



The Effect of Cyberbullying and Traditional Bullying on English Language Learners' National and Oriented Identities

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Abstract

Bullying is defined as aggressive, repeated and intentional harm doing as a result of imbalance of power among individuals. Both traditional bullying and cyberbullying towards English language learners (ELLs) increased immensely as a result of recent political events in the U.S. ELLs are the most exposed victims of bullying due to language barriers in responding to bullies, which affects their identities, as they adapt to and settle in their new community. However, little research has addressed the bullying victimization of racial and ethnic minority students, although 54% of Asians and 34% of Latinos have been bullied in classrooms compared to 31% of White students. Therefore, the purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate bullying victimization and second language (L2) identity among the adult ELLs in the U.S. The quantitative data were collected from 1464 ELLs through an adapted survey consisting of five-point Likert scale items. The quantitative data were analyzed using partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). Results indicated that cyberbullying was a more powerful factor than traditional bullying affecting both national and oriented ELL identities.

Siber Zorbalığın ve Geleneksel Zorbalığın İngilizce Öğrenen Bireylerin Ulusal ve Adapte Olmuş Kimlikleri Üzerine Etkisi

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Öz

Zorbalık, bireyler arasındaki güç dengesizliğinin bir sonucu olarak agresif, tekrarlanan ve kasıtlı zarar verme olarak tanımlanmaktadır. İngilizce öğrenen bireylere (ELL) yönelik hem geleneksel zorbalık hem de siber zorbalık, ABD'deki siyasi olayların bir sonucu olarak son derece artmıştır. İngilizce öğrenen bireyler, yeni toplumlarına uyum sağlama sürecinde zorbalara tepki vermedeki dil engelleri nedeniyle zorbalığa maruz kalan en mağdur gruplardır. Ayrıca, Asyalıların% 54'ü ve Latinlerin% 34'ü beyaz öğrencilerin zorbalığa uğrayan % 31'lik kısmına kıyasla sınıfta zorbalığa uğramış olsa da, ulusal ve ırksal azınlık öğrencilerinin zorbalık mağduriyetine yönelik çok az araştırma yapılmıştır. Bu nedenle, bu nicel çalışmanın amacı ABD'deki yetişkin ELL'ler arasında zorbalık mağduriyetini ve dil öğrenme kimliğini araştırmaktır. Sayısal veriler, uyarlanan beş maddeli Likert ölçek maddelerinden oluşan bir anket aracılığıyla toplanmış ve kısmi en küçük kareler yapısal eşitlik modeli (PLS-SEM) kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, siber zorbalığın ELL'lerde ulusal ve uyum sağlamış/adapte olmuş kimliklerini etkilediğini ve geleneksel zorbalığa göre daha güçlü bir faktör olduğunu göstermiştir.

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Introduction

Identity is a concept referring to the meanings of individuals' selves that are attached by themselves or others. Specifically, Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner, and Cain (1998) stated, "people tell others who they are, but even more important, they tell themselves and then try to act as though they are who they say they are" (p. 3). Identity is both how individuals perceive their selves to be and how they describe themselves based on the other individuals around within a small or large culture. Since the beginning of Greek times, identity has been examined by philosophers, psychologists, anthropologists, and educational researchers. Mead (1934) is the pioneer of modern identity-concept. He put forward the idea that identity is constructed as a result of interaction with the others, and language development is crucial in having this interaction. He claimed that the mind and one's self come to life through the language, and he differentiated "I" from "me" as being the parts of one's self. "I" refers to the organism's response to others' attitudes while "me" refers to an "organized set of attitudes of others that one assumes to be, and the attitudes of others creates the organized "me", to which one reacts as an "I" (Uslu-Ok, 2013, p. 46). Since "I" and "me" live without each other, individuals must be the object of themselves in order to reach the social "me." This is achieved through having interaction with others and getting their attitudes. As mentioned before, the only way to achieve this is the language. Therefore, the self is a social construct that can only emerge within a social community. According to Mead (1934), interaction is the only way to reach individuals' "me" self. Through communication with others, one can become an object to himself or herself, and this process is realized through the conversation of gestures and through language (conversation of significant gestures). In both of the cases, the individual needs to interact with others to emerge his/her self.

