

Bystanders in bullying situations: differences between participant roles and their reactions to manipulation

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Summary

Bullying is one of the most important problems that schools are facing today, as it has short-term and long-term effects on all involved parties (bullies, victims and bystanders). Research has found that bystanders (witnesses in bullying situations) can mostly solve bullying problems, but actually intervene in less than 30% of all cases. The reasons for not intervening can be various. Some bystanders do not even want to intervene in a bullying situation, because they actually sympathise with the bullies. One differentiates four groups of bystanders: assistants, reinforcers, outsiders and defenders. Assistants and reinforcers generally have a pro-bully attitude, while outsiders and defenders mostly hold a pro-victim attitude. Defenders are the ones actually protecting the victim and confronting the bully, while outsiders stay completely out of bullying situations.

The aim of this study was to investigate the differences between these groups. Therefore self-efficacy, self-esteem, empathy and intended coping style in future bullying situations were measured and compared between the four groups. Besides, the current study used a short film to manipulate empathy in one half of the participants. It was hypothesized that an increase in empathy would promote the use of problem-oriented coping.

The results show that outsiders score lower on self-efficacy than defenders, indicating that outsiders choose not to intervene in bullying situations, simply because they do not know how. Apart from that, pro-bullies and pro-victims differ in empathy. Pro-victims score significantly higher on empathy than pro-bullies.

No differences in self-esteem and coping style were found.

The manipulation did not increase empathy and had no significant influences on intended coping behaviour in future bullying situations.

One limitation of this study is the generalizability. More research on that topic is needed to gain more insights in the process of bullying and bystander intervention.

Introduction

Bullying is an important problem in today's society. Even though the problem as such is as old as society itself, research first started in the 1970s. Bullying is defined as the repeated exposure of an individual that cannot defend him/herself to intentional harm by one or several others either direct or indirect (Andreou, 2004). Tsang, Hui and Law (2011) differentiate between 4 types of bullying: physical bullying, which refers to all kinds of physical aggression (slapping, kicking etc.), verbal bullying, including names calling, insulting, threatening speech etc., social exclusion, which uses measures as spreading rumours, ignoring the victim's presence or threatening others not to talk to the victim, and extortion, which refers to threatening the victim in order to get money or other things. In recent years, experts added a fifth type of bullying. That is the so-called cyber-bullying, which refers to spreading rumours, calling names, insulting or otherwise destroying the victims' reputation via the internet (Beale & Hall, 2007). It is in many ways similar to verbal bullying and makes use of the same aspects, but as it is done via internet, it is a lot more anonymous and often goes unnoticed by teachers and is more difficult for the school to control (Beran, & Li, 2005). Cyber-bullying will not be discussed directly in detail in this paper, since this research is focused on school bullying. School bullying includes all forms of physical and verbal bullying as well as social exclusion and takes place at school.

Bullying can have tremendous consequences for physical and mental health of all parties involved in the process (not only for victims). These consequences can be immediate as well as long-term (Cunningham, Cunningham, Ratcliffe & Vaillancourt, 2010). There is empirical support for a number of bullying related problems in every group. Tsang et al. (2011) describe that victims of bullying have a significant higher risk of depression, trait anxiety, social anxiety, social phobia, low self-esteem, loneliness and dysfunctional relationships. Bullies on the other hand are pictured by these authors as being at risk of desensitization to violence and aggression, involvement in gangs and delinquency, school dropout, antisocial behaviours and difficulties in maintaining intimate relationships. These authors also report an increased risk of depression and suicide as a long-term consequence for bullies. Even witnesses of bullying situations, the so-called *bystanders*, are impacted by it. According to Tsang et al (2011) students who witness bullying often experience feelings of guilt and anger (towards themselves and the bullies). Apart from that, they might feel insecure and direct their attention towards avoidance of bullying instead of academic achievements (idem).

Even though bullying is also very prominent in workplace environment, the focus of this study will be on bullying between school children.

Bullying is probably the most important problem that schools face every day. That is first because of the devastating effects of bullying that are described above and second, because of its wide prevalence. Tsang et al. (2011) describe a study in which 50 – 87% of pupils reported to have been involved in bullying (either as bully, victim or bystander) in a time period of 6 months. Frisé and Holmqvist (2010) also call it a problem that almost everybody experiences in some way during his/her school time. These reasons have made bullying to be a quite well researched topic with numberless studies investigating the background and development of bullying as well as reinforcing and decreasing factors to the process. They also led to intervention programs to reduce bullying at schools. But, according to Cunningham et al. (2010), results of these programs are not satisfying.

A number of meta-analysis of anti-bullying interventions supports this statement. Merrell, Gueldner, Ross & Isava (2008) for example analysed the effects of 16 different anti-bullying interventions and found rather disappointing results. These authors state positive effects of anti-bullying interventions on the concepts of self-report victimization, self-report witnessing of bullying, global self-esteem, self-report teacher knowledge of bullying and appropriate staff responses – and teacher intervention skills, children's social competence, active participation in bullying, peer acceptance and teacher discipline referrals. But of a total of 108 effect sizes, only 39 were actually found positive and significant. The huge number of positive but insignificant results led the authors to conclude that anti-bullying “intervention can succeed, but not enough is known to indicate how and when” (p.40). So why do many anti-bullying interventions show so little effect in decreasing bullying?

One reason for the limited effectiveness of these interventions might be that most of those programmes are directed at the bullies themselves (to make them stop bullying) and/or at victims (to defend themselves) (Porter & Smith-Adcock, 2011), while recent research indicates that those measures mostly do not lead to long-term changes in behaviour (Salmivalli, Kaukiainen & Voeten, 2005). Research indicates that there is a very important factor influencing bullies' behaviour and that factor is bystander intervention. The term *bystander* includes everybody who witnesses a bullying situation or knows about it. Tsang et al (2011) state that in most cases, bystander intervention stops a bullying situation fast and effectively, but it is also known that bystander intervention against bullying occurs in only 10-25% of all bullying incidents (Obermann, 2011). Bystanders are the biggest group of all involved parties in a bullying situation and their behaviour is easier to influence than that of

bullies (Salmivalli, Voeten & Poskiparta, 2011). Apart from that, even though bystanders are not always aware of it, it is impossible as a bystander to not influence the process, even ignoring it sends a signal to both the bully and the victim (Obermann, 2011). Put simply, the sheer existence of bystanders does affect bullying situations. For that reason it seems promising to focus anti-bullying interventions on bystanders instead of bullies themselves and try to encourage them to intervene against bullying. To be able to do that, it is necessary to first understand bystanders.

Salmivalli, Lagerspetz, Björkqvist, Österman & Kaukianinen (1996) developed the so-called participant role model, in which they identified 4 different roles that bystanders can take: *assistants*, *reinforcers*, *outsiders* and *defenders*. Each of them resembles different ways of reacting to a bullying situation. *Assistants* (as the name indicates), help and assist the bully, for example by holding or chasing the victim. Although they do not start the bullying process, they do join in. *Reinforcers* do not actively help the bully, but they provide positive feedback to the bully, by watching the situation, cheering, laughing etc. The third group of bystanders, the so-called *outsiders*, typically tries to avoid bullying situations. They usually ignore bullying, walk out of the situations and stand on nobody's side. *Defenders* on the other hand actively support the victim, either by confronting the bully directly or by comforting the victim or telling a teacher (Salmivalli, et al. 1996).

