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# Effects of Implementation Intentions on Teacher Intervention for Name Calling

Joseph A. Putrino, Jr.  
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Effects of Implementation Intentions on Teacher Intervention for Name Calling

by

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Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the  
Degree of Doctor of Education and Administration in Executive Ed.D. Program  
Seton Hall University

2009

SETON HALL UNIVERSITY  
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND HUMAN SERVICES  
OFFICE OF GRADUATE STUDIES

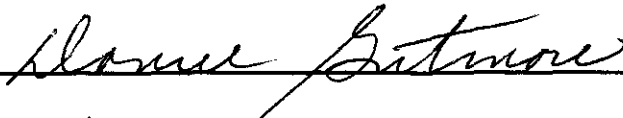
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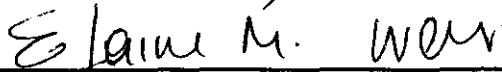
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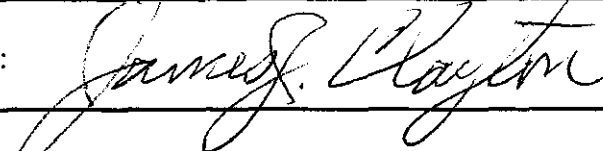
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## Abstract

One of the most prevalent forms of bullying is direct verbal aggression in the form of name-calling (Crozier & Skliopidou, 2002). The direct negative impact that bullying creates affects students, teachers, school property, the community, and the educational process (Espelage & Holt, 2001; Oliver et al., 1994; Swearer, Song, & Frazier-Koontz, 2001). One way to directly counteract name-calling is through behavioral enactment, specifically verbal response. Implementation Intention (Gollwitzer, 1999), a two phase theory (motivational and volitional), has been shown to effectively enhance behavioral enactment. Supplementing behavioral intention with implementation intention increases the likelihood of behavioral enactment because behaviors occur automatically once the specific time and place are encountered (Gollwitzer & Brandstatter, 1997, study 3).

The present study examined the effect of implementation intentions on teacher-based intervention for name-calling. Teacher participants were asked to make daily commitments to address bullying in the form of verbal harassment. Teacher participants reported perceptions of student safety levels as well as the frequency of witnessed accounts of name-calling and recalled frequency of teacher-based interventions to name-calling through the completion of a pre- and post study questionnaire. The results of this study confirmed that implementation intentions can increase teacher commitment levels. The findings demonstrated a decrease in recalled daily witnessed accounts of name-calling. Additionally, individuals who formed implementation intentions recalled fewer daily interventions. The results of this study are imperative to the future of bullying interventions as well as student safety. Based on these results and the literature,

implementation intentions is a promising technique for increasing direct intervention for various forms of bullying behaviors. Implications of this study, limitations, as well as future directions for research are discussed.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my brother

John Michael Putrino

(1979 – 2008)

*John I will never loose the lessons you have taught me. I wrote this paper with the pen you gave me. I would give it all back to get lost on our way to a Yankees' game again.*

*I love you and I miss you.*

*I refused to give up because you always kept trying.*

*Thank you*

## Acknowledgments

Randy Pausch said, "Somewhere along the way there's got to be some aspect of what lets you get to achieve your dreams. First one is the role of parents, mentors, and students." This body of work is one that was inspired by life experiences and individuals whose support, guidance and leadership helped this goal come to fruition. It will be a steppingstone that will allow me to explore and research future topics in this area. I would like to extend my gratitude and admiration towards Dr. Daniel Gutmore. Your mentorship and rigor allowed me to remain focused through many difficult times. Additionally, I would like to thank Dr. Elaine Walker. Your eye for detail and pursuit of quality work has given me a heightened level of confidence about my work. To Dr. James Clayton, who beyond a mentor and professional, has become a friend, thank you for your guidance, expertise and sanity. They were all very needed. You always helped to put things in perspective.

I would like to express my appreciation to educators. Bullying has become at the forefront of our profession. It is with our hard work, determination, and pursuit of research that we will address this pressing issue. I am forever motivated by my peers.

To my family who knows many great challenges. I reflect on another quote from Randy Pausch, "If you're going to have childhood dreams you should have great parents who let you pursue them and express your creativity." You have all shown me support and unconditional love. Your presence and example have opened the doors needed for me to pursue my dreams. Thank you for all that you are.

To my son, Joseph, many more works will be left behind for you to gain inspiration from. I hope in the end you learn that you were the inspiration for all of it.

To my wife, Silvia, words continue to fail in reflection to how I feel about you. You are the torch that guides me, conversation that provokes my thoughts, and the reason I strive everyday to be a better person. Simply put.... You're brilliant.

Randy Pausch ended his *Last Lecture* with this statement;

“Did you figure out the head fake? It's not about how to achieve your dreams. It's about how to lead your life. If you lead your life the right way, the karma will take care of itself. The dreams will come to you.

Did you figure out the second head fake? This talk's not for you. It's for my kids.”

Silvia you have helped me lead my life in a way that has brought my dreams to me.

This was all for you..... “Thank you”, will never be enough. I love you.

## Chapter I:

### Introduction

#### *Problem Statement*

What is the effect of utilizing implementation intentions on teacher intervention in name-calling?

#### *Background*

School bullying, which can be defined as a repeated negative action toward a peer who cannot easily defend himself or herself, has been a topic of public and scientific concern for some time (Salmivalli, Kaukiainen, & Voeten, 2005). Direct verbal aggression in the form of name-calling, assigning unkind nicknames, and hurtful teasing is among the most prevalent forms of bullying (Crozier & Skliopidou, 2002). Whitney and Smith (1993) reported that 50% of junior and middle school pupils reported being called names, and this was the most frequent form of bullying. Crozier and Dimmock (1999) stated that more than 20% of a sample of primary school pupils aged 9 and 10 years old claimed that they experienced nasty comments and unkind nicknames on a daily basis.

It is estimated that 3 out of 10 students are either bullies or victims of bullies; 11% are victims, and 6% are both bullies and victims of bullies (Fox, Elliot, Kerlikowske, Newman, & Christeson, 2003). Victims are often identified as being different from their peers (Bernstein & Watson, 1997). This may be due to the victims' height, stature, choice of clothes, mannerisms, beliefs, coordination, disabilities, craniofacial abnormalities, and sexual orientation. The 2001 National School Climate Survey: The School-related Experiences of Our Nation's Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and

Transgendered Youth (Gay, Lesbian and Straight Education Network [GLSEN], 2001) reported that 94% of students frequently heard homophobic remarks in school. Roughly half of the students claimed that the homophobic remarks, in the form of name-calling, were made when faculty or staff were not present or faculty or staff never intervened when they were present.

Studies of the consequences of bullying in schools have concentrated upon health outcomes for children persistently bullied by their peers. These studies have yielded conclusions from cross-sectional surveys that suggest that being victimized by peers is significantly related to comparatively low levels of psychological well-being and social adjustment and high levels of psychological distress and adverse physical health symptoms (Rigby, 2003). Generally, bullied victims are at high risk for later maladjustment (Olweus, in press, as cited in Schwartz, Dodge, & Coie, 1993). Furthermore, the effects of bullying on victims when compared with other children tend to manifest the following conditions: low self-esteem, low self-confidence, poor self-worth, higher rates of depression, anxiety, feeling more insecure, incompetence, hypersensitivity, feeling being unsafe, panicky and nervous at school, having recurrent memories of bullying to the point that their concentration is impaired, rejection by their peers, socially avoidant, more introverted, having few friends usually isolated, and feeling lonelier (Duncan, 1999). Retrospective reports and studies, such as Rigby's (2003), support these diagnoses and suggest that peer victimization may contribute to later difficulties with health and well-being. Longitudinal studies provide stronger support for the view that a peer is a significant causal factor in schoolchildren's lowered health and well-being and the effects can be long lasting. Further evidence from

longitudinal studies indicates that the tendency to bully others at school significantly predicts subsequent antisocial and violent behavior (Rigby, 2003).

One way to directly counteract such name-calling is through behavioral enactment, specifically verbal response. Implementation intention (Gollwitzer, 1999), a strategy utilizing goal pursuit, has been shown to effectively enhance behavioral enactment. Gollwitzer outlined two phases of goal pursuit. During the first phase, or the motivational stage, a decision or behavioral intention is made to perform a behavior. During the volitional phase, a specific plan is utilized to guarantee that the behavioral intention is acted upon. Gollwitzer's theory asserts that an implementation intention influences the volitional stage and translates behavioral intentions into planned behaviors by specifying where and when the behavior is performed. Numerous research studies have indicated that implementation intentions are effective because they occur automatically once the specified time and place are encountered (Albarracin, Johnson, Fishbein, & Muellerleile, 2001; Conner & Armitage, 1998; Gollwitzer & Brandstatter, 1997; Orbell, Hodgkins, & Sheeran, 1997; Sheeran & Orbell, 2000; Sheeran & Taylor, 1999; Verplanken & Faes, 1999). More specifically, implementation intentions promote goal pursuit in two ways; an implementation intention helps people remember and recognize a situation designated for action when it happens and creates a strong mental bond between a situation and a behavior, similar to the formation of a habit; subsequently, the behavior will occur automatically.

Silence is no longer an acceptable response to name-calling. Silence will persistently harm society and countless individuals if we continue to be negligent in *developing a course of action that effectively addresses the implications of verbal*



aggression on our children. Victims of this form of bullying will continue to be at greater risk for long-lasting psychological anguish and experience more depression, anxiety, anger, and symptoms of posttraumatic stress (Herek, Cogan, & Gillis, 1999; Lewis, Derlega, Griffin, & Krowinski, 2003; Rivers, 2004). Sadly, an extraordinarily high number of students have reported hearing name-calling in more open or less supervised areas of school. Furthermore, when other students or faculty members heard sexually prejudiced remarks, approximately 90% reported that no one intervened (GLSEN, 2001). It is not surprising that so many of our students do not feel safe at school. The hostile and unsupportive environments that have been created and maintained by silence have led to 31% of students skipping a class once a month or missing an entire day of school because they felt unsafe (GLSEN, 2001). It is crucial that we address name-calling not only to increase safety levels in school systems but also to increase students' grade point average, participation in classrooms, as well as likelihood of attending college. It is essential that we empower individuals, in particular, faculty and staff, beyond the intention to address bullying to the automatic commitment and ability to counterargue name-calling statements.

Implementation intentions have proved to be a tangible and effective means of promoting a particular behavior. Although they have been primarily used in the health and wellness field, and more recently the social sciences, this technique can be easily woven into the fabric of educational practice. This technique can influence the behaviors of the entire educational community. Name-calling is an overlooked victimizer of students. Utilizing implementation intentions to counteract this phenomenon will likely have a significant impact on reducing the rate of name-calling instances.

Once again, the purpose of the current study is to examine the effects of verbal implementation intentions on teacher intervention in name-calling. Based upon the literature, the following hypotheses are made.

### *Hypotheses*

*Hypothesis 1.* It is predicted that those participants who form implementation intentions will e-mail more daily commitments to counterargue name-calling than those who do not form implementation intentions.

*Hypothesis 2.* It is predicted that teachers who form implementation intentions will, over time, report lower levels of daily name-calling than those who do not form implementation intentions.

*Hypothesis 3.* It is expected that teachers who form implementation intentions will count more numbers of interventions in name-calling than those who do not form implementation intentions.

### *Limitations*

Previous research has shown that name-calling is a national concern (Lee, 1993). Ten elementary schools from one public school district in the northeastern United States were randomly selected. To reduce the number of variables affecting the study, it focused on fourth- and fifth-grade teacher commitment levels for the duration of 20 school days.

Five of the elementary schools served as sites where implementation intentions are put in place. Thirty-six homeroom teachers were asked to form implementation intentions and asked to send daily e-mail commitments to intervene in name-calling situations. The teachers had contact with 765 students throughout the duration of the study.

Five additional elementary schools acted as the control for this study. Thirty-three homeroom teachers were asked to send daily e-mail commitments intervene in name-calling situations without receiving the implementation intention directions. The teachers had contact with 770 students throughout the duration of the study.

### *Delimitations*

While this study aimed to approach the issue of name-calling through increased commitment to teacher-based interventions, it focused on only 10 elementary schools in the northeastern United States. The small sample utilized in this study is a major limitation. Future work in this area should attempt a large  $N$  count to facilitate more concrete findings. While this work was conducted over 20 school days, the length should be increased in future studies. A longer period of experimentation with more frequent data collected about name-calling witnessing and intervention frequency might be helpful. The study should be repeated in various locations to further validate the results. In addition, student data would be valuable to assess if these teacher-based interventions provide a significant difference in student perceptions of safety. Additionally, student testimony would allow researchers to confirm if teacher accounts are accurate and reflective of what they recall and discuss on the Teacher Position Questionnaire. Furthermore, since several subgroups of students are affected by name-calling, more specific research that targets one category of victims (i.e., race) would be useful in determining if interventions in name-calling are more effective for certain situations.

### *Definitions*

*Bullying.* As defined by Olweus (1994), bullying occurs when a student intentionally inflicts, or attempts to inflict, injury, or discomfort on another student.

*Name-calling.* Name-calling can be defined as direct verbal aggression through the act of assigning unkind nicknames and hurtful teasing (Crozier & Skliopidou, 2002).

*Implementation intentions.* Gollwitzer (1993, 1996) contended that an implementation intention is a cognitive strategy that utilizes specific plans to translate behavioral intentions into planned behaviors.

## Chapter II: Literature Review

### *Introduction*

Absolute power corrupts, absolutely. One reason for this outcome is humans experience pleasure in the exercise of power. Since there is this parallel between power and pleasure, it is merely human nature to fall in love with being an authority. The result is individuals and groups seeking out situations and positions in which they have and, more importantly, maintain the upper hand. This imposition of roles can be seen in small interactions between these individuals or through the encounters of large groups. Throughout history, we can see how the use and abuse of power by authority has created turmoil and lasting effects on the world stage. Today's global climate is a product of continuing power struggles that have been spawned from this obsession with control. The roots of bullying can be witnessed within power struggles.

### *History of Bullying*

Throughout history, we can see how the use and abuse of power by an authority has created turmoil and lasting effects on the world stage. Several historical examples can tie bullying into the causality of the modern global, political, and social climate. One such instance was the imbalance of power utilized by the English colonists in the 1640s. This is a good historical example. Here, we can see clear abuse of authority by one group over a less advantaged one. More than 12 million Africans were shipped against their will to the United States between the 17th and 19th centuries. The exploitation of these Africans still resonates in the world today. We still have tensions between Whites and Blacks in the United States. Many White Americans refuse to believe they should give up

that “upper hand.” The Ku Klux Klan, an organization created in 1866, still advocates White supremacy, anti-Catholicism, homophobia, anti-Semitism, anticommunism, and nativism. The development and practice of this group are in response to slaves being freed and Blacks seeking civil rights in America. Klan members act as bullies, willfully intimidating and harming their victims. However, slavery and persecution are not isolated to the United States.

During World War II, the world was shown the Holocaust. The word holocaust, translated from Greek, means “completely burnt.” In this deliberate attempt to exterminate an entire race, Adolf Hitler, German leader and bully on the world stage, killed approximately 6 million European Jews. He and his Nazi soldiers forced Jews into concentration camps where they were imprisoned and forced to work. The trauma of this experience led some survivors to suffer from mental illness. A study by the SUNY Downstate Medical Center showed that more than 50% of survivors suffered from depression and showed significantly poor psychological and social function. Hitler’s reach undermined several attempts to intervene and still can be felt today. The long-term effects of psychological trauma are real. Globally, we are constantly faced with the challenge of creating strategies and interventions for handling international bullying.

On a smaller scale, we can see more localized bullying and the results of the abuse of power. Schools and other institutions where large groups of people gather and are placed into a competitive arena are breeding grounds for small-scale bullying. On April 20, 1999, two students from Columbine High School, in Denver, Colorado, went on a shooting rampage and killed 12 students and a teacher. In addition, more than 20 other people were wounded. Both boys, Eric Harris and Dylan Klebold, committed suicide. It

was only then that their violent rampage stopped. As details after surfaced after the attacked, it was discovered that these two boys were the targets of bullying. They decided that the only way to crawl out from under the powerful oppression of their bullies was through the use of firearms, which the teenagers thought gave them the advantage. They had taken out their repressed frustration on their bullies and, unfortunately, on many innocent bystanders. This attack was only the fourth deadliest of its kind. The attack drew the public's attention to bullying in schools and other issues such as gun laws and the effects of violent TV and videogames on adolescent behavior.

So what has changed? As a result of the previous and infinite more historic examples of the imbalance and abuse of power both locally and globally, we have seen increased identification of and attention paid to these situations. The definition of bullying and who the bullies are have been refined to be all inclusive. However, as we continue to witness bullying, we struggle to intervene.

