

# Participant roles in peer-victimization among young children in South Korea: peer-, self-, and teacher-nominations

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Abstract

This study explored participant roles in aggressive behavior among 95 children aged five to seven years, in a collectivistic culture, South Korea. Using a short-term longitudinal design, three types of nomination (peer, self, and teacher) were obtained for four participant roles (aggressor, victim, defender-stop, and defender-tell) and for four types of aggression (physical, verbal, social exclusion and rumor spreading). Assessments were made of stability of participant roles over time; inter-rater concordance among informants; discriminability; and relationships with sex, and likeability. Children tended to report themselves as victim and their peers as aggressors, especially for social exclusion. Nominations for aggressor showed highest stability over time and inter-rater concordance. Social exclusion showed different characteristics from other types of aggressive behavior in terms of its frequency and inter-rater concordance of role nominations. The type of defender (defender-stop or defender-tell) had different correlates with likeability. Findings are discussed in relation to different perspectives on social exclusion, and the defender role. Some different findings related specifically to social exclusion may be related to the particular nature of aggression or wang-ta in South Korea.

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# Participant roles in peer-victimization among young children in South Korea: peer, self, and teacher nominations

Studies of the origins of aggressive and peer victimization behavior in young children, under seven years, have shown that the participant roles of aggressor, victim and defender can be identified with reasonable levels of inter-rater concordance and reliability. Such studies have primarily been carried out in western countries (Kirves & Sajanieni, 2012; Monks & Smith, 2010; Monks, Smith, & Swettenham, 2003; Perren & Alsaker, 2006; Vlachou, Andreou, Botsoglou & Didaskalou, 2011). Here, we report findings from young children in South Korea. Previous studies on peer victimization or *wang-ta* in South Korea have primarily been on school-age children eight years old and above, and have noted distinctive features such as an emphasis on social exclusion (Koo, Kwak & Smith, 2008).

Aggressive behavior can be physical, verbal, or relational, and direct or indirect. Relational aggression damages or threatens to damage relationships (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Indirect aggression is performed via third party(ies) rather than face-to-face (Björkqvist, 2001). Relational and indirect aggression can be difficult to disentangle (Archer & Coyne, 2005); relational aggression is frequently carried out indirectly. In the last decade cyber aggression has become a prevalent phenomenon, but (at the time of this study) not among children below seven years (Kowalski, Giumetti, Schroeder, & Lattanner, 2014).

In older children, peer victimization is often considered as bullying, usually characterized as aggressive behavior that involves repetition and an imbalance of power (Olweus, 1993; Smith, 2014). Young children have a different understanding of bullying from older children; they have a broader concept that tends to include all kinds of aggressive behavior, irrespective of imbalance of power or repetition (Monks & Smith,

2010); for this reason the term bullying-like behavior is often used for the preschool and infant school age range. In this study, we use the term peer-victimization, and examine roles in this between five to seven years. We particularly examine some role characteristics: short-term stability over time, inter-rater concordance among informants, discriminability, relations between aggressor and victim roles by type of aggression; and role relations with sex and likeability. We also examine the value of differentiating the defender role into two distinct aspects, which we label defender-stop and defender-tell.

### Peer-victimization in South Korea

There are several terms to indicate peer-victimization in South Korea; *hakkyo-pokryuk* (school violence), *gipdan-ttadolim* (group isolation), *gipdan-gorophim* (group harassment or group bullying), and *wang-ta*. These terms are often used interchangeably, although there are some differences in terms of the type of aggression each term most represents (Koo, 2005; Lee, Smith & Monks, 2012).

Among these terms, wang-ta has been regarded as that most closely corresponding to peer-victimization, and to bullying in older children, in western cultures. It is a slang term popularized by pupils in the late 1990s, which mainly focuses on excluding and harassing one person by group aggressive acts (Lee et al., 2012). Like the term bully, wang-ta can be used as a verb (to wang-ta someone) and as a noun (a wang-ta as a victim). In Korean wang means big or king, and ta is a short version of ttadolim (isolation), therefore the meaning of the term wang-ta has a root of social exclusion.

Koo et al. (2008) carried out a survey of *wang-ta* with 11 to 16 year old pupils from randomly selected schools across five main regions of South Korea. Altogether 5.8% of pupils reported receiving *wang-ta* and 10.2% reported that they had done *wang-ta* to other peers, more than once or twice in the last term. Unlike in western countries, in South Korea the number of bullies was larger than the number of victims, and pupils were often bullied

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by those from higher grades. The most cited forms for both receiving and perpetrating *wang-ta* were verbal, followed by relational and physical.

The public labeling of a victimized person (as a *wang-ta*) is an unusual and possibly unique phenomenon in the study of school bullying. Lee et al. (2012) reported that from the age of four or five years onwards, South Korean children and adults were aware of what *wang-ta* meant, and although they generally saw it as wrong and considered it to be a bad behavior, they often blamed the victimized pupil. This may be related to collectivistic cultural beliefs; South Korea is seen as a strongly collectivistic society (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). In collectivistic cultures, group goals have priority over individual goals when there is conflict between them (Triandis, McCuster, & Hui, 1990). Thus, when there is chronic victimization perpetrated by a number of pupils, classmates often perceive the situation as resulting from the victim's faulty behavior, or maladjustment.