One of the proponents of Mead, Goffman (1963) offered a sociological aspect on the concept of identity. He proposed the distinction between virtual and social identity. Virtual identity is that individuals assume another person's identity when they first meet, and they try to compare this person's identity with the others in the society to find if this person is within the standards of the society that they are assigned to. However, social identity refers to the category and the features that this person proves to have. If this person does not have the normed features or cannot prove to have the standards assigned by others within this community, this person is stigmatized. Then, in this condition, personality identity emerges. It refers to the image of an individual in another individual's mind; therefore, social and personal identities are mingled (Goffman, 1963). Regarding this, Mauss (1979) conducted anthropological studies that proved this mingled structure of belonging to a community. Based on his studies, there were some rituals among some communities. These rituals were for naming the individuals in order to create belongingness to a certain community. Names were given to the individuals based on their established roles or responsibilities in the community. This showed that those names did not necessarily indicate the individuals but their membership within a society, and when their positions changed the individuals could change their names. By showing this, Mauss (1979) manifested the dynamic structure of identity. Identity is culturally or socially constructed and it is dynamic or subject to change.

Another study was done by Fajans (1983). In her study, the individuals' personal developments in Papua New Guinea were reported, and it was found that individuals in this society construct their identities based on others. For instance, the children were not accepted as adults until they gain some social features such as responsibilities or behaviors. Based on her studies, actions of individuals are in constant change depending on the dynamic structure of their interactions with others and the situations that they have been to. To sum up, the identity of individuals is shaped by the community and the individuals' interactions with others who surround them within a society. Even though the individuals have the opportunity to choose their actions or who they are, social values and interactions play a large role on this decision making. Therefore, construction of identity must be examined carefully within the social contexts.

Identity as a Construct in Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

Even though identity has been an issue that has been searched since the Greek times, it has been gaining more and more popularity in the second language acquisition (SLA) field. Norton-Pierce (1995) has a great impact in SLA studies focusing on identity construction and language acquisition. She studied the immigrant women in Canada and asserted that individuals' social identity has multifaceted structure and it is dynamic. Even though some researchers such as Dörnyei (2009) thinks that motivation is also a dynamic structure and explains language learning most through motivational studies and offers second language (L2) Motivational Self System theory, Norton-Pierce believes that this concept should be called as investment because motivation, as a construct, does

not take the relations between power, identity and language learning into account. She asserted that individuals invest time and effort in order to learn languages, and this, in return, help them to obtain “symbolic resources” to boost their cultural capital. Therefore, when individuals invest in learning languages, they also invest in the construction of their own social identity.

In SLA studies, identity is seen as a dynamic structure rather than a fixed or stable structure. Therefore, when individuals change countries or communities and acculturate themselves within another culture, their perception of their own identity starts changing. The individuals seek for adaptation to the new community and try to close the difference between the current identity and the identity-to-be through the interactions with others in the new community. Therefore, the concept of identity is not a stable one; it keeps changing through the interactions with others.

As mentioned before, identity studies have gained popularity in SLA with Norton-Pierce’s (1995) work. The studies investigated the effect of identity construction on language learning, individuals’ identity construction and study abroad programs, and identity construction regarding gender. For instance, Kim (2003), in her ethnographic study, investigated the relationship between English acquisition and social identity construction in a multicultural society in Malaysia. The results indicated that the identities of the participants changed constantly and strategically in order to preserve their acceptance and sense of belonging to a certain community. One of the participants stated that she chose not to speak her second language, English, because she thought she would sound Westernized and others might think that she was showing off. She was concerned that others from her community would exclude her when she sounded westernized. Another participant reported that she did not speak English as she associated English with non-Muslim communities. These findings indicated that language as an interaction symbol depends on social context and is a determinant in one’s self that he/she likes to show.

Furthermore, in Gao’s (2011) study, the effect of Chinese learners’ identities on their English learning in Britain was investigated. Gao also looked for how these learners’ identities were reconstructed as Chinese national identities. The results indicated that these learners realized the unique side of Chinese culture and the effect of values on their classroom communication with the other people from different cultures. Interacting with other people from different cultures made reevaluating their own national identities possible. The participants’ identities shifted depending on the interaction they had with the other students from different cultures in the class. As a result of their study abroad experience and learning English in Britain, they reflected their own values and changed their identities. Lam (2004) also studied two Chinese female English learners in order to understand how they constructed their identities in an online community. The participants did not want to associate themselves with the American or American-Chinese individuals. However, participating in the online interaction caused the participants to adopt new identities anyways. Participants’ past identities as Hong Kong-Chinese individuals were reshaped through their interactions. Lam (2004) asserted that individuals’ perception of who they are is recreated when they move from one sociocultural context to the other.

