- Peel, R., Rowan, C., & Mayne, R. (1829). *Sanction of establishment of police: No. 8 augmentation*. London: Home Office.
- Pepler, D. J., & Craig, W. M. (1995). A peek behind the fence: Naturalistic observations of aggressive children with remote audiovisual recording. *Developmental Psychology*, *31*(4), 548–553.
- Pepler, D. J., Craig, W. M., Ziegler, S., & Charach, A. (1994). An evaluation of an anti-bullying intervention in Toronto schools. *Canadian Journal of Community Mental Health*, *13*(2), 95–110.
- Perrone, D., Sullivan, C. J., Pratt, T. C., & Margaryan, S. (2004). Parental efficacy, self-control, and delinquency: A test of a general theory of crime on a nationally representative sample of youth. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, *48*(3), 298–312.
- Perry, D. G., Perry, L. C., & Rasmussen, P. (1986). Cognitive social learning mediators of aggression. *Child Development*, *57*(3), 700–711.

- Piquero, N., & Sealock, M. D. (2000). Generalizing general strain theory: An examination of an offending population. *Justice Quarterly*, 17(3), 449–484.
- Piquero, N., & Sealock, M. D. (2004). Gender and general strain theory: A preliminary test of Broidy and Agnew's gender/GST hypotheses. *Justice Quarterly*, 21(1), 125–158.
- Pratt, T., & Cullen, F. (2000). The empirical status of Gottfredson and Hirschi's general theory of crime: A meta-analysis. *Criminology*, 38(3), 931–964.
- Reichel, P. L. (2012). *Comparative criminal justice systems: A topical approach* (6th ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- Reis, J., Trockel, M., & Mulhall, P. (2007). Individual and school predictors of middle school aggression. *Youth Society*, 38(3), 322–347.
- Reith, C. (1948). *A short history of the British police*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Rigby, K. (2004). Addressing bullying in schools: Theoretical perspectives and their implications. *School Psychology International*, 25(3), 287–300.
- Rigby, K., & Slee, P. T. (1999). Suicidal ideation among adolescent school children, involvement in bully/victim problems and perceived low social support. *Suicide and Life-threatening Behavior*, 29(2), 119–130.
- Rose, S., Spinks, N., & Canhoto, A. I. (2015). *Management research: Applying the principles*. New York: Routledge.
- Rosenbaum, D. P., Flewelling, R. L., Bailey, S. L., Ringwalt, C. L., & Wilkinson, D. L. (1994). Cops in the classroom: A longitudinal evaluation of Drug Abuse Resistance Education (DARE). *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 31(1), 3–31.
- Salmivalli, C., Lagerspetz, K., Bjorkqvist, K., Osterman, K., & Kaukiainen, A. (1996). Bullying as a group process: Participant roles and their relations to social status within the group. *Aggressive Behavior*, 22(1), 1–15.
- Salmivalli, C., & Voeten, M. (2004). Connections between attitudes, group norms, and behaviour in bullying situations. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 28(3), 246–258.
- Salmon, G., James, A., Cassidy, E. L., & Javaloyes, M. A. (2000). Bullying a review: Presentation to an adolescent psychiatric service and within a school for emotionally and behaviourally disturbed children. *Clinical Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 5(4), 563–579.

- Sampson, R. J., & Laub, J. H. (1997). A life-course theory of cumulative disadvantage and stability of delinquency. In T.P. Thornberry (Ed.), *Developmental theories of crime and delinquency* (pp. 133–155). New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Publishers.
- Sanborn, J., & Salerno, A. W. (2005). *The juvenile justice system: Law and process*. Los Angeles: Roxbury Publishing, Co.
- Scheff, T. J., Retzinger, S. M., & Ryan, M. T. (1989). Crime, violence, and self-esteem: Review and proposals. In A. M. Mecca, N. J. Smelser, & J. Vasconcellos (Eds.), *The social importance of self-esteem* (pp. 165–199). Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Sellers, R. (2010, August 26). Soldiers helping soldiers—Battle buddies assist in military training, life. *U.S. Army Public Affairs*. Retrieved from <http://www.army.mil/>
- Seo, M. J., & Kim, K. Y. (2004). Personality and environmental characteristics of children who are bullies and/or victims. *Korean Journal of Child Studies*, 25(2), 93–108.
- Seoul Metropolitan Police Agency (2015, August 31). There's a youth police academy in our neighborhood? Isn't there? *Seoul Metropolitan Police Agency*. Retrieved from <http://smartsmpa.tistory.com/2559>
- Shaffir, W. B., & Stebbins, R. A. (2003). Introduction to fieldwork. In M. R. Pogrebin (Ed.), *Qualitative approaches to criminal justice: Perspectives from the field* (pp. 2–16). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Shin, J. (2016, July 4). Korea debates school police system after officers engage in sexual relationships with high-schoolers. *Korea Bizwire*. Retrieved from <http://koreabizwire.com>
- Shin, Y. (2000). *A comparison study in bullying of middle school students: Focus on social environment*. Seoul, Republic of Korea: Chung-ang University.
- Siann, G., Callaghan, M., Glissov, P., Lockhart, R., & Rawson, L. (1994). Who gets bullied? The effect of school, gender, and ethnic group. *Educational Research*, 36(2), 123–134.
- Simons, R. L., Wu, C., Conger, R. D., & Lorenz, F. O. (1994). Two routes to delinquency: Differences between early and late starters in the impact of parenting and deviant peers. *Criminology*, 32(2), 247–276.
- Skolnick, J. H. (2011). *Justice without trial: Law enforcement in democratic society*. New Orleans: Quid Pro Books.
- Slaby, R., & Guerra, N. (1988). Cognitive mediators of aggression in adolescent offenders. *Developmental Psychology*, 24(4), 580–588.

- Slee, P. T., & Rigby, K. (1993). The relationship of Eysenck's personality factors and self-esteem to bully-victim behaviors in Australia. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 14(2), 371–373.
- Smith, J. D., Schneider, B., Smith, P. K., & Ananiadou, K. (2004). The effectiveness of whole-school anti-bullying programs: A synthesis of evaluation research. *School Psychology Review*, 33(4), 548–561.
- Smith, P. K. (2010). Bullying in primary and secondary schools: psychological and organizational comparisons. In S. R. Jimerson, S. M. Swearer, & D. L. Espelage (Eds.), *Handbook of bullying in schools: An international perspective* (pp. 137–150). New York: Routledge.
- Smith, P. K., & Brian, P. (2000). Bullying in school: Lessons from two decades of research. *Aggressive Behavior*, 26(1), 1–9.
- Smith, P. K., Cowie, H., Olafsson, R. F., & Liefoghe, A. P. D. (2002). Definitions of bullying: A comparison of terms used, and age and gender differences, in a fourteen-country international comparison. *Child Development*, 73(4), 1119–1133.
- Smith P. K., Pepler, D., & Rigby, K. (Eds.). (2004). *Bullying in schools: How successful can interventions be?* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Smith, P. K., Salmivalli, C., & Cowie, H. (2012). Effectiveness of school-based programs to reduce bullying: a commentary. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, 8(4), 433–441.
- Sourander, A., Jensen, P., Rönning, J. A., Elonheimo, H., Niemelä, S., Helenius, H., et al. (2007). Childhood bullies and victims and their risk of criminality in late adolescence: The Finnish “from a boy to a man” study. *Archives of Pediatrics and Adolescent Medicine*, 161(6), 546–552.
- Stephenson, P., & Smith, D. (1989). Bullying in the junior high. In D. Tattum & D. Lane (Eds.), *Bullying in schools* (pp. 45–57). Stoke-on-Trent: Trentham Books.
- Suits, D. (2014, October 30). Wingman now part of BMT culture. *U.S. Air Force News*. Retrieved from <http://www.af.mil/News/>
- Sullivan, K., Cleary, M., & Sullivan, G. (2004). *Bullying in secondary schools: What it looks like and how to manage it*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Sutherland, E. H. (1947). *Principles of criminology*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott.
- Taki, M., Slee, P., Sim, H., Hymel, S., & Pepler, D. (2006, July). *An international study of bullying in five Pacific Rim countries*. Paper presented at the biennial meeting of the International Society for the Study of Behavioural Development, Melbourne, Australia.

- Tarde, G. (1912). *Penal philosophy*. Boston: Little, Brown.
- Thornberry, T. P., Moore, M., & Christenson, R. L. (1985). The effect of dropping out of high school on subsequent criminal behavior. *Criminology*, 23, 3–18.
- Ttofi, M. M., & Farrington, D. P. (2008a). Bullying: Short-term and long term effects, and the importance of defiance theory in explanation and prevention. *Victim and Offenders*, 3(2-3), 289–312.
- Ttofi, M. M., & Farrington, D. P. (2008b). Reintegrative shaming theory, moral emotions and bullying. *Aggressive Behavior*, 34(4), 352–368.
- Ttofi, M. M., & Farrington, D. P. (2009). What works in preventing bullying: Effective elements of anti-bullying programmes. *Journal of Aggression, Conflict and Peace Research*, 1(1), 13–24.
- Ttofi, M. M., & Farrington, D. P. (2011). Effectiveness of school-based programs to reduce bullying: A systematic and meta-analytic review. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, 7(1), 27–56.
- Ttofi, M. M., & Farrington, D. P. (2012). Bullying prevention programs: The importance of peer intervention, disciplinary methods and age variations. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, 8(4), 443–462.
- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2001). *Youth violence: A report of the Surgeon General*. Rockville, MD: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.
- Utterly Global (2010a). *Bullying: Ignorance is no defense*. Garwood, NJ: Utterly Global.
- Utterly Global (2010b). *Stand up speak out ... End bullying*. Garwood, NJ: Utterly Global.
- Van Goethem, A. A. J., Scholte, R. H. J., & Wiers, R. W. (2010). Explicit- and implicit bullying attitudes in relation to bullying behavior. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 38(6), 829–842.
- Vreeman, R. C., & Carroll, A. E. (2007). A systematic review of school-based interventions to prevent bullying. *Archives of Pediatrics and Adolescent Medicine*, 161(1), 78–88.
- Warr, M. (2005). Making delinquent friends: Adult supervision and children's affiliations. *Criminology*, 43(1), 77–106.