The Darfur crisis, which started in February 2003, in western Sudan, is still occurring in 2007. The Sudanese military teamed with the Janjaweed militia group, have left approximately 450,000 Fur, Zaghawa, and Massaleit people dead from violence or disease. The use of military armed force and the exploitation by the government in refusing resources for the drought- and poverty-stricken tribes are clear demonstrations of a modern bullying tactic. There has been very little intervention in this 4-year conflict, which has been marked by ethnic cleansing and genocide. Major offensives in the region perpetuate the powerful role of the Sudanese government over local tribes and UN peacekeeping forces.

We can also see present-day examples on the local level. Gang violence in inner

cities is directly related to bullying. Members of the gangs usually join to avoid ridicule from peers, other gangs, or their own gang members. Hierarchies in the gang's organization allows for power to be distributed from the top down. Members of a gang are pressured into breaking the law and committing crimes, many times against the members' will. "Wanting" to be accepted within the larger group gives the gang leader the power to control them. That power is often abused with knowledge of negative outcomes. In Los Angeles County, law enforcement officials are aware of more than 1,300 street gangs with more than 150,000 members. In the city of Los Angeles alone, there are approximately 407 gangs and more than 56,000 members (Los Angeles County Interagency Gang Task Force, 2001). Gangs account for approximately 51% of all homicides in Los Angeles County. Of the 1,156 homicides in 2001, 587 were gang-related (Los Angeles County Safe Streets Bureau, 2002).

### *Consequences of Bullying*

Olweus (1989) identified frequency, the intention to hurt, and an asymmetric relationship between the bully and the victim as the three major characteristics of bullying. This kind of aggression can be direct or indirect. Some types of indirect bullying are expressed in words. Bullying can take the form of threats, mocking, teasing, and name-calling. Direct or physical bullying can be identified through contact such as hitting, shoving, kicking, pinching, or holding someone back. Social relations such as ostracizing and manipulating friendships have also been identified as bullying tactics (Berkowitz, 1993; Dodge & Coie, 1987; Olweus, 1984; Smith & Sharp, 1994).

This willful, conscious desire to hurt someone or to place someone under stress can be facilitated by a person or group. Individuals in positions of authority often fall into



these bullying roles. An employer, teacher, or person in leadership position is supposed to use his or her power to yield desired outcomes. Often the interactions of an employer with an employee or teacher with a student can become disadvantageous to the lesser half and interpreted as bullying. Workplace bullying in the United States has brought about legislation and is defined in House Bill 1968 as conduct that a reasonable person would find hostile or offensive and unrelated to an employer's legitimate business interests. This conduct by the employer causes physical or psychological harm to the employee. This health-endangering mistreatment affects one in six workers in the United States. In fact, bullying is twice as prevalent as sexual harassment (Tennen, 2003).

Group dynamic bullying occurs in a similar way. A large governing body with a power advantage can directly or indirectly impose themselves on a less able individual or organization. "There is strength in numbers" takes on a new meaning when the larger, more powerful group is consciously taking advantage of another. This can very clearly be seen in political and warfare exchanges between countries. For example, it was discussed earlier how the English colonists took advantage of the less powerful Africans. The exchange led to decades of bullying, both through direct abuse in the form of slavery and physical torture and indirect abuse, the verbal degrading of humans. Many would argue that a second example is the use of multinational corporations. Large companies use land in other countries to build factories that produce the companies' products. The decision to relocate is based on cheaper construction, cheaper labor, and less stringent environmental codes, which also saves the companies' money. These factories usually have horrible working conditions and sometimes illegally employ children to receive their desired result. The power and fear that are imposed on the workers are directly connected to their

well-being and the vitality of their families. The pressure to survive keeps these workers in line and keeps these corporations in business.

Anyone can be or become a bully, and no one is discriminated against when it comes to being a victim. Examples of these power imbalances are found all over the world. Bullying is not just a playground phenomenon; bullying can affect all of us.

### *Name-Calling*

Sticks and stones may break my bones, but names will never hurt me. One of the founding principles of the United States is the freedom of speech. Much like any privilege that involves the use of power, free speech can be abused and can be harmful. When words or names are used with the intention of causing discomfort or pain, they do hurt. Thousands of individuals each year are victims of bullying. Most of these situations go unaddressed and often result in lifelong scars and trauma. In the workplace and at school are just two places where bullying takes on this indirect approach through the use of words and name-calling. The victims of this type of abuse can sometimes break under pressure and lash out physically, as we saw in the Columbine school massacre. Again, both students made statements and recorded in journals about how the boys were pushed to the edge by classmates who abused their power by verbally harassing the two. It has been argued that, with the appropriate intervention, this tragedy could have been avoided and many lives saved.

One of the most prevalent forms of bullying is direct verbal aggression in the form of name-calling (Crozier & Skliopidou, 2002). This is the act of assigning unkind nicknames and hurtful teasing. This abuse of power by the bully is very easily accomplished and is very seldom addressed. Leaving this abuse of power unaddressed

has lead to the more frequent use of this power imbalancing tactic. Name-calling, assigning nicknames, and teasing are also potentially ambiguous events, involving a balance of playful and aggressive intentions. Rymes (1996) stated that these interactions can serve a range of social functions and are not necessarily aversive or malicious, for example, two friends who develop playful nicknames that reflect their personalities or a married couple who use cute names for one another to help express how they feel about each other. This prosocial use (Keltner, Young, Heerey, Oemig, & Monarch, 1998) contributes to social identity, strengthens interpersonal bonds, and helps to diffuse conflict (Boxer & Cortés-Conde, 1997). The use of humor is important to the interpretation of the use of a nickname. Humor surrounds the situation and provides context. Ambiguity develops in the event through the use of humor. In teasing, humor mitigates the threat to the recipient's desired social identity (Keltner et al., 1998). If a coworker or your employer states, with a straight face, in front of others that you are a slacker, you might interpret that as a direct attack on your work ethic. However, if the same event transpires, but the employer is laughing and being playful, it could suggest that he or she is fooling around and could even be sarcastic to imply your good work ethic.

Name-calling and assigning nicknames can also communicate aggression or rejection (De Klerk & Bosch, 1996). The use of humor in these situations can sometimes confuse the recipient. This kind of ambiguity can leave the recipient without a response. Instead, he or she suffers the pressure of standing up for himself or herself (Kehily & Nayak, 1997). A student who is called a name in this type of scenario can respond in two ways. The student can speak up or stay quiet. Those who succumb to the pressure can

internalize emotions such as anger or self-doubt. This lack of response can lead to a low sense of self-worth. Depression is not an uncommon outcome when a child cannot release stress. As for those who choose to respond to name-calling, they could find themselves in a verbal or physical confrontation. People who choose this path can ultimately be viewed as bullies themselves as the response to name-calling is often name-calling.

Name-calling can happen anywhere and is usually not limited to a one-time occurrence. In schools, at the workplace, on the street, and at home are just a few of the places where name-calling can be experienced. Whitney and Smith (1993) reported that 50% of junior and middle school pupils and 62% of secondary pupils reported being called names, and this was the most frequent form of bullying that the researcher recorded. Crozier and Dimmock (1999) reported that more than 20% of a sample of primary school pupils aged 9 and 10 years claimed that they experienced nasty comments and unkind nicknames on a daily basis. One reason may be that they can be difficult to identify because they are more inconspicuous than physical forms of bullying, and can be whispered or hinted at even when teachers are present.

#### *Consequences of Name-Calling*

There are many adverse effects of bullying on the victim. Psychological and physiological impacts can plague the life of a victim. Since many bullies have been victims before their role reversal, these effects apply to them as well. The psychophysiological results of these experiences seem to have immediate effects that if not dealt with appropriately can and will linger on. They tend to shape the future of this individual's mental, physical, and social future. Crozier and Skliopidou (2002) conducted a study investigating adult recollections of name-calling at school. Two hundred and

twenty adults responded to a questionnaire addressing nicknames used while at school in addition to recollections of name-calling. Participants reported greater effects on all areas of school life. Individuals who experienced hurtful name-calling tended to rate past incidents as more negative and had stronger associations of name-calling with physical bullying. Sixty-two percent of the participants stated they coped with the traumatic events by relying on verbal retaliation, whereas 46% ignored the trigger. Minimal appropriate and positive coping strategies were reported. While participants recounted that they rarely told teachers, those who did venture to approach an adult often conveyed that the school personnel were unhelpful.

Victims of bullying also suffer from a social delinquency. Their psychological and physiological conditions factor into this social maladjustment. The terms *social skills* and *social competence* are often used to describe the ability to navigate through society with successful and appropriate interactions. While what is acceptable based on social standards is subjective, it seems to be universally accepted that specific behaviors can commonly describe social skills and competence. As well as the latter, we can find consensus in what is not socially appropriate. McFall (1982) proposed that social skills are specific behaviors that enable a person to be judged as socially competent. This designation, made by others, is usually during a particular social task, which allowed for these skills to be exhibited and or come into question. Furthermore, Merrell and Gimpel (1998) stated that someone who can develop and maintain friendships easily, and resolve difficult social problems could be defined as socially skilled. Being unsuccessful at these tactics usually results in a life plagued with significant occupational, academic, interpersonal, emotional, and behavior problems. It should be clear that someone who is

socially maladjusted is not going to be successful or find success easily. Victims with these characteristic dilemmas are often ostracized and need to fight twice as hard to be accepted in social rings. However, these social consequences are not specific to the victim; they can also attach themselves to bullies. One reason is that most bullies were victims of bullying at one point in their lives, and second, the social characteristics of a bully usually fall within the range of social unacceptable behaviors. The cyclical process of bully to victim seems almost inescapable in its effects on the social-emotional well-being of any involved party.

Olweus (1993), a pioneer in this area of research, defined bullying or victimization instances “when [a student] is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other students.” This definition stresses the direct physical nature of the behavior (hitting, pushing, etc.), as well as its direct verbal nature (teasing, threatening, calling names). Additionally, bullying can sometimes take the form of more indirect behaviors such as social exclusion and rumor spreading. Olweus proposed that, to use the term bullying, there should be an imbalance in strength, where the student who receives the negative actions is unable to defend himself or herself and is helpless against the bully.

#### *The Impact of Name-Calling on School Climate*

Bullying continues to threaten the educational landscape, and is emotionally and physically disruptive to the student (Garrity, Jens, Porter, Sayger, & Short-Camilli, 1995). The direct negative impact that bullying creates affects students, teachers, school property, the community, and the educational process (Espelage & Holt, 2001; Oliver, Hoover, & Hazler, 1994; Swearer, Song, & Frazier-Koontz, 2001). One hundred and

sixty thousand students, according to the U.S. Department of Justice and the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP), miss school each day because of fear (Lee, 1993). This phenomenon is the result of these students feeling that school staff provide inadequate protection or feel that by seeking assistance they will draw retaliation from the bully. Students simply do not feel that school is a safe environment, at least not as safe and conducive to learning as it was intended to be (Batsche & Knoff, 1994). This dilemma has a self-entrapping effect. Students know they should speak up; however, many have anxiety about witnessing bullying or speaking out and fear that they may become victims of bullying if they have not already been targeted (Olweus, 1978).

Bullying cannot be tolerated. Thousands of children suffer from bullying and its related problems. Due to feelings of inadequate training and skills, many teachers ignore bullying (Stephenson & Smith, 1989). Some teachers feel they might even worsen a situation by causing a bully to retaliate or even find more elusive means of attacking (Besag, 1989; Hoover, Oliver, & Hazler, 1992; Olweus, 1994). Students do not have confidence in their teachers to intervene. Hazler, Hoover and Oliver (1991) reported that 2 out of 3 students said that teachers handle the problems of bullying ineffectively. Since students feel that their teachers are not aware of problems because bullying often appears to go unnoticed by the teachers, and bullying incidents are rarely brought to the attention of an authority figure unless the situation becomes serious (Bryne, 1994). This reaction only perpetuates bullying.

Maslow's hierarchy of learning begins with safety. If a student is not comfortable in his or her learning environment, not much learning will occur. Bullying has a directly negative effect on school climate. This mood can be set for an individual or the entire

school. The negative climate of a building can be felt and reacted upon by students, teachers, or any school staff member.

Teachers and school staff represent the first line of defense for student in the war on bullying. Their close contact with the students and often trusting bonds should allow for immediate intervention. Teachers can implement the immediate consequence that is needed to stunt and deter bullying behavior. Without their partnership with the students on this issue, bullies will continue to spread their cruelty (Fried & Fried, 1996). As discussed earlier, name-calling can be quite nonchalant, and therefore teachers may fail to recognize name-calling as a form of bullying. School staff must model appropriate speech for children.

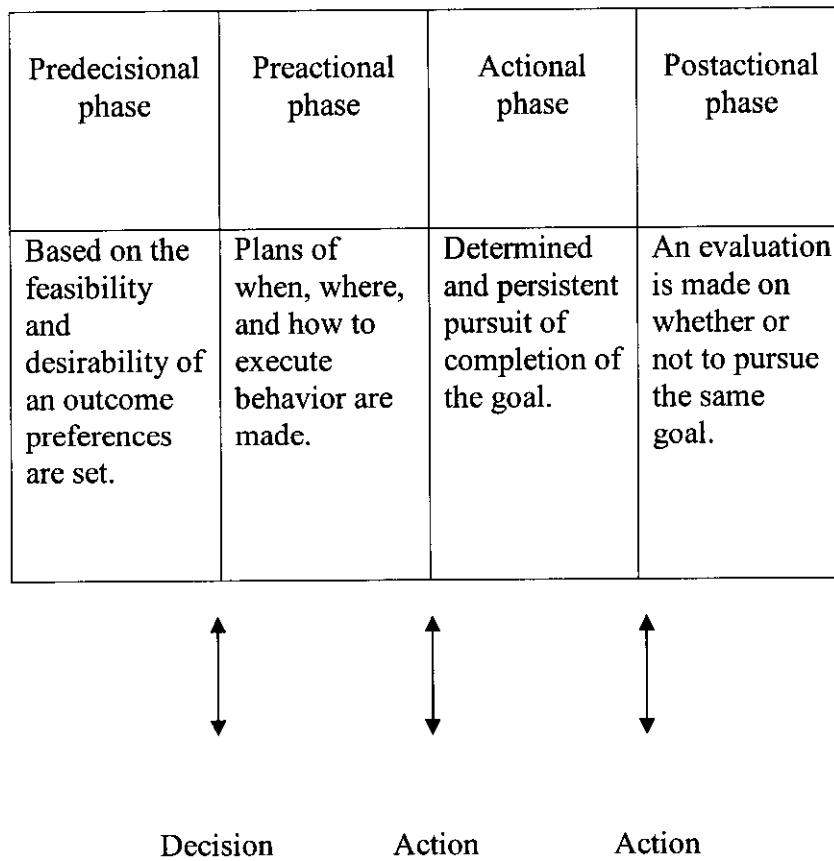
The most effective means by which teachers can manage the problem of bullying is by developing increased knowledge and awareness of the problem; by ensuring that there are minimal opportunities for acts of bullying to materialize; and by offering student support, training, and education aimed at attacking the root causes of the bullying behavior (Besag, 1989). The use of continuing education and continuing training to enhance teachers' knowledge has been shown to be effective in dealing with difficult students. Schools whose administrators kept their teachers educated on intervention techniques, provided them with advice and support, and informed them about problem students had fewer incidents of bullying (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1985; Stephenson & Smith, 1989). Combining in-service training with follow-up support in the form of consultation is important because in-service training on classroom management issues is insufficient to produce lasting changes in teachers' knowledge and intervention skills, whereas in-service training combined with follow-up consultation is effective in



producing significant changes (Shapiro, DuPaul, Bradley, & Bailey, 1996). Shapiro et al.'s success with a psycho-educational program, in tandem with follow-up consultation, for teachers working with "emotionally disturbed children" indicates that a psycho-educational antibullying intervention for teachers, accompanied by follow-up group support, may be a viable program for reducing and preventing childhood bullying. Efforts by teachers to help create a safe learning environment, where students are comfortable, feel confident, and are able to express themselves and their individuality, greatly facilitate student learning and personal comfort at school. This suggests that teachers' intervention could be effective in reducing and preventing the impact bullying is having on today's youth.

#### *The Model of Action Phases*

Figure 1 details how an individual goes from choosing a goal to performing a specific behavior associated with goal completion to finally evaluating the success of the chosen goal in the model of action phases (Gollwitzer, 1990, 1996; Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987). This model distinguishes two key phases of action: motivational and volitional phases. The deliberative (or motivational) phase enables us to form a goal intention and our self-regulatory task is to decide what to do. The implemental (or volitional) phase allows us to form plans in the service of goal intentions, while our self-regulatory tasks are to initiate action and to shield goal pursuit against unwanted influences. This model focuses on an individual's deliberate choices rather than habitual actions. An action is being performed when behaviors are habitual and there is little to no evidence of conscious consideration. The model of action phases asserts that individuals engage in active evaluation of goal-directed behaviors when actions have not become



*Figure 1.* The model of action phases.

Adapted from "The Volitional Benefits of Planning," by P. M. Gollwitzer, 1996, in P. M. Gollwitzer and J. A. Bargh (Eds.), *The Psychology of Action: Linking Cognition and Motivation of Behavior* (pp. 287–312), London, Guilford.

habits in attempt to process which goal to perform. It is important to understand that a person's desires may not surface either because of the goals' difficulty level or, simply, that goals may contradict one another. In turn, a person is forced to choose between goals based on a goal's feasibility, desirability, and suitability of completion.