# **Participant roles**

Salmivalli, Lagerspetz, Björkqvist, Österman, and Kaukiainen (1996) first identified six roles taken by Finnish adolescents during episodes of peer victimization, known as Participant Roles: *Ringleader* (who starts the attacks or bullying); *Assistant* (who joins in the attacks); *Reinforcer* (who encourages the attacks); *Defender* (who supports the victim); *Victim* (the target of their aggression); *Outsider* (who avoids these situations and does not get involved). The role of *victim* has been further divided into *Passive victim* (who does not provoke others) and *Provocative victim* (who tends to attack or provoke others as well as being victimized by peers) (Olweus, 1993).

These roles were later identified in seven to 11 year olds in England, by Sutton and Smith (1999); and the Salmivalli Participant Role Scale has now been used in many western countries with school age children. However, research with younger participants aged four to six years found that fewer of these roles were identifiable. Monks, Smith and Swettenham

(2003) found that using pupil and teacher nominations, only the roles of Aggressor (a combination of Ringleader, Assistant and Reinforcer), Victim and Defender were identified with any inter-rater concordance and reliability. Monks and Smith (2010) compared peer-nomination data from five and eight year olds; they found that the five year olds were able to report on aggressive behavior and that these nominations showed some reliability over a test-retest interval of one week; furthermore, children within the class tended to agree on who was aggressive within their peer group. However, the five year olds were less able to provide reliable and agreed on reports for other participant roles. In contrast, the eight year olds were able to provide reliable and more generally agreed on peer-nominations for all of the participant roles taken in bullying.

### **Defender role**

Defending has been investigated in terms of helping the victim directly, by consoling or intervening in the aggressive behavior, or indirectly, by reporting the aggressive episode to adults (Caravita, Di Blasio, & Salmivalli, 2009; Salmivalli et al., 1996). Studies in western cultures generally find that children who defend victimized children are reported to be more accepted and popular than children in other roles; this is consistent across ages and using different nomination methods. Salmivalli et al. (1996) found that peer nominated defenders aged 12-13 were highly accepted, with low scores in rejection. In children aged eight to 10 years, Caravita et al. (2009) found that defenders were socially preferred by their peers but also perceived as popular. At four to six years, Monks et al. (2003) found that self-nominated defenders tended to be more accepted than non-defenders or aggressors; and Monks, Palermiti, Ortega, and Costabile (2011) found that teacher-nominated defenders in preschool were also more preferred than non-defenders.

### **Characteristics of roles**

Stability over time: participant roles tend to be stable, with the degree of stability over time

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generally increasing with age (Smith, 2014). Stability over time also varies depending on the informant, the type of aggression, and the time interval between assessments. Short-term stability over time can be taken as a measure of reliability.

In young children, stability over time has been examined over one week (Monks & Smith, 2010), one month (Crick, Casas, & Ku, 1999), four months (Monks et al., 2003), five months (Kochenderfer & Ladd, 1996) and 18 months (Crick et al., 2006). For example, Monks et al. (2003) investigated four month stability over time of participant roles in four to six year old children; they found that peer-reported stabilities were high for aggressor (r = .78), moderate for defender (r = .38) and low for victim: (r = .19, not significant). The low stability over time for victim may be due to aggressive behavior at this age being less targeted to a particular child, as stability over time of the victim role increases considerably by middle childhood and adolescence (Sapouna et al., 2012; Smith, 2014).

Stability over time of victimization and aggression may also differ by type of aggression, and informant. Crick et al. (1999) found that teacher-reported stability over time of relational victimization (r = .63) was higher than for physical victimization (r = .37). Crick et al. (2006) found that using observational data, relational aggression was stable for girls (r = .39) whereas physical aggression was not stable for either sex; whereas by teacher-report, neither physical nor relational aggression were stable.

Inter-rater concordance between informants: roles can be nominated by self, peers, and teachers; each method has advantages and disadvantages for research with younger children (Vlachou et al., 2011). Peer reports are useful as children are most aware of their peer relationships and notice aggressive behavior or victimization even in unsupervised contexts (Ladd & Kochenderfer-Ladd, 2002); also, obtaining as many as 20 to 30 pupils' opinions of each child participating in the study increases the reliability of the measure (Salmivalli, 1998). However, young children's lack of skills for monitoring, encoding and

recalling the victimization event may reduce reliability, especially for more indirect forms of aggression such as excluding and rumor spreading (Ladd & Kochenderfer-Ladd, 2002).

Self reports may be useful for examining victim experiences because children are very sensitive to negative treatment, especially of more subtle forms of victimization such as gossiping, or excluding, of which peers and teachers may not be aware (Ladd & Kochenderfer-Ladd, 2002). However, children may overestimate their victim experience and underestimate their aggressor experience due to social desirability (Monks et al., 2003).

Teacher reports have been advocated as providing relatively reliable data for younger children (Vlachou et al., 2011). Juliano, Werner, and Cassidy (2006) reported a significant correlation for physical aggression between teachers and observers, however the agreement was not significant for relational aggression; teachers may not be aware of all situations where victimization has taken place, and may be less aware of relational and indirect aggression.

Ladd and Kochenderfer-Ladd (2002) recommended using multiple informants to investigate preschoolers' aggression, as a multi-informant composite measure yielded better estimates of relational adjustment than any single-informant measure.