- Wei, H., Williams, J. H., Chen, J., & Chang, H. (2010). The effects of individual characteristics, teacher practice, and school organizational factors on students' bullying: A multilevel analysis of public middle schools. *Children and Youth Science Review*, 32(1), 137–143.
- Williams, K. R., & Guerra, N. G. (2007). Prevalence and predictors of internet bullying. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 41(6), S14–S21.
- Williams, M. N., Grajales, C. A. G., & Kurkiewicz, D. (2013). Assumptions of multiple regression: Correcting two misconceptions. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*, 18(11), 1–14.
- Wilson, J. Q. (1968). *Varieties of police behavior*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Winfrey, O. (2000, November). Oprah talks to Elie Wiesel. *O Magazine*. Retrieved from <http://www.oprah.com/omagazine/Oprah-Interviews-Elie-Wiesel>
- Wong, D. (2004). School bullying and tackling strategies in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 48(5), 537–553.
- Yang, J. H. (2004). The factors related to the bullying behavior of middle school students. In *The 1st Conference of the Korean Youth Panel Study* (pp. 65–85). Seoul, Republic of Korea: National Youth Policy Institute.
- Yoon, J., Bauman, S., Choi, T., Hutchinson, A. S. (2011). How South Korean teachers handle an incident of school bullying. *School Psychology International*, 32(3), 312–329.
- Yoon, J. S. (2004). Predicting teacher interventions in bullying situations. *Education and Treatment of Children*, 27(1), 37–45.
- Yu, A. B., & Yang, K. S. (1994). The nature of achievement motivation in collectivist societies. In U. Kim, H.C. Triandis, C. Kagichibase, S.C. Choi, & G. Yoon (Eds.), *Individualism and collectivism: Theory, method, and applications* (pp. 239–250). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yun, D. (2003). Rapid industrialization induced poor hometeaching and increased juvenile delinquents in South Korea. *Journal of the Korean Pediatric Society*, 46(10), 958–965.
- Yun, I., & Walsh, A. (2011). The stability of self-control among South Korean Adolescents. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 55(3), 445–459.

Appendix 1

Study Introduction Letter (Student and Parent Version)



NOVA SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY
College of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences

Stand By Me: The Effects of a Police Anti-Bullying Presentation on South Korean High School Students' Attitudes About Bullying and Willingness to Intervene

Principal Investigator:

Kenny Loui
Assistant Professor
Catholic University of Daegu
Department of Police Administration
13-13 Hayang-ro, Hayang-eup
Gyeongsan-si, Gyeongsangbuk-do 38430
REPUBLIC OF KOREA

Tel. (ROK): (+82) 010-8976-9041
Tel. (USA): (+1) 415-670-0692
Email: kenny.loui@fulbrightmail.org

Nova Southeastern University
Institutional Review Board
3301 College Avenue
Fort Lauderdale, FL 33314-7796
U.S.A.

Tel.: (+1) 954-262-5369
Toll Free: (+1) 866-499-0790
Email: IRB@nsu.nova.edu

Description of the Study

Kenny Loui is a doctoral student at Nova Southeastern University engaged in research for the purpose of satisfying a requirement for a Ph.D. in criminal justice. The research to be undertaken will examine the role of ROK police officers in influencing South Korean youths' attitudes about bullying via an interactive anti-bullying presentation conducted in high school classrooms. Specifically, this study will address the question of whether an anti-bullying presentation conducted by police officers has any significant effect on high school students' attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying. Since 2013, the Republic of Korea national government has made it a priority to address Korea's "Four Social Evils," a term used to refer to sexual violence, domestic violence, school bullying, and unsafe food products. As part of this initiative, the government has urged police officers to take on a more active role in curbing bullying and violence in schools, which is an impetus for this research study.

Two schools will be involved in the study—a "treatment group" school and "comparison group" school. The treatment group school will be administered a police-conducted bullying prevention presentation and a survey examining students' attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying. The comparison group school will only be administered the survey without the presentation. Overall, approximately 100 to 150 students will be involved in the study—about 50 to 75 students from the treatment group school and about 50 to 75 students from the control group school.

Overall, given the paucity of research on the topic of South Korean law enforcement's role in anti-bullying initiatives, one of the overarching goals of this study is to serve as the initial "spark" to encourage academics and policymakers to further engage in a dialogue on solutions for dealing with bullying and school violence—a serious problem for today's youth, not only in the Republic of Korea but in other nations around the world—and the appropriate role of police officers in this area. It is the researcher's hope that the findings of this study will be utilized by other interested

Page 1 of 3

parties (e.g., police administrators, government officials, school administrators, and community/non-profit groups dealing with bullying and school violence) who may be developing their own bullying prevention presentations, workshops, and programs; as well as used to contribute to the overall safety and welfare of youth in the Republic of Korea—and across the globe—who are victims, or may be potential victims, of bullying and school violence.

Description of the “Stand By Me” Bullying Prevention Presentation

The title of the presentation to be administered to the treatment group as part of this research study is *Stand By Me: Bullying Prevention and Bystander Empowerment*, a title which emphasizes that the prevention of bullying—be it physical, verbal, relational, or cyber—is not an individual effort, but a team effort. The *Stand By Me* program’s mission statement, as implied in the title, is: “You are not alone. We can stop bullying and school violence *together*.” To elaborate, the project will focus on imbuing in youth an anti-bullying mindset, while empowering them to become actively involved in bullying prevention initiatives in their respective schools. In that respect, the project’s goals and objectives are multi-tiered, emphasizing three aspects of bullying: the bullies themselves, victims of bullying, and bystanders. Special attention will be paid to this latter category. The presentation, which may be administered by one or more police officers, will address these three types of individuals, while encouraging students to be proactive in being “anti-bullies” should they find themselves in any of these three roles.

The presentation will be designed based on U.S. programs which utilize “best practices” in bullying intervention and prevention, and “what works?” research on bullying, while adapting and modifying the content to suit a Korean audience. The presentation will be a “one-shot” presentation conducted by a police officer (or team of police officers) within a one-hour time frame. Overall, the primary objective is to alter students’ attitudes about bullying—making them less tolerant of bullying in their schools, while encouraging them to intervene to prevent incidences of bullying they may directly witness or be aware of. In brief, emphasizing the traditional value of collectivism inherent in Korean culture, the overarching message to be conveyed to students participating in the presentation is that “we are all in this together.”

About the Researcher

Kenny Loui is a doctoral student at Nova Southeastern University and is working on completing a Ph.D. in criminal justice with a specialization in juvenile justice. He is currently an assistant professor of police administration at the Catholic University of Daegu and is also a captain in the Civil Air Patrol, U.S. Air Force Auxiliary. Professor Loui has been a faculty member of the Catholic University of Daegu since 2011 and teaches courses in comparative criminal justice and English communication skills for police officers. Professor Loui joined the Civil Air Patrol in 2010 and has held several squadron staff positions, including public affairs officer and information technology officer, and is qualified to serve as an aircrew mission commander and ground search-and-rescue team leader during search-and-rescue missions and disaster relief operations. Professor Loui graduated from San Francisco State University with a B.A. in criminal justice (*summa cum laude*, *Phi Beta Kappa*) and an M.A. in political science, and also studied international security at Stanford University. He has also received emergency management training from the Federal Emergency Management Agency (U.S. Department of Homeland Security), the Civil Air Patrol’s National Emergency Services Academy, and the San Francisco Fire Department.

In 2008, Professor Loui received a Fulbright English Teaching Assistant Fellowship to the Republic of Korea, and served as an ETA at a high school in Pohang and as a Public Affairs Intern at the U.S.

Embassy in Seoul. Over the years, Professor Loui has been involved in many volunteer activities focused on youth mentoring, including serving as a training officer for the Young Falcons of Korea and as an advisor for the Alumni-Youth Leadership Project, a youth diplomacy and leadership program for select Korean high school students sponsored by the U.S. Embassy in Seoul. In 2011, he was awarded the U.S. President's Call to Service Award (Lifetime Volunteer Service Award) for his commitment to volunteerism and youth mentoring in the United States and the Republic of Korea.

Closing Remarks

Your participation is invaluable to this research project and will undoubtedly have a positive impact on helping to develop and improve anti-bullying programs (especially school-based programs and those involving police officers) in the Republic of Korea and the United States, and by extension, help to prevent future incidences of bullying and school violence which affect so many youths in Korea and around the globe. Please review this info sheet with your parents and review the attached assent form and parental consent form for additional information about this research study and what specifically you will be asked to do during the study. Please note that before you can participate in the study, you must complete and sign the assent form and your parents or guardians must complete and sign the parental consent form. If you or your parents have any questions about this study, you may talk to your teacher or contact Professor Kenny Loui directly at 010-8976-9041 or kenny.loui@fulbrightmail.org.