One goal of this study is to shed more light on the differences between these bystander groups and the consequences that these differences have on possible intervention programmes. To be more precise, this study aims at finding out in what factors the bystander groups differ, what factors are important for choosing a certain participant role.

To date not much is known about why people take different participant roles and which factors contribute to which participant role. In general, research indicates that boys take the roles of *assistants* and *reinforcers* more often than girls and that girls act as *defenders* more often than boys do (Oh & Hazler, 2009). A study on participant roles and the big five personality traits (Tani, Greenman, Schneider & Fregoso, 2003) found that *outsiders* generally score lower on extraversion than the other groups and that *defenders* score higher on agreeableness than the other groups.

Some studies show that most children in fact have a negative attitude towards bullying, see it as wrong and have the intention to support victims (Obermann, 2011), but that only very few actually become *defenders* (Salmivalli et al. 2005). In order to be able to encourage victim support, researchers tried to further distinguish *defenders* from other participant roles. One characteristic here seems to be attitude, as Obermann (2011) pointed

out. So it is possible to distinguish between pro-bullies and pro-victims depending on their attitude. Reinforcers and assistants are hereby pro-bullies and defenders and outsiders have a pro-victim attitude. But researchers wondered why defenders actively support the victim in bullying situations, while defenders, even though they share the same attitude as defenders, choose to ignore the situations. Andreou, Didaskalou & Vlachou (2008) propose three different reasons for this: 1) *Outsiders* are unsure what to do to help victims, 2) *Outsiders* are afraid of the consequences that supporting the victim could have for themselves and 3) *Outsiders* are afraid of worsening the situation by behaving inappropriately. Two of these possible reasons are related to the concept of self-efficacy, which was first introduced by Bandura (1980) and defined as “judgement of the likelihood that one can organize and execute given courses of action required to deal with prospective situations” (p.263). The importance of self-efficacy in the process of bullying has been highlighted by a number of different studies. Self-efficacy is generally associated with pro-social behaviour and there is empirical support for the idea that defending behaviour in bullying situations is also related to self-efficacy (Tsang et al. 2011). Gini, Albiero, Benelli and Altoe (2008) specifically investigated differences in self-efficacy between *defenders* and *outsiders* and indeed found that the latter score significantly lower on this concept, than the former. That suggests that self-efficacy might be an important factor differentiating *outsiders* from *defenders*. In accordance with the literature, the first hypothesis of this study is

H1: *Defenders score higher on self-efficacy related to social problem solving than outsiders.*

But it is still unknown if self-efficacy also plays a part in choosing one of the two pro-bully participant roles *assistant* and *reinforcer*. Since Salmivalli, Voeten and Poskiparta (2011) indicate that bullies seem to be more sensitive to positive feedback (from *assistants* and *reinforcers*) than for negative feedback (from *defenders*) it is surely worth investigating the characteristics of the pro-bully roles. Therefore this study will measure self-efficacy in all four bystander groups, even though there are no specific expectations regarding self-efficacy of *assistants* and *reinforcers*.

Another factor that has been granted quite a lot of research attention is self-esteem. Self-esteem is an important component of personality and includes self-respect, acceptance of the self, feelings of self-worth and self-confidence (Salmivalli, Kaukiainen, Kaistaniemi & Lagerspetz, 1999). Self-esteem is seen as an important factor in bullying, but the research results in this area are not consistent. Generally, low self-esteem is associated with high levels of aggression (idem). As bullying certainly is a form of aggression, it is not surprising that

researchers expect bullies to score low on self-esteem. A study by O'Moor & Kirkham (2001) supports this hypothesis. However, other studies (Salmivalli et al, 1999; Slee & Rigby, 1993) did not find any significant differences in self-esteem between bullies and bystanders. Slee and Rigby (1993) explain their results by proposing that bullies originally have a lower level of self-esteem, but that harassing others in fact increases their self-esteem, so that no differences are detectable. However, these authors did not investigate the different levels of self-esteem between the four bystander-roles.

Reinforcers and *assistants* support the bullying process, but the reasons for that are yet widely unknown. It seems possible that increasing their own self-esteem may play a vital part in the process. Therefore it can be expected that *reinforcers* and *assistants* score significantly lower on self-esteem than *defenders* and *outsiders*. Salmivalli et al (1999) did not find any significant correlations between self-esteem and participant roles, but they speculate themselves that this might be due to the fact that they only used four items of the Rosenberg self-esteem scale to measure the concept. They hypothesize that a healthy self-esteem might be a necessary condition to defend a victim. In order to shed more light on factors differentiating the participant roles, this study will measure self-esteem for all bystander groups. In accordance with existing literature (O'Moor & Kirkham, 2001; Slee & Rigby, 1993) the second expectation is

H2: *Assistants and reinforcers score lower on self-esteem than outsiders and defenders.*

A third important factor in the process of bullying seems to be empathy. Research trying to identify important factors that explain children's behaviour in bullying situations first focused on differences between *bullies* and *defenders* (Gini, Albiero, Benelli & Altoe, 2008). It showed that *bullies* indeed have less empathic potential than *defenders* (Almeida, Coreia & Marinho, 2010). These authors describe empathy as a two dimensional concept, consisting of affective empathy and cognitive empathy. They propose that *bullies* are capable of cognitive empathy, but score significantly lower on affective empathy. This means that they are able to imagine how other people feel, but are incapable of sharing these feelings or sympathize with victims.

The relationship between empathy and bullying is supported by research conducted by Gini et al (2008) who found a negative correlation between empathy and bullying and a positive correlation between bystander intervention and empathy. However the literature does not give any data about the empathic potential of other bystander roles. Gini et al (2008) measured empathy in order to identify differences between *defenders* and *outsiders*, but did

not find a significant difference between the two groups. But what they did find were different empathy levels between *pro-bullies* (*assistants* and *reinforcers*) and *pro-victims* (*outsiders* and *defenders*). Therefore empathy might not be a sufficient determinant to explain why adolescents choose to defend a victim instead of ignoring the incident, but it does distinguish pro-bullies from pro-victims. Accordingly the third hypothesis is

H3: *Outsiders* and *defenders* score higher on empathy than *assistants* and *reinforcers*.

The purpose of this paper is not only to investigate differences between the four bystander groups, but also to study possible implications for anti-bullying intervention programmes. The second part of the study is concerned with changing the behaviour in bullying situations. What are the important factors for changing behaviour and how do these factors differ between the four bystander groups? Do the bystander groups vary in their reaction to a manipulation?