In addition, Polat and Mahalingappa (2010) focused on how language learning is affected by gender and identity. The researchers examined the gender differences in identity and acculturation patterns and L2 accent attainment. In this quantitative study, 121 middle school Kurdish students participated and the results showed that girls had more native-like accent ratings than boys. In addition, girls and boys showed different patterns in their identification with the dominant Turkish society, family structure, and acculturation patterns. Boys reported that they speak less Turkish as an L2 than Kurdish outside and in the family. Therefore, they identified themselves with more Kurdish patterns and less Turkish patterns. The situation was the opposite in girls’ situation.

Moreover, in his research study, Roger (2010) studied the role of the “ideal second language self” with 7 highly-proficient Korean learners of English as a global language and investigated how these learners perceived their identities as global citizens. The results indicated that most of the participants reported English language as part of their identity. On the contrary, inclination to adopt a bicultural identity as both a national one and global one was not a universal desire for them. Three participants out of seven rejected being a world citizen while four of the participants associated knowing English as an L2 would help them to travel and connect with the other people around the world. Based on the results, imagining one’s ideal L2 self was not enough for motivation to learn a language.

Another study done by Menard-Warwick (2008) focused on language teachers' identities. They investigated two ESL teachers and the results indicated that these teachers described their identities as a mixture of both cultures; the one that they adopted through their U.S. experiences when they were in the U.S. (e.g., oriented identity) and the other one being their original identity (e.g., national identity). They reported that they addressed their students' cultural and ideological concerns better through their new adopted and oriented identities.

Overall, previous study findings indicated that language learners reconstruct their identities and own oriented identities when they feel immersed in L2 and the L2 community, while maintaining their already existing identities that may be called national identities (Uslu-Ok, 2013). They reevaluate their positions and make changes on their identities depending on the L2 community in which they live (Norton-Pierce, 1995). However, referring back to the beginning, it should be emphasized that identity is how individuals perceive their selves based on the other individuals around within a small or large culture. In an L2 culture or community, L2 learners may encounter both positive and negative attitudes or approaches towards them. For instance, some ELLs' identities may be threatened by the words of others due to their limited English or their culture that would be different than native speakers. In such cases, they may be victimized and eventually their identities may be affected.

Bullying Victimization

Bullying can be defined as an aggressive behavior or intentional harm action that is repeated relatively often by a stronger person due to a power imbalance in interpersonal relationships (Olweus, 1993). Bullying is classified into two broad categories. The first one is called traditional bullying, and it refers to physical harm-doing such as hitting and/or beating. Racism can be included in this category such as teasing a person based on his/her ethnicity when both the bully and the victim are physically in the same environment. The other type of bullying is cyberbullying that has been increasing due to the development of the technology and social media. Cyberbullying involves acts such as sending offensive text messages to others.

The severity of bullying cannot be overlooked because it can lead to verbal threats or suicide in the worst cases besides its effect on individuals' identities. In addition, the extent of bullying may reach extreme dimensions (Batsche & Knoff, 1994). Some examples include isolation, losing one's friends, hopelessness, emotional adjustment, depression, anxiety, low self-esteem, and other difficulties in life (Hazler, Hoover, & Oliver, 1992). Given the severity of bullying, there are particularly vulnerable populations. For example, immigrants and refugees are among the most exposed ones to bullying in the U.S. (Hong, Peguero, Choi, Lanesskog, Espelage, & Lee, 2014; Lim & Hoot, 2015; Mendez, Bauman, & Guillory, 2012; Qin, Way, & Rana, 2008).

They experience a series of negative consequences in their host country that they have immigrated because they are linguistically and ethnically different. These experiences not only affect their academic achievements, but they can further affect their identities and lives. This situation is even worse when bullying victims attempt to communicate in a target language other than their native language to achieve their goals in their new society such as attending a school to obtain a degree.

These language learners are not only often bullied by native speakers but also by other language learners. This is mainly because bullying involves an imbalance of power and other language learners whose L2 proficiency is superior to the victim may bully other L2 learners whose proficiency is lower than the bully to gain power over them (Boulton, 1995; Strohmeier, Kärnä, & Salmivalli, 2011). Native speakers, on the other hand, may bully L2 learners to show their unearned privilege or higher status due to victim's race, ethnicity, or the target language proficiency. This is a serious incident that can negatively affect individuals' future life goals and their identities. They may be more nationalistic or they may opt for fighting with bullies.