Discriminability: different roles are only meaningful if they can be discriminated; especially at younger ages, some roles are perceived in similar ways, as shown by intercorrelations between them. Monks and Smith (2010) reported high correlations (around 0.8) between aggressor and provocative victim in 5 year olds; with lower correlations amongst other roles.

Relations between aggressor and victim roles by type of aggression: the high correlation between aggressor and provocative victim may interact with the type of aggression; for example, an aggressor using one type of aggression may be a victim of another type of aggression. Ostrov (2008) evaluated aggression and victimization of preschool children

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and found that observed aggression was associated with teacher-reported victimization both in physical and relational aggression.

# Relations with participant roles

Sex: generally, and including studies with younger children, boys are more often identified as being aggressors, bullies or bully/victims than girls (Monks et al, 2003; Ostrov & Keating, 2004; Monks & Smith, 2010; Vlachou et al., 2011). While boys have been characterized as consistently more physically aggressive than girls, there have been less consistent sex differences in relational aggression. Some studies indicated that girls are more aggressive than boys in relational aggression, other studies showed that they are not as aggressive as boys, or if girls are aggressive, they are more likely to use relational or indirect aggression than overt or direct forms (Archer, 2004; Card, Stucky, Sawalani, & Little, 2008; Olweus, 2010; Scheithauer, Hayer, Petermann, & Jugert, 2006; Smith, 2014). Girls are more likely to be defenders (Monks & Smith, 2010; Vlachou et al., 2011). Studies generally report no significant differences in self-reported victim role between boys and girls aged four to five years (Monks et al., 2003; Vlachou et al, 2011). Likeability: at least up to adolescence, children who attack or bully others tend to be disliked, and victims often have lower social status than non-involved children (Olweus, 2010; Smith, 2014). Veenstra, Verlinden, Huitsing, Verhulst, and Tiemeier (2013) investigated peer rejection and acceptance among eight year old children, and found that bullies tended to be rejected by children of the same sex as those who experienced their bullying, regardless of the bully's sex. Furthermore, girls who were bullied by girls showed low acceptance by girls; but boys bullied by boys did not show low acceptance by boys. However, Monks et al. (2003) found the victim role to be not significantly related to peer acceptance or rejection among children four to six years.

Defenders may be seen as liked, or popular. Veenstra et al. (2013) found that at eight

years, defenders who helped other-sex victims were more accepted than same-sex defenders. However, unlike the roles of bully and victim in older children, the defender role has generally been considered as unitary. An exception to this is the study by Belacchi and Farina (2010; 2012), who initially assessed three different defender roles: *Defender* (someone who defends a child being beaten or teased by directly blocking a bully or telling/reporting the episode to adult) *Consoler* (someone who consoles or encourages the victimized child), and *Mediator* (someone who tells teachers/adults of bullying, tries to make peace between the bully and victim). However they collapsed these into one composite role (which they called prosocial) in their analyses.

Altogether, little is known about young children's peer status by different types of defending or aggressive behavior. We aimed to assess whether it was useful to discriminate between two types of defender. One, which we call defender-stop, directly confronts the aggressor, perhaps saying 'Don't' do that', 'Stop it!'. The other, which we call defender-tell, seeks help from others, usually adults, perhaps reporting an aggressive episode to a teacher. These two defender roles might be differentially related to likeability by peers. A defender who directly intervenes against aggressors may be more popular than a defender who asks for help from others, since directly confronting the aggressor/bully requires more confidence than reporting it to adults.

### Aims of the current study

Virtually all the studies on peer-victimization in younger children have been carried out in western cultures; there are no studies which investigate the participant roles among young children in a collectivistic culture such as South Korea, examining role stability over time and inter-rater concordance using multiple informants, sex differences, and relations to likeability. Yet, the distinctive nature of South Korean bullying noted in school-age children, with its emphasis on social exclusion, suggests that the findings on participant roles need to

be validated in this different cultural context. Also, only a few studies (e.g. Ladd & Kochenderfer-Ladd, 2002; Monks et al, 2003; Monks & Smith, 2010) have investigated the stability over time or inter-rater concordance of young children's aggressive behavior or victimization using multiple methods. In addition, studies have usually focused on aggression or victimization generally, irrespective of the type of aggression involved; but it is important to look at the participant roles by each type of aggression. Finally, a longitudinal design is necessary to assess the stability over time of these nomination measures and give an indication of how stable young children's aggressive behavior is from different perspectives.

Thus, the current study had three major aims, namely to examine:

- 1. The relative frequency of peer, self, and teacher nominations for participant roles
  (aggressor, victim, defender-stop and defender-tell), by four different types of aggression,
  in young children in South Korea
- 2. Role characteristics: short-term stability over time between two time points, T1 and T2; inter-rater concordance among peer, self, and teacher nominations; discriminability; and relations between aggressor and victim roles by type of aggression;
- 272 3. Sex differences in participant roles; and relationships between likeability (like-most/like-273 least) and participant roles
- A subsidiary aim was to compare the findings with those from western studies.