Appendix 2

Study Introduction Letter (School Version)



NOVA SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY
College of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences

Stand By Me: The Effects of a Police Anti-Bullying Presentation on South Korean High School Students' Attitudes About Bullying and Willingness to Intervene

Principal Investigator:

Kenny Loui
Assistant Professor
Catholic University of Daegu
Department of Police Administration
13-13 Hayang-ro, Hayang-eup
Gyeongsan-si, Gyeongsangbuk-do 38430
REPUBLIC OF KOREA

Tel. (ROK): (+82) 010-8976-9041
Tel. (USA): (+1) 415-670-0692
Email: kenny.loui@fulbrightmail.org

Nova Southeastern University
Institutional Review Board
3301 College Avenue
Fort Lauderdale, FL 33314-7796
U.S.A.

Tel.: (+1) 954-262-5369
Toll Free: (+1) 866-499-0790
Email: IRB@nsu.nova.edu

Description of the Study

Kenny Loui is a doctoral student at Nova Southeastern University engaged in research for the purpose of satisfying a requirement for a Ph.D. in criminal justice. The research to be undertaken will examine the role of ROK police officers in influencing South Korean youths' attitudes about bullying via an interactive anti-bullying presentation conducted in high school classrooms. Specifically, this study will address the question of whether an anti-bullying presentation conducted by police officers has any significant effect on high school students' attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying. Since 2013, the Republic of Korea national government has made it a priority to address Korea's "Four Social Evils," a term used to refer to sexual violence, domestic violence, school bullying, and unsafe food products. As part of this initiative, the government has urged police officers to take on a more active role in curbing bullying and violence in schools, which is an impetus for this research study.

Two schools will be involved in the study—a "treatment group" school and "comparison group" school. Alternatively, if your school is able to provide the total number of students required for the study (a minimum of 100 to 150 students), the research can be done entirely at your school, without the need for additional participating schools. In this case, half of the participating students will be assigned to the treatment group and the other half will be assigned to the comparison group. Students from the treatment group will be administered a police-conducted bullying prevention presentation and thereafter, a survey examining their attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying. Students from the comparison group will only be administered the survey without the presentation. Overall, approximately 100 to 150 students will be involved in the study—about 50 to 75 students from the treatment group school(s) and about 50 to 75 students from the control group school(s).

Overall, given the paucity of research on the topic of South Korean law enforcement's role in anti-bullying initiatives, one of the overarching goals of this study is to serve as the initial "spark" to

Page 1 of 4

encourage academics and policymakers to further engage in a dialogue on solutions for dealing with bullying and school violence—a serious problem for today’s youth, not only in the Republic of Korea but in other nations around the world—and the appropriate role of police officers in this area. It is the researcher’s hope that the findings of this study will be utilized by other interested parties (e.g., police administrators, government officials, school administrators, and community/non-profit groups dealing with bullying and school violence) who may be developing their own bullying prevention presentations, workshops, and programs; as well as used to contribute to the overall safety and welfare of youth in the Republic of Korea—and across the globe—who are victims, or may be potential victims, of bullying and school violence.

Description of the “Stand By Me” Bullying Prevention Presentation

The title of the presentation to be administered to the treatment group as part of this research study is *Stand By Me: Bullying Prevention and Bystander Empowerment*, a title which emphasizes that the prevention of bullying—be it physical, verbal, relational, or cyber—is not an individual effort, but a team effort. The *Stand By Me* program’s mission statement, as implied in the title, is: “You are not alone. We can stop bullying and school violence *together*.” To elaborate, the project will focus on imbuing in youth an anti-bullying mindset, while empowering them to become actively involved in bullying prevention initiatives in their respective schools. In that respect, the project’s goals and objectives are multi-tiered, emphasizing three aspects of bullying: the bullies themselves, victims of bullying, and bystanders. Special attention will be paid to this latter category. The presentation, which may be administered by one or more police officers, will address these three types of individuals, while encouraging students to be proactive in being “anti-bullies” should they find themselves in any of these three roles.

The presentation will be designed based on U.S. programs which utilize “best practices” in bullying intervention and prevention, and “what works?” research on bullying, while adapting and modifying the content to suit a Korean audience. The presentation will be a “one-shot” presentation conducted by a police officer (or team of police officers) within a one-hour time frame. Overall, the primary objective is to alter students’ attitudes about bullying—making them less tolerant of bullying in their schools, while encouraging them to intervene to prevent incidences of bullying they may directly witness or be aware of. In brief, emphasizing the traditional value of collectivism inherent in Korean culture, the overarching message to be conveyed to students participating in the presentation is that “we are all in this together.”

What You and Your Students Will Be Doing in This Study

If you are interested in having your students participate in this study as part of the **treatment group**, they will be asked to participate in all components of the study: the *Stand By Me* bullying prevention presentation and survey. The study will be conducted at your school at specific times and places (classroom, school library, school auditorium, etc.) to be determined in consultation between you and the researcher.

Students will be asked to participate in the *Stand By Me* presentation and then complete a survey gauging their attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to prevent bullying. The research can be completed within one to two hours on one day; about one hour for the presentation and about 10 to 15 minutes for the survey, and the remaining time allotted for Q&A if necessary. Students will then be presented certificates of participation and thank you gifts as a token of appreciation for their participation in the study.

The desired number of student participants from your school is approximately 50 to 75 students. Depending on your preference, the presentation and survey can be administered via one of the following options (or another option you suggest that will be convenient for you and your students): (1) during one of your class sessions, (2) sometime after school, or (3) on the weekend.

With regard to your role specifically, we merely ask for your support, cooperation and permission to have access to at least 50 to 75 of your students for participation in this study. In terms of your “active participation” in the study, that will depend on your personal preference, but you are welcome to “sit in” and directly observe the presentation and survey session. Furthermore, although the researcher will primarily be responsible for the development of the *Stand By Me* anti-bullying presentation, since you are a “subject matter expert” on your students, the researcher welcomes your input as to the topics that the presentation will cover; nevertheless, the researcher will have the final say as to what content is ultimately included or excluded from the presentation.

If you are interested in having your students participate in this study as part of the comparison group, they will be asked to participate in only the survey session. In brief, approximately 50 to 75 of your students (about the same number of students from the treatment group school) will be asked to complete the survey. This survey will be identical to the survey that will be administered to students in the treatment group and should take 10 to 15 minutes to complete. Students will then be given thank you gifts as a token of appreciation for their participation.

As noted in “Description of the Study” above, if your school is able to provide the total number of students required for the study (a minimum of 100 to 150 students), half of the students will be placed into the treatment group (presentation and survey) and half will be placed into the comparison group (survey only).

Regardless of whether your students participate as part of the treatment group or comparison group, all potential student participants will be required to complete and sign an assent form and their parents must complete and sign a consent form prior to students’ participation in the study. Participation by your students in this study is completely *voluntary*; they can choose not to participate or they may withdraw from the study at any point prior to completion of the study. Your students’ information will be kept private and confidential.

About the Researcher

Kenny Loui is a doctoral student at Nova Southeastern University and is working on completing a Ph.D. in criminal justice with a specialization in juvenile justice. He is currently an assistant professor of police administration at the Catholic University of Daegu and is also a captain in the Civil Air Patrol, U.S. Air Force Auxiliary. Professor Loui has been a faculty member of the Catholic University of Daegu since 2011 and teaches courses in comparative criminal justice and English communication skills for police officers. Professor Loui joined the Civil Air Patrol in 2010 and has held several squadron staff positions, including public affairs officer and information technology officer, and is qualified to serve as an aircrew mission commander and ground search-and-rescue team leader during search-and-rescue missions and disaster relief operations. Professor Loui graduated from San Francisco State University with a B.A. in criminal justice (*summa cum laude*, *Phi Beta Kappa*) and an M.A. in political science, and also studied international security at Stanford University. He has also received emergency management training from the Federal Emergency Management Agency (U.S. Department of Homeland Security), the Civil Air Patrol’s National Emergency Services Academy, and the San Francisco Fire Department.

In 2008, Professor Loui received a Fulbright English Teaching Assistant Fellowship to the Republic of Korea, and served as an ETA at a high school in Pohang and as a Public Affairs Intern at the U.S. Embassy in Seoul. Over the years, Professor Loui has been involved in many volunteer activities focused on youth mentoring, including serving as a training officer for the Young Falcons of Korea and as an advisor for the Alumni-Youth Leadership Project, a youth diplomacy and leadership program for select Korean high school students sponsored by the U.S. Embassy in Seoul. In 2011, he was awarded the U.S. President's Call to Service Award (Lifetime Volunteer Service Award) for his commitment to volunteerism and youth mentoring in the United States and the Republic of Korea.

Closing Remarks

Your participation is invaluable to this research project and will undoubtedly have a positive impact on helping to develop and improve anti-bullying programs (especially school-based programs and those involving police officers) in the Republic of Korea and the United States, and by extension, help to prevent future incidences of bullying and school violence which affect so many youths in Korea and around the globe. If you are interested in participating or have any questions about this study, please contact Professor Kenny Loui at 010-8976-9041 or kenny.loui@fulbrightmail.org.

Appendix 3

Study Introduction Letter / Information Sheet (Police Officer Version)



NOVA SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY
College of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences

Stand By Me: The Effects of a Police Anti-Bullying Presentation on South Korean High School Students' Attitudes About Bullying and Willingness to Intervene

Principal Investigator:

Kenny Loui
Assistant Professor
Catholic University of Daegu
Department of Police Administration
13-13 Hayang-ro, Hayang-eup
Gyeongsan-si, Gyeongsangbuk-do 38430
REPUBLIC OF KOREA

Tel. (ROK): (+82) 010-8976-9041
Tel. (USA): (+1) 415-670-0692
Email: kenny.loui@fulbrightmail.org

Nova Southeastern University
Institutional Review Board
3301 College Avenue
Fort Lauderdale, FL 33314-7796
U.S.A.