The model of action phases consists of four well-defined parts that serve as initiators of behavior. In each phase, a specific, qualitatively different action must be completed to further along the process of action completion and successful goal attainment (Gollwitzer & Moskowitz, 1996). The first phase, the *predecisional phase*, requires an individual to evaluate the desirability and feasibility of a goal. An individual's perception of the expected consequence will strongly influence whether the individual continues to pursue the desired goal. However, a decision may be interrupted by incorrect perceptions related to desirability or an individual's ability to perform the goal. Once an individual has made a conscious decision to pursue a specific goal, the predecisional phase has been accomplished. Completing the predecisional phase suggests that an individual has a sense of obligation or is determined to attain that goal, according to Gollwitzer (1996).

During the *preactional phase*, an individual plans when, where, and how to execute a goal-directed behavior. This type of planning serves to be beneficial when actions are novel and require more meticulous consideration. Nevertheless, this manner of conscious planning is not necessary when behaviors are well-rehearsed or habitual. Many goals, at times, are in direct competition with specific desires yet still respond automatically to environmental stimuli. Individual habits may interrupt a plan to

implement a goal-directed behavior. Therefore, it is crucial that an individual make a decision on his or her behavior, specify the time to engage in the behavior, and determine the appropriate place to perform the goal-directed behavior in order for the preactional phase to be completed.

In the third, or *actional*, phase the individual attempts to successfully complete the goal-directed behavior. This phase is perhaps the most critical of all phases. It requires the individual to perform the specified goal-directed behavior and the individual is forced to respond to situational opportunities as well as situationally-cued obstacles. An individual may not implement the goal-directed action, if the appropriate context is never encountered or if the context is remarkably different from what was expected.

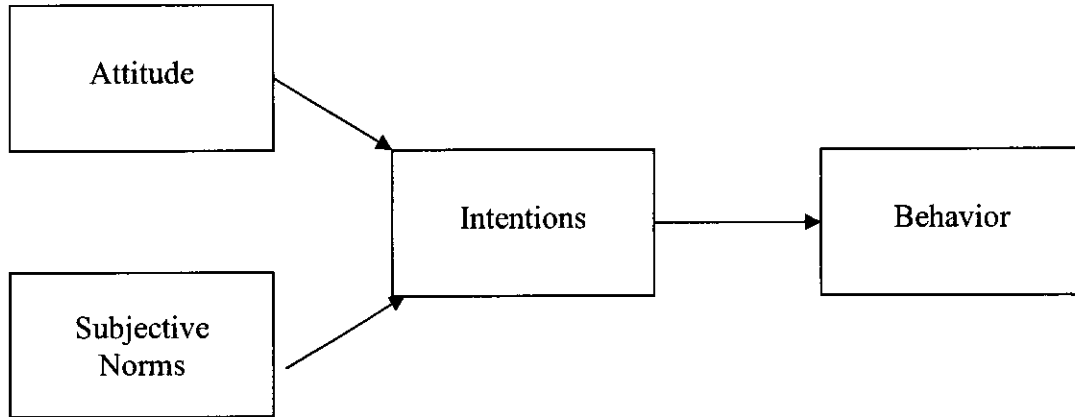
The final, or *postactional*, phase enables an individual to reevaluate what originally he or she desired in regard to the achievement of the goal. It is subjected to the same types of interruptions as the predecisional phase in regard to the actions required for goal attainment. Individuals begin to consider other competing goals and in some situations, an individual engages in goal-directed behavior, successfully meets an expectation, and consequently is reinforced for future behaviors. However, the likelihood of that goal-directed behavior being performed in imminent situations is reduced when a situation does not meet an individual's expectation. During the final stage, maintenance of the goal-directed behavior is determined. Reinforcement is vital in deciding whether a behavior will be repeated or extinguished.

The model of action phases outlines the planning involved in goal completion as well as the obstacles that may interrupt a goal-directed behavior from being executed. Ajzen's (1985, 1988) theory of planned behavior and Gollwitzer's (1993, 1999) theory of

implementation intentions are two theories that can be used to further grasp a thorough understanding of the model of action phases. Both theories also augment the understanding of the mechanisms related to enhancing goal attainment.

### *The Theory of Planned Behavior*

A topic that has received increasing attention in regard to decision making has been the process between behavioral intentions and performed behaviors. Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) theory of reasoned action is presented as a social psychological decision-making theory as seen in Figure 2. The model proposes that behavior occurs as a function of intention. Furthermore, an attitude toward an action and the subjective norms of the individual were said to trigger an intention. The theory of planned behavior was added to the existing model of reasoned action in an attempt to address the inadequacies that Ajzen and Fishbein had identified as an outcome of their research. The theory of planned behavior has become the dominant theory in this area with its addition of perceived behavioral control as a third determinant of action performance. The revised theory provided a better framework for understanding people's actions (Ajzen, 1988, 1991). Although intention is assumed to be the immediate antecedent of behavior, it is useful to consider perceived behavioral control in addition to intention. It is important to note that limited volitional control may be the result of many behaviors posing extreme difficulties in execution. In turn, the theory of planned behavior attempts not to place its main focus on determining how intentions may lead to actions or which psychological processes may be involved in the relationship. The theory of planned behavior posits that individual behavior is driven by behavioral intentions as a function of an individual's



*Figure 2. The theory of reasoned action.*

Adopted from *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behavior*, by I. Ajzen and M. Fishbein, 1980, Englewood Cliff, NJ, Prentice Hall.

attitude toward the behavior, the subjective norms associated with the performance of the behavior, and, additionally, the individual's perception of behavioral control (Ajzen, 1985, 1988, 1991). The purpose of the theory of planned behavior was to identify how and where to target strategies for changing behavior by means of predicting and understanding motivational influences on behavior (that is not under an individual's volitional control).

### *Attitudes*

Ajzen (1988) explained that the attitudes toward a behavior are defined as the individual's positive and negative emotions about performing the behavior. Behavioral beliefs include information about the outcome of a behavior in addition to the cost-benefit ratio of that behavior. An assessment of an individual's beliefs, in relation to the consequences arising from the behavior and an evaluation of the desirability of those consequences, is used to determine the individual's behavioral beliefs. Unreservedly, an individual's attitude becomes a reflection of an individual's expectation of a planned action. Hence, attitude can be assessed as the overall sum of an individual's expected consequence and his or her positive or negative evaluation of that consequence. Previous research has found correlations of .53 ( $p < .001$ ) between the attitude toward healthy eating and the intention to eat healthy food (Verplanken & Faes, 1999), .81 ( $p < .01$ ) between the attitude toward using birth control pills and the intention to use birth control pills (Fishbein, Jaccard, Davidson, Azjen, & Loken, 1980), and .50 ( $p < .001$ ) between the attitude toward having an abortion and the intention to have an abortion (Smetana & Adler, 1980).

### *Subjective Norms*

Subjective norms are characterized as an individual's perception of others' approval or disapproval of a behavior. A referent's opinion (or point of reference) is weighted by the motivation that an individual has to act in accordance with his or her request. An individual is more likely because of social pressure to engage in the behavior, if the individual perceives that most referents in his or her life feel that he or she ought to do something. Likewise, an individual may avoid a planned action as a result of the referents' social disapproval of a prescribed behavior. Subjective norms can generally be assessed as the sum of an individual's perception and motivation estimates of all referents. Past research has shown correlations of .83 ( $p < .001$ ) between subjective norms about having another child and the intention to have another child (Vinokur-Kaplan, 1978), .68 ( $p < .01$ ) between subjective norms about using birth control pills and the intention to use birth control pills (Fishbein et al., 1980), and .21 ( $p < .05$ ) between subjective norms about healthy eating and intention to eat healthy food (Verplanken & Faes, 1999). Smetana and Adler (1980) also found a strong correlation of .69 ( $p < .01$ ) between subjective norms about having an abortion and the intention to have an abortion.

### *Perceived Behavioral Control*

The theory of planned behavior emphasizes that perceived behavioral control becomes an important motivational component in understanding and predicting behavioral intention and performance. According to Ajzen (1988), perceived behavioral control is related to behavior in two manners. Firstly, perceived behavioral control is interconnected to intentions. Hence, an individual will be more likely to make intentions to engage in the behavior if he or she believes to have ample resources and opportunities.

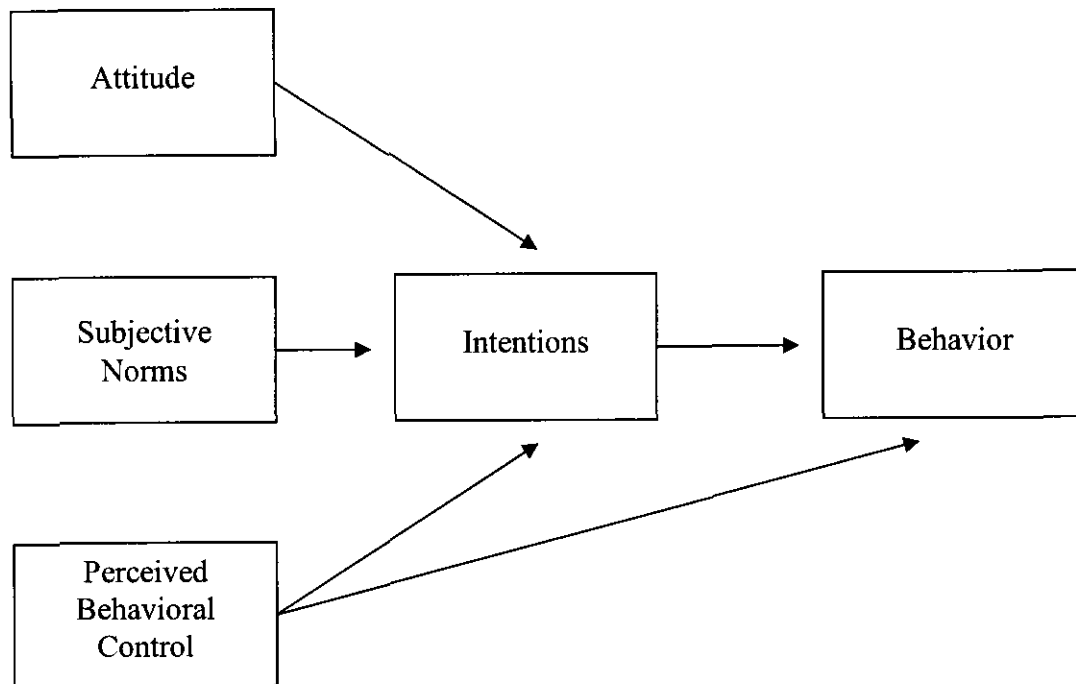


Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) also hypothesized that perceived control has a direct path in the prediction of behavioral performance (see Figure 3). Individuals tend to allocate more resources to behavioral enactment who believe that they are capable of completing intended actions. Ajzen (1988) asserted that direct and belief-based measures of perceived control are correlated ( $r = .47$  to  $.57$ ) and are rooted in the presence or absences of needed resources and opportunities.

Perceived control is thought to be an alternative measure of actual control when it is realistically assessed. On the other hand, perceived behavioral control is not factored into behavioral performance when a behavior is completely volitional, such as brushing one's teeth. However, it is crucial that perceived behavioral control is added to the prediction and explanation of a behavior when actions are not completely volitional (Ajzen, 1988, 1991). In turn, an individual is more likely to perform the intended action when he or she perceives greater control over actions. Ajzen (1991) further stressed that perceived behavioral control, above and beyond the contribution of attitude and subjective norm, connects to the prediction and explanation of intention. Therefore, when an individual perceives control over a prescribed behavior, he or she is more likely to intend to perform the behavior.

#### *Prediction of Intention*

In the theory of planned behavior, behavioral intention is presumed to reiterate the motivational strengths influencing behavioral performance. While the original theory of reasoned action has not been sufficient for predicting behavior performance, Ajzen (1991) proposed that it does indicate how much effort individuals are willing to exert in the planning of behavioral enactment. Intentions have typically accounted for



*Figure 3. The theory of planned behavior.*

Adopted from *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behavior*, by I. Ajzen and M. Fishbein, 1980, Englewood Cliff, NJ, Prentice Hall.

20% to 40% of the variance in social and health behaviors (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Connor & Sparks, 1996; Godin & Kok, 1996; Sheeran & Orbell, 1998). Strong correlations were found among intentions, attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control in experiments regarding weight loss, achieving high academic grades, and class attendance (Ajzen & Madden, 1986; Schifter & Ajzen, 1985). In these studies, correlations between attitudes and intentions ranged from .48 to .62, correlations between subjective norms and intentions ranged from .11 to .44, and correlations between intentions and perceived behavioral control ranged from .44 to .57.

### *Prediction of Behavior*

Sheeran and Taylor (1999) concluded that the theory of planned behavior was superior to the theory of reasoned action after reviewing 10 comparative tests of the theory of reasoned action versus the theory of planned behavior in the prediction of intention to use condoms. While the theory of reasoned action accounted for 37% of the total variance in intention, the theory of planned behavior accounted for a total of 42% of the variance. Armitage and Conner (2001), in a comprehensive meta-analysis of the theory of planned behavior, suggested that the average attitude-intention correlation is .49 and perceived control-intention correlation is .43. Perceived behavioral control added an additional 2% to the explanation of variance in behavior (beyond that of intention). Furthermore, perceived behavioral control added 6% to the explanation of variance in intention above and beyond attitude and subjective norm.

A variety of studies of diverse behaviors have provided support for the perceived control proposition of the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Godin, 1993), whereas others have failed to support that perceived behavioral control adds anything

unique to the prediction of intention and/or behavior (Orbell, Hodgkins, & Sheeran, 1997; Smith & Stasson, 2000). Albarracin et al. (2001) found that perceived behavioral control added minimal explanation in the prediction of HIV preventive behaviors when intention, attitude, and subjective norm were considered. It was also concluded that the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior were equivalent in the behavioral prediction of condom use. Furthermore, Orbell et al. (1997) stated that intention was predictive of breast self-examination performance even though perceived behavioral control was not related to behavioral performance. It appears that perceived behavioral control is required in situations where behavior is not under direct volitional control, in situations where behavior is difficult to perform, and/or in circumstances where there are competing goals.

The theory of planned behavior asserts its focus on the predisicional phase leading to the preactional phase. An individual who has only formed a goal intention still has to identify a good opportunity to act, identify a goal-directed response and prepare him or herself to execute that response. It is not uncommon to experience problems getting started and/or staying on tract. It is important to note that forming a goal intention does not guarantee goal achievement. Although there are self-regulatory problems initiating goal pursuit and shielding ingoing pursuit for unwanted influences, it is crucial that we move beyond good intentions by getting people to act out their desired goal intentions into goal attainments. Implementation intention formation can help to overcome these regulatory problems by having an individual identify the opportunity to act and the goal-directed response in advance.

### *Implementation Intentions*

It is not sufficient to merely intend to perform a behavior (Orbell & Sheeran, 1998). Heckhausen and Gollwitzer (1987) and Gollwitzer (1993) made a distinction between goal intention and implementation intention in an attempt to specify how intentions are implemented in behavior. The formation of a goal intention is distinguished by how desirable or important the goal is. Nonetheless, a goal intention is also characterized by the deliberating desires that may oppose one another. Implementation intentions are formed after a commitment has been made to a specified goal. Gollwitzer (1996) outlined two phases of goal pursuit. During the first phase, or the motivational stage, a decision or behavioral intention is made to perform a behavior. The volitional phase utilizes specific plans to guarantee that the behavioral intention is acted upon. Gollwitzer (1993, 1996) contended that an implementation intention is a cognitive strategy influencing the volitional stage and translating behavioral intentions to planned behaviors. Implementation intentions must include concrete plans of when, where, and which behaviors ought to be executed in order to achieve a goal (Gollwitzer, 1993). Since specific behavioral responses will be linked to specific environmental cues, when an individual encounters a given situation, an intention to perform a specific goal-directed behavior is automatically achieved. Sheeran and Orbell (1999) found that participants, who formed implementation intentions about when and where to take medication, were less likely to miss taking a pill every day compared to those who did not form implementation intentions. The results suggested that implementation intentions are effective because they allow individuals to pass control of behavior to environmental triggers contained in implementation intentions.

Implementation intentions are formed when individuals expect a behavior to be difficult to perform. The event itself will initiate some self-regulatory processes in effort to translate the intention into behavior (Gollwitzer, 1993, 1996, 1999; Gollwitzer & Brandstatter, 1997). Self-regulatory theories focus on how an individual will overcome anticipated obstacles en route to behavioral performance, given that a person is committed to a goal. Three types of then-responses have been used. An instigation response purposes if-then I will start to act. The second response, task-focused, suggests if-then I will act in this particular way. The ignore response exerts if-then I will ignore it. If-then plans are used to promote the attainment of goals. These plans heighten the accessibility of situational cues and create strong links between if and then components. The context could be an external, specifying a particular time and/or place, or it could be internal, relying on an anticipated temptation or feeling cue. Therefore, if-then plans not only ensure that specified cues are detected swiftly and precisely but also guarantee that action control is automatized and initiation of behavior proceeds immediately, efficiently, and without needing awareness.