Bullying poses a form of stress not only to victims, but also to bystanders. One other important factor for choosing a certain behaviour in bullying situations (meaning choosing one of the participant roles) could therefore be the coping style that is used to handle the situation. Coping style here refers to the way the individual deals with stress. Research has shown that stress generally impacts psychological well-being and that stress-coping plays a role in the way individuals perceive and react to a stressful situation (Grennan & Woodhams, 2007). Coping can involve cognitive as well as behavioural strategies. The two most common coping styles are problem-oriented coping and emotion-focused coping. Problem-oriented coping involves cognitive and behavioural strategies that aim at solving the problem itself or resolving the situation that poses stress. Emotion-focused coping on the other hand includes strategies that deal with the emotions that the situation arouses without tackling the problem itself or changing the situation (*idem*).

Carlo, Mestre, McGinley, Samper, Tur and Sandman (2012) write that coping style is significantly related to pro-social and aggressive behaviour. According to these authors, problem-oriented coping correlates positively with pro-social behaviour, while emotion-focused coping is strongly related to aggressive behaviour. It is therefore possible that pro-bully bystanders use different coping styles than pro-victim bystanders and support the bullies in their aggressive behaviour, because of their rather ineffective coping with the stress in bullying situations. According to these authors there are a couple of factors predicting coping,

such as emotional stability and empathy. As emotional stability is more or less stable during life, this study will focus on empathy.

Increasing empathy should facilitate problem-oriented coping, instead of emotion-focused coping. In accordance with hypothesis 3, it is assumed that pro-victim bystanders use problem-oriented coping more often than pro-bully bystanders.

To further investigate the impact that empathy might have on coping style, one group of participants will receive an empathy-increasing treatment (experimental group), while the other group will not receive that treatment (control group). An increase in empathy should lead pro-bullies to change their coping styles and use more problem-oriented coping. Therefore, hypothesis 4 is:

H4a: Pro-victims (outsiders and defenders) report a higher intention to use problem-oriented coping, than pro-bullies (assistants and reinforcers).

H4b: Participants in the experimental group report a higher intention to use problem-oriented coping, than participants in the control group.

It is possible that the manipulation also influences other variables, even though this is not intended. Therefore the study also compares self-efficacy and self-esteem scores in the experimental and control group with each other. As possible effects on these variables are unintended, there are no specific hypotheses about that.

Method

Experimental design

To shed more light on the research question and the above named hypotheses, an experimental study was conducted, which consisted of two parts. The first part was a necessary pre-measure before the manipulation took place. It was needed to ascertain the participants' behaviour in bullying situations, the earlier referred to participant role, which was used as independent variable in the second part of the study. The manipulation took place in the second part. In the experimental group the measure of the dependent variables took place after the manipulation, whereas the control group was not exposed to the manipulation before the measure. Therefore, condition (experimental vs. control) was the second independent variable. The manipulation will be described in the instruments-section.

Participants

The participants were students at the Städtisches Gymnasium Selm in Germany. They were recruited by handing out an information-letter to all students of the grades 5-8 (aged ca. 11-14) and asking them to let their parents sign for permission if they wanted to participate. They were not given any compensation for participating in the study. The survey and experiment took place during the school time.

A total number of 402 students were invited to participate in the study, of which 323 returned a signed permission form. But some of the participants did only participate in the first part of the study, while others only participated in the second part and some could not participate at all due to illness. Because not all students put their participant number on the forms, it is impossible for some of them to tell whether they completed both parts or just one.

All in all 316 students filled in the participant role questionnaire in the first part of the study and 317 filled in the survey in the second part. Because the participant role was determined by peer nomination (which will be further explained in the instruments section), those who did only complete the second part, could still be included in the analyses, but questionnaire papers that could not be linked to a participant number were excluded from the analyses. That left a total of 307 participants.

In total 178 of the participants were male and 129 were female. They had a mean age of 12.48 years.

Some participants could not be assigned to any certain participant role (because they were not nominated by their classmates at all, or had the same score on two of the participant roles) and were also excluded from the analysis, leaving a total of 256 participants, who could be assigned to a specific role and whose data was therefore included in the analysis. Of those 110 were male and 146 were female. They had a mean age of 12.43 years. The youngest participant was 10 years old and the oldest was 16 years old.

The participants were assigned per class to either the experimental or the control group in the second part of the experiment. The two groups were matched with the intention to create two groups of the same size with the same mean age and the same percentage of male and female participants. Due to organizational limitations, it was decided to keep the classes together and assign the whole classes to one of the two conditions; therefore the matching is not perfect. Seven classes were assigned to the experimental condition and eight classes to the

control condition. The number of participants per class varied from 11 to 25 students. The details of the composition of the experimental and control group are shown in table 1.

Table 1 Composition of the Experimental and Control Group

	N	Mean age	male	female
Experimental	153	12.48	56	97
Control	154	12.48	81	73

Instruments and manipulation

Dependent variables:

The dependent variables in this study are empathy, self-efficacy, self-esteem and future behavioural intention regarding coping style. They were measured by paper and pencil surveys. In the analysis, the four bystander roles were compared to each other and every participant role in the experimental group was compared to their equivalents in the control group.

Participant role questionnaire:

To define everybody's participant role, participants were asked to complete an adjusted version of the 15-item participant role questionnaire that was developed by Salmivalli, Kauaiainen and Voeten (2005). The questionnaire consisted of five sub-scales for the four bystander roles and the bully-role. It contained three items per sub-scale, which were translated into German. Each item resembles a certain behaviour. The participants' task was to nominate classmates, whose behaviour in bullying-situations fit the description given by the item. To keep the anonymity, the participants were handed a list where every student was resembled by a number. To nominate a classmate, participants were asked to write down the number of the specific person. As in Schäfer & Kron's study (2004), participants were allowed to nominate an unlimited number of persons per item. For the complete questionnaire, see appendix.

To score the participant role questionnaire, the means of every subscale were calculated per class. The highest score on any of the subscales that exceeded the class mean on that particular scale, defined the individual's participant role. If one participant did not

score higher than the mean on any sub-scale, or had the same score on two sub-scales, no participant role was assigned to him/her.

Empathic Responsiveness Questionnaire:

Empathy was measured using (a translated version of) the empathic responsiveness questionnaire (Olweus & Endresen, 1998). That is a 12-item questionnaire, in which every participant is asked to rate how much every item fits him/her on a 6-point likert scale (1 = totally disagree, 6 = totally agree). A higher score indicates higher empathic responsiveness. It is important to note that Olweus & Endresen developed this questionnaire for adolescents slightly older than the participants in this study (13-16 years old). To rate the scale, the mean item score was calculated. See appendix for the full questionnaire. The reliability analysis shows a cronbach's alpha of 0.82, which proves good reliability of the scale.

Rosenberg self-esteem scale:

To measure self-esteem, participants were asked to complete (a translated version of) the Rosenberg self-esteem scale that has been used by other researchers (egg. Salmivalli et al. 1999; O'Moore & Kirkham, 2001) in the context of bullying studies with adolescents. It consists of 10 items, with five items being worded positively and five being worded negatively. Participants are asked to rate for every item in how far they agree with it on a 6-point likert scale (1= totally disagree, 6= totally agree). In the current study 9 of the 10 items were used (see appendix). The last item ("In general I have a positive attitude towards myself") was rated as too abstract to be answered by 10-year old children and was therefore excluded in order to adjust the scale to the relevant age group. The Rosenberg self-esteem scale was scored by calculating the mean item score. Cronbach's alpha for the scale was 0.88, which indicates good reliability.