Tel.: (+1) 954-262-5369
Toll Free: (+1) 866-499-0790
Email: IRB@nsu.nova.edu

Description of the Study

Kenny Loui is a doctoral student at Nova Southeastern University engaged in research for the purpose of satisfying a requirement for a Ph.D. in criminal justice. The research to be undertaken will examine the role of ROK police officers in influencing South Korean youths' attitudes about bullying via an interactive anti-bullying presentation conducted in high school classrooms. Specifically, this study will address the question of whether an anti-bullying presentation conducted by police officers has any significant effect on high school students' attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying. Since 2013, the Republic of Korea national government has made it a priority to address Korea's "Four Social Evils," a term used to refer to sexual violence, domestic violence, school bullying, and unsafe food products. As part of this initiative, the government has urged police officers to take on a more active role in curbing bullying and violence in schools, which is an impetus for this research study.

Two schools will be involved in the study—a "treatment group" school and "comparison group" school. The treatment group school will be administered a police-conducted bullying prevention presentation and a survey examining their attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying. The comparison group school will only be administered the survey without the presentation. Overall, approximately 100 to 150 students will be involved in the study—about 50 to 75 students from the treatment group school and about 50 to 75 students from the control group school.

Overall, given the paucity of research on the topic of South Korean law enforcement's role in anti-bullying initiatives, one of the overarching goals of this study is to serve as the initial "spark" to encourage academics and policymakers to further engage in a dialogue on solutions for dealing with bullying and school violence—a serious problem for today's youth, not only in the Republic of Korea but in other nations around the world—and the appropriate role of police officers in this area. It is the researcher's hope that the findings of this study will be utilized by other interested

Page 1 of 3

parties (e.g., police administrators, government officials, school administrators, and community/non-profit groups dealing with bullying and school violence) who may be developing their own bullying prevention presentations, workshops, and programs; as well as used to contribute to the overall safety and welfare of youth in the Republic of Korea—and across the globe—who are victims, or may be potential victims, of bullying and school violence.

Description of the “Stand By Me” Bullying Prevention Presentation

The title of the presentation to be administered to the treatment group as part of this research study is *Stand By Me: Bullying Prevention and Bystander Empowerment*, a title which emphasizes that the prevention of bullying—be it physical, verbal, relational, or cyber—is not an individual effort, but a team effort. The *Stand By Me* program’s mission statement, as implied in the title, is: “You are not alone. We can stop bullying and school violence *together*.” To elaborate, the project will focus on imbuing in youth an anti-bullying mindset, while empowering them to become actively involved in bullying prevention initiatives in their respective schools. In that respect, the project’s goals and objectives are multi-tiered, emphasizing three aspects of bullying: the bullies themselves, victims of bullying, and bystanders. Special attention will be paid to this latter category. The presentation, which may be administered by one or more police officers, will address these three types of individuals, while encouraging students to be proactive in being “anti-bullies” should they find themselves in any of these three roles.

The presentation will be designed based on U.S. programs which utilize “best practices” in bullying intervention and prevention, and “what works?” research on bullying, while adapting and modifying the content to suit a Korean audience. The presentation will be a “one-shot” presentation conducted by a police officer (or team of police officers) within a one- to two-hour time frame, supplemented by student interactive group activities and projects (e.g., preparation of a skit or oral presentation on the topic of bullying or creation of anti-bullying campaign posters). Overall, the primary objective is to alter students’ attitudes about bullying—making them less tolerant of bullying in their schools, while encouraging them to intervene to prevent incidences of bullying they may directly witness or be aware of. In brief, emphasizing the traditional value of collectivism inherent in Korean culture, the overarching message to be conveyed to students participating in the presentation is that “we are all in this together.”

What You Will Be Doing in This Study

In brief, you will be serving as the presenter and facilitator of the *Stand By Me (SBM)* bullying prevention presentation. You will visit a high school and give the presentation to students in the designated “treatment group.” Depending on the school, all participating students may be grouped together or divided into multiple smaller groups. Thus, you may be required to give the presentation more than once. Each presentation will last approximately one hour; thus, your minimum time commitment to the study will be at least one hour (plus travel time to and from your place of residence and the school, and as much time you feel is necessary to adequately review and prepare for your presentation). The presentation, and any interaction with students, will be conducted entirely **in Korean**, your native language, so if you feel that your English communication skills are limited, please do not let this discourage you from participating in this study.

Upon completion of your presentation, all students will be awarded certificates of participation.

In brief, we are looking for police officers with the following attributes to participate:

- Prior experience with, or an interest in, teaching and/or youth mentoring
- Ability to quickly develop a rapport with youth (high school-aged students)
- Strong oral communication and interpersonal communication skills
- Lively, energetic, and enthusiastic personality

Only one police officer is required to conduct the presentation, but the participation of additional officers is permitted and desirable (preferably two, but no more than three, officers per presentation). Thus, if any of your police officer colleagues may be interested in participating as a presenter, please pass along to them a copy of this information sheet.

About the Researcher

Kenny Loui is a doctoral student at Nova Southeastern University and is working on completing a Ph.D. in criminal justice with a specialization in juvenile justice. He is currently an assistant professor of police administration at the Catholic University of Daegu and is also a captain in the Civil Air Patrol, U.S. Air Force Auxiliary. Professor Loui has been a faculty member of the Catholic University of Daegu since 2011 and teaches courses in comparative criminal justice and English communication skills for police officers. Professor Loui joined the Civil Air Patrol in 2010 and has held several squadron staff positions, including public affairs officer and information technology officer, and is qualified to serve as an aircrew mission commander and ground search-and-rescue team leader during search-and-rescue missions and disaster relief operations. Professor Loui graduated from San Francisco State University with a B.A. in criminal justice (*summa cum laude*, *Phi Beta Kappa*) and an M.A. in political science, and also studied international security at Stanford University. He has also received emergency management training from the Federal Emergency Management Agency (U.S. Department of Homeland Security), the Civil Air Patrol's National Emergency Services Academy, and the San Francisco Fire Department.

Before moving to Korea, Professor Loui worked for the Federal Bureau of Investigation and was assigned to FBI Headquarters, the Legal Attaché Office in the U.S. Embassy in Tokyo, and the San Francisco Field Office. In 2008, he received a Fulbright English Teaching Assistant Fellowship to the Republic of Korea, and served as an ETA at a high school in Pohang and as a Public Affairs Intern at the U.S. Embassy in Seoul. Over the years, Professor Loui has been involved in many volunteer activities focused on youth mentoring, including serving as a training officer for the Young Falcons of Korea and as an advisor for the Alumni-Youth Leadership Project, a youth diplomacy and leadership program for select Korean high school students sponsored by the U.S. Embassy in Seoul. In 2011, he was awarded the U.S. President's Call to Service Award (Lifetime Volunteer Service Award) for his commitment to volunteerism and youth mentoring in the United States and the Republic of Korea.

Closing Remarks

Your participation is invaluable to this research project and will undoubtedly have a positive impact on helping to develop and improve anti-bullying programs (especially school-based programs and those involving police officers) in the Republic of Korea and the United States, and by extension, help to prevent future incidences of bullying and school violence which affect so many youths in Korea and around the globe. If you are interested in participating or have any questions about this study, please contact Professor Kenny Loui at 010-8976-9041 or kenny.loui@fulbrightmail.org.

Appendix 4 Parental Consent Form (Treatment Group Version)



NOVA SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY
College of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences

Consent Form for Participation in the Research Study Entitled “Stand By Me: The Effects of a Police Anti-Bullying Presentation on South Korean High School Students’ Attitudes About Bullying and Willingness to Intervene”

Funding Source: None.

IRB Protocol #: 01291606Exp

Principal Investigator:

Kenny Loui
Catholic University of Daegu
Department of Police Administration
13-13 Hayang-ro, Hayang-eup
Gyeongsan-si, Gyeongsangbuk-do 38430
REPUBLIC OF KOREA
Tel. (ROK): (+82) 010-8976-9041
Tel. (USA): (+1) 415-670-0692

Co-Investigator (Faculty Advisor)

Grace A. Telesco, Ph.D.
Nova Southeastern University
Department of Justice & Human Services
3301 College Avenue
Fort Lauderdale, Florida 33314-7796
UNITED STATES
Tel. (USA): (+1) 917-579-3750

For questions/concerns about your research rights, contact:

Human Research Oversight Board (Institutional Review Board or IRB)
Nova Southeastern University
(+1) 954-262-5369 / Toll Free: (+1) 866-499-0790
IRB@nsu.nova.edu

Research Sites:

Mokpo Jungang High School
36 Jijeok-ro, Mokpo-si
Jeollanam-do 58604
REPUBLIC OF KOREA

Communal Vision High School
327 Seomun-ro, Seocheon-eup, Seocheon-gun
Chungcheongnam-do 33631
REPUBLIC OF KOREA

What is this research about?

You are being asked to let your child participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of a bullying prevention presentation conducted by a police officer on high school students’ attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying. The title of the anti-bullying program that will be implemented as part of this study is *Stand By Me: Bullying Prevention and Bystander Empowerment* and it will consist of a presentation lasting approximately one hour and a survey examining students’ attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying. Approximately 100 to 150 students will be involved in the study (about 50 to 75 students from your child’s school and about 50 to 75 students from another high school).

What will my child be doing?

Two schools will be involved in the study—a “treatment group” school and “comparison group” school. Your child’s school will serve as the treatment group. Your child, along with other student participants, will be asked to participate in the *Stand By Me* presentation and then complete a

Initials: _____ **Date:** _____

Page 1 of 3

“post-test” survey gauging their attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to prevent bullying. The research will be completed within one to two hours on one day.