*Immediacy, Efficiency, and Automaticity*

To increase the likelihood of behavioral enactment, supplementing behavioral intentions with implementation intentions is necessary. The result of behavioral enactment is automatic once the specific time and place are encountered (Gollwitzer, 1993, 1996). Gollwitzer (1993) coined the term “delegation of control to the environment” (p. 173). It is used to describe how the behavior becomes automatic in response to environmental stimuli. Once the individual has specified when the behavior

will occur, where the behavior will occur, and the way in which the behavior will take place, the response occurs automatically.

Gollwitzer and Brandstatter (1997), asked participants to write a report on how they had spent their holiday vacation. Students were also asked to return the report within a specified time frame. Half of the participants were instructed to specify when and where they intended to write the report, while the other half were not asked to form implementation intentions. Participants who formed implementation intentions took an average of 2.3 days to turn in their report versus the 7.7 days it took participants who did not form implementation intentions, which was statistically significant ( $t(21.3) = 2.85, p < .01$ ). The results suggested that participants who formed implementation intentions completed the assignment quicker and were more likely to return the assignment on time.

Aarts and Dijksterhuis (2000) performed an experiment that indicated that forming implementation intentions increases the speed of response related to planned behavior. Avid bike riders were asked to form implementation intentions about which routes to take during their travel, the best route in relation to their destination, when they would travel, and specific points of interest in their trip. Other participants were asked to make unrelated implementation intentions. A main effect for planning was found,  $F(1, 49) = 9.09, p < .005$ , strongly supporting the formation of implementation intentions. In another study, Orbell and Sheeran (2000) found that forming implementation intentions about returning to normal activity after surgery (for patients who had undergone joint-replacement surgery) took an average of 6.82 weeks versus 9.27 weeks for those who did not form implementation intentions ( $t(62) = 2.71, p < .01$ ). In study 1, Brandstatter, Lengfelder, and Gollwitzer (2001) requested that half of the opiate addicts who were

experiencing withdrawal symptoms to make implementation intentions about writing a curriculum vita the end of a specific day. While none of the participants who had not made implementation intentions completed their vita, 8% of those who had formed implementation intentions completed the task by the end of the specified day ( $\chi^2(1, n = 21) = 14.23, p < .001$ ). The results indicated that forming implementation intentions facilitates behavioral performance by making behavior immediate, efficient, and automatic when triggered by environmental stimuli.

#### *Behavioral Effects of Forming Implementation Intentions*

Gollwitzer (1999) has successfully shown that implementation intention is a strategy-utilizing goal pursuit that effectively enhances behavioral enactment. Empirical evidence of forming implementation intentions has powerfully demonstrated the process of goal intentions turning into goal performance. A study in 1997 by Gollwitzer and Brandstatter found that 62% of individuals who formed implementation intentions were able to complete difficult-to-implement goals as opposed to 22% of individuals who had not formed implementation intentions. More impressively, Orbell et al. (1997) found that 100% of women who produced implementation intentions to perform breast self-examinations actually completed the behavioral goal versus 53% of women who had not engaged in forming implementation intentions. Sheeran and Orbell (2000) performed an experiment to increase cervical cancer screenings. The findings demonstrated that implementation intentions facilitated the initiation of behavior for women who had formed implementation intentions related to attending cervical cancer screenings. In turn, these women were more likely to get screened for cervical cancer than women who had not made implementation intentions ( $\chi^2(1, N = 114) = 9.20, p < .002$ ).



Implementation intentions has been shown to enhance the maintenance of specific behaviors over time. In 2002, Owens, Dill, Levine, and Goldfarb asked students to form implementation intentions related to journal writing entries. Students who formed implementation intentions completed significantly more journal entries than students who had not committed to implementation intentions. After 4 weeks, students who had initially formed implementation intentions continued to write an average of 6.89 more journal entries as opposed to students who had not formed implementation intentions,  $t(43) = 2.65, p < .05$ . Dill, Owens, Homburger, Travers, and Lancaster (2002) also found that students were more successful at sending electronic mail every week for 9 weeks than students who had not formed implementation intentions ( $F(1, 102) = 6.67, p < .05$ ). The results clearly indicated that students more frequently sent electronic mail addressing significant health issues if the students had formed implementation intentions.

Brandstatter and Gollwitzer (1997) hypothesized that forming implementation intentions would be beneficial in the ability to counterargue against xenophobic remarks when a specified situation arose. The researchers had participants simply watch a video containing xenophobic remarks in the first viewing. However, participants were asked to mark good opportunities to argue during the second viewing. In the final viewing, participants were asked to stop the video and record their arguments aloud. Participants were divided into three conditions. While two groups served as control groups, the implementation intention group was instructed from the beginning that they would have to express their opinion during the third viewing of the tape. Of the two control groups, one group was told that they would have to mark good opportunities to counterargue in the second viewing and were also instructed in the third viewing of the tape that their

counterarguments were going to be recorded whereas the other group was instructed that they would later have to respond to the xenophobic remarks in writing. Questionnaires assessing interest in and attitudes toward xenophobia were completed by all groups. Brandstatter and Gollwitzer found that participants who had formed implementation intentions were more successful and immediately used their previous marked opportunities to respond. Even though the time-gap difference between conditions was only in the range of 1 second between marking and speaking, it only takes a matter of a split second to make a point successful in a conversation. The results also indicated that participants who showed a high degree of interest in xenophobia tended to benefit most from the formation of implementation intentions. In essence, forming implementation intentions, along with a high degree of interest in xenophobia, enabled participants not only to more successfully and immediately counterargue xenophobic remarks but also to improve the quality of their argument.

### *Synthesis of Literature*

The repetition seen in name-calling occurrence can be seen in all types of bullying behavior, from genocide to homophobic remarks. The direct negative impact that bullying creates affects students, teachers, school property, the community, and the educational process (Espelage & Holt, 2001; Oliver et al., 1994; Swearer et al., 2001). The current research has been strongly influenced by the documentation of the lack of intervention and lack of confidence that students have that their teachers will intervene. The absence of action fuels these types of negative interactions. Both theoretical and empirical investigations of this topic have consistently reiterated the need for action. Hazler (1991) reported that 2 out of 3 students said that teachers handled the problems of

bullying ineffectively. Since students feel that their teachers are not aware of problems because bullying often appears to go unnoticed by the teachers, bullying incidents are rarely brought to the attention of an authority figure unless the situation becomes serious (Bryne, 1994). The redundancy of these testimonies implies that an effective approach to name-calling has not been designed or applied. One of the most effective means by which teachers can manage the problem of bullying is by developing increased knowledge and awareness of the problem (Besag, 1989). Without their partnership with the students on this issue, bullies will continue to spread their cruelty (Fried & Fried, 1996).

An approach that involves changing behaviors can be used to counteract this dilemma. The theoretical evolution of the research leading to the application of implementation intentions is central to the approach of the current study. The positive effect that can be found through the use of implementation intentions on intervention levels can have a direct effect in lowering the occurrence rate of these frequent, violent interactions. Implementation intention (Gollwitzer, 1999), a two-phase theory (motivational and volitional), has been shown to effectively enhance behavioral enactment. A combined theoretical and empirical approach demonstrated that supplementing behavioral intention with implementation intention increases the likelihood of behavioral enactment because behaviors occur automatically once the specific time and place are encountered (Gollwitzer & Brandstatter, 1997). The literature supports this assumption. Implementation of this approach involving implementation intentions should increase the number of times teachers intervene in name-calling situations and could dramatically lower the number of name-calling scenarios that occur. The empirical findings of this study should support the use of implementation intentions

by school administrators. If utilized on a larger scale, this technique could also be used to alter the landscape of social interactions.

### Chapter III:

#### Method

## *Introduction*

The purpose of this study was to assess the impact of implementation intention on teacher-based interventions in name-calling. Name-calling continues to plague our schools (Besag, 1989; Bryne, 1994; De Klerk & Bosch, 1996; Garrity et al., 1995; Hazler, 1991; Olweus, 1993; Rigby, 2003; Rymes, 1996). This phenomenon can be connected to the lack of attention and interventions made by teachers (Hazler, 1991). This study addressed the problem of name-calling through an approach that sought to increase a teacher's commitment to act on behavioral intentions, which will ultimately lead to intervening in name-calling. E-mails were utilized to measure a teacher's commitment level. One approach to increasing an individual's commitment level is by having the individual formulate implementation intentions. This technique required a randomly selected group of the participating teachers to be more specific about where and when they planned to send these e-mails.

This chapter will describe, in detail, the methods and procedures utilized to reach the conclusion that implementation intentions can be a powerful method of increasing teacher commitment, awareness of, and intervention in name-calling. The methods under discussion have been created to address the following hypotheses.

*Hypothesis 1.* It was predicted that those participants who formed implementation intentions would e-mail more daily commitments to counterargue name-calling than those who did not form implementation intentions.

*Hypothesis 2.* It was predicted that teachers who had formed implementation intentions would, over time, report lower levels of daily name-calling than those who had not formed implementation intentions.

*Hypothesis 3.* It was expected that teachers who had formed implementation intentions would account more numbers of interventions in name-calling than those who had not formed implementation intentions.

### *Research Design*

This study utilized a quantitative, quasi-experimental design to assess the impact of implementation intentions on teacher commitment levels. A participant manipulation strategy, which consisted of two sets of instructions, was randomly assigned to create a control and an experimental group condition. All participants were required to e-mail daily commitments to counterargue name-calling. The requested e-mails were sent to one of two e-mail accounts created by the researcher for the purpose of this study. Group participation determined which e-mail account the participants reported to for data collection purposes. The creation of these two accounts better organized data as they were being collected. The experimental group, entitled the implementation intention condition, was required to name a specific time and place that the teachers would send their e-mail. This request was in line with and supported by the design of previous work concerning implementation intention (Gollwitzer & Brandstatter, 1997). This technique was used to determine if forming implementation intentions would provide a significant difference in commitment levels for those teachers who formed implementation intentions compared to those teachers who did not form implementation intentions. The results were assessed by comparing the means of total daily e-mails between group participation. Descriptive data were collected through the use of a prestudy and poststudy teacher questionnaire from all participants. Data from the questionnaire were gathered to assess background information about participants as well as details concerning school

climate, teacher witnessing levels of name-calling, and teacher interventions in name-calling both prestudy and poststudy. By comparing these frequencies, the researcher was able to support the possible effects of implementation intentions on teacher commitment levels as well as any additional impacts related to name-calling.

### *Participants*

Sixty-nine fourth- and fifth-grade teachers were solicited from a public school district in northeastern New Jersey. Thirty-three teachers consented to participate and fulfilled all necessary requirements of this study. Using random assignment, 18 participants were placed in the implementation intention condition, and 15 were assigned to the control condition. The final sample consisted of 6 male and 27 female teachers, with a mean age of 43.76. All participants were treated in accordance with American Psychological Association ethical guidelines. A sample of the informed consent letter can be viewed in appendix A.

### *Materials*

*Identification number creation.* Each participant created his or her own unique identification number using four personal items. His or her responses to the items produced a unique five-character code that was used by the participant and the experimenter to identify the participant on subsequent questionnaires and forms. Additionally, participants used this identification number in the subject line of their e-mails to alleviate the use of personal information when sending data to the researcher. The Identification Number Creation Forms can be found in appendix B.

*Teacher Position Questionnaire.* The Teacher Position Questionnaire was developed for this study and was administered pre- and postexperimental conditions. The

entire instrument can be viewed in appendix C. This questionnaire was created to gather both descriptive data and quantitative information about teachers' experience with name-calling and intervention levels. The demographical statistics collected in the descriptive items of the questionnaire provided a detailed picture of participants and allowed this study to generalize the results based on the population that consented. Questions related to teacher intervention in name-calling, teacher witnessing of name-calling, and overall perceptions of bullying as a problem in their school were weighted with quantitative response options (i.e., 4 to 6 times a day or often). This strategy sought to compare prestudy and poststudy frequencies. The data helped to address whether implementation intentions had an impact on recalled witnessing of daily name-calling incidents and daily interventions made in name-calling.

Items 1 to 7 represented the background information and constituted the descriptive portion of the questionnaire. These questions asked about age, race, years teaching, tenured status, and community type (e.g., rural, small town, urban, etc.). A majority of participants identified themselves as White, Catholic, tenured teachers from a medium town or suburb. A list of frequencies and percentages can be found in Table 1.

Items 8 to 9 assessed teachers' interest in bullying issues and relative training on bullying interventions. Frequency of name-calling as well as frequency of teacher intervention were assessed in items 10 through 14. The frequencies and results of this questionnaire will be discussed in detail in chapter IV.

#### *Procedure and Independent Variables*

*Teacher instructions.* Teacher participants were randomly assigned by their school affiliation to either implementation intention or control condition. Participants



were presented with an ID Creation Form and a Teacher Position Questionnaire. After completing the questionnaire, participants were informed about the nature and requirements of the experiment. All participants were given the same first set of instructions to e-mail a daily commitment to counterargue name-calling. Teacher participants were assigned one of two e-mail addresses based on the group they were randomly assigned. It was added that they may use this e-mail to contact the researcher with concerns if necessary. In sessions where the researcher was addressing the implementation intention condition, an additional instruction was given that required the participants to specify what time and place they would be e-mailing their daily commitment to the researcher. Furthermore, all participants received a prescribed statement regarding intervening when they witnessed name-calling to include in the body of the e-mail. All teacher participants were required to send e-mails for 20 school days from the date of instruction. The full script can be viewed in appendix D.

At the conclusion of the data collection, a meeting was scheduled to readminister a Teacher Position Questionnaire postintervention. During this meeting, all teacher participants were thoroughly debriefed and given supplemental bullying resources.

#### *Dependent Variables*

There are three dependent variables: the number of e-mails (representing daily commitment to name-calling intervention) made during the teacher manipulation, the number of recalled teacher interventions in name-calling, and the frequency of name-calling.

#### *Data Analysis*

A descriptive analysis was conducted utilizing the information collected from the pre- and post-Teacher Position Questionnaire. This analysis gathered demographic data such as age, race, years teaching, tenured status, and community type. Additional questions collected information about teachers' interest in bullying issues and relative training on bullying interventions, frequency of name-calling, and frequency of teacher intervention. The purpose of these data, which were collected both prestudy and poststudy, was to provide a more descriptive picture of the population that consented to this study. In addition, by using the percentages found, the researcher reached conclusions about the amount of training teachers have had related to bullying, level of witnessing of name-calling in their school, level of intervention in name-calling in their school, and the overall sense of the school climate. Furthermore, frequency data were compared both prestudy and poststudy to assess the impact of implementation intentions on reported teacher daily witnessing of name-calling and reported teacher daily intervention in name-calling. Findings from these measures were supported by research and further supported the need for an effective and immediate approach to name-calling.

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine a significant main effect between group participation (implementation intention condition and control condition) and total e-mailed commitment statements. This study utilized ANOVA to compare the total daily e-mail commitments made between the control condition and the implementation intention condition. By comparing the means of total daily commitments, the researcher assessed whether a significant difference exists between the control condition and the implementation intention condition, thereby determining the impact of implementation intentions.

Mixed factorial ANOVA was used to examine a significant interaction effect between group participation (the implementation intention condition and the control condition) on reported daily witnessing of name-calling (pre- and postintervention). Since the study assessed reported daily witnessing frequencies pre- and poststudy and the assumption that population variances among the dependent variable are related, repeated mixed factorial ANOVA measures were appropriate to assess if a significant difference exists in the frequency of daily witnessing of name-calling reported poststudy.

ANOVA was used to examine a significant interaction effect between group participation (the implementation intention condition and the control condition) on reported daily interventions in name-calling (pre- and postintervention). Since the study assessed reported daily intervention frequencies pre- and poststudy and the assumption that population variances among the dependent variable are related, repeated mixed factorial ANOVA measures were appropriate to assess if a significant difference exists in the frequency of daily intervention of name-calling reported poststudy.

Additional postexploratory analyses were conducted to investigate the relationship among the following issues affecting students who are bullied, bullying intervention training, comfort intervening when name-calling occurs, daily witnessing of name-calling, name-calling problem in school, daily intervention in name-calling, and general intervention in name-calling. These bivariate correlations were run to explore the relationship between all the variables asked about on the Teacher Position Questionnaire. These data will act to support findings related to the three hypotheses under study. An additional mixed factorial ANOVA was used to examine a significant interaction effect between group participation (the implementation intention condition and the control

condition) on reported general interventions in name-calling (pre- and postintervention). Since the study assessed reported daily intervention frequencies pre- and poststudy, repeated ANOVA measures were appropriate to assess if a significant difference exists in the qualitative number of general interventions in name-calling reported poststudy.