Self-efficacy scale for problem-solving:

To measure the concept of self-efficacy, the general self-efficacy scale, developed by Schwarzer, Bäßler, Kwiatek, Schröder and Zhang (1997) was used. It consists of 10 items, which can be found in the appendix. Participants were asked to rate for every statement in how far they agree with it on a 6-point likert scale (1= totally disagree, 6= totally agree). One of the advantages of this questionnaire was that it was originally developed in German, so that no mistranslations could occur and decrease its reliability and validity. The scale was rated by

calculating the mean item score. Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.90, which shows a good reliability of the scale.

Behavioural intention on coping with future bullying situations:

Participants' behavioural intention regarding coping with future bullying situations was measured using an adjusted and translated form of the self-report coping scale (adjusted version by Pozzoli & Gini, 2010). It consisted of four sub-scales (seeking social support, self-reliance/problem solving, distancing and internalizing). Hereby seeking social support and self-reliance/problem solving were rated as problem-oriented coping and distancing and internalizing were rated as emotion-focused coping.

For this study the scale was slightly changed to measure future behavioural intention instead of usual past behaviour. It started with the sentence: "When in my classroom someone repeatedly bullies another classmate, I think I will...". The items were scored on a 6-point likert scale (1= totally disagree 6= totally agree) and can be found in the appendix.

Manipulation:

As manipulation, the researchers made use of a short film, more precisely, parts of a documentary that described a couple of bullying cases from the victim perspective. It is called "37° - Rufmord im Internet" and was produced in Germany and broadcasted in November 2011 on the German television station ZDF (ZDF mediathek, n.d.). The pieces that were used in this experiment, focused on two victims of bullying, who told their story. Hereby the main emphasis was on the consequences that bullying had for the victims and their families.

The victims describe how helpless they felt and how lonely. They point out that there was nobody who stood up for them. It is also described how the victims tried to escape the situations, but that they felt, there was nothing they could do to stop the bullying. In one case it is reported how the bullying had isolated the whole family from all social contacts for more than a year. In both cases the psychological bullying resulted in physical aggression toward the victims.

The film was supposed to increase empathy because of its form. Telling the story from the victim's perspective is related to both parts of empathy. First, it increases cognitive empathy, giving viewers the possibility to understand how victims feel and what they experience from their point of view. Second, it evokes sympathy with the victims. It makes the viewer kind of sad, because seeing the victims and hearing them talk about that time,

makes it more real and easier to really imagine the situation. That leads the viewer to sharing the victim's feelings.

The film also shows how the two victims finally managed to escape the situations. In one case the school used a social worker and worked successfully with victim, bullies and assistants for more than one year. In the other case the situation could not be resolved, so that the victim had to change the school.

But the film also points out that the bullying has consequences for the victims that go beyond the bullying-situation itself. It is described how difficult it is for victims of bullying to regain their confidence and how long-lasting these consequences can be. The film concludes with the statement that a 13-year old boy committed suicide because of rumour-spreading and harassment.

Procedure

In the first part of the study, the participants were asked to fill in the participant role-questionnaire (per class in the presence of a teacher). Therefore, they were given a short introduction by the researcher, in which the definition of the term bullying was given. In this introduction it was also explained how the questionnaire worked. This was also written on the questionnaire itself, but because it was impossible to check if everybody read the introduction on the paper, it was also explained verbally beforehand.

During the following week the participants filled in the second part of the questionnaire and watched the film (again per class). As stated earlier, the experimental group first got to see the film and was then asked to answer the questions, while the control group answered the questions first and watched the film after that. Because it was watched afterwards, the film should have no influence at all in the control group, even though the participants new beforehand that they would get to see a film afterwards (meaning they were primed on watching a film). Both groups answered a few questions after watching the film that served as manipulation checks to check their perception of the film and the effect it had on them. These are included in the appendix. The manipulation checks had satisfying scores, with a mean item score of 4.84. As the film had been broadcasted on TV, the questionnaire also asked whether the participants had seen the film beforehand. 71% had not seen the film before, 21% had seen it before participating in the study and 7.5 % had seen parts of it.

After that, they were debriefed and thanked. During the debriefing it was explained that cases as described in the film were rare, even though bullying itself is a serious topic not to be underestimated. They were also told that the cases that were reported in the film actually

had a happy end and the victims felt a lot better now in order to reduce negative effects that the film might have had on the participants. Participants also got the chance to ask questions and got information over how they could react to bullying in their class and whom they could talk to if they were victimized themselves.

The researcher also explained the goal and possible use of the study and once again answered questions regarding this point.

After that the participants were thanked again, offered some sweets and dismissed.

Results

A total of 256 pupils aged 10-16 could be identified as taking a certain role in bullying situations. It turned out that nearly 30 per cent of all participants were described by their classmates as outsiders. For the exact numbers see Table2.

To make sure there was no interference with the results, an ANOVA was conducted to see if the fact that some of the participants had actually seen the film before the study took place, had any effect on the dependent variables. No main effects were found for any of the dependent variables (self-efficacy: $F(2,293) = 0.52$; $p > 0.05$; self-esteem: $F(2,293) = 0.05$; $p > 0.05$; empathy: $F(2,293) = 0.62$; $p > 0.05$; problem-oriented coping: $F(2,246) = 2.14$; $p > 0.05$; emotion-focused coping: $F(2,246) = 1.93$; $p > 0.05$). The only question that was influenced by that, was the second question of the manipulation check (“After seeing the film, I feel more capable of imagining being in a victim’s shoes”) ($F(2,289) = 3.04$; $p = 0.05$). Participants who had not seen the film before have a significantly higher score on that question ($M = 4.7$; $SD = 1.03$) than participant who have not seen the film before ($M = 4.2$; $SD = 1.34$), which might interfere slightly with their empathy score, as it clearly refers to one aspect of empathy. However, the data do not show significant differences in empathy between participants who had and had not seen the film before. Besides, the manipulation checks simply check (as the name implies) whether the manipulation (in this case the film) has had the intended effect on the participants and was perceived by the participants the same way as by the researcher. The manipulation checks show satisfying results and are not further included in the analysis. Therefore, the fact that some people have seen the film before should not interfere with the study-results.

The results show that the experimental group and the control group differed significantly in empathy ($F(1,305) = 11.49$; $p < 0.01$), but not in self-efficacy and self-esteem,

which indicates the empathy-increasing effect of the film. Participants in the experimental group score significantly higher ($M = 4.06$; $SD = 0.93$) on empathy than participants in the control group ($M = 3.71$; $SD = 0.88$).

Before we turn to the actual research questions, we have to take a look at some general analyses on demographic variables.

As table 1 describes, there seem to be remarkable gender differences between the experimental – and control group. A t -test shows that these are significant ($t(305) = 1.92$; $p < 0.01$). There were no age differences between the two groups ($t(304) = 0.00$; $p < 0.05$).