Bullying occurring toward L2 learners in the L2 community has a major impact on their L2 learning (Peker, 2016). L2 learners tend to adjust language learning goals and motivations based on the judgments expected from others. As Hoffman (2015) stated, an individual's previous language learning experience determines future learning motivation. For example, Isabel, a participant in Mendez et al.'s (2012) study, reported that she was less bullied over time trying to learn English to defend herself. When perceived to be bullied because of their language barriers, L2 learners may either refrain from L2 community and become more nationalistic or they may choose to learn L2 faster to avoid being bullied in the future (Peker, 2016).

As explained earlier, learners' identities are shaped and determined by others' actions and words (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Cho, 2012; Ushioda, 2009; Vygotsky, 1978). Therefore, the detrimental effects of bullying victimization on L2 identity should be investigated. However, little research has addressed the bullying victimization of racial and ethnic minority students, although 54% of Asians and 34% of Latinos have been bullied in classrooms compared to 31% of White students (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). In addition, even though there is an increasing number of studies on bullying at schools, no study has been conducted to investigate the impact of bullying on ELs' L2 identity (Hong et al., 2014; Lim & Hoot, 2015; Mendez, 2012; Qin, Way, & Rana, 2008). Therefore, this study aims to investigate the impact of bullying on L2 identity and contribute to the field by making explanations on the relationship between bullying victimization and L2 identity. Therefore, the purpose of this quantitative study is to investigate bullying victimization (i.e., cyberbullying and traditional bullying) and L2 identity (i.e., oriented and national identity) among the adult ELLs in the U.S. as a country that would host a wide variety of language learners. To this end, operational definitions of the key terminology are as follow:

Bullying: Bullying refers to “aggressive behavior or intentional ‘harm doing’, which is carried out repeatedly and over time in an interpersonal relationship characterized by an imbalance of power” (Olweus, 1993, p. 9).

Traditional Bullying: Traditional bullying can be defined as a form of bullying that involve direct aggression such as physical violence (hitting, kicking) and verbal violence (taunting, teasing, threatening) (Hawker & Boulton, 2000) or indirect aggression such manipulative acts as extorting, ostracizing, or intimidating another person (Hinduja & Patchin, 2010; Nansel, Overpeck, Pilla, Ruan, Simons-Morton, & Scheidt, 2001; van der Wal, de Wit, & Hirasig, 2003). In addition, it may include overt aggression (name calling, pushing) and relational aggression (gossip, rumor-spreading, sabotage, and other subtle behaviors destructive to interpersonal relationships) (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995; Hinduja & Patchin, 2010; Prinstein, Boergers, & Vernberg, 2001; Wolke, Woods, Bloomfield, 2000).

Cyberbullying: Cyberbullying means willful and repeated harm doing carried out through the use of computers, cell phones, and other electronic devices (Hinduja & Patchin, 2009, 2010; Patchin & Hinduja, 2006).

L2 Identity: L2 identity refers to constructing “new ways of linking the self to new worlds and words (i.e. forge new identities and new ways of expressing our identities)” (Ushioda, 2011, p. 202). Identities are socially reproduced and negotiated through individuals' interactions with each other. Imbalanced power dynamics in these social negotiations trigger the contested, resisted or denied L2 identities that affect the degree of L2 learners' motivational investment in the L2 and participation in the L2 setting (Norton, 2000, 2001).

National Identity: Individuals' perception of their L2 identity that is tied to their national values rather than an L2 integrated one (Uslu-Ok, 2013).

Oriented Identity: Individuals' perception of their L2 identity that is more inclined toward L2 community and culture; a well adapted one (Uslu-Ok, 2013).

Method

In this section, type of the study, target group, data collection tools, validity and reliability, data collection methods, data analysis, and limitations will be covered. The current study is a quantitative cross-sectional study (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010; Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012). A survey was constructed by using some items from Uslu-Ok (2013) and Hinduja and Patchin's (2010) bullying victimization survey, and the variables are not manipulated; therefore, these kinds of studies are sometimes called descriptive studies (Fraenkel et al., 2012).

The research questions were as follow:

1. Is there any relationship between traditional bullying victimization and ELLs' national and oriented identities?
2. Is there any relationship between cyberbullying victimization and ELLs' national and oriented identities?
3. Is there any relationship between ELLs' national identities and oriented identities?