**Method** 

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### **Participants**

Three preschools in *Gyung-gi* province (near Seoul) in South Korea participated. Head teachers in each preschool were contacted by telephone and the first author visited the schools. All the preschools were from lower-middle class areas. 95 children (45 boys, 50 girls) from four classes of the preschools (class 1: n = 21; class 2: n = 17; class 3: n = 29;

 class 4: n = 28) and 6 teachers participated. These comprised all the children in each class. Class 2 and class 4 had two teachers, the others had one teacher. Child mean age was 74 months (SD = 4.06, range = 68 to 88 months) at T1: boys: mean age = 74.84; SD= 4.50; girls: mean age = 74.16; SD=5.01). There were no significant sex differences in child age. Only 4.2% (N = 4) were from a multiethnic background (Chinese-Korean, Indonesian-Korean) with 95.8% (N = 90) being from a mono-ethnic background (South Korean).

Each child was interviewed twice, in November 2008 and then in January 2009. In South Korea, six to seven year old children in preschool graduate in February and enter the 1st grade of elementary school, thus it was necessary to have both time points before their graduation. Two months was regarded as a reasonable period to examine the stability over time of young children's aggressive behavior, and facilitated comparison with previous studies (which had intervals of 1 to 5 months).

Three children left the schools after the first interview, thus 92 children (43 boys, 49 girls) participated at the second. The interview took about 25 minutes for each child. Six teachers who were in charge of the classes were also asked to complete a questionnaire.

### Procedure

Peer, self, and teacher nominations were conducted at T1 and T2. The children were interviewed individually in a quiet room in the preschool. They were shown four cartoons; each depicted a different type of aggressive situation - physical, verbal, social exclusion, and rumor spreading. Each cartoon had stick figures to show the roles of aggressor, victim, and two types of defenders, adapted and extended from those used by Monks et al. (2003). The child was asked whether they wished to nominate any of their peers, or themselves, as aggressor, victim and two types of defender (defender-stop/defender-tell) for each cartoon.

**Peer nominations**. Each child was shown the four cartoons in turn, and asked, "What is happening here?". Following the child's response, the situation for that cartoon was

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restated, for example "Yes, this child is hitting that child". Then the role questions were asked: "Do you have a child who does this in your class?" (aggressor), and if the child said yes, "Who does it?"; they were prompted by asking, "Anyone else?". Then "Who in your class is like this person, being hit, kicked or pushed?" (victim), "Do you have anyone in your class who would stop the child (aggressor) doing that?" "Who would do that?" (defenderstop), "Do you have anyone in your class who would tell a teacher about it?", "Who would do that?" (defender-tell).

The number of peers who nominated a child for each role was summed. For statistical analyses, the scores for aggressor, victim, defender-stop and defender-tell were standardized across each class.

**Self nominations.** After children were asked to nominate their peers in one cartoon, children were also asked about their own behavior: "Do you do this to another child? (aggressor)", "Does anyone in your class do that to you?"(victim), "Do you stop the child who is kicking others?"(defender-stop), "Do you tell the teacher about that child (aggressor)?" (defender-tell).

The scores were coded binomially, with a score of 1 indicating that a child nominated himself/herself (answered 'yes') and a score of 0 indicating a child did not nominate himself/herself (answered 'no').

**Teacher nominations.** Teachers were given a questionnaire to nominate children. This described the same four situations as the cartoons (physical aggression, verbal aggression, social exclusion, and rumor spreading). Teachers were asked to nominate children in their class for four roles (aggressor, victim, defender-stop and defender-tell) at T1 and T2. The scores were coded in the same way as self nomination. At T1, teachers reported difficulties in distinguishing the two types of defenders, and therefore only reported for defender as one category; but at T2 they were encouraged to report defenders separately by each type as

much as they could.

**Total role score.** For each of the four roles, the number of times a child was nominated for *any* of the four types of aggression was summed and divided by 4, and called total role score. This was done for peer, self, and teacher nominations, and for each role: aggressor, victim, defender-stop, and defender-tell.

Likeability. Each child was shown photographs of all the children in their class and a cardboard bus (as in Perren & Alsaker, 2006). Children's photographs were used in three classes; a class list was used in one class since the head teacher did not agree to use children's photographs due to reasons of privacy (however, all children were able to read their classmates' names). Each child was asked to choose three peers whom they would take on the bus trip (like-most) and three whom they would not take with them (like-least): "We are going to go on a bus trip now, could you choose the three children whom you most want to take with you?"; and "Could you choose the three children whom you do not want to take?". Likeability was investigated twice, at T1 and T2. The number of peers who nominated a child as like-most peer were summed and standardized across each class. Likeleast score was calculated in the same way. The standardized scores were used in all analyses.

#### **Ethical issues and consent**

Verbal consent was obtained from the head-teachers and class teachers involved. Teachers were shown the assessments and told the procedure by the first author and agreed children's participation. Parents' consent was not required; in South Korea, it is widely accepted between teachers and parents that a teacher can decide children's participation to the extent that this does not affect their curriculum. In addition children were asked if they would be willing to take part, looking at some pictures and answering questions on how they got on with classmates. They were told that what they said would be confidential. Should any child be distressed at any point, an arrangement was in place (agreed with each preschool) of

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offering to take them to a teacher; however, this did not happen. The teachers whose children participated were given general feedback regarding the findings.

# Statistical analysis

We used scores for participant role nominations using correlations and kappa coefficients as appropriate (rather than categorizing children or assigning them to a particular role). For the score of role nominations, the frequency of nomination which each child received in each role was used: aggressor, victim, defender-stop and defender-tell (thus children were not assigned the particular role), For aim 3, t-tests were used to examine sex differences in participant roles and linear multiple regression was used to examine relations between participant roles and likeability, with likeability as the outcome, and scores on the four participant roles as predictors (following Cillessen and Mayeux, 2004). Since multiple t-tests were conducted, we emphasize findings consistent at both T1 and T2.