As the t -test indicates significant gender differences between experimental- and control group, it was further investigated how gender relates to the dependent variables. The results show significant impact on empathy, self-efficacy and self-esteem. Boys seem to score lower on empathy and higher on self-efficacy and self-esteem than girls. There are no significant differences in the coping behaviour of boys and girls. The exact results (including the F -values) are shown in table 3.

It must be noted that the earlier described differences in empathy between experimental and control group could also be due to gender differences between these groups. Therefore gender will be included in the following analyses as covariate.

To further investigate in how far gender might influence the results, a Chi-square test was executed between participant role and gender, which showed significant results ($\chi^2(4) = 52.84$; $p < 0.01$). It was found that boys take a pro-bully role more often than girls, while girls choose against-bully roles more often. The percentages of male and female participants per participant role are also given in table 2.

Table 2 *Size of each Group*

	Percentage	Percentage	Percentage	Percentage	N	N
		counting only	male	female	experimental	control
		assignable cases				
Bully	10.4	12.5	47	53	17	15
Assistant	11.7	14.0	72	28	12	24
Reinforcer	12.1	14.5	82	18	16	21
Outsider	28.3	34.0	26	74	51	36
Defender	20.8	25.0	25	75	32	32

Not assignable	16.6	-	37	63	25	26
Total	100	100	58	42	153	154

Table 3 *Results of the ANOVA Gender Differences in Empathy, Self-efficacy, Self-Esteem and Intended Coping Behaviour*

	df	F	Gender	M	SD	N
Empathy	1,305	34.81**	M	3.53	0.86	129
			F	4.13	0.88	178
Self-efficacy	1,305	11.66**	M	4.17	0.85	129
			F	3.82	0.89	178
Self-esteem	1,247	37.79**	M	4.67	0.86	104
			f	3.98	0.95	145
Seeking social support	1,288	0.23	M	3.85	1.07	167
			F	3.91	1.00	123
Self-reliance/problem solving	1,262	0.71	M	4.20	0.91	106
			F	4.10	0.99	158
Distancing	1,279	0.09	M	2.54	1.05	119
			F	2.51	1.07	162
Internalizing	1,276	23.99**	M	2.40	0.94	119
			F	2.98	1.02	159

The first research question concerned the level of self-efficacy in the members of the different participant roles. It was hypothesized in H1 that defenders scored higher on general self-efficacy than outsiders. A factorial ANCOVA was executed, including self-efficacy as dependent variable, participant role and condition as independent variables and gender as covariate. The results show a significant main effect for participant role ($F(4,240) = 4.08$; $p < 0.05$). To test the hypothesis a bonferroni-test was conducted, which showed that the difference in self-efficacy between outsiders and defenders is significant ($p < 0.01$), while the

differences between the other participant roles are not. Outsiders appear to score lower on self-efficacy than defenders. H1 is therefore supported by the data.

Table 4 shows the mean scores for every participant role per condition. The results also show interaction effects between participant role and condition ($F(4, 240) = 2.40$; $p = 0.05$), indicating that outsiders in the experimental group score higher on self-efficacy than in the control group, while all the other participant roles score higher in the control group. Figure 1 displays the results.

The results also indicate significant main effects of the covariate on self-efficacy ($F(1,240) = 14.90$; $p < 0.01$). As described earlier, boys score higher on self-efficacy than girls. No interaction effects of gender and condition ($F(1,240) = 0.39$; $p > 0.05$) or gender and participant role ($F(1,240) = 1.13$; $p > 0.05$) on self-efficacy have been found.

The results do not show a main effect for condition ($F(1,240) = 1.11$; $p > 0.05$).

As table 4 and figure 1 show, outsiders score lower on self-efficacy than defenders in both, the experimental and the control condition. Hypothesis 1 is therefore supported by the data.

Table 4 *Mean and Standard Deviation of Self-efficacy per Group*

	condition	Mean	Std. Dev.	N
Bully	Experimental	4.19	0.20	17
	Control	4.15	0.21	15
Assistant	Experimental	3.89	0.35	12
	Control	4.23	0.19	24
Reinforcer	Experimental	3.72	0.24	16
	Control	4.28	0.34	21
Outsider	Experimental	3.86	0.13	51
	Control	3.47	0.14	36
Defender	Experimental	4.08	0.16	32
	Control	4.24	0.16	32

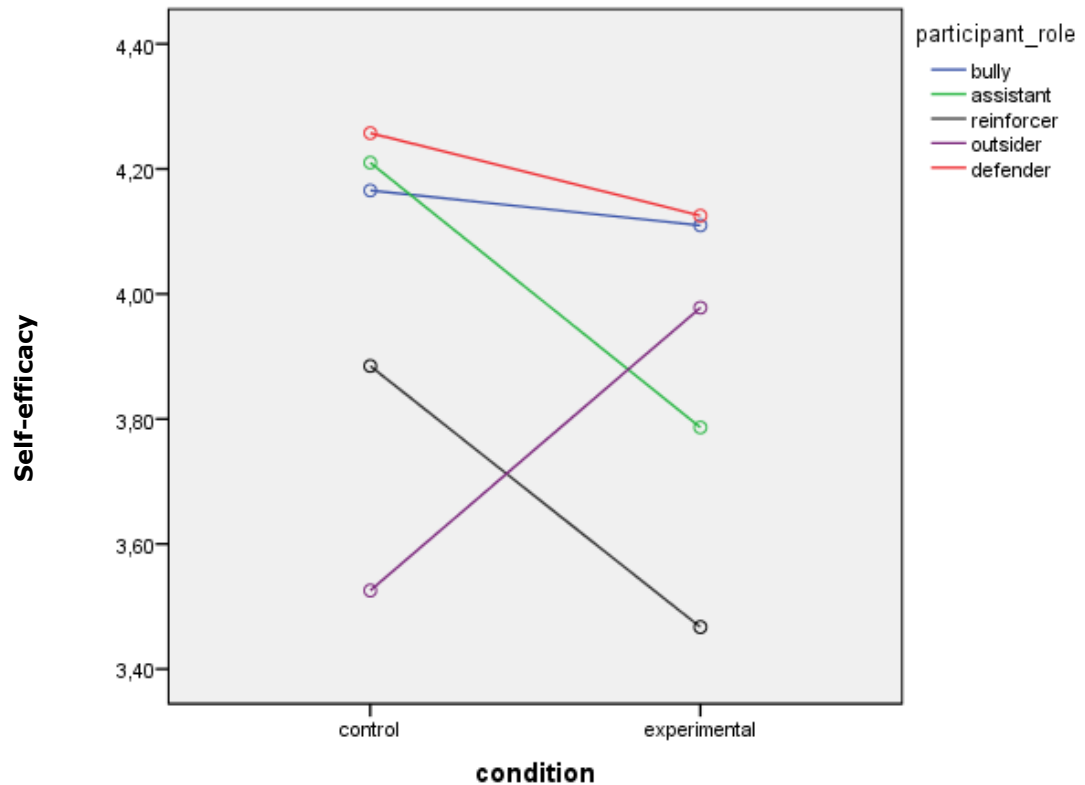


Figure 1 *diagram of interaction-effects of participant role and condition on self-efficacy*

The second research question concerned the difference in self-esteem between the four bystander groups in bullying situations. Hypothesis 2 stated that outsiders and defenders score higher on self-esteem than assistants and reinforcers. As the aim was to compare assistants and reinforcers to outsiders and defenders, a new label was used here to combine these groups. Assistants and reinforcers were both labelled “pro-bullies”, while outsider and defenders were labelled “pro-victims”; bullies themselves were excluded from this analysis, as they do not fit in either of these categories.