Is there any audio or video recording?

There will be no audio or video recording of your child or other participating students from the treatment group school.

What dangers are there for my child?

There is minimal risk involved in taking part in this study. This risk primarily pertains to possible feelings of distress or discomfort due to discussing the topic of bullying and school violence, which may be a sensitive topic for some adolescents. Should your child feel uncomfortable participating in the study, she or he may choose to stop participating at any point during the study without penalty—participation in the study is *voluntary*. Your child’s teacher, the researcher, and the police officer who is conducting the presentation will also be immediately available to counsel and provide assistance to your child should a problem arise.

If you have any questions about the research or your research rights, or your child has a research-related injury, please contact Professor Kenny Loui at 010-8976-9041 or kenny.loui@fulbrightmail.org. You may also contact the IRB at the phone numbers and email address indicated above with questions as to your research rights.

What good things might come about for my child?

There are several benefits to your child’s participation in this study. First, your child will acquire knowledge on effective bullying prevention methods including tips on how to mitigate the chance of becoming a target of bullying. Additionally, since the presentation will be interactive, your child will have the opportunity to develop teamwork and public speaking skills and utilize her or his creativity. Finally, and perhaps most important of all, with regard to the purpose of the *Stand By Me* presentation and the overall study (i.e., bullying prevention), a benefit to your child by participating in this study is that your child will contribute to the safety and welfare of her/his peers across the country and around the globe who are victims of bullying and school violence.

Do I have to pay for anything?

There are no costs for your child’s participation in this study.

Will I or my child get paid?

There are no monetary payments provided for your child’s participation in this study, although upon completion of the *Stand By Me* presentation and survey session, all participants—your child included—will receive certificates of participation and a “thank you gift” for their participation in the study.

How will my child’s information be kept private and confidential?

All hardcopy documents and digital files pertaining to the research will be kept in the researcher’s office; hardcopy documents will be locked in a cabinet while digital files will be stored on a password-protected computer accessible only to the researcher. All such hardcopy documents and digital files will be kept for no more than 5 years after completion of the research project and successful defense of the dissertation. Documents will be shredded and digital files will be permanently deleted after that time.

Initials: _____ Date: _____

Page 2 of 3

The researcher will ensure that any personnel that may assist him during the study (e.g., Korean-English translators/interpreters, research assistants) will also keep your child's information confidential and will not disclose this information to outside parties. All information obtained in this study is strictly confidential unless disclosure is required by law. The IRB, the researcher's dissertation committee chair, and government agencies may review research records.

What if I don't want my child to be in the study or my child doesn't want to be in the study?

You have the right to refuse to have your child participate or withdraw your child at any time. Your child may also refuse to participate or withdraw. If you do withdraw your child, or your child decides not to participate, neither you nor your child will experience any penalty or loss of services that you have a right to receive. If you choose to withdraw your child, or she/he decides to leave, any information collected about your child **before** the date of withdrawal will be kept in the research records for no more than 5 years from the conclusion of the study and may be used as a part of the research, but you may request that it not be used.

Other Considerations:

If significant new information relating to the study becomes available, which may relate to your willingness to have your child continue to participate, this information will be provided to you by the researcher.

Voluntary Consent by Participant:

By signing below, you indicate that

- this study has been explained to you
- you have read this document or it has been read to you
- your questions about this research study have been answered
- you have been told that you may ask the researcher any study-related questions in the future or contact him in the event of a research-related injury
- you have been told that you may ask Institutional Review Board (IRB) personnel questions about your study rights
- you are entitled to a copy of this form after you have read and signed it
- you voluntarily agree for your child to participate in the study entitled "Stand By Me: The Effects of a Police Anti-Bullying Presentation on South Korean High School Students' Attitudes About Bullying"

Child's Name: _____

Parent/Guardian Signature: _____ Date: _____

Parent/Guardian Name: _____

Signature of Person Obtaining Consent: _____

Date: _____

Initials: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 5 Parental Consent Form (Comparison Group Version)



NOVA SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY
College of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences

Consent Form for Participation in the Research Study Entitled “Stand By Me: The Effects of a Police Anti-Bullying Presentation on South Korean High School Students’ Attitudes About Bullying and Willingness to Intervene”

Funding Source: None.

IRB Protocol #: 01291606Exp

Principal Investigator:

Kenny Loui
Catholic University of Daegu
Department of Police Administration
13-13 Hayang-ro, Hayang-eup
Gyeongsan-si, Gyeongsangbuk-do 38430
REPUBLIC OF KOREA
Tel. (ROK): (+82) 010-8976-9041
Tel. (USA): (+1) 415-670-0692

Co-Investigator (Faculty Advisor)

Grace A. Telesco, Ph.D.
Nova Southeastern University
Department of Justice & Human Services
3301 College Avenue
Fort Lauderdale, Florida 33314-7796
UNITED STATES
Tel. (USA): (+1) 917-579-3750

For questions/concerns about your research rights, contact:

Human Research Oversight Board (Institutional Review Board or IRB)
Nova Southeastern University
(+1) 954-262-5369 / Toll Free: (+1) 866-499-0790
IRB@nsu.nova.edu

Research Sites:

Mokpo Jungang High School
36 Jijeok-ro, Mokpo-si
Jeollanam-do 58604
REPUBLIC OF KOREA

Communal Vision High School
327 Seomun-ro, Seocheon-eup, Seocheon-gun
Chungcheongnam-do 33631
REPUBLIC OF KOREA

What is this research about?

You are being asked to let your child participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of a bullying prevention presentation conducted by a police officer on high school students’ attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying. Approximately 100 to 150 students will be involved in the study (about 50 to 75 students from your child’s school and about 50 to 75 students from another high school).

What will my child be doing?

Two schools will be involved in the study—a “treatment group” school and “comparison group” school. Students from the treatment group school will be administered a bullying prevention presentation along with two surveys, while students from the comparison group school will only be administered surveys without the presentation. Your child’s school will serve as the comparison group. Your child, along with other student participants, will be asked to complete a survey gauging their attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to prevent bullying. The survey should take no more than 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

Initials: _____ **Date:** _____

Page 1 of 3

Is there any audio or video recording?

There will be no audio or video recording of your child or other participating students from the comparison group school.

What dangers are there for my child?

There is minimal risk involved in taking part in this study. This risk primarily pertains to possible feelings of distress or discomfort while taking the survey, which includes content pertaining to school bullying, a sensitive topic for some adolescents. Should your child feel uncomfortable participating in the study, she or he may choose to stop participating at any point without penalty—participation in the study is *voluntary*. Your child’s teacher and the researcher will be immediately available to counsel and provide assistance to your child should a problem arise.

If you have any questions about the research or your research rights, or your child has a research-related injury, please contact Professor Kenny Loui at 010-8976-9041 or kenny.loui@fulbrightmail.org. You may also contact the IRB at the phone numbers and email address indicated above with questions as to your research rights.

What good things might come about for my child?

There are no direct benefits to your child’s participation in this study. Nevertheless, as a result of the analysis of the information your child provides by completing the surveys and the findings of the overall study, an indirect benefit for your child is that she/he will help contribute to the safety and welfare of her/his peers across the country and around the globe who are victims of bullying and school violence since the research results can be used to help improve bullying prevention initiatives in the Republic of Korea and the United States.

Do I have to pay for anything?

There are no costs for your child’s participation in this study.

Will I or my child get paid?

There are no monetary payments provided for your child’s participation in this study, although upon completion of the survey research component of the study, your child will receive a “thank you gift” for her/his participation.

How will my child’s information be kept private and confidential?

All hardcopy documents and digital files pertaining to the research will be kept in the researcher’s office; hardcopy documents will be locked in a cabinet while digital files will be stored on a password-protected computer accessible only to the researcher. All such hardcopy documents and digital files will be kept for no more than 5 years after completion of the research project and successful defense of the dissertation. Documents will be shredded and digital files will be permanently deleted after that time.

The researcher will ensure that any personnel that may assist him during the study (e.g., Korean-English translators/interpreters, research assistants) will also keep your child’s information confidential and will not disclose this information to outside parties. All information obtained in this study is strictly confidential unless disclosure is required by law. The IRB, the researcher’s dissertation committee chair, and government agencies may review research records.

Initials: _____ Date: _____

Page 2 of 3

What if I don't want my child to be in the study or my child doesn't want to be in the study?

You have the right to refuse to have your child participate or withdraw your child at any time. Your child may also refuse to participate or withdraw. If you do withdraw your child, or your child decides not to participate, neither you nor your child will experience any penalty or loss of services that you have a right to receive. If you choose to withdraw your child, or she/he decides to leave, any information collected about your child **before** the date of withdrawal will be kept in the research records for no more than 5 years from the conclusion of the study and may be used as a part of the research, but you may request that it not be used.

Other Considerations:

If significant new information relating to the study becomes available, which may relate to your willingness to have your child continue to participate, this information will be provided to you by the researcher.

Voluntary Consent by Participant:

By signing below, you indicate that

- this study has been explained to you
- you have read this document or it has been read to you
- your questions about this research study have been answered
- you have been told that you may ask the researcher any study-related questions in the future or contact him in the event of a research-related injury
- you have been told that you may ask Institutional Review Board (IRB) personnel questions about your study rights
- you are entitled to a copy of this form after you have read and signed it
- you voluntarily agree for your child to participate in the study entitled "Stand By Me: The Effects of a Police Anti-Bullying Presentation on South Korean High School Students' Attitudes About Bullying"

Child's Name: _____

Parent/Guardian's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Parent/Guardian's Name: _____

Signature of Person Obtaining Consent: _____

Date: _____

Initials: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 6 Adolescent Assent Form (Treatment Group Version)



NOVA SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY
College of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences

Assent Form for Participation in the Research Study Entitled “Stand By Me: The Effects of a Police Anti-Bullying Presentation on South Korean High School Students’ Attitudes About Bullying and Willingness to Intervene”

Funding Source: None.