368 Results

# The relative frequency of peer, self, and teacher nominations for participant roles, by different types of aggression

The average percentage of nominations received for being an aggressor, victim, defender-stop and defender-tell by type of aggression, and by type of report (peer, self, and teacher) are shown in Table 1. Percentage of nominations by peers was calculated for each class as [sum of all nominations]  $\times 100/[N \times (N-1)]$ , where N is the number of children in that class, N  $\times (N-1)$  indicates the number of possible nominations which children can receive from their classmates (e.g. if children belong to a class consisting of 30 children (including him/herself) they can receive up to 30  $\times 29 = 870$  nominations). Then the percentages were averaged across the 4 classes. In all ten possible comparisons, children reported their peers more in aggressor than other roles. Also, all eight defender-stop and defender-tell nominations for direct (physical and verbal) aggression were higher than the eight for

relational (social exclusion and rumor spreading) aggression. In self nominations, children consistently nominated themselves less as aggressor, than as victim or defender-stop/defender-tell, with the greatest difference between victim and aggressor nominations for social exclusion. Teachers reported children at a similar rate across the four roles as peer or self nomination. However, they sometimes reported more children as defender or defender-tell than as aggressor or victim.

Table 1 about here

#### Role characteristics

# Short term stability over time of peer, self, and teacher nominations between T1 and T2

Table 2 shows correlation coefficients for the standardized nomination scores for aggressor, victim, defender-stop and defender-tell by type of aggression and by type of nominations between T1 and T2.

### Table 2 about here

All the total scores of peer nominations were stable. Nominations for aggressor were most stable in all types of aggression; nominations for victim and nominations for defender-stop and defender-tell were only sometimes stable.

All the total scores of self nominations were stable. Nomination for aggressor was stable for all types of aggression except social exclusion; nominations for victim were stable for all types; nominations for defender-stop and defender-tell were not consistently stable.

For teacher nominations, nomination for aggressor was stable for all types of aggression; nomination for victim and nomination for defender (only calculated for composite score) were not consistently stable.

### Inter-rater concordance among informants

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Cohen's Kappa was calculated between peer/self, peer/teacher, self/teacher for each role (aggressor, victim, defender-stop, defender-tell), by type of aggression, at T1 and T2. Table 3 shows kappa values for aggressor and victim by type of aggression. Nominations for aggressor showed significant agreements among peer, self, and teacher in total score for aggression, and for physical and verbal aggression. Nominations for victims tended to show low agreement across the four types of aggression, with no significant agreement for social exclusion.

### Table 3 about here

### Discriminability

Table 4 shows inter-correlations amongst the four total role scores, at T1 and T2, for peer, self and teacher nominations. For peer nominations, defender-tell was positively related to aggressor (T1), victim (T2), and defender-stop (T1, T2). For self nominations, victim was positively related to aggressor (T1), defender-stop (T1, T2), and defender-tell (T1/T2). Defender-tell was positively related to defender-stop (T2). For teacher nominations, victim was positively correlated to aggressor.

### Table 4 about here

### Relations between aggressor and victim roles by type of aggression

Analyses were carried out at both T1 and T2. Correlations between peer nominations for the four types of aggressor (physical, verbal aggression, exclusion, rumor spreading) and four types of victim (physical, verbal aggression, exclusion, rumor spreading) were examined. None were significant. For self and teacher nominations, chi square analyses were conducted for the four types of aggressor and four types of victim. Children who nominated themselves as aggressor in physical aggression were more likely than children who did not, to nominate themselves as a victim of social exclusion,  $x^2(1) = 4.91$ , p < .05, at T1 and a victim in rumor spreading,  $x^2(1) = 7.221$ , p < .01 at T1. Children who were nominated by teachers as

 aggressor in physical aggression were more likely than children who were not, to be nominated themselves as a victim of social exclusion,  $x^2(1) = 8.39$ , p < .05, at T1. Also, children who were nominated by teachers as aggressor in verbal aggression were more likely than children who were not, to be nominated as a victim of rumor spreading,  $x^2(1) = 17.05$ , p < .001, at T1, and  $x^2(1) = 16.06$ , p < .001, at T2.

### Role relations with sex and likeability

Sex. Individual t-tests were conducted for peer nomination scores for each role. We looked for differences consistent at both T1 and T2. There were no significant differences for victim. Some significant differences were found for the other roles. For aggressor, boys received more nominations than girls for physical aggression (t(65) = 3.53, p < .01 at T1; t(73) = 3.10, p < .01 at T2), and verbal aggression (t(65) = 2.22, p < .05 at T1, t(73) = 2.01, p< .05 at T2). For defender-stop, girls received more nominations than boys in total score of aggression (t(76) = -4.07, p < .001 at T1; t(79) = -2.86, p < .01 at T2) and physical aggression (t(72) = -3.62, p < .01 at T1, t(80) = -2.40, p < .05 at T2). For defender-tell, girls received more nominations than boys in total score of aggression (t(93) = -3.24, p < .01) at T1; t(80) = -2.79, p < .01 at T2), physical aggression (t(78) = -2.46, p < .05 at T1; t(72) = -2.463.05, p < .01 at T2), and verbal aggression (t(83) = -2.53, p < .05 at T1; t(79) = -2.23, p < .05at T2). 