## Chapter IV:

### Results

#### *Descriptives*

Sixty-nine fourth- and fifth-grade teachers were solicited from a public school district in northeastern New Jersey. Thirty-three of the teachers consented to participate

in this study and fulfilled the necessary requirements. A complete list of the descriptive findings can be found in Table 1. Eighteen of the participants were randomly assigned to the implementation intention condition, and 15 were randomly selected to the control condition. The final sample consisted of 6 male and 27 female teachers; mean age of the participants was 43.76. Of the 33 participants, 42% reported having taught 6 to 10 years (see Figure 4), and 94% were tenured teachers.

Descriptive data related to frequencies and percents of name-calling can be viewed in Table 2. The data indicated that 70% of the participants felt that they were *very attentive* to bullying issues. When the teachers were asked how much training they had received regarding bullying interventions, 73% of participants had received minimal training (see Figure 5). Additionally, information was collected about teacher's comfort level with intervening; 82% of participants reported that they were *extremely comfortable* intervening when name-calling occurred of which only a 16% difference existed between group participation (see Figure 6). While only 15% stated that bullying was *not a problem* in their school, 18% reported that name-calling is *an extreme problem* (see Figure 7). Ninety-one percent of participants reported witnessing name-calling between 1 and 6 times per day (see Figure 8). It should be noted that further analysis of frequencies between group participation showed balance responses (see Table 3).

Table 1

*Frequencies and Percentages of Descriptive Information*

Descriptive	Frequencies	Percent
<i>Ethnicity</i>		
Black or African American	2	6.1%
Hispanic or Latino	1	3.0%
White	30	90.9%

<i>Years teaching</i>		
2 to 5 years	3	9.1%
6 to 10 years	14	42.4%
11 to 15 years	3	9.1%
16 to 20 years	5	15.2%
More than 20 years	8	24.2%
<i>Tenure status</i>		
Tenured teacher	31	93.9%
Nontenured teacher	2	6.1%
<i>Religion</i>		
Agnostic	3	9.1%
Atheist	2	6.1%
Catholic	15	45.5%
Jewish	6	18.2%
Protestant	7	21.2%
<i>Community</i>		
Small town	7	21.2%
Medium town or suburb	24	72.7%
Small city	1	3%
City	1	3%

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*Note.* All frequencies add up to 33 (participants), and percentages total 100.

Table 2

*Frequencies and Percentages of Name-Calling Information*

---

	Frequencies	Percent
<hr/>		
How attentively do you follow issues affecting students who are bullied?		
Somewhat attentive	10	30.3%

Very attentive	23	69.7%
Have you been trained on bullying interventions?		
No training	2	6.1%
Minimal training	24	72.7%
Several training	7	21.2%
How comfortable are you intervening when name-calling occurs?		
Not comfortable at all	1	3%
Somewhat comfortable	5	15.2%
Extremely comfortable	27	81.8%
How much of a problem is name-calling in your school?		
Not a problem	5	15.2%
Somewhat a problem	22	66.7%
An extreme problem	6	18.2%

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*Note.* All frequencies add up to 33 (participants), and percentages total 100.

Table 3

*Frequencies and Percentages of Name-Calling Information by Group Condition*

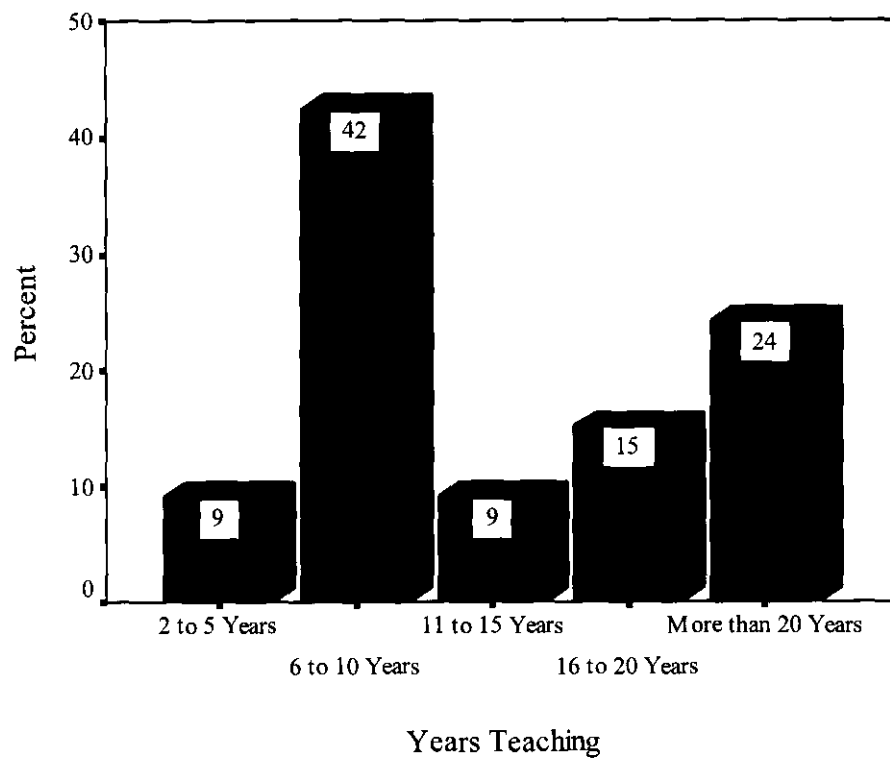
		II group		Control group	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
<hr/>					

How attentively do you follow issues affecting students who are bullied?				
Somewhat attentive	7	70%	3	30%
Very attentive	11	47.8%	12	52.2%
Have you been trained on bullying interventions?				
No training	1	50%	1	50%
Minimal training	13	54.2%	11	45.8%
Several training	4	57.1%	3	42.9%
How comfortable are you intervening when name-calling occurs?				
Not comfortable at all	0	0%	1	100%
Somewhat comfortable	2	40%	3	60%
Extremely comfortable	16	59.3%	11	40.7%
How much of a problem is name-calling in your school?				
Not a problem	0	0%	5	100%
Somewhat a problem	13	59.1%	9	40.9%
An extreme problem	5	83.3%	1	16.7%

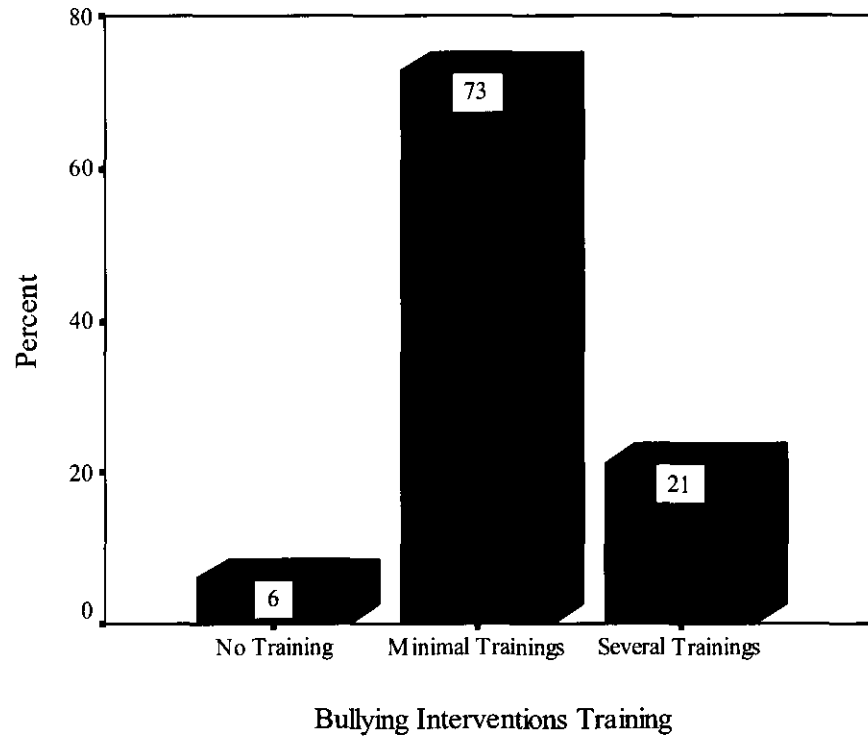
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*Note.* Implementation intentions group frequencies add up to 18 (participants), and percentages total 54.5. Control group frequencies add up to 15 (participants), and percentages total 45.5. Total frequencies add up to 33 (participants), and percentages total 100.





*Figure 4.* Percentage of years teaching.



*Figure 5.* Percent of bullying intervention training.

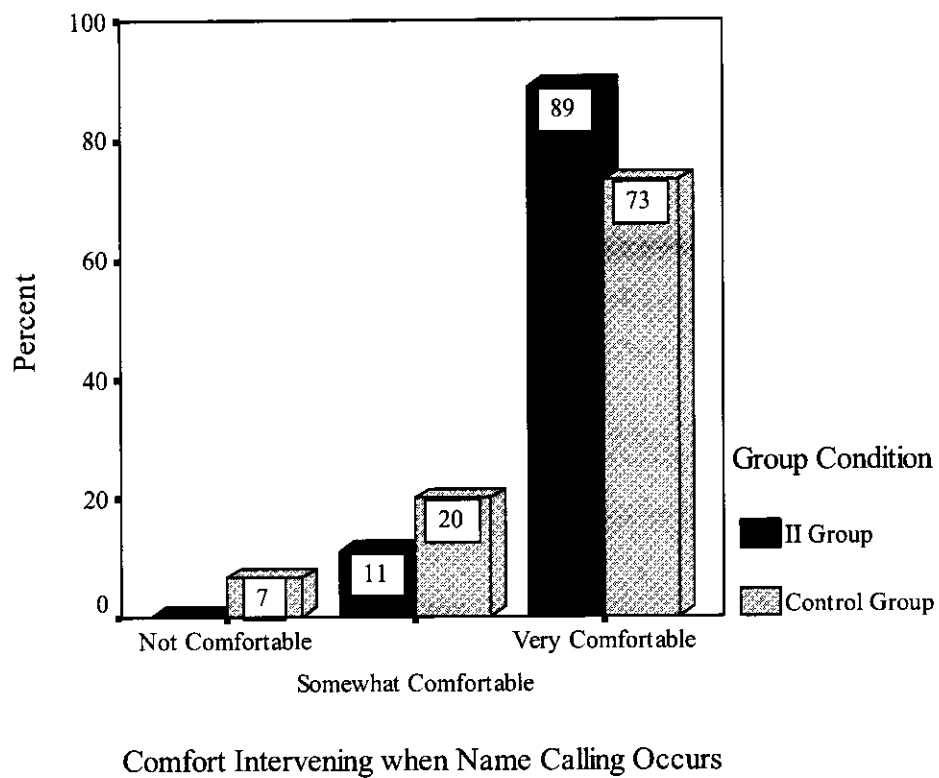
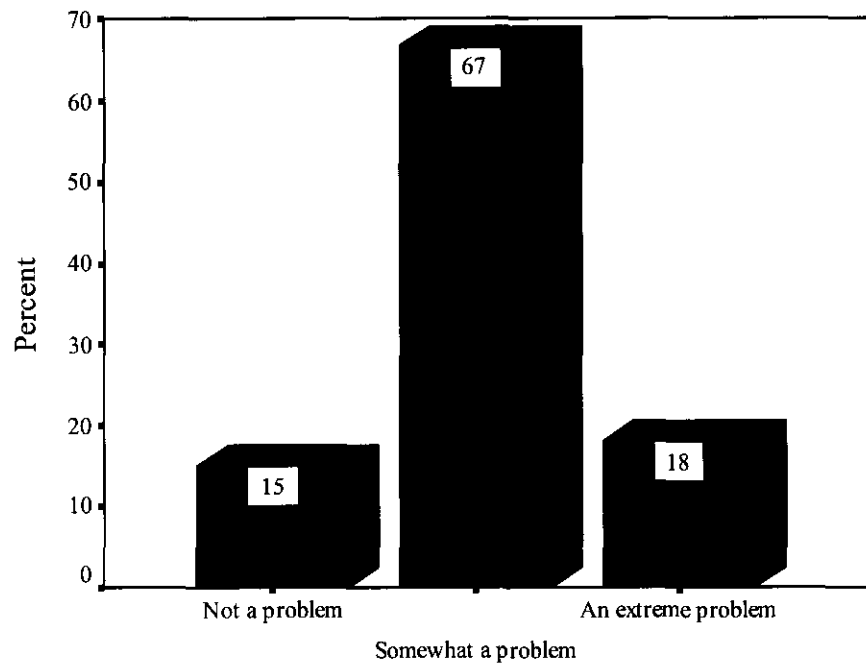
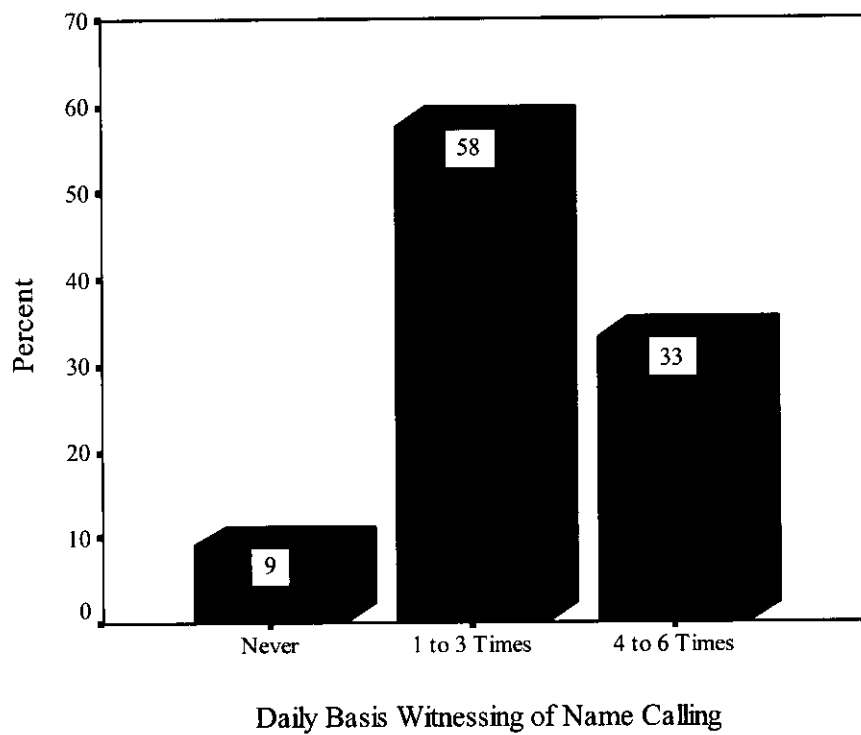


Figure 6. Percent of comfort levels intervening in name-calling by group condition.



How much of a problem is Name Calling in your School?

*Figure 7.* Percentage of name-calling problem.



*Figure 8.* Percentage of daily witnessed name-calling.

When asked to report how often they intervene in name-calling on a daily basis, 85% reported intervening between 1 and 6 times per day while 15% stated that they *never* intervene (see Figure 9). Finally, when asked in general how often they intervened in name-calling, approximately 78% stated that they *always* or *often* intervene (see Figure 10).

### *Hypothesis 1*

It was predicted that those participants who formed implementation intentions would e-mail more daily commitments to counterargue name-calling than those who did not form implementation intentions. ANOVA was performed utilizing SPSS to assess the significance of implementation intentions on teacher commitment levels. Through this analysis, implementation intentions were found to be significant where  $F(1, 31) = 17.646$ ,  $p = .000$  (see Table 4). This result indicates that teachers who formed implementation intentions e-mailed more daily commitments than teachers in the control condition who did not form implementation intentions (see Figure 11). The strength of the relationship between implementation intentions and the number of daily commitments made, as assessed by  $\eta^2$ , was strong, with implementation intentions accounting for 36% of the variance of the dependent variable.