IRB Protocol #: 01291606Exp

Principal Investigator:

Kenny Loui
Catholic University of Daegu
Department of Police Administration
13-13 Hayang-ro, Hayang-eup
Gyeongsan-si, Gyeongsangbuk-do 38430
REPUBLIC OF KOREA
Tel. (ROK): (+82) 010-8976-9041
Tel. (USA): (+1) 415-670-0692

Co-Investigator (Faculty Advisor)

Grace A. Telesco, Ph.D.
Nova Southeastern University
Department of Justice & Human Services
3301 College Avenue
Fort Lauderdale, Florida 33314-7796
UNITED STATES
Tel. (USA): (+1) 917-579-3750

For questions/concerns about your research rights, contact:

Human Research Oversight Board (Institutional Review Board or IRB)
Nova Southeastern University
(+1) 954-262-5369 / Toll Free: (+1) 866-499-0790
IRB@nsu.nova.edu

Research Sites:

Mokpo Jungang High School
36 Jijeok-ro, Mokpo-si
Jeollanam-do 58604
REPUBLIC OF KOREA

Communal Vision High School
327 Seomun-ro, Seocheon-eup, Seocheon-gun
Chungcheongnam-do 33631
REPUBLIC OF KOREA

What is a research study?

We’re inviting you to participate in a research study to help us discover new information. Research is voluntary: Only those who want to participate will be included in the study. This assent form describes the study. We encourage you to discuss your decision with your parents/guardians. They also have to provide their permission for you to enter this research study.

Why is this study being done?

This study will examine the effects of a bullying prevention presentation conducted by a police officer on high school students’ attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying.

What will happen to me?

If you chose to participate in the study, you will take part in an anti-bullying presentation and complete a survey. The presentation, entitled *Stand By Me: Bullying Prevention and Bystander*

Initials: _____ **Date:** _____

Page 1 of 3

Empowerment, will be conducted by a police officer at your school and last approximately one hour.

After the presentation, you and your classmates will be asked to complete a survey which will ask you about your feelings about bullying. The survey should take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

Upon completion of the *Stand By Me* presentation and survey, there will be an awards ceremony for you and all participating students, at which time you will be given a certificate of participation and a thank you gift for participating in the study.

What are the good things about being in this study?

There are several benefits for you if you choose to participate in this study. First, you will acquire knowledge on effective bullying prevention methods including tips on what you can do to protect yourself and your friends from becoming targets of bullying. Second, because of the interactive format of the presentation, you will have the opportunity to develop teamwork and communication skills and apply your creativity. Third, as previously stated, you will receive a certificate of participation and small gift for participating in the study in its entirety.

Finally, a benefit to your participation in this study is that you will play a vital role in contributing to the improvement of anti-bullying initiatives in the Republic of Korea and the United States, which in turn will have a positive impact on the welfare and safety of youth who are (or are vulnerable to becoming) victims of bullying and school violence.

Will being in the study hurt me?

The risk involved in this study is minimal. This risk primarily involves possible feelings of distress or discomfort due to discussing the topic of bullying and school violence, which may be a sensitive topic for some youth. At any point during the study, if you feel that you no longer want to participate, you may choose to stop participating with no penalty. Participation in this study is *voluntary*. If you experience any problems during the study, your teacher, the researcher, and the police officer conducting the presentation will be immediately available to help you.

How long will I be in the study?

The study will be completed within one to two hours on one day. The presentation will last approximately one hour and the survey will take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

Do I have other choices?

Participation in this study is voluntary. You can decide not to participate in the study or you may choose to leave the study at any point in time without penalty to you.

Will people know that I am in the study?

School administrators and your teachers will know that you are participating in the study, but they will not discuss your participation with anyone not involved in the study. If the researcher presents the results of the study in an oral presentation or written format, he will not use your name. A pseudonym (fake name) will be created for you and will be used in any oral or written reports by the researcher. Furthermore, you will not be required to write your name, student number or other identifier on the survey form. All information about you acquired from this study will be kept private and confidential.

Initials: _____ Date: _____

Page 2 of 3

Whom should I ask if I have questions?

If you have any questions you can ask Professor Loui (the researcher) or your teacher. Remember, you should also discuss your participation with your parents or your guardian.

Is it OK if I say "No, I don't want to be in the study"?

You do not have to participate in this study if you do not want to. No one will be mad or upset. If you change your mind once you start the study, you can decide to stop participating.

Other Information

If we learn important new information about this study, we will tell you and let you decide if you want to stop being a part of the study.

Do you understand and do you want to be in the study? (Please check only one box.)

I understand. All my questions were answered.

- I want to be in the study.
- I do not want to be in the study.

Your name

Your signature

Date

Signature of person explaining the study

Date

Initials: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 7 Adolescent Assent Form (Comparison Group Version)



NOVA SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY
College of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences

Assent Form for Participation in the Research Study Entitled “Stand By Me: The Effects of a Police Anti-Bullying Presentation on South Korean High School Students’ Attitudes About Bullying and Willingness to Intervene”

Funding Source: None.

IRB Protocol #: 01291606Exp

Principal Investigator:

Kenny Loui
Catholic University of Daegu
Department of Police Administration
13-13 Hayang-ro, Hayang-eup
Gyeongsan-si, Gyeongsangbuk-do 38430
REPUBLIC OF KOREA
Tel. (ROK): (+82) 010-8976-9041
Tel. (USA): (+1) 415-670-0692

Co-Investigator (Faculty Advisor)

Grace A. Telesco, Ph.D.
Nova Southeastern University
Department of Justice & Human Services
3301 College Avenue
Fort Lauderdale, Florida 33314-7796
UNITED STATES
Tel. (USA): (+1) 917-579-3750

For questions/concerns about your research rights, contact:

Human Research Oversight Board (Institutional Review Board or IRB)
Nova Southeastern University
(+1) 954-262-5369 / Toll Free: (+1) 866-499-0790
IRB@nsu.nova.edu

Research Sites:

Mokpo Jungang High School
36 Jijeok-ro, Mokpo-si
Jeollanam-do 58604
REPUBLIC OF KOREA

Communal Vision High School
327 Seomun-ro, Seocheon-eup, Seocheon-gun
Chungcheongnam-do 33631
REPUBLIC OF KOREA

What is a research study?

We’re inviting you to participate in a research study to help us discover new information. Research is voluntary: Only those who want to participate will be included in the study. This assent form describes the study. We encourage you to discuss your decision with your parents/guardians. They also have to provide their permission for you to enter this research study.

Why is this study being done?

The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of a bullying prevention presentation conducted by a police officer on high school students’ attitudes about bullying and their willingness to intervene to stop bullying.

What will happen to me?

Two groups of high school students will be involved in this study—a “treatment group” and a “comparison group.” For this particular study, the treatment group will hear a police-administered presentation on the topic of bullying prevention. This group will take a survey after

Initials: _____ **Date:** _____

Page 1 of 3

the presentation to see the group's attitudes about bullying. The comparison group, which will be administered survey only without the presentation, is needed to show whether the presentation's effects on the treatment group were truly significant or just due to chance. You and your classmates will be part of the **comparison group**. Thus, the only thing we will be asking you to do is take one survey that should take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

What are the good things about being in this study?

There are no direct benefits to your participation in this study. Nevertheless, as a result of the analysis of the information you provide by completing the surveys and the findings of the overall study, an indirect benefit to you is that you will play a vital role in helping to contribute to the safety and welfare of your peers across the country and around the globe who are victims of bullying since the research results can be used to improve bullying prevention efforts in the Republic of Korea and the United States. In brief, your participation in the study will help contribute to the protection of youth who are (or are vulnerable to becoming) victims of bullying and school violence.

Additionally, as a token of appreciation for your participation in this study, you will receive a small "thank you gift" upon completion of the survey.

Will being in the study hurt me?

The risk involved in this study is minimal. This risk primarily involves possible feelings of distress or discomfort while taking the survey, which includes content pertaining to school bullying, a sensitive topic for some young people. At any point during the study, if you feel that you no longer want to participate, you may choose to stop participating with no penalty. Participation in this study is *voluntary*. If you experience any problems during the study, your teacher and the researcher will be immediately available to help you.

How long will I be in the study?

The time commitment for the study will be approximately 10 to 15 minutes for completing the survey.

Do I have other choices?

Participation in this study is **voluntary**. You can decide not to participate in the study or you may choose to leave the study at any point in time without penalty to you.

Will people know that I am in the study?

School administrators and your teachers will know that you are participating in the study, but they will not discuss your participation with anyone not involved in the study. If the researcher presents the results of the study in an oral presentation or written format, he will not use your name. A pseudonym (fake name) will be created for you and will be used in any oral or written reports by the researcher. Furthermore, you will not be required to write your name, student number or other identifier on the survey form. All information about you acquired from this study will be kept private and confidential.

Whom should I ask if I have questions?

If you have any questions you can ask Professor Loui (the researcher) or your teacher. Remember, you should also discuss your participation with your parents or your guardian.

Initials: _____ Date: _____

Is it OK if I say "No, I don't want to be in the study"?