#### Likeability

Separate multiple regressions were performed for the four types of aggression and total score of aggression. Models using self nomination and teacher nomination scores with likeability were not significant for any type of aggression. Table 5 indicates the peer nomination scores (aggressor, victim, defender-stop, defender-tell) which predicted like-most /like-least scores.

Table 5 about here

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For like-most scores, only two beta coefficients were significant: nomination for defender-stop was a significant predictor of like-most for total score of aggression and for verbal aggression.

For like-least scores, all the beta coefficients were strongly significant for aggressor: the more nominations for any type of aggressor that a child had, the more disliked they were by peers. There were no significant coefficients for victim. Four other coefficients were significant; one negative for defender-stop, for total score of aggression (T2); and three positive for defender-tell, for physical aggression (T2), rumor spreading (T2) and total score of aggression (T2). Unlike for defender-stop, the child who tells teachers about the aggressor's behavior was not liked by other children.

Discussion

Our first aim was to examine the relative frequency with which roles were nominated, for different types of aggression. Generally, children nominated roles for physical and verbal types of aggression, more than relational (social exclusion and rumor spreading; see Table 1) although this was not examined statistically. This finding for younger children in South Korea contrasts with findings in some western studies, where relational aggression is quite frequently nominated (Monks et al., 2010), an issue we return to later.

Similar to western studies (Monks et al., 2003; Monks et al., 2005), trends in the data indicated that young children in South Korea tended to nominate their peers more as aggressors than for other roles, and themselves more as victims than for other roles. Children may be less comfortable admitting that they behave aggressively; exhibiting a social desirability bias (Monks et al., 2003).

Nominations for defender-stop and defender-tell were particularly low for relational aggression (social exclusion and rumor spreading). It may be that defending for relational aggression would be more difficult than for physical or verbal aggression, due to

the difficulty of knowing who started the rumor or that exclusion is actually taking place. It may be difficult for a child to identify whether someone is being deliberately excluded or whether it might be more benign.

Teachers nominated children in their class at a similar rate among the four roles but aggressor and defender tended to be more highly reported than victim in physical, verbal aggression and social exclusion. This finding is similar to Monks et al. (2003). However, for teachers in this study, nominating children as victims or defenders seemed to be more difficult than nominating aggressors. This may reflect teachers' concerns with classroom management and that those children who are aggressive or disruptive will more often attract the teacher's attention (Monks et al., 2011).

The second aim was to examine characteristics of roles in terms of stability over time, inter-rater concordance among informants, discriminability and the relationship between aggression and victimization. Nominations for aggressor were stable regardless of informant which supports previous research in western samples (e.g. Monks et al., 2003). Moderate to low stability over time for defender was in accord with previous research, but significant stability of the victim role found in the current study was not in accord with the findings of Monks et al. (2003). This may have partly resulted from different time intervals in the two studies (4 months in Monks et al. vs. 2 months in the current study).

For inter-rater concordance, there was some agreement across all informants on the total score of aggression as regards aggressors, but this was noticeably less for victims. These associations were low in magnitude. Nominations for aggressor were most consistent for physical and verbal aggression. Agreement tended to be highest between peer and teacher and lowest between peer and self which is broadly consistent with findings in western cultures (Ladd & Kochenderfer-Ladd, 2002; Monks et al., 2003). The victim role did have some lower levels of inter-rater concordance in this study, consistent

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with Monks et al. (2003). Low to moderate correlations among the roles in the current study may indicate that the roles are distinguished efficiently among young children. Previous research (Monks et al., 2010) showed similar or slightly higher correlations.

Stability over time of roles (Table 2) and some informant inter-rater concordance (Table 3), together with the low inter-correlations amongst the roles (Table 4), suggest that the roles of aggressor, victim, defender-stop and defender-tell can be usefully assessed and distinguished at this age. However, given the correlation between victim and defender-stop or defender-tell, discriminating defending roles by self nomination needs further investigation. The findings may indicate that victimized children defend other victimized children, or children may have confused defending themselves with defending others.

The third aim was to investigate sex differences in participant roles, and the relation between likeability and role. The findings were consistent with previous research (Monks & Smith, 2010; Vlachou et al., 2011); boys were more aggressive physically and verbally than girls, but with no sex differences in relational aggression. There were no sex differences in victim roles. Sex differences in defending were as predicted (Vlachou et al., 2011), with girls being more likely than boys to be identified as both types of defender.

Regarding likeability, peer nominations produced distinctly different role profiles. Aggressors did not differ in terms of like-most nominations, but received significantly more like-least nominations. This is consistent with western findings (Monks et al., 2003; Salmivalli et al., 1996). Victims showed no significant association with either like-most or like-least nominations. This is also similar to studies in western countries (Monks et al., 2003), and may reflect that victim is a transient role at this age. Although these findings are consistent with previous research, it is important to bear in mind that many other variables may also impact on likeability scores. It was also not possible to examine the direction of this relationship.