### *Hypothesis 2*

It was expected that teachers who formed implementation intentions would witness fewer name-calling situations over time than those who did not form implementation intentions. A 2 (Daily Witness) x 2 (Group) mixed factorial ANOVA was conducted to determine the effect of group participation (implementation intention and control) on the two dependent variables, predaily

Table 4

*Cell Means and Standard Deviation for Number of Commitments*

Group condition	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Implementation intention	14.44	5.29	18
Control	7.93	3.08	15

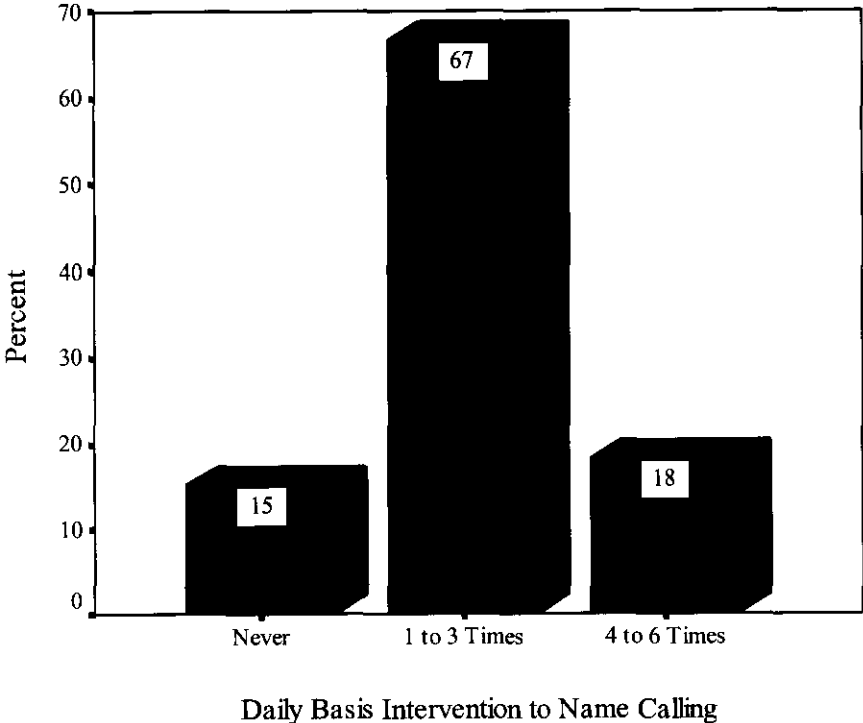
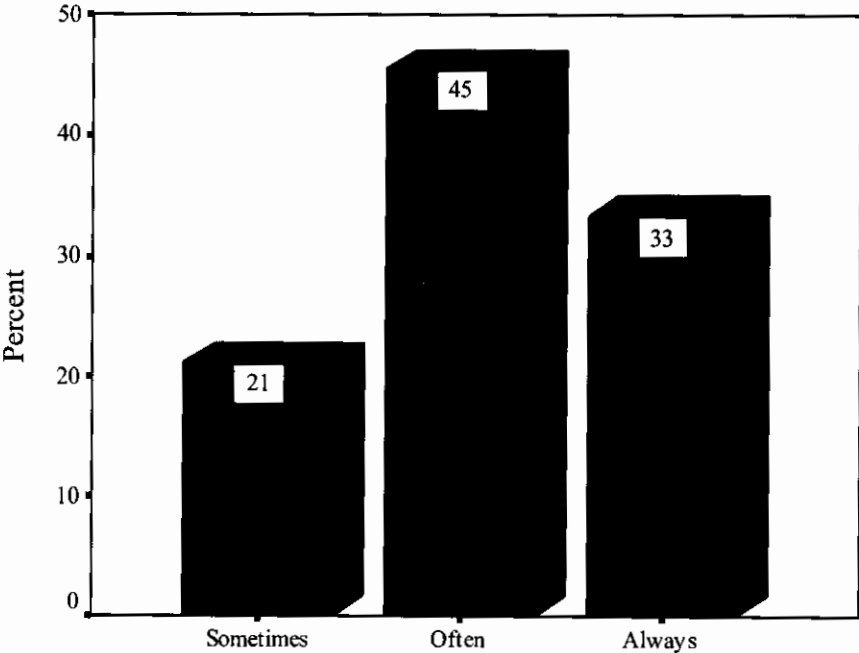


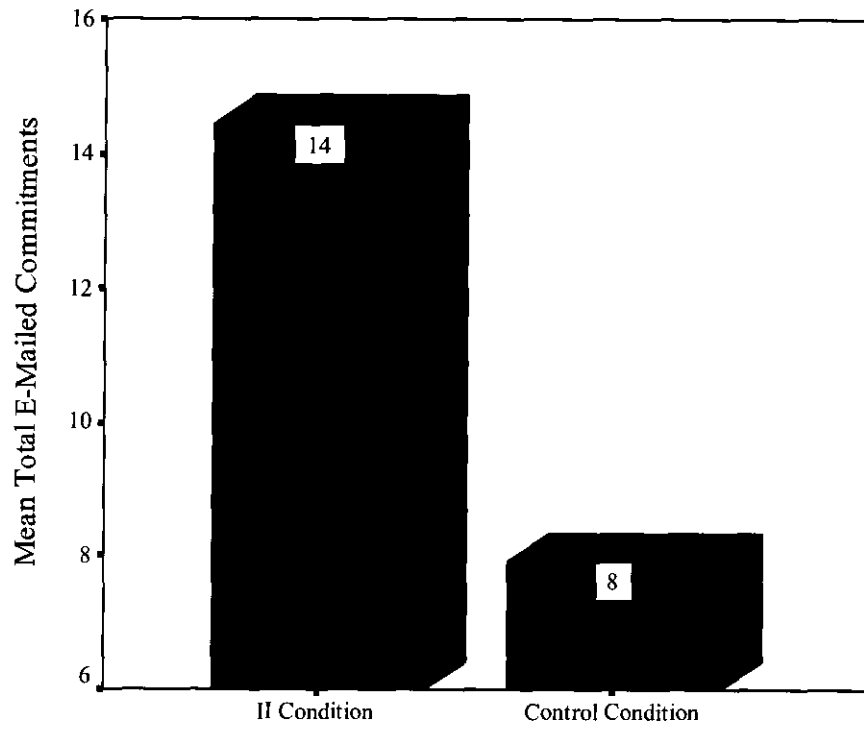
Figure 9. Percent of daily witnessed name-calling.





In general how often do you intervene name calling?

Figure 10. Percent of general interventions in name-calling.



*Figure 11.* The effect of implementation intention on the total number of e-mail commitments.

witnessing of name-calling and postdaily witnessing of name-calling. The main effect for daily witnessing of name-calling was nonsignificant,  $F(1, 31) = .972, p = .35, \eta^2 = .03$ . Thus, there was no overall difference in the number of predaily name-calling events witnessed ( $M = 2.24$ ) compared to the postdaily name-calling witnessed ( $M = 2.30$ ). However, a significant Witness x Group interaction effect was obtained,  $F(1, 31) = .793, p = .008$ , with a strong effect (partial  $\eta^2 = .21$ ). Examination of the cell means indicated that although there was a small decrease in the number of name-calling events witnessed by individuals who formed implementation intentions from pretest ( $M = 2.50$ ) to posttest ( $M = 2.33$ ), the number of name-calling events witnessed by the control group increased from the pretest ( $M = 1.93$ ) to the posttest ( $M = 2.27$ ). Figure 12 shows a significant difference in group participation over time. More specifically, individuals who formed implementation intentions reported witnessing fewer incidents of bullying postintervention whereas the control group recalled witnessing bullying more postintervention. Table 5 contains the means and standard deviations for the two groups.

### *Hypothesis 3*

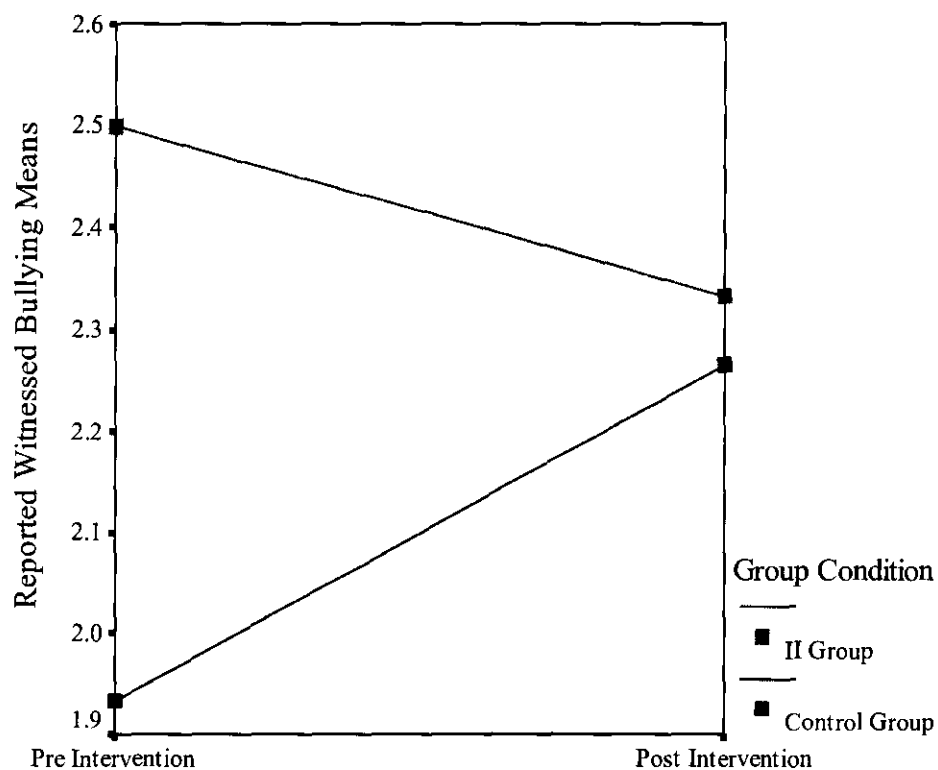
It was expected that teachers who formed implementation intentions would count more occurrences of interventions in name-calling than those who did not form implementation intentions. A 2 (Recalled Interventions) x 2 (Group) mixed factorial ANOVA was conducted to determine the effect of group participation (implementation intention and control) on the two dependent variables, predaily interventions in name-calling and postdaily interventions in name-calling. A significant main effect was found for daily interventions,  $F(1, 31) = .871, p = .040$ ,

Table 5

*Cell Means and Standard Deviation for Daily Witnessed Name-Calling*

<hr/>			
Preintervention	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Implementation intention condition	2.50	.618	18
Control condition	1.93	.458	15
Total	2.24	.614	33
<hr/>			
Postintervention	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Implementation intention condition	2.33	.594	18
Control condition	2.27	.458	15
Total	2.30	.529	33
<hr/>			

*Note.* A reported score of 1 = *never*, 2 = *1 to 3 times*, 3 = *4 to 6 times*, 4 = *7 to 9 times*, and 5 = *more than 9 times*.



*Figure 12.* The interaction effect of implementation intention on witnessed name-calling.

*Note:* A reported score of 1 = never, 2 = 1 to 3 times, 3 = 4 to 6 times, 4 = 7 to 9 times, and 5 = more than 9 times.

with a modest effect (partial  $\eta^2 = .13$ ). Postrecalled daily interventions in name-calling ( $M = 2.18$ ) were moderately higher than prerecalled daily interventions in name-calling ( $M = 2.03$ ). Additionally, a significant Recalled Interventions x Group interaction effect was found,  $F(1, 31) = .794, p = .008$ . Further probing of the cell means indicated that individuals who formed implementation intention recalled making fewer daily interventions in name-calling posttest ( $M = 2.17$ ) than pretest ( $M = 2.22$ ), with a strong effect (partial  $\eta^2 = .21$ ). In contrast to the original hypothesis, individuals who formed implementation intentions recalled fewer daily intervention (postintervention), while the control group reported intervening more often on a daily basis posttest ( $M = 2.20$ ) than pretest ( $M = 1.80$ ). Figure 13 shows the strength of the relationship between the group condition and recalled daily interventions. Table 6 contains the means and standard deviations for the two groups.

#### *Other Research Questions*

Bivariate correlations were performed for issues affecting students who are bullied, bullying intervention training, feel comfortable intervening when name-calling occurs, daily witnessing of name-calling, name-calling is a problem in school, daily intervention in name-calling, and general intervention in name-calling. The overall correlations can be found in Table 7.

Significant correlations were found between daily witnessing of name-calling and name-calling is a problem in school ( $r = .41, p = .017$ ), daily witnessing of name-calling and daily intervention in name-calling ( $r = .76, p = .000$ ), and daily intervention in name-calling and general intervention in name-calling ( $r = .42, p = .014$ ).

Table 6

*Cell Means and Standard Deviation for Daily Interventions in Name-Calling*

Preintervention	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Implementation intention condition	2.22	.548	18
Control condition	1.80	.561	15
Total	2.03	.585	33
Postintervention	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Implementation intention condition	2.17	.514	18
Control condition	2.20	.414	15
Total	2.18	.465	33

*Note:* A reported score of 1 = never, 2 = 1 to 3 times, 3 = 4 to 6 times, 4 = 7 to 9 times, and 5 = more than 9 times.

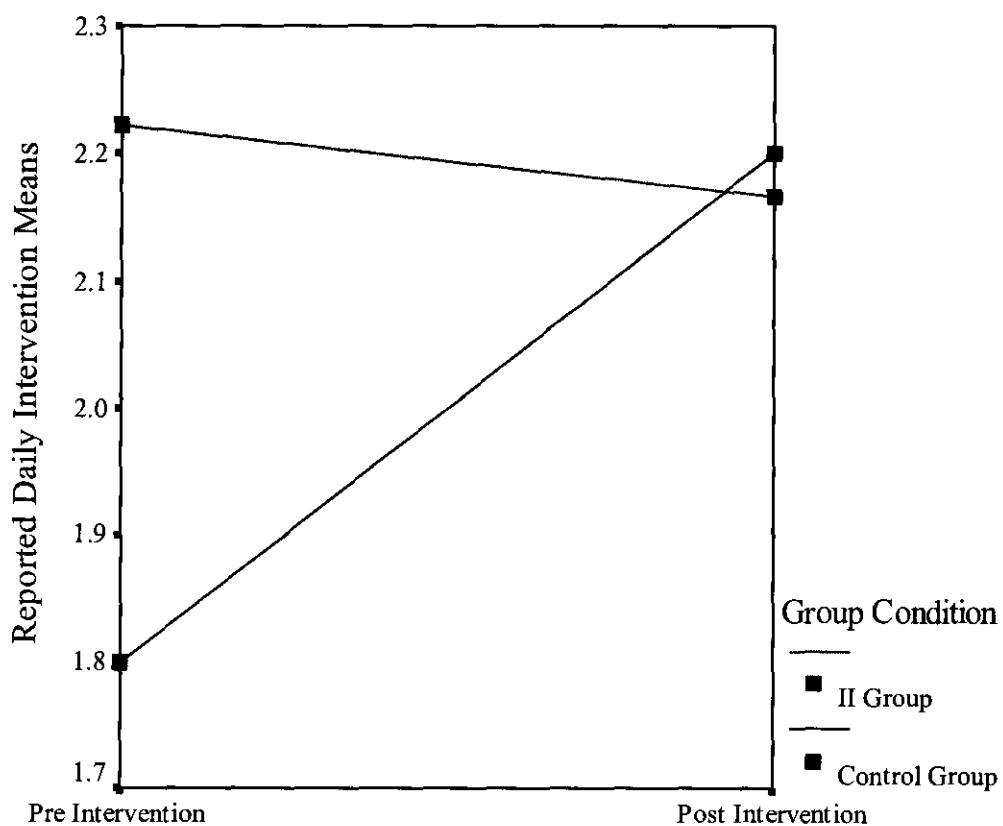
Table 7

*Intercorrelations for Name-Calling Descriptives*

<i>Variables</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>
<i>1</i> Follow issues affecting students who are bullied	--						
<i>2</i> Bullying interventions training	.20	--					
<i>3</i> Comfort intervening in name-calling	-.02	.14	--				
<i>4</i> Daily witnessing of name-calling	-.28	-.12	-.03	--			
<i>5</i> Name-calling a problem in school	-.19	-.02	-.20	.41*	--		
<i>6</i> Daily interventions in name-calling	-.19	-.02	.02	.76**	.27	--	
<i>7</i> General interventions in name-calling	.20	.12	.07	.28	-.01	.42*	--
<i>Mean</i>	2.70	2.15	2.79	2.24	2.03	2.03	3.12
<i>Standard Deviation</i>	.47	.51	.49	.61	.59	.59	.74

\* Significant at  $p < .01$ .\*\* Significant at  $p < .001$ .





*Figure 13.* The interaction effect of implementation intention on daily interventions in name-calling.

*Note:* A reported score of 1 = never, 2 = 1 to 3 times, 3 = 4 to 6 times, 4 = 7 to 9 times, and 5 = more than 9 times.

A 2 (General Interventions) x 2 (Group) mixed factorial ANOVA was conducted to determine the effect of group participation (implementation intention and control) on the two dependent variables, pregeneral interventions in name-calling and postgeneral interventions in name-calling. No main effect for general intervention was obtained,  $F(1, 31) = .999, p = .883, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .00$ . Thus, there were no overall differences in the general number of interventions made pretest ( $M = 3.12$ ) compared to posttest ( $M = 3.12$ ). Additionally, the General Intervention x Group interaction was not significant,  $F(1, 31) = .921, p = .114, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .08$ . Figure 14 suggests that individuals who formed implementation intentions reported generally intervening in name-calling slightly more posttest ( $M = 3.39$ ) than pretest ( $M = 3.22$ ). This was a 34% increase in participants in the implementation intention condition who now stated that they were intervening *always*. While the control group reported generally intervening less posttest ( $M = 2.80$ ) than pretest ( $M = 3.00$ ), which indicated a 34% decrease participants in the control condition that now stated that are intervening *always*. Table 8 contains the means and standard deviations for the two groups.

Table 8

*Cell Means and Standard Deviation for General Interventions in Name-Calling*

Preintervention	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Implementation intention condition	3.22	.647	18
Control condition	3.00	.845	15
Total	3.12	.740	33
Postintervention	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Implementation intention condition	3.39	.608	18
Control condition	2.80	.561	15
Total	3.12	.650	33

*Note:* A reported score of 1 = *never*, 2 = *sometime*, 3 = *often*, and 4 = *always*.