You do not have to participate in this study if you do not want to. No one will be mad or upset. If you change your mind once you start the study, you can decide to stop participating.

Other Information

If we learn important new information about this study, we will tell you and let you decide if you want to stop being a part of the study.

Do you understand and do you want to be in the study? (Please check only one box.)

I understand. All my questions were answered.

- I want to be in the study.
- I do not want to be in the study.

Your name

Your signature

Date

Signature of person explaining the study

Date

Initials: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 8 Student Attitudes and Perceptions Survey



NOVA SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY
College of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences

STUDENT ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS SURVEY

Thank you for taking the time out of your busy schedule to participate in this survey. We really appreciate your help. This survey is a series of statements allowing you to tell us how you think and feel about yourself and the other students in your school. Remember: We are only asking for what you think, not what other people think. There are no right and wrong answers, so please choose the answer that best expresses how you think or feel about each statement. If you do not wish to respond to the question, please choose the "pass" option.

Participation in this survey is voluntary and you may stop at any time for any reason. All information provided on this survey will be kept confidential and accessible only to the researcher.

MY SCHOOL: Think about how strongly you disagree or agree with the following statements about your school. Mark the answer that best shows us what you feel based on your experience.

| | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Pass |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Students in my school can be trusted. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Students in my school generally get along well with each other. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Students in my school generally feel the same way about things. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Teachers and staff in my school can be trusted. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Teachers and staff in my school usually get along with students. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Teachers and staff in my school generally feel the same way about things. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. This is a pretty close-knit school where everyone looks out for each other. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. My teachers respect me. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. My teachers are fair. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. Teachers in my school are nice people. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 11. When students break rules at my school, they are treated fairly. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 12. The principal asks students about their ideas at my school. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 13. My school is a good place to be. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 14. I feel like I belong at my school. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 15. My school is important to me. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 16. Teachers and staff at my school are doing the right things to prevent bullying. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

ABOUT ME AND OTHERS: Think about students your age (not just your closest friends) at your school. Mark how true each of the following statements are for you.

| Students my age: | No, Not at All | A Little | Pretty Much | Yes, Completely | Pass |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 17. Really care about what happens to me. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 18. Are there for me whenever I need help. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 19. Can be trusted a lot. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 20. Care about my feelings. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21. Only think about themselves. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 22. Think bad things about me. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

ABOUT ME AND OTHERS: Think about your opinion of yourself. Mark whether or not you agree or disagree with each of the statements below.

| | Really Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Really Agree | Pass |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 23. I feel I am just as good as other students. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 24. I feel there are lots of good things about me. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 25. All in all, I feel like a failure. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 26. I am able to do things as well as most other people. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 27. I feel I do not have much to be proud of. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 28. I take a positive attitude toward myself. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 29. I wish I could have more respect for myself. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 30. I certainly feel useless at times. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

WRONG OR RIGHT: Think about whether the following actions are WRONG or OKAY for students your age. Mark whether you think the actions are really wrong, sort of wrong, sort of okay, or perfectly okay.

| Is it wrong or okay when: | Really Wrong | Sort of Wrong | Sort of Okay | Perfectly Okay | Pass |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 31. Students tease weaker students in front of others. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 32. Students spread rumors and lies about other students behind their back. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 33. Students tell lies or make fun of less popular students using the Internet (email, instant messaging, cell phone text messaging, or websites). | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 34. Students push, shove, or pick fights with weaker students. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 35. Students encourage others to fight weaker students and cheer them on. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 36. Students encourage others to be mean and spread lies about less popular students. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 37. Students ignore it when someone weaker is being pushed around. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 38. Students defend others who are being shoved around by stronger students. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 39. Students go to the teacher or an adult for help when someone is getting beaten up. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 40. Students go to the teacher or an adult for help when others are spreading rumors and lies about someone. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

SITUATIONS: Think about what most STUDENTS in your school would do in the following situations. Could MOST STUDENTS IN YOUR SCHOOL be counted on to stop what is happening?

| STUDENTS in my school would help out if: | Never | Sometimes | Most of the Time | Always | Pass |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 41. A student is making fun of and teasing another student who is obviously weaker. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 42. A student is spreading rumors and lies about another student behind their back. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 43. A student in my school is telling lies or making fun of another student who gets picked on a lot using the Internet (email, instant messaging, cell phone text messaging, or websites). | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 44. A student or group of students is pushing, shoving, or trying to pick a fight with a weaker student. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

SITUATIONS: Think about what TEACHERS and STAFF at your school would do in the following situations. Could TEACHERS AND STAFF YOUR SCHOOL be counted on to stop what is happening?

| TEACHERS and STAFF in my school would help out if: | Never | Sometimes | Most of the Time | Always | Pass |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 45. A student is making fun of and teasing another student who is obviously weaker. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 46. A student is spreading rumors and lies about another student behind their back. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 47. A student in my school is telling lies or making fun of another student who gets picked on a lot using the Internet (email, instant messaging, cell phone text messaging, or websites). | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 48. A student or group of students is pushing, shoving, or trying to pick a fight with a weaker student. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

SITUATIONS: Think about what YOU would do in the following situations. Could YOU be counted on to stop what is happening?

| I would help out if: | Never | Sometimes | Most of the Time | Always | Pass |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 49. A student is making fun of and teasing another student who is obviously weaker. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 50. A student is spreading rumors and lies about another student behind their back. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 51. A student in my school is telling lies or making fun of another student who gets picked on a lot using the Internet (email, instant messaging, cell phone text messaging, or websites). | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 52. A student or group of students is pushing, shoving, or trying to pick a fight with a weaker student. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

School Name: _____

Birth Year: _____

Grade Level: 1st Grade 2nd Grade 3rd Grade

Gender: Male Female

KENNY LOUI

Nomeoul University – Dept. of International Education
91 Daehak-ro, Seonghwan-eup, Seobuk-gu
Cheonan-si, Chungcheongnam-do 31020
Republic of Korea

Phone: 415-751-3765 / +82-41-580-2974
Email: kenny.loui@fulbrightmail.org

EDUCATION

Nova Southeastern University, Fort Lauderdale, FL **8/2013 – 5/2017**

Ph.D., Criminal Justice (May 31, 2017)

— DISSERTATION: “Stand By Me: The Effects of a Police Anti-Bullying Presentation on South Korean High School Students’ Attitudes About Bullying and Willingness to Intervene”

Stanford University, Stanford, CA **3/2011 – 12/2011**

Graduate Certificate, International Security (Dec. 23, 2011)

San Francisco State University, San Francisco, CA **6/2005 – 5/2008**

M.A., Political Science (May 24, 2008)

— THESIS: “Tokyo Phantasmagoria: An Analysis of Politics and Commodity Capitalism in Modern Japan Through the Eyes of Walter Benjamin”

— Bilateral Exchange Program: Mejiro University, Tokyo, Japan (9/2006 – 7/2007)

- Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs Student Exchange Promotion Program Scholarship
- Fall 2006 Field Research Project: “Tokyo Police Community Policing Programs”
- Spring 2007 Field Research Project: “The Polaris Project & Human Trafficking in Japan”

San Francisco State University, San Francisco, CA **8/2001 – 5/2005**

B.A., Criminal Justice & Political Science (May 28, 2005)

— *Summa cum laude, Phi Beta Kappa*

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Nomeoul University, Cheonan, Republic of Korea **3/2017 – Present**

— **International Programs Coordinator**, Global Education Center

— **Assistant Professor**, Department of International Education

- *Courses Taught:*
 - Politics and Diplomacy
 - Introduction to Sociology
 - Contemporary Ethical Issues

Catholic University of Daegu, Gyeongsan, Republic of Korea **9/2011 – 8/2016**

— **Assistant Professor**, Department of Police Administration

- *Courses Taught:*
 - Police English
 - White Collar Crime
 - Comparative Policing
 - Comparative Criminal Justice Systems

U.S. Embassy, Seoul, Republic of Korea **1/2009 – 2/2009**

— **Public Affairs Intern / Alumni-Youth Leadership Project Team Leader**

Young-il High School, Pohang, Republic of Korea **8/2008 – 7/2009**

— **English Teaching Assistant (U.S. Fulbright ETA Grant)**

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE (cont.)

Federal Bureau of Investigation, Washington, D.C. / Tokyo / San Francisco **6/2006 – 12/2007**

— **Honors Intern**, FBI Honors Internship Program

- Security Division, FBI Headquarters (6/2006 – 8/2006)
- Office of the Legal Attaché, U.S. Embassy – Tokyo (9/2006 – 7/2007)
- Communications Unit, San Francisco Division (8/2007 – 12/2007)

San Francisco State University, San Francisco, CA **8/2005 – 5/2006**

— **Graduate Teaching Assistant**, Department of Political Science

- PLSI 200 – Introduction to American Politics
- PLSI 300 – Scientific Inquiry in Political Science

San Francisco State University, San Francisco, CA **6/2004 – 7/2004**

— **Undergraduate Teaching Assistant**, Department of Criminal Justice

- CJ 340 – Comparative Criminal Justice

CIVIL AIR PATROL PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION

- Officer Basic Course (2/2011)
- Squadron Leadership School (2/2011)
- Training Leaders of Cadets Seminar (5/2012)
- Basic Instructor Course (10/2012)
- Corporate Learning Course (10/2012)
- Public Affairs Officer Academy (8/2014)

EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT / SEARCH AND RESCUE TRAINING

- Intermediate Incident Command System Course, San Jose Fire Department (9/2016)
- Public Information Officer Course, Federal Emergency Management Agency (8/2014)
- GSAR Team Leader Course, National Emergency Services Academy, Civil Air Patrol (7/2013)
- GSAR Basic Course, National Emergency Services Academy, Civil Air Patrol (7/2012)
- Military Emergency Management Specialist Basic Course, CA State Military Reserve (6/2012)
- Neighborhood Emergency Response Team Training, San Francisco Fire Department (5/2012)
- Mission Observer Course, National Emergency Services Academy, Civil Air Patrol (7/2011)
- Mission Scanner Course, National Emergency Services Academy, Civil Air Patrol (7/2011)

PROFESSIONAL PRESENTATIONS

“Volunteerism in the United States and Republic of Korea,” Youth Leadership for Community Sharing Campaign, hosted by U.S. Embassy – Seoul, Republic of Korea Ministry of Education, and Busan Office of Education, March 12, 2016.