 Children nominated for defender-stop tended to be sociometrically popular (high like-most, low like-least); whereas children nominated for defender-tell were not popular, and tended to be disliked (although not as much as aggressors). This suggests that children distinguish these two types of defender even at a young age. Previous research in western cultures on defenders has suggested links to popularity (Caravita et al., 2009; Monks et al., 2003; Salmivalli et al., 1996), but did not distinguish the two types of defender. Defender-stop children may be popular because of their actions; or it is possible that more popular children feel that they have a level of 'protection' due to their popularity which means that they can behave in this confrontational way without fear of retaliation, whereas less popular children may feel that their safest (and perhaps only) recourse if they want to help is to go and tell an adult what is happening (Caravita et al., 2009).

Overall, many of our findings parallel those in western studies, but in considering differences we focus on social exclusion. The difference between self nominations for aggressor and for victim was largest for social exclusion. Children appear to be less sensitive about their excluding behavior to others and more sensitive about being excluded by others. Furthermore, in terms of inter-rater concordance, nominations for social exclusion showed the lowest agreement of all forms of aggression. Different perceptions of social exclusion can also be seen in the relationship between aggression and victimization. Physically or verbally aggressive children were more likely than other children to be victims of relational aggression (exclusion, rumor spreading), consistent with some previous studies (Crick et al., 1999, 2006).

These findings suggest that judging excluding others or being excluded is especially dependent on the rater's perspective. It is possible that children who exclude others may not always view it as victimization as they feel that they have a valid reason for not allowing someone to join in, whereas the child who is not allowed to join in may still

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view this as victimization.

As also found in western studies, agreement among informants for physical and verbal aggression was higher when nominating aggressors than for other roles (Vlachou et al., 2011). In this study aggressor was mostly nominated in terms of physical and verbal aggression followed by relational aggression (i.e. social exclusion and rumor spreading) which contrasted with western findings. In English samples, peer nominated aggressor in social exclusion was nominated at similar levels to physical and verbal aggression (Monks & Smith, 2010; Monks et al., 2005), whereas rumor spreading was least commonly reported. English children reported exclusion at a high level, whereas this was not the case among South Korean children. It may be that there are actually higher rates of social exclusion among English children. However an alternative possibility relates to how social exclusion is regarded. English children may more readily regard social exclusion as wrong, or as a bullying-like behavior. Given the nature of *wang-ta* and the finding that blame is sometimes attached to the victim (Lee et al., 2012), social exclusion may be regarded more positively in South Korea than in England where it is more often viewed as victimization.

A limitation of the current study was that the sample size was small in view of the number of comparisons made, increasing the possibility of type 1 errors being made. The use of multivariate analysis was considered. However, this was not appropriate as the assumption of homogeneity of covariance was not met. The use of Bonferroni's Correction was also inappropriate as the corrected p-value was too conservative (p < .001) to explore the pattern of sex differences in the participant roles. Therefore, although multiple comparisons were made in this study, we were cautious when interpreting the results, paying attention to those findings which were consistently significant across both time points.

Cross-cultural investigation is necessary to confirm whether the different findings

related to social exclusion are linked to South Korea's collectivistic character. Although children were unlikely to admit to being an aggressor themselves, particularly in the case of social exclusion, it is not known whether this is a cultural characteristic or a characteristic of social excluding behavior.

In conclusion, aggressive behavior is viewed differently in relation to its various forms and by different informants. Future research should examine exclusion among younger children in South Korea to consider whether this may develop into wang-ta later in childhood. The findings also suggest that the distinction of two types of defenders is articipant role resc.. important in future participant role research in peer victimization.

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Table 1. Percentage of nominations for being aggressor, victim, defender-stop and defender-tell by peer, self and teacher at T1 (n=95) and T2 (n=92), for four types of aggression.

Type of	Nominating	Peer	-	Self	•	Teach	er
Aggression	Roles	T1	T2	T1	T2	T1	T2
Total	Aggressor	4.3	2.9	3.7	1.6	6.6	6.0
	Victim	2.6	1.5	12.9	7.9	4.5	6.3
	Defender-stop	2.3	2.1	9.5	10.6	6.1	4.4
	Defender-tell	2.3	1.8	11.1	9.5	0.1	7.3
Physical	Aggressor	5.6	3.3	7.4	5.4	10.5	9.8
	Victim	2.8	1.9	28.4	20.7	7.4	6.5
	Defender-stop	3.3	2.6	23.2	12.0	14.7	8.7
	Defender-tell	3.8	2.2	27.4	17.4	14.7	12.0
Verbal	Aggressor	5.4	3.2	8.4	4.3	6.3	8.7
	Victim	2.8	1.3	18.9	16.3	3.2	8.7
	Defender-stop	3.1	2.2	18.9	23.9	8.4	7.6
	Defender-tell	3.0	2.3	25.3	15.2		13.0
Social	Aggressor	3.3	2.5	1.1	2.2	11.6	8.7
exclusion	Victim	2.4	1.4	23.2	13.0	7.4	8.7
	Defender-stop	1.6	1.7	12.6	15.2	11.6	6.5
	Defender-tell	1.4	1.4	14.7	10.9		7.6
Rumor	Aggressor	2.9	2.6	4.2	3.3	5.3	7.6
spreading	Victim	2.6	1.4	11.6	8.7	7.4	9.8
	Defender-stop	1.2	1.8	9.5	13.0	5.3	4.3
	Defender-tell	1.1	1.3	8.4	16.3		6.5

Note. T1: Time1; T2: Time 2. Teacher nomination for defender at T1: there was no distinction between defender-stop and defender-tell at T1.