The results of the factorial ANCOVA, including self-esteem as dependent variable, condition and participant role as independent variables and gender as covariate, do not confirm hypothesis 2. No significant main effects were found, neither for participant role ($F(1,173) = 0.71; p > 0.05$), nor for condition ($F(1,173) = 2.96; p > 0.05$). The results do however indicate a main effect for gender ($F(1,173) = 16.66; p < 0.01$). Comparison of the means shows that boys score higher on self-esteem than girls. There were also no significant interaction-effects for the two independent variables on self-esteem ($F(1,173) = 0.19; p > 0.05$). No interaction effects for gender and participant role ($F(1,173) = 0.47; p > 0.05$) or condition ($F(1,173) = 3.29; p > 0.05$) have been found. The means and standard deviations are shown in Table 5.

Table 5 *Mean and Standard Deviation of Self-esteem per Group*

	condition	Mean	SD	N
Pro-bully	Experimental	4.51	1.02	21
	Control	4.51	0.78	39
	Total	4.51	0.86	60
Pro-victim	Experimental	4.31	0.94	63
	Control	4.17	1.06	51
	Total	4.25	0.99	114

The third part of this study was concerned with the role of empathy in the chosen behaviour in bullying situations. Hypothesis 3 stated that outsiders and defenders score higher on empathy than assistants and reinforcers. To test this hypothesis factorial ANCOVA was conducted with empathy as dependent variable and participant role and condition as independent variables and gender as covariate. Again the labels pro-bullies and pro-victims were used, because the hypothesis concerned only these two groups.

The results show a main effect for participant role ($F(1,217) = 5.44; p < 0.05$). As is shown in table 6, pro-bullies score significantly lower on empathy than pro-victims in both, the experimental and the control condition. The data therefore support hypothesis 3.

No main effects for condition ($F(1,217) = 0.13; p > 0.05$) and no interaction effect between the two independent variables were found ($F(1,217) = 3.37; p > 0.05$). The results also show significant main effects for gender ($F(1,217) = 9.03; p < 0.01$), indicating that girls score higher on empathy than boys. No interaction effects for gender and participant role ($F(1,217) = 0.93; p > 0.05$) or gender and condition ($F(1,217) = 3.09; p > 0.05$) on empathy have been found.

Table 6 *Mean and Standard Deviation of Empathy per Group*

	condition	N	Mean	SD
Pro-bully	Experimental	28	3.50	0.74
	Control	45	3.46	0.92
	Total	73	3.48	0.85
Pro-victim	Experimental	83	4.26	0.99
	Control	68	3.92	0.82
	Total	151	4.11	0.93

Research question 4 was concerned with the impact the film had on the different groups regarding their intended coping behaviour in future bullying situations. Thereby it was expected that pro-victims should intend to use problem-oriented coping more often than pro-bullies and that participants in the experimental group should intend to use problem-oriented coping more often than participants in the control group.

To test these hypotheses, a factorial ANCOVA was conducted including problem-oriented coping as dependent variable, condition and participant role as independent variables and gender as covariate. Problem-oriented coping was generated out of the mean scores on the subscales seeking social support and self-reliance. Once again, the labels pro-bullies and pro-victims were used, for which assistants and reinforcers were labelled pro-bullies and outsiders and defenders were labelled pro-victim.

The results show no significant main effects for participant role ($F(1,178) = 0.02; p > 0.05$). No significant main effect of the covariate on problem-oriented coping has been found ($F(1,178) = 1.18; p > 0.05$). There is also no main effect for condition ($F(1,178) = 0.55; p > 0.05$). There were also no significant interaction-effects of participant role and condition ($F(1,178) = 0.58; p > 0.05$). There were no significant interaction effects for gender and condition ($F(1,178) = 0.38; p > 0.05$) or gender and participant role ($F(1,178) = 0.21; p > 0.05$). Both parts of hypothesis 4 are therefore not supported by the data.

Discussion

The aim of this study was to shed light on the differences between the four participant roles and investigate how their reactions to a manipulation of empathy differ regarding their intended coping style in bullying-situations. Therefore an experiment was conducted to compare empathy, self-efficacy, self-esteem and coping intention in future bullying situations and reaction to film of the four participant role groups with each other. The study tested four hypotheses, which were based on earlier literature on bullying. In the following the results will be put in the context of other bullying research. Apart from that, some limitations of this study will be discussed. Finally there will be room for practical implications this study might have on anti-bullying campaigns and further research.

Hypothesis 1 was concerned with self-efficacy. It was expected that defenders scored higher on self-efficacy than outsiders. The results of this study support this hypothesis, which is in line with a study by Pozzoli and Gini (2010), who also found this relationship. On the other hand, there were no significant differences found between defenders and reinforcers or assistants, which contradicts Tsang et al. (2010), who wrote that self-efficacy is generally related to pro-social behaviour and should therefore be significantly stronger in defenders than in assistants and reinforcers. The fact that there is a significant difference between outsiders and defenders, but not between any of the other groups, gives at least room for the idea that low self-efficacy leads people to inactivity in bullying situations, whereas it does not seem to influence their general attitude towards bullying.

The significant difference in self-efficacy between outsiders and defenders also supports the hypothesis by Andreou, Didaskalou & Vlachou (2008), who basically assume that one of the main reasons why outsiders do not support the victim is, because they do not know how, even though they might want to.

This study also found interaction effects of participant role and condition. The results show that outsiders in the experimental condition scored higher on self-efficacy than in the control group, while all the other groups scored lower. So, for some reason, the film seems to have increased outsiders' self-efficacy, but decreased everybody else's. This was not intended and the reason for that lies probably in the exact wording of the film in combination with participants' attitude and former behaviour. Apart from showing how much the victims suffered (increasing empathy), the film focussed on the reason why the situation was that bad, which was, because in the described situations, there were no defenders. The victims were completely isolated and attempts to improve the situations failed, because no one stood up for the victim and everybody pretended not to have noticed anything.

I think that the participants evaluated the scene in relation to their usual behaviour in bullying situations. Defenders, who used to help the victim and were quite confident regarding their ability to do so, are now confronted with a scene where apparently no one was able to help for what reasons ever. Maybe that makes them think of situations in which they would feel less able to solve problems. Outsiders on the other hand, who usually did not intervene in bullying situations, see that here, everybody decided to do exactly what they usually do and it is pointed out that this was the reason, why the problem could not be resolved. This might make them think of the power they have, if they decide to help someone. If only one person stood up, the situation would be improved a lot. Maybe this makes them

more aware of the fact that they actually have a chance to influence the situation, what they might not have thought of before.