“What Are You Doing with Your Life? The Path to Your Dream Job ... and Your Dream Life,” Alumni-Youth Leadership Project, hosted by U.S. Embassy – Seoul, Future Foundation, and Korea-U.S. Vision Association, February 7, 2014.

“Career Planning: Tips and Tactics for Pursuing Careers in International Affairs,” Alumni Mentoring Program, hosted by U.S. Embassy – Seoul, August 26, 2013.

“Know Your Purpose, Know Your Audience: Effective Presentation Skills,” Alumni-Youth Leadership Project, hosted by U.S. Embassy – Seoul, Future Foundation, and Korea-U.S. Vision Association, January 28, 2013.

ACADEMIC PUBLICATIONS

Korean Juvenile Protection Review, Vol. 27 (Nov. 2014)

"Once a Delinquent, Always a Cadet: JROTC as a Basis for a Model Juvenile Diversion Program," pp. 229-265

Korean Juvenile Protection Review, Vol. 26 (Aug. 2014)

"Enhancing 'Democratic Policing': The Role of School Resource Officers in Improving Police-Juvenile Interpersonal Relationships," pp. 441-480

Korean Juvenile Protection Review, Vol. 25 (May 2014)

"Rehabilitation or Retribution? The Effects of Educational Programs and Punitive Measures on Juvenile Delinquency," pp. 225-260

Korean Juvenile Protection Review, Vol. 23 (Oct. 2013)

"Integrity, Service, Excellence: JROTC's Potential as a Juvenile Delinquency Prevention Program," pp. 253-289

NEWSPAPER AND MAGAZINE PUBLICATIONS

Korea Times (Sep. 27, 2016)

"Earthquake Preparedness Begins at Home"

Lasting Friends: Journal of the Korea America Friendship Society, Vol. 216 (May 2016)

"Mirror Images: 'Quantum Leaping' to Share a Service Spirit"

Bear Facts: The Official Magazine of California Wing Civil Air Patrol (Fall/Winter 2014)

"Summer of Success for a San Francisco Cadet"

Bear Facts: The Official Magazine of California Wing Civil Air Patrol (Spring 2014)

"Semper Vigilans on Both Sides of the Pacific: My Life as a CAP 'Virtual Officer'"

Bear Facts: The Official Magazine of California Wing Civil Air Patrol (Fall 2012)

"From California to Korea: Sharing a Service Spirit with South Korean Youth"

20 Years of Teaching and Learning: 20 by 20 Fulbright Korea ETAs (June 2012)

"It's Our Responsibility to Save the World"

Korea Times (Feb. 7, 2012)

"The Need for Mentors and Role Models"

Alumni Reminiscences: Reflections on the 60 Years of the Fulbright Program in Korea (Dec. 2010)

"Being an ETA, Making a Difference"

Korea Times (Jan. 30, 2010)

"Criminal Mind and Education"

Yonsei Graduate School Monthly Newspaper (Dec. 9, 2009)

"Moral Education as Crime Prevention"

HONORS AND AWARDS

- Escort Ambassadorship to Hong Kong, Civil Air Patrol / International Air Cadet Exchange, 2017
- V.A. Leonard Graduate Scholarship, *Alpha Phi Sigma*, 2017
- Wei Chen Endowed Scholarship, Nova Southeastern University, 2017
- Air Force Organizational Excellence Award, U.S. Air Force, 2016
- Regina B. Shearn Graduate Scholarship, *Alpha Phi Sigma*, 2016
- Best Graduate Paper Scholarship (First Place), *Alpha Phi Sigma*, 2016
- Spirit of Engagement Community Service Scholarship, Nova Southeastern University, 2016
- Major Howell Balsem Public Affairs Exceptional Achievement Award, Civil Air Patrol, 2015-16
- Achievement Award, Civil Air Patrol, 2015
- President's Award for Exceptional Teaching, Catholic University of Daegu, 2015
- Grover C. Loening Aerospace Award (Level III Professional Development), Civil Air Patrol, 2014
- Research Grant (\$3,000), Catholic University of Daegu, 2014
- Certificate of Appreciation, Public Affairs Section, U.S. Embassy - Seoul, 2013
- President's Lifetime Volunteer Service Award, President of the United States, 2011
- Community Service Award (multiple awards), Civil Air Patrol, 2011-13
- Brig. Gen. Charles E. Yeager Aerospace Education Achievement Award, Civil Air Patrol, 2011
- General Benjamin O. Davis Jr. Award (Level II Professional Development), Civil Air Patrol, 2011
- Leadership Ribbon, Civil Air Patrol, 2011
- Fulbright Grant (English Teaching Assistantship) to Republic of Korea, 2008-09
- Boren Fellowship, National Security Education Program, 2008 (Declined for Fulbright Grant)
- Award for Best Graduate Essay in Political Science, San Francisco State University, 2008
- JASSO Scholarship, Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2006-07
- Behavioral & Social Sciences Scholarship, San Francisco State University, 2006-07
- Second Prize, *International Herald Tribune/Asahi Shimbun* English Essay Contest, 2007
- Certificate of Appreciation, Office of California State Senator Mark Leno, 2006
- Outstanding Service Award, Office of International Programs, San Francisco State University, 2006
- Dept. of Political Science Chair's Award, San Francisco State University, 2006
- Criminal Justice Undergraduate Honoree, San Francisco State University, 2005
- Political Science Award for Academic Achievement & Leadership, San Francisco St. University, 2005
- Award for Best Undergraduate Essay in Political Science, San Francisco State University, 2005
- Regina B. Shearn Undergraduate Scholarship, *Alpha Phi Sigma*, 2005

ACADEMIC HONOR SOCIETY MEMBERSHIPS

- *Phi Beta Kappa* Honor Society (2004; elected junior year)
- *Alpha Phi Sigma* National Criminal Justice Honor Society (2004)
- *Pi Sigma Alpha* National Political Science Honor Society (2005)

TEACHING / RESEARCH INTERESTS

- Comparative criminal justice
- Ethics in criminal justice
- Juvenile justice policy
- School resource officer programs
- Bullying and school violence prevention
- JROTC and military-sponsored youth programs

FOREIGN LANGUAGE SKILLS

- **German:** Advanced (latent)
- **Korean:** Intermediate
- **Japanese:** Intermediate
- **Thai:** Novice

CAMPUS, COMMUNITY, AND VOLUNTEER SERVICE

| | |
|---|---------------------------------|
| <p>Nova Southeastern University, Fort Lauderdale, FL — Criminal Justice Program Representative, College of Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences Graduate Student Government Association Board</p> | <p>6/2016 – 5/2017</p> |
| <p>Young Falcons of Korea, Daegu, Republic of Korea — Squadron Commander, Daegu-Dalseo District — Region Training and Education Officer, Daegu-Gyeongbuk Region</p> | <p>9/2013 – 7/2016</p> |
| <p>Civil Air Patrol, U.S. Air Force Auxiliary, San Francisco, CA — Squadron Staff Officer (Major), San Francisco Cadet Squadron 86</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Current Duty Assignments</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Public Affairs Officer ▪ Information Technology Officer ▪ Professional Development Officer ▪ Assistant Personnel Officer ▪ Assistant Emergency Services Officer • <i>Previous Duty Assignments</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Safety Officer ▪ Recruiting and Retention Officer • <i>Board Assignments</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Awards Review Board Vice Chairperson ▪ Promotion Review Board Member <p>— Flight Training Officer, California Wing Cadet Training Group — Ground Search-and-Rescue Team Leader — Aircrew Mission Observer</p> | <p>12/2010 – Present</p> |
| <p>Dalseong Disability and Welfare Center, Hyeonpung, Republic of Korea — Youth Mentor / Academic Tutor</p> | <p>11/2009 – 1/2010</p> |
| <p>U.S. Embassy, Seoul, Republic of Korea — Lecturer, Youth Leadership for Community Sharing Campaign (3/2016) — Mentor, Alumni Mentoring Program (8/2013) — Project Advisor, Alumni-Youth Leadership Project (1/2009 – 2/2014)</p> | <p>1/2009 – 3/2016</p> |
| <p>San Francisco State University, San Francisco, CA — Student Peer Advisor, Office of International Programs (9/2005 – 5/2006) — President, <i>Delta Delta</i> Chapter of <i>Pi Sigma Alpha</i> (5/2005 – 5/2006) — Co-Chair, Graduate Students of Political Science Union (5/2005 – 5/2006) — Vice President, Political Science Students Association (5/2004 – 5/2005) — Student Peer Advisor, Pre-Law Peer Advising Center (9/2003 – 5/2006) — Cofounder / Vice President, Pre-Law Society (9/2003 – 5/2006)</p> | <p>9/2003 – 5/2006</p> |
| <p>Sutro Elementary School, San Francisco, CA — Teacher’s Aide / Drawing Instructor — Computer Lab Instructor</p> | <p>9/2003 – 5/2006</p> |