Table 2. Correlations for role nominations between T1(n = 95) and T2(n = 92).

	Aggressor	Victim	Defender-	Defender-
			Stop	Tell
Peer (Pearson's r)				
Total	.87***	.37***	.44***	.58***
Physical	.69***	.29**	.25*	.48***
Verbal	.84***	08	.47***	.49***
Exclusion	.70***	.11	.19	.04
Rumor spreading	.60***	.24**	04	.04
Self (φ)				
Total	.38***	.34**	.51***	.26*
Physical	.47***	.28**	.44***	.11
Verbal	.50***	.26**	.15	.10
Exclusion	02	.24*	.11	.16
Rumor spreading	.26**	.48***	.25*	.22*
Teacher (φ)				
Total	.58***	.33**		18
Physical	.63***	.26*	<b>C</b> /,	31**
Verbal	.78***	05		.28**
Exclusion	.26*	.35**		18
Rumor spreading	.29**	.36**		.07

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p <.001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

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Table 3. Kappas comparing peer, self, and teacher nominations for aggressor, victim, defender-stop and defender-tell (n = 92).

	Peer/ Self		Peer/ Teacher		Self / Teacher	
<del>-</del>	T1	T2	T1	T2	T1	T2
Total						
Aggressor	.14*	.15**	.28**	.44***	.27**	.45***
Victim	.05	.29**	00	.22*	03	.26*
Defender-Tell	.07	.12	.07	.14	.07	.16
Defender-Stop	.06	.12		.12		.18
Physical						
Aggressor	.14*	.28***	.35***	.47***	.16	.54***
Victim	.34**	.15	.08	.16*	.13	.07
Defender-Tell	.11	.08	14	.14	.13	.36**
Defender-Stop	.03	.35	<del>-</del> .14	.18*	.13	.09
Verbal						
Aggressor	.20**	.27***	.18**	.49***	.23*	.29**
Victim	.21*	.16	01	.08	.04	03
Defender-Tell	07	.10	.12	.00	.01	.03
Defender-Stop	02	.14	.12	.11	.01	.11
Exclusion						
Aggressor	02	.03	.14	.22**	02	.17*
Victim	. 12	.04	01	.05	.03	12
Defender-Tell	02	.04	.09	.01	024	.12
Defender-Stop	.13	03	.02	01	024	.29**
Rumor						
Aggressor	.15*	.14**	.02	.24**	.05	.18
Victim	.07	07	03	.22*	.15	.16
Defender-Tell	.03	.08	.07	.08	.05	.04
Defender-Stop	.08	.03	.07	.06	.03	.03

<sup>18 \*\*\*</sup> p <.001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

Table 4. Correlations among total role scores for peer, self and teacher nominations (T1: n=95 / T2: n=92)

	1. Aggressor	2. Victim	3. Defender-	<ol><li>Defender-</li></ol>
			stop	tell
Peer				
(Pearson's r)				
1. Aggressor	-			
2. Victim	.06/.07	-		
3. Defender-stop	16/.02	.17/.14	-	
4. Defender-tell	.23*/.13	.16/.44**	.43**/.35**	-
Self				
(Spearman's rho)				
1. Aggressor	-			
2. Victim	.30*/.14			
3. Defender-stop	.21/.12	.33**/.29**	-	
4. Defender-tell	.15/.00	.34*/.33**	.40/.49**	-
Teacher				
(Spearman's rho)				
1. Aggressor	-			
2. Victim	.25*/.06	-		

<sup>23 \*\*</sup> p < .01., \* p < .05, correlations of teachers reports for defender-stop, defender-tell at T2

<sup>24</sup> were not reported as these two roles were conducted as one 'defender' role at T1.

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Table 5. 10 Multiple regression analysis with like-most / like-least as outcome variables and peer nomination (aggressor, victim, defender-stop, defender-tell) as predictors, for each type of aggression.

Type of		Adjusted	Standardized Beta				
aggression		R square	Aggressor	Victim	Defender-	Defender-	
(predictors)					stop	tell	
		Outc	ome variable	: like-most			
Total	T1	.14**	21	05	.20	.20	
	T2	.15**	.00	14	.38**	11	
Physical	T1	.05	14	04	.14	.09	
	T2	.12*	09	12	.31	03	
Verbal	T1	.21***	16	.02	.39***	.05	
	T2	.07	02	02	.20	17	
Social	T1	.04	08	04	.12	.12	
exclusion	T2	.06	.08	19	.14	.00	
Rumor	T1	.05	15	02	01	.18	
spreading	T2	.02	.03	.03	.12	05	

		C	outcome vari	able: like-least		
Total	Time1	54***	.70***	.00	10	.05
	Time2	65***	.75***	.04	16*	.19*
Physical	Time1	.49***	.66***	06	08	.14
	Time2	.56***	.74***	06	04	.17*
Verbal	Time1	.43***	.60***	.07	09	.12
	Time2	.58***	.76***	.08	12	.02
Social	Time1	.31***	.55***	07	13	05
exclusion	Time2	.34***	.51***	.19	.01	.08
Rumor	Time1	.49***	.68***	02	06	08
spreading	Time2	.33***	.45***	.10	18	.29**

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p < .001, \*\* p < .01., \* p < .05