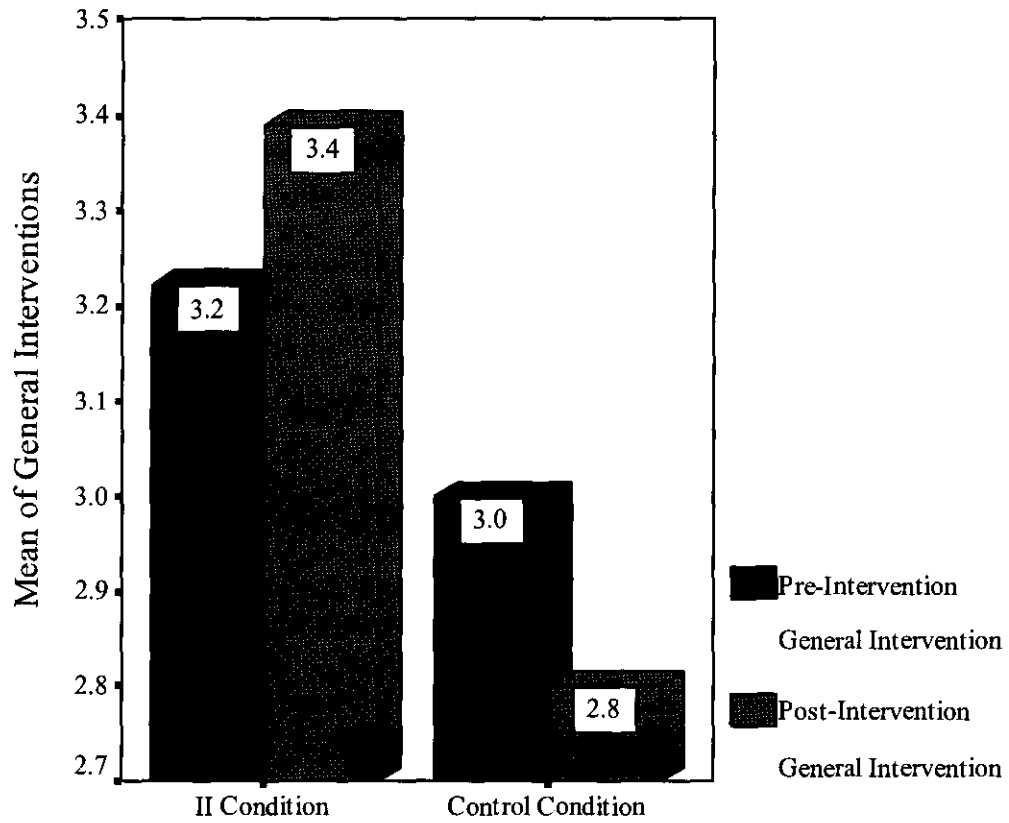


Figure 14. The effect of implementation intention on postgeneral interventions.

Note: A reported score of 1 = never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = often, and 4 = always.

## Chapter V;

### Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

*“Nobody made a greater mistake than he who did nothing*

*because he could do only a little” – Edmund Burke*

#### *Introduction*

Research has unprecedentedly shown that name-calling is no stranger in our schools (Besag, 1989; Bryne, 1994; De Klerk & Bosch, 1996; Garrity et al., 1995; Hazler, 1991; Olweus, 1993; Rigby, 2003; Rymes, 1996). Bullying directly impacts students, teachers, school property, the community, and the entire educational process (Espelage & Holt, 2001; Oliver et al., 1994; Swearer et al., 2001). Direct verbal aggression in the form of name-calling, assigning unkind nicknames, and hurtful teasing is among the most prevalent forms of bullying (Crozier & Skliopidou, 2002). Approximately 50% of junior and middle school pupils reported being called unkind names (Whitney & Smith, 1993). Sadder yet, an astonishing 20% of primary school pupils claimed that they experienced nasty comments and unkind nicknames on a daily basis (Croizer & Dominick, 1999). The short- and long-term educational, social, emotional, and psychological repercussions of bullying have demanded the attention of all parties involved. Additionally, this dilemma has put a strain on school administration and resources. Moreover, the negative climate of a building can be felt and reacted upon by students, teachers, or any school staff member (Espelage & Holt, 2001; Oliver et al., 1994; Swearer et al., 2001). As school personnel, we can no longer afford the option of silence or unsound practices as solutions to this problem.

Implementation intention utilizes goal pursuit and has been shown to be effective in enhancing behavioral enactment Gollwitzer (1999). The crux of this theory is that when a behavioral intention is coupled with an implementation intention the likelihood of behavioral enactment increases. Overall, the technique helps to create a strong mental bond between the situation and the behavior leading people to remember and recognize a situation designated for action. Even in situations where a person is under stress or presented with distracting or competing goals, implementation intentions can still improve the performance of behaviors (Gollwitzer, 1993, 1999).

Up to this point, most research about implementation intentions has focused on applied health-related behaviors. Noted outcomes of implementation intentions have been seen in the ability to increase the likelihood of eating a healthy diet (Verplanken & Faes, 1999), taking vitamins (Sheeran & Orbell, 1999), performing breast self-examinations (Orbell, Hodgkins, & Sheeran, 1997), attending appointments for cervical cancer screenings (Sheeran & Orbell, 2000), returning to normal activity after surgery (Sheeran & Orbell, 2000), and using condoms (Albarracin et al., 2001). The results indicate that implementation intentions are an effective technique that allows individuals to move from a behavioral intention to a behavioral enactment. The results of this study suggest that implementation intention is a strategy that is not exclusive to health-related behavior, but can be applied any situation where a desired behavioral enactment is needed. Some supporting studies have demonstrated that implementation intentions have been used to improve students' compliance with academic assignments (Gollwitzer & Brandstatter, 1997; Dill et al., 2002; Owens et al., 2001, 2002), increase the response related to planned behavior (Aarts & Dijksterhuis, 2000), and completing professional goals

(Brandstatter et al., 2001). Additionally, work by Gollwitzer and Brandstatter (1997) further expanded the use of the theory of implementation intention and validated this technique as an effective strategy as it affected the number of counterarguments made against racist speech.

The current study examined the effects of verbal implementation intentions on teacher intervention in name-calling. Given the number of studies that have supported Gollwitzer's theory of implementation intentions, it was expected that implementation intentions would increase the number of daily e-mail commitments to counterargue name-calling behavior. The results from the current study were comparable to previous conclusions on implementation intentions. This evidence from the current data supports the use of this technique by school principals to impact teacher commitment levels. This strategy is direct, cost efficient, easy to implement, and empirically based. Administrators and other district staff members can utilize this technique to target name-calling and ultimately relieve students, staff, and schools from stress produced by this most frequent form of bullying. Using implementation intentions to increase behavioral enactments can also be a valuable tool for superintendents, other administrators, and teachers. Moreover, the results of this study solidify the application of this strategy as a powerful tool in the educational process.

### *Findings*

Having various perspectives could lead to confusion as to when one should intervene in name-calling. Even though 91% of participants reported witnessing name-calling on a daily basis, a surprising 15% stated that they *never* intervened. This finding indicates that a particular group of teachers witnessed name-calling and yet chose not to

intervene, were unwilling to intervene, or were incapable of intervening. It may also suggest that some teachers might have different definitions of name-calling. Some definitional differences could exist in the severity and nature of a name-calling situation. The use of humor can sometimes confuse the situation. This kind of ambiguity can leave the recipient as well as an onlooker without a response. Instead, they suffer the pressure of intervening (Kehily & Nayak, 1997). Some reports of name-calling could have been between two students who the teacher felt were fooling around. While teacher interventions could be a preventative measure and alleviate the further strain on school resources when this problem manifests, administrators continue to spend a significant amount of time dealing with the aftermath of long endured bullying.

Hazler (1991) reported that 2 out of 3 students said that teachers handle the bullying ineffectively. This ineffectiveness continues to facilitate the problem. Additionally, being aware that a problem exists is imperative. The fact that 85% of teachers questioned in this study reported that bullying is *somewhat* or an *extreme* problem as well as 70% stated that they are *very attentive* to bullying issues is a positive finding. However only 33% stated that they *always* intervened when name-calling occurs. This statistic does not reflect and contradicts previous bullying interest statements. Approximately 97% of the teachers claimed that they are *somewhat* or *extremely* comfortable intervening when they witness name-calling. While teachers reported high levels of comfort, the data indicate that 21% intervene *sometimes* in conjunction with 15% who say they *never* intervene on a daily basis. It would seem that their intentions are not translating into behaviors and, furthermore, that their comfort is not a future



predictor of their behavior. Teachers need to not only have the intentions to intervene, but they also need to commit and actually counterargue name-calling.

Teachers who formed implementation intentions significantly sent more e-mails about daily commitments than teachers who did not form implementation intentions. Requiring teachers to specify when and where they would e-mail and providing a specific target goal significantly impacted goal performance. On an average, six more total daily commitments were made by teachers who formed implementation intentions than those who did not.

It was expected that teachers who formed implementation intentions would recall having witnessed fewer name-calling incidents over time, in addition to intervening more often on a daily basis. The results of this study supported the assumptions made in these hypothesis and additional analysis provided insights explaining the reaction of continued teacher intervention in name-calling. Although there was no significant main effect for witnessing levels, the analysis showed that there was a significant interaction effect between the dependent variables, predaily witnessing of name-calling and postdaily witnessing of name-calling and group participation (implementation intention and control), which suggested that teachers who formed implementation intentions did in fact witness fewer incidents of name-calling. Further test data, analyzing group participation (implementation intention and control) on the two dependent variables, predaily interventions in name-calling and postdaily interventions in name-calling, found a significant main effect for recalled daily interventions in name-calling, which meant, overall, teachers were recalling more interventions. In contrast to our hypothesis, a significant interaction effect was found between group participation and the two

dependent measures. This finding denoted that, while overall participants in this study were intervening more, teachers in the implementation intentions condition intervened significantly less. Although not expected, this finding can be explained by the need to intervene less. Since, a majority of study participants reported intervening *always* or *often* when they witnessed name-calling, it would be safe to assume that the number of incidents would be reduced by their interventions and therefore reduce the number of times the teachers would need to intervene in the future. Exploratory analysis found no significant effect or interaction on teacher accounts of general interventions in name-calling. However, the data indicate that participants in the implementation intentions condition reported intervening in general more times postintervention than participants in the control condition with respect to observing the means. Further analysis of frequencies indicated a 34% increase within the implementation condition from the pre- to poststudy data. Despite the lack of significance, results can still be discussed in regard to the relationship and meaningfulness. Teachers may have reported fewer occurrences of name-calling because teachers reported generally intervening more often. In turn, general intervention may have affected the number of daily incidents to witness as well as intervene. Therefore, as long as teachers continue to intervene *always* or *often*, it may adversely influence the daily relationship of witnessed name-calling and teacher interventions. In essence, it can be said that over time teachers will need to intervene less as a result of the strategy being implemented. By intervening *always* throughout the duration of the study, name-calling decreased, and again as a result, while the frequency of intervention would have been higher at the inception of the study, at the end the number of interventions would reflect the need to intervene based on daily witnessed

name-calling incidents. Increasing the length of the study in the future, with more frequent points of data collection, could outline this decrease in need to intervene as the number of daily witnessed name-calling incidents decreases over time. It must also be added that intervention and witnessing statistics were based on teacher accounts and perceptions. The reality might be that teachers are not intervening as much as they report. Moreover, their idea of what might be a problematic environment might be very different from what actually exists or the environment of the school might not reflect the immediate environment of this teacher. Again, 91% of the teachers questioned stated that they witnessed name-calling on a daily basis, but 15% of the participants did not feel that name-calling is a problem. Nonetheless, it can still be suggested that an individual can utilize implementation intentions as an effective cognitive tool to increase a desired behavioral goal.

A series of bivariate correlations were performed. A significant relationship was found between daily witnessing of name-calling and name-calling a problem in school, suggesting that the more a teacher witnessed name-calling, the more of a problem the teacher felt name-calling was in his or her school. Name-calling not only affects the immediate environment where the name-calling is witnessed but has an impact on school climate as a whole (Garrity et al., 1995; Rigby, 2003). Again, if a student is not comfortable in his or her learning environment, not much learning will occur. Additionally, a significant relationship was marked between daily witnessing of name-calling and daily intervention in name-calling. The more teachers reported witnessing name-calling on a daily basis, the more they reported intervening on a daily basis. A significant relationship was also found between daily intervention in name-calling and

general intervention in name-calling, further supporting that the more participants intervened on a daily basis to name-calling, the more they reported intervening in general in name-calling. While participants seem to be aware that name-calling is a problem in their school and recognize the need to intervene in name-calling, the results lead us to question if teachers are actually doing what they report. According to the 2001 National School Climate Survey, despite 94% of students reporting that they frequently heard homophobic remarks in school, roughly half of the students claimed that the homophobic remarks, in the form of name-calling, were made when faculty or staff were not present or the faculty or staff never intervened when they were present. In the present study, 33% of teachers reported witnessing name-calling 4 to 6 times a day, yet only 18% stated that they intervened 4 to 6 times a day. In addition, more than 95% of participants reported being *somewhat* or *extremely* comfortable intervening name-calling incidents. This information coupled with the fact that 70% of participants stated that they were *very attentive* to issues affecting students who are bullied, it would fair to expect greater accounts of name-calling interventions. Furthermore, when this study was conducted, it was arranged as a voluntary study in which willing participants needed to consent to participation after being informed about the content of the research. This design might have attracted participants who already had an underlying interest in bullying/name-calling. This underlying interest could have affected their motivation levels, and therefore their commitment levels to e-mail daily statements to counterargue name-calling before the study had begun. It would be valuable to repeat this work in a district that had an antibullying program already in practice to narrow the margin of participants who have a specific knowledge of or attraction to this content controlling this potential effect.

Perhaps our teachers are comfortable and continue to follow issues that affect our students, but do so from a theoretical perspective. The findings from this study further support the literature, suggesting that intervening in incidents of bullying are often complex and confusing to the bystander (Besag, 1989; Hoover et al., 1992; Olweus, 1994; Stephenson & Smith, 1989). It is difficult to accept that teachers are simply choosing not to intervene rather than struggling with themselves as to when and how to most effectively address this complicated construct. However, training can utilize this information to link the increased commitment levels to behaviors that counterargue name-calling.

The generalizability of implementation intentions has profound implications on the educational landscape. This indicates that utilizing implementation intentions will allow an individual to include and respond not only to the targeted stimuli but also to new and contextually similar stimuli. Therefore, as it relates to this study, individuals who form implementation intentions may be more likely to go beyond their commitment to counterargue name-calling in their school environment and may be more likely to continue this practice outside school when the same stimuli arises, regardless of the cognitive load. The ballooning effect of the expanding reach of this technique is vital to making an impact on the elusive and widespread nature of name-calling. Again, name-calling can happen anywhere, and it is usually not limited to a one-time occurrence. In schools, at the workplace, on the street and at home are just a few of the places where name-calling can be experienced. Since name-calling is difficult to identify as compared to physical types of bullying, a farther-reaching strategy is crucial to identify and infiltrate this whispered world of name-calling. When implementation intentions is added to teacher antibullying

training, the expected outcome will not only strengthen commitment levels to better identify name-calling incidents as well as increase counterargue behaviors, but will hopefully generalize this stimuli to other environments and bullying behaviors.

It is imperative to note that whereas the findings of this study do not indicate that the participants who formed implementation intentions translated their increased commitment levels to actual interventions, the data do reflect that there was a reduction in the number of reported daily witnessed name-calling as well as a decrease in the qualitative number of interventions made in name-calling after the study. These results address the growing need for an effective intervention in name-calling in schools. Furthermore, it supports the findings and theories surrounding implementation intention. Hopefully, this work will open the door to more research concerning the applications of this behavioral enactment strategy for both school-based environments and environments at large. Additionally, focusing on enhancing the effects of implementation intentions through reinforcement and participant interest levels could further provide researchers and society, alike, with a more comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms that make implementation intentions effective and to what degree implementation intentions will remain effective.

### *Implications*

It is not surprising that so many of our students do not feel safe at school. The hostile and unsupportive environment that has been created and maintained by silence has lead to 31% of students skipping a class once a month or missing an entire day of school because they felt unsafe (GLSEN, 2001). With the understanding that Maslow's hierarchy of learning begins with safety, if a student is not comfortable in his or her

learning environment, not much learning will occur. Bullying's direct negative effect on school climate has set the mood for many individuals and entire school populations. The negative climate of a building can be felt and reacted upon by students, teachers, or any school staff member. As the viscous cycle of bullying traps its victims, student achievement and faculty productivity are at risk. School administrators are perpetually confronted by this problem and spend a great deal of time searching for solutions and handing out consequences. This constant need for attention makes name-calling and other bullying behaviors a major roadblock for the actual business of the school. Bullying behaviors generally escalate (Olweus, 1994). When the behavior becomes repeated and more extreme so do the consequence and damage to the school's psychosocial foundations. The far-reaching impact of this dilemma has demanded for more effective and empirically based interventions.