Of course, these are only speculations and it remains unclear, why assistants and reinforcers in the experimental condition score lower on self-efficacy than in the control condition. Further research is needed to shed more light on that matter. It also has to be noted here that the groups that were analysed here varied in size considerably. For example (as can be seen in table 4) there were 12 assistants in the experimental group compared to 24 in the control group, and 51 outsiders in the experimental group compared to only 36 in the control group). This makes the groups more difficult to compare. Future research should therefore study a much larger sample and assign the participants randomly to the two conditions, in order to reduce this effect.

One limitation of the study must be noted at this point. It concerns the generalizability of the results. The first issue here is the sample size, as already pointed out. Apart from that, only one school participated in the experiment, which means that all participants live in the same area and, of course, have the same level of education. Therefore the results might not be generalizable to the whole population of schoolchildren aged 10-15. Apart from that, the Städtisches Gymnasium Selm is generally very much engaged in fighting bullying, as can be seen on their website (www.gymnasium-selm.de Schule ohne Gewalt, 2004) It has even been awarded the title “Schule ohne Rassismus – Schule mit Courage” for its engagement against racism, discrimination and violence. That does not contribute to the generalizability of the results.

The second research question asked how self-esteem is involved in the process of taking a certain participant role and how the participant roles differ in self-esteem., hypothesis 2 supposed that pro-bullies (assistants and reinforcers) score lower on self-esteem than pro-victims (outsiders and defenders). The same hypothesis has been proposed by other researchers before (O'Moore & Kirkham, 2001; Salmivalli et al. 1999; Slee & Rigby, 1993), because low self-esteem is generally related to aggressive behaviour (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998) and high self-esteem has mostly been considered a necessity for pro-social behaviour (Salmivalli et al. 1999). However until today, there has been little support for this assumption. Salmivalli et al. (1999), whose data did not confirm that hypothesis, explained their results with their methodology. These authors only used four items of the Rosenberg self-esteem scale and assumed that to have biased their results.

The current study however used nine out of ten items of the same scale and does not support this hypothesis either. The two groups do not seem to differ in self-esteem.

This replicates the results of Salmivalli et al (1999), indicating that they were probably not due to their methodology. That raises the question if the importance of self-esteem might be generally overrated in the bullying literature.

A second possible explanation for this effect is provided by Slee and Rigby (1993). They hypothesized bullies to score significantly lower on self-esteem than defenders, but failed in confirming this hypothesis. They suggested that bullies had a naturally lower self-esteem than defenders, but that bullying others increased their self-esteem, making the difference undetectable in their study. The same explanation could also apply to the pro-bully bystander groups, meaning that bullying as such (or seeing others being bullied) raises the self-esteem of pro-bullies to the same level as pro-victims. In that case, a study like this one cannot find significant differences between the groups, as it is impossible to measure the self-esteem of pro-bullies, before they engage in supporting bullying.

Further research is needed to clarify the role of self-esteem in choosing a participant role. Maybe a longitudinal-study starting very early in the childhood and measuring self-esteem in various points in the development of the children could be useful here. Comparing the children's self-esteem scores before and after they are regularly confronted with bullying and determining their participant roles, could help answering the question if bullying or supporting bullying actually increases self-esteem or not.

Further, the study investigated the differences in empathy between the different participant role groups, since a couple of researchers expected to find some, but apart from the fact that bullies seem to have less empathy than defenders (Gini, Albiero, Benelli & Altoe, 2008) not much is known about the relationship of empathy and participant role.

In hypothesis 3 it was expected to find lower scores of empathy for pro-bullies than for pro-victims. This hypothesis was supported by the data, which replicates the results of Gini et al. (2008), who also found this effect in their study.

The fourth research question was concerned with the behavioural intention regarding coping with bullying situations and in how far the intervention had any effect on it. Apart from that, the study aimed at investigating how the effects of the intervention differed for the bystander groups. As empathy is generally related to pro-social behaviour and problem-oriented coping, it was hypothesised that pro-victims would show a higher intention of using problem-oriented coping in future bullying situations, compared to pro-bullies.

Since the film that was used as intervention was supposed to increase empathy, it was further hypothesised that participants in the experimental group would show a higher intention to use problem-oriented coping in future bullying situations, than participants in the control group. These hypotheses were not supported by the data.

To the knowledge of the researcher, there have only been very few studies that have addressed this topic. Research has investigated correlations between coping behaviour and active defending in bullying situations (egg. Pozzoli & Gini, 2010), but the existing studies have not tried to influence or change coping style using a manipulation, which is why there are no comparable studies. One possible reason, for not finding significant differences between participants in the experimental- and control group is that in there were also no main effects of condition on empathy. That means that the manipulation did not effectively increase participants' empathy, even though the manipulation checks had satisfying results. As there was no increase in empathy, according to the used theory, no change in coping behaviour could be initiated.

One reason for not finding significant differences in the intention to use problem-oriented coping, between pro-bullies and pro-victims might be that there are some other factors predicting the intention to use a certain coping-style, such as school environment (Eliot, Cornell, Gregory & Fran, 2010) and expected success of the coping style (Tenenbaum, Varjas, Meyers and Parris, 2011). These factors might have interfered with the analyses of this study. For students to seek social support in bullying situations the school environment, or the social environment as a whole, must be perceived as supportive and pro-victim. Factors contributing to a supportive school environment seem to be caring, respected teachers who are interested in their students. To put it simple: In order to seek social support, the student must have the impression that there is someone in his or her environment that would provide support. This is a totally subjective perception and can hugely vary for every single student, independent of the actual nature and atmosphere of the environment and teachers' willingness to fight bullying and support victims.

Expected success of the coping style could also vary between the participants, for example due to experiences or education.

Self-reliance (the second component of problem-oriented coping) might also be related to self-efficacy and also interfere with the analysis.

As we see, empathy is probably but one of many factors that influence coping behaviour and not much is known yet about how they inter-relate and interact. There is particularly little research on coping with bullying situations, especially for bystanders.

Existing studies on this topic focus on coping strategies of victims. This study is one of the first to investigate these relationships and can be used as bases for further research. Until now it indicates that empathy is not the most important factor for the intention to use problem-oriented coping behaviour in bullying situations.

One more limitation of this study is that there was no measure of victimization and that bullies were not included in the analysis, as they were not primarily targeted in this experiment.. But especially when it comes to coping with bullying situations, it would certainly be interesting to see how victims and bullies themselves react to the manipulation. This might be even more interesting if the group of the so-called bully/victims were also included, because these students see bullying situations from both, the pro-bully and the pro-victim perspective. Bully/victims, as the name proposes, are bullies who also are or have been victims of bullying (Farmer et al., 2010). According to Haynie et al. (2001) more than 50 per cent of all bullies are or have also been victims. So naturally this group of people might differ in their feelings and behaviour from all the other groups. This should also influence their intended coping behaviour for future bullying-situations. The focus of this study lay on the bystander groups, so this was beyond the scope of this paper, but seems to be a very interesting point to investigate in further research.

Another limitation was that this study could not research implications for actual behaviour. The aim of all bullying-research is to understand the whole process in order to finally reduce bullying. This study gave interesting new insights and suggestions for future research, but the results do not directly indicate which participant role the participants of this study are going to take in the future, or whether that will increase or decrease bullying.

To understand the bullying process it is important to understand those who are involved in it. Of the three groups, bullies, victims and bystanders, the latter is definitely the largest, so understanding bystanders and figuring out why they behave the way they do and how to influence that therefore certainly contributes to decreasing bullying in the end.

Finally this study gives some implications for the praxis. First, the study indicates that pro-bullies and pro-victims differ significantly in empathy. Pro-victims score considerably higher, therefore interventions that increase empathy in pro-bullies might lead assistants and reinforcers to at least stop supporting bullying. Earlier research indicated that bullies are more sensitive to positive feedback than to negative (Salmivalli, Voeten en Poskiparta, 2011), implying that decreasing the number of bully-supporters might even have a larger impact than increasing the number of defenders. Surprisingly the film is not effective in increasing

empathy, so intervention-planners have to find a different method to achieve that. However, the film does increase outsiders' self-efficacy. As outsiders self-efficacy on problem solving is significantly lower than that of defenders, increasing self-efficacy might lead some outsiders to becoming defenders. That way more negative feedback for bullies is provided, which might in turn decrease bullying.

Apart from that even though the film does not seem to be effective in increasing empathy, the participants reported that after watching it, they understood a lot better how victims of bullying feel and nearly all of them claimed to appreciate that.

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Appendix 1 Questionnaire

Testperson Nr:

Mobbing ist heutzutage ein wichtiges Problem an Schulen und betrifft auf die eine oder andere Weise fast alle Schüler. Möglicherweise hast auch du im Laufe deiner Schulzeit schon einmal eine Mobbingsituation beobachtet oder warst vielleicht sogar daran beteiligt. Noch kurz zur Definition von Mobbing: Nicht jede Situation, in der jemand geärgert oder verletzt wird, ist Mobbing. Als Mobbing wird das mehrfache körperliche oder seelische Verletzen eines Schülers über einen längeren Zeitraum durch einen anderen oder eine Gruppe von Schülern bezeichnet. Meistens besteht außerdem ein Machtverhältnis zwischen Täter und Opfer, was bedeutet, dass das Opfer meist schwächer ist als der oder die Täter und somit oft wehrlos ist. Außerdem sind Mobbingattacken in der Regel nicht provoziert, entstehen daher nicht im Streit, sondern sind eine Form von gezieltem Angriff (Das kann beschimpfen, beleidigen, schlagen, treten, verbreiten von Gerüchten oder das gezielte ausschließen aus der Gruppe beinhalten).

In diesem Fragebogen geht es darum zu beurteilen wie sich deine Mitschüler deiner Meinung nach in Mobbing-Situationen verhalten. Der Fragebogen beschreibt verschiedene Reaktionen auf Mobbing. Lies die folgenden Verhaltensweisen und Reaktionen gut durch und gib für jede an, auf wen in deiner Klasse dieses Verhalten deiner Meinung nach zutrifft. Schreibe als Antwort die Nummer (siehe hierfür beigefügte Klassenliste) der entsprechenden Person hinter den Satz. Es geht dabei nicht um Anklagen oder eine moralische Bewertung des Verhaltens, sondern um eine objektive Beschreibung. Wichtig ist, dass du ehrlich bist und nicht zu lange über deine Antworten nachdenkst. Es gibt keine falschen Antworten und alle Angaben werden anonym verarbeitet. Es wird also niemand, auch nicht die Schule, erfahren was du geantwortet hast. Deine Antworten in dieser Studie haben keinerlei Konsequenzen auf deine Noten. Du darfst bei jeder Frage so viele Personen nennen, wie du möchtest, wenn du glaubst, dass sie sich in Mobbingsituationen so verhalten, wie es beschrieben wird. Natürlich kommt Mobbing nicht in allen Klassen vor, außerdem gibt es verschiedene Abstufungen. Es ist also möglich, dass in deiner Klasse gar nicht alle der hier beschriebenen Verhaltensweisen vorkommen. Fällt dir niemand ein, der sich auf die angegebene Weise verhält, schreibst du einfach niemanden auf. Nochmals, es gibt keine falschen Antworten! Du kannst einzelne Fragen überspringen, wenn sie dir unangenehm sind und du darfst die Untersuchung jederzeit abbrechen, wenn du dich durch die Fragen unwohl fühlst oder Ähnliches.

Im Voraus schon mal herzlichen Dank für deine Teilnahme.

Folgende Schüler in meiner Klasse....

- 1) Starten Mobbing gegen andere
- 2) Beteiligen sich an Mobbing, wenn jemand anders damit anfängt
- 3) Kommen dazu um Mobbingsituationen zu beobachten
- 4) Trösten Opfer von Mobbing oder ermutigen es, einem Lehrer davon zu erzählen
- 5) Sind meistens abwesend in Mobbing-Situationen
- 6) Bringen andere dazu sich an Mobbing zu beteiligen
- 7) Assistieren demjenigen, der anfängt zu mobben
- 8) Lachen, wenn jemand anders gemobbt wird
- 9) Fordern andere auf mit dem Mobbing aufzuhören
- 10) Halten sich aus Mobbing-Situationen heraus
- 11) Finden ständig neue Wege um andere zu ärgern und zu erniedrigen
- 12) Helfen beim Mobben eines Mitschülers, z.B. indem er/sie das Opfer jagen oder festhalten
- 13) Feuern denjenigen an, der andere mobbt, z.B. durch Zurufe, wie „Zeig's ihm“
- 14) Versuchen andere vom Mobbing abzuhalten
- 15) Stellen sich weder auf die Seite des Opfers, noch auf die der Täter

Zum Abschluss folgen noch ein paar kurze Fragen über den Film. Auch hier gibt es keine falschen Antworten, es geht darum, wie du den Film wahrgenommen hast und wie er auf dich wirkt.

	stimme absolut nicht zu	stimme nicht zu	stimme eher nicht zu	stimme ein bisschen zu	stimme zu	stimme absolut zu
1) Ich habe großes Mitleid mit den gemobbten Schülern im Film	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2) Durch den Film kann ich besser in Opfer von Mobbing hineinversetzen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3) Ich verstehe nachdem ich den Film gesehen habe besser, wie sich Opfer von Mobbing fühlen, als vorher	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4) Der Film beschreibt anschaulich mögliche Folgen von Mobbing.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Hast du den Film oder Teile des Films vor der Teilnahme an dieser Studie bereits gesehen? Ja Nein nur Teile

Bitte warte nun darauf, dass deine Mitschüler fertig sind mit Ausfüllen. Es folgt eine kurze Erklärung des Ziels der Studie und der möglichen praktischen Nutzung der Untersuchungsergebnisse. Danach wird es Zeit geben um Fragen zu stellen. Sobald die Daten ausgewertet sind, besteht die Möglichkeit sich über die Ergebnisse informieren zu lassen.

Vielen Dank für deine Mithilfe!