While this study focused on the desired effects of implementation intentions on the increased commitment to send the daily e-mails, principals could redesign the approach and ask teachers to specify a time and place that they would intervene with name-calling directly. Fried and Fried (1996) emphasized the importance of the partnership and role of teachers to intervene with bullies and suggest that without their intervention bullies will continue to spread their cruelty. Targeting name-calling behaviors as a preemptive measure will have rippling results in all areas of the school. Aside from the obvious decrease in a negative school climate, the more specific domains of school functioning will undoubtedly be impacted. Decreasing name-calling as a problem will empower our student body, allow teachers to spend more energy and time on educational instruction, as well as alleviate administrative involvement. The

scheduling of Intervention and Referral Service (I&RS) meetings and use of additional time to provide peer mediation could be dramatically reduced when we have this type of immediate and front-line approach to name-calling. Moreover, the use of implementation intentions could assist in the development and fostering of an overall positive school environment. Research has indicated that a safe school climate positively impacts student learning and teacher productivity (Batsche & Knoff, 1994; Olweus, 1994; Swearer et al., 2001). Future studies should be conducted to show the direct impact of implementation intentions of name-calling frequency.

Increasing a teacher's or other individual's ability to counterargue name-calling has important prosocial implications and uses for society. Consequently, the literature supports the need for future work in this area that incorporates behavioral measurements that will actually verify if what teachers say they are doing is actually being done. The addition of a school climate survey or use of student focus groups could show if there is a disparity between what teachers recall and what actually is happening. Additionally, school building principals could find many utilities for this process. Utilizing time and place requirements, a school principal could increase lesson plan completion, increase faculty attendance, and promote other prosocial behaviors.

### *Training*

Astonishingly, it was reported that 73% of participants received minimal training despite the large number of participants who stated being *very attentive* to issues affecting students who are bullied. While some teachers feel they may worsen a situation, their feelings of inadequacy do not warrant or justify their silence (Besag, 1989; Hoover et al., 1992; Olweus, 1994; Stephenson & Smith, 1989). The present data indicated that



91% of the participants claimed that name-calling occurs daily whereas only 33% *always* intervene. Knowing that this issue is continuing and teachers are not consistently intervening is unacceptable. This statistic begs for an understanding of what type of training these teachers are receiving that enables or allows them to look the other way. Effective antibullying training would hone in on these feelings of inadequacy and insecurity to produce easily attainable and easily implemented strategies to counterargue bullying and more specifically name-calling. Further investigation needs to be done to determine how the content and approach used in antibullying training impact a teacher's ability to implement what he or she has learned. If teachers are not using what they are learning in these trainings, then the information they have gained is ineffective and lost. Moreover, if the training teachers are receiving is not empirically based, interventions may not only lack adequate instruction but may also lack effectiveness. Our teachers need to be trained how and when to intervene when name-calling occurs. It is important that they see the purpose of their intervention and are able to witness the positive consequences associated with decreasing bullying. Having teachers intervene always rather than sometimes will eventually decrease their need to intervene, as the number of name-calling incidents will presumably decrease. Implementation intentions provide teachers with the necessary cognitive commitment to intervene in future incidents of name-calling by specifying where and when teachers will intervene. Additional training needs to be incorporated to further empower teachers with various intervention methods that will better equip them with tools to comfortably utilize.

It is imperative that administrators address the 67% of teachers who do not or might not be intervening when name-calling occurs in their school system. With 94% of

the participants having some type of training in this area, it is clear that the education alone is ineffective or not enough support to motivate staff to intervene. Again, without teacher participation, bullying will continue (Fried & Fried, 1996). Besag (1989) reported the most effective means by which teachers can manage the problem of bullying is by developing increased knowledge and awareness of the problem; by ensuring that there are minimal opportunities for acts of bullying to materialize; and by offering student support, training, and education aimed at attacking the root causes of the bullying behavior. Clearly, this is not happening.

School districts currently place an incredible emphasis on professional development. This process is both time-consuming and costly. We cannot continue to send our teachers to training that we cannot guarantee they will benefit from or use. It would seem that more empirically validated training needs to be provided in this area. Appropriate professional development should address assertiveness training utilizing implementation intentions to increase the effectiveness of various antibullying programs. Valuable training workshops ought to increase behavioral enactment toward name-calling and reduce the occurrence of this type of bullying. The reportedly minimal training that some of these teachers are receiving is not having a large impact on counterarguing name-calling. Perhaps if implementation intentions are utilized in the design of antibullying programs as well as teacher training, schools might witness an increase in teacher responsiveness to bullying coupled with a decrease in the number of reported incidents of bullying. The addition of implementation intentions to teacher training, assertiveness training, and other types of community-based training will increase the

likelihood of behavioral enactment toward a target behavior when a given or generalized stimulus is encountered.

Being able to transfer intentions into behaviors is the foundation of Gollwitzer's theory. The goal is to produce a desired outcome. As described earlier, name-calling is a phenomenon that research indicates gets increasingly worse without intervention.

Supplying a way for teachers to actively reduce the amount of name-calling in their school is a necessary step. One hundred and sixty thousand students, according to the U.S. Department of Justice and NASP, miss school each day because of fear. This phenomenon is the result of these students feeling that school staff provide inadequate protection or feel that by seeking assistance they will draw retaliation from the bully. Students simply do not feel that school is a safe environment (Lee, 1993), at least not as safe and conducive to learning as it was intended to be (Batsche & Knoff, 1994).

Consequently, when teachers account for fewer occurrences of bullying, it is expected that students will embrace a heightened sense of comfort in their educational environment. One of the most effective means by which teachers can manage the problem of bullying is by offering student support aimed at attacking the root causes of the bullying behavior (Besag, 1989). Teachers and school staff represent the first line of defense for students in the war on bullying. Teachers' close contact with students and often trusting bonds should allow for the direct intervention. Teachers can implement the immediate consequence that is needed to stunt and deter bullying behavior. Future work in this area should also focus on student comfort levels in relation to teacher intervention in name-calling. Principals who can increase student comfort could positively impact student achievement. Training, aside from empowering students within their own school

systems, will strengthen school relationships. Staff members will have an active role developing and maintaining school climate. Students, in turn, will feel more connected to their school and, with a healthier sense of belonging, experience the benefits of our educational objectives.

### *Conclusion*

The effect of implementation intention has significantly increased the number of daily commitments to counterargue name-calling. Teachers who formed implementation intentions, on average, e-mailed six more daily commitments than those who did not form implementation intentions. Requiring teachers to specify where and when commitments would be made enabled the teachers to go beyond their intentions. While the details by which implementation intentions function have not been discussed in the literature, research has strongly supported the notion that implementation intentions make a behavior automatic in the presence of the trained stimuli as well as similar stimuli regardless of social desirability and demand characteristics (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Godin & Kok, 1996; Gollwitzer & Brandstatter, 1997; Orbell & Sheeran, 2000). Although teachers were required only to form implementation intentions in reference to daily commitment statements, it should be noted that a significant interaction effect was found between the number of daily witnessed name-calling incidents and group participation as well as a significant interaction effect found between the number of daily interventions in name-calling incidents and group participation. Once again, pre- and postdata regarding daily witnessed and daily interventions made were gathered via self-report measures. Due to demand characteristics, participants often report responses that they believe the experiment is investigating. Perhaps a participant's need to appear

socially desirable out-weighed the accuracy of the participant's recalled accounts.

Additionally, ensuring a larger sample size and lengthening the duration of the study with more frequent data collecting will reduce the effects of outliers on statistical findings in this area of the study. The modifications will help to provide a more concrete foundation for statistical assertions. Future work in this area should address these limitations.

Name-calling will continue to plague our schools until we respond with appropriate tools that will enable and empower our students, staff, and administration to end this war. It starts with ongoing discussion and focus groups to address the nature and severity of bullying as a dilemma in our schools. It continues with empirically based training that utilizes the effectiveness of implementation intentions. It ends with administrative supports to reinforce policy and programs that ensure the safety of our schools. We are now left with the responsibility of implementing the results of this study.

Although implementation intentions is simply a tool, it can make a powerful difference in the lives of so many as long as it is incorporated appropriately. The usefulness of implementation intention no longer has to be exclusive to health-related behaviors. Implementation intention has made its well-deserved entrance into the field of education and educational leadership.

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APPENDIX A  
Informed Consent Form

(Seton Hall Letterhead)

**Affiliation:**

Joseph A. Putrino, Jr., is a doctoral candidate at Seton Hall University enrolled in the Executive Ed.D. Program for Educational Leadership, Management, and Policy. He is currently employed as the assistant principal at Hillside Elementary School in Montclair, New Jersey.

**Purpose of the Study and Expected Duration of Subjects' Participation:**

This study will examine the *Effects of Implementation Intentions on Teacher Interventions in Name-Calling*.

**Duration of Study:**

The entire experiment will be conducted in January and February of the 2008–2009 school year. The full commitment will end after 20 consecutive school days from the start time.

**Procedures:**

Fourth- and fifth-grade teacher participants (in the 10 Howell Township Elementary Schools) will be asked, at the beginning and end of the experiment, to answer questions regarding their experience with name-calling and teacher ability to intervene when name-calling occurs. Fourth- and fifth-grade teachers will also be instructed to make daily e-mail commitments to use educationally appropriate interventions in name-calling in their school. Per implementation intentions, half of the participating teachers will be asked to be more specific about when and where they will be sending these e-mails

Each participant will create his or her own unique identification number using four personal items. His or her responses to the items will produce a unique five-character code that will be used by the participant and the experimenter to identify himself or herself on the subsequent Teacher Position Questionnaire, administered pre- and poststudy.

Participants will be presented with an ID Creation form and a Teacher Position Questionnaire. Following the completion of the questionnaire, participants will be informed about the nature and requirements of the study.

Each participant will be given the following oral instructions when beginning the study:

“The present study aims at analyzing teacher motivation to address name-calling as a form of bullying in their school. You will be confronted, for the next 2 months, with several real-life situations that involve bullying tactics. For experimental reasons, you will be asked to make a daily commitment to address name-calling in your school when it occurs. Your daily commitment will be collected via e-mail.”

At the conclusion of the data collection, a meeting will be scheduled to administer a Postteacher Position Questionnaire. During this meeting, all teacher participants will be thoroughly debriefed and be given supplemental bullying resources.



**Voluntary Nature:**

Participation in this study is voluntary. Refusal to participate or discontinuing participation will in no way result in any penalty or loss of benefits to the participants. No one in authority associated with the school district will have access to the data. The findings of the study will be shared with the participants at the conclusion of the study. Lastly, the researcher will take every precaution necessary to ensure the confidentiality of your responses.

**Security of Stored Data:**

The data collected and analyzed via the teacher position questionnaire and the documented daily teacher e-mails will remain in the possession of the researcher and will be stored on a USB Flash memory drive and housed in a secure locked location in the home of the researcher.

**Confidentiality:**

All of the data and records regarding this study will be kept strictly confidential. No individuals will have access to the names of the participating teachers or the data except for the researcher, the research assistant, and the researcher's Seton Hall University mentor, Dr. Daniel Gutmore.

**Possible Risks:**

There is no risk in this study.

**Direct Benefits:**

The results of this study will be imperative to the future of bullying interventions as well as student safety. Based on literature, implementation intentions is a promising technique for increasing direct intervention in various forms of bullying behaviors.

**Alternatives Procedures:**

If for any reason you are unable to participate in this study, no other alternative procedures are available for your involvement.

**Contact Information:**

The principal researcher and research associates may be contacted with pertinent questions regarding the study.

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Mary F. Ruzicka, Ph.D.  
Seton Hall University Institutional Review Board (IRB) Director  
Seton Hall University, Office of the Institutional Review Board  
Presidents Hall Third Floor  
400 South Orange Avenue  
South Orange, NJ 07079  
(973) 313-6314

**Acknowledgement of the Informed Consent Form:**

I have read the information in this document and I agree to participate in this study. I understand that I will be provided with a copy of this Informed Consent Form for my records prior to the start of this research study.

**APPENDIX B**

**Coding Forms**

In order to preserve your anonymity so that you can feel free to give honest answers to the following questions, you are to create an ID number for yourself. Following the completion of this research project, this sheet will be destroyed, and you will be identifiable only by your unique ID.

NAME: \_\_\_\_\_

(1) FIRST LETTER OF YOUR MOTHER'S FIRST NAME: \_\_\_\_\_

(2) FIRST LETTER OF YOUR MOTHER'S MAIDEN NAME: \_\_\_\_\_

(3) FIRST LETTER OF THE NAME OF THE CITY IN WHICH  
YOU WERE BORN: \_\_\_\_\_

(4) FATHER'S AGE: \_\_\_\_\_

Now, write these letters and numbers in order on the line. For instance, if

(1) = F

(2) = D

(3) = W

(4) = 51

ID = FDW51

WRITE YOUR ID HERE: \_\_\_\_\_

REMEMBER YOU WILL NEED YOUR ID

1. To put it on all of the following questionnaires.
2. To e-mail the researcher at [namecallingexperiment@gmail.com](mailto:namecallingexperiment@gmail.com)
  - i. Put your ID in the subject line

In order to preserve your anonymity so that you can feel free to give honest answers to the following questions, you are to create an ID number for yourself. Following the completion of this research project, this sheet will be destroyed, and you will be identifiable only by your unique ID.

NAME: \_\_\_\_\_

(1) FIRST LETTER OF YOUR MOTHER'S FIRST NAME: \_\_\_\_\_

(2) FIRST LETTER OF YOUR MOTHER'S MAIDEN NAME: \_\_\_\_\_

(3) FIRST LETTER OF THE NAME OF THE CITY IN WHICH  
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Now, write these letters and numbers in order on the line. For instance, if

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REMEMBER YOU WILL NEED YOUR ID

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  - i. Put your ID in the subject line

APPENDIX C

Teacher Position Questionnaire

## Teacher Survey

YOUR I.D. : \_\_\_\_\_

TODAY'S DATE: \_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_

**Please answer the following questions about your background.**

1. What is your date of birth? \_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_
2. What is your gender?
  - Male.....
  - Female.....
3. How would you describe yourself?
  - American Indian/ Alaska Native .....
  - Asian.....
  - Black or African American.....
  - Hispanic or Latino.....
  - Native Hawaiian / other pacific island
  - White.....
  - Multiracial.....
  - Other: (specify) \_\_\_\_\_
4. How many years have you been teaching?
  - First Year.....
  - 2 to 5 years.....
  - 6 to 10 years.....
  - 11 to 15 years.....
  - 16 to 20 years.....
  - More than 20 years.....
5. Are you a tenured teacher?
  - No.....
  - Yes.....
6. What religion, if any, do you identify yourself with?
  - None.....
  - Agnostic (questioning).....
  - Atheist (no religion).....
  - Catholic.....
  - Jewish.....
  - Muslim.....
  - Protestant (Christian, Baptist, Lutheran).
  - Hindu.....
  - Buddhist.....
  - Other: (specify) \_\_\_\_\_
7. How would you describe the community of your permanent home address (check one)?
  - Rural .....
  - Small town.....
  - Medium town or suburb.....
  - Small city.....
  - City .....
8. How attentively do you follow issues affecting students who are bullied?
  - Not at all attentive.....
  - Somewhat attentive.....
  - Very attentive.....
9. Have you been training on bullying interventions?
  - No training.....
  - Minimal training.....
  - Several trainings.....
10. How comfortable are you intervening when name calling occurs?
  - Not comfortable at all.....
  - Somewhat comfortable.....
  - Extremely comfortable.....
11. How often on a daily basis do you witness name calling in your school?
  - Never.....
  - 1 to 3 Times.....
  - 4 to 6 Times.....
  - 7 to 9 Times.....
  - More than 9 Times.....
12. How much of a problem is name calling in your school?
  - Not a problem.....
  - Somewhat a problem.....
  - An extreme problem.....
13. How often on a daily basis do you intervene to name calling in your school?
  - Never.....
  - 1 to 3 Times.....
  - 4 to 6 Times.....
  - 7 to 9 Times.....
  - More than 9 Times.....
14. In general, how often do you intervene when name calling occurs in your school?
  - Never.....
  - Sometimes.....
  - Often.....
  - Always.....

**APPENDIX D**  
**Experiment Script**



All participants were given the following oral instructions:

The present study aims at analyzing teacher motivation to address name-calling as a form of bullying in their school. You will be confronted, for the next 20 school days, with several real-life situations that involve bullying tactics. For experimental reasons, you will be asked to make a daily commitment to address name-calling in your school when it occurs. Your daily commitment will be collected via e-mail.

#### Implementation Intention Manipulation

Participants randomly assigned to the implementation intention condition received the additional following instructions:

Your daily commitment statement that you will e-mail will be “*When I witness name-calling, then I will intervene.*” You will now be given a piece of paper. On this piece of paper, please commit yourself to seize the opportunity to make a daily commitment to intervene by completing the statement, “*When I get to \_\_\_\_\_ at \_\_\_\_\_, then I will e-mail my daily commitment.*”