Research Design

In this cross-sectional study, correlational design was used. Researchers conducting correlational research studies measure two or more variables in order to determine the extent of the relationship or the change among the variables measured. One of the advantages of using this design is being able to analyse the relationship among the variables at a single sitting and providing explanations based on the extent of the change among the variables (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). For this reason, correlational design was more appropriate considering the research questions and the purpose of the current study.

However, it is important to note that in using survey for a correlational design study, there are some limitations. One of these limitations is that self-report surveys may be biased (Fraenkel et al., 2012). Specifically, if the topic is about individuals' bullying victimization experience, some adults may not be able to reveal their bullying experience easily due to the emotional trauma they go through. Therefore, this is considered as a limitation and it is acknowledged in the current study. Next limitation would be about not piloting this study. This could have affected the construct and internal validity of the study; however, to compensate this, the researcher analyzed all the constructs in the measurement model of the Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) by using Smart-PLS software (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016). After the careful analysis, the items that had lower outer loadings were removed from the analysis and constructs' AVE scores met the criteria.

Sampling and Data Collection

In this study, convenience and criterion sampling were used (Fraenkel et al., 2012; Gall et al., 2007). The accessible population was ELLs all over the U.S. Most of the participants were from Florida State; however, thanks to Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT) website, the researcher was able to reach out to the other states all over the U.S. in 2016, which increased the number of participants who participated in this study. AMT is an online platform that enables researchers to collect survey data across the world. Previous studies focusing on AMT's reliability indicated that it is an efficient and helpful data collection platform (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Mason & Suri, 2012). Compared to other data collection platforms, it is more reliable and (Buhrmester et al., 2011; Johnson & Borden, 2012; Sprouse, 2011). Furthermore, on AMT, there is a section on which researchers can set up their criteria to choose the right participants based on the purpose of their studies. For the current study, the criteria was a) being an ELL (learning English as an L2), b) being either an international student, faculty, staff, or immigrant, c) being 18 years of age or older.

Based on the criteria mentioned above, the researcher reached out to 1991 individuals and received answers from 1464 participants. However, 1022 of them completed the survey without missing any items. Therefore, the data results in this current study are obtained from these 1022 participants to provide more generalizable conclusions regarding participants' bullying victimization and their L2 identities. The response rate was calculated as 74%. This percentage is an extremely high response rate especially for the studies making use of surveys (Baruch & Holtom, 2008). According to Rogelberg and Stanton (2007), higher response rate helps with a higher representation of the results and higher statistical power. This could also lead to a better generalizability. Therefore, it could be stated that the results were generalizable considering the higher response rate and the sampling technique through which the data were collected all over the U.S.

Among the 1022 participants mentioned above, 970 of them completed the demographics section of the survey and it was found that 80.6% of the participants were between the ages of 18 and 34. The education levels ranged from doctorate degrees to no schooling; however, 27% of them had a high school or an equivalent degree and 26% of the participants were holding bachelor's degrees (see Appendix I). In terms of ethnicity, 29% of the participants were White and 28% of them were Hispanic or Latino. In addition, 10% of the participants were from Brazil, 11% of them were from China, and 3% of them were from Colombia. However, there were also participants whose nationalities were from Cuba, Dominican Republic, Germany, Haiti, India, Iraq, Japan, Kazakhstan, Kuwait, Mexico, Morocco, Philippines, Russian Federation, Saudi Arabia, South Korea, Turkey, United States of America (including Porto Rico), Venezuela, and Vietnam (see Appendix I).

Data Collection Tools

After obtaining the necessary ethics committee and institutional review board permissions, the data were collected through both online and paper-based surveys. Online surveys were collected on AMT, and the paper-

based ones were collected by making connections and partnerships with schools. For the purpose of the current study, two types of instruments were used. These instruments were a) Traditional Bullying and Cyberbullying Victimization Scale (Hinduja & Patchin, 2010), and b) L2 Identity Scales (Uslu-Ok, 2013).

The bullying instrument included the traditional bullying and cyberbullying victimization sections (Hinduja & Patchin, 2010), and five-point Likert Scale was used for each section of the adopted survey (e.g., Strongly Agree [5], Agree [4], Neither Agree/Disagree [3], Disagree [2], and Strongly Disagree [1]). To exemplify, traditional bullying items extended from “*I was called mean names*” to more serious forms of bullying such as “*I was threatened or forced to do things I didn’t want to do*”. In Hinduja and Patchin’s (2010) study, Cronbach alpha level for the traditional bullying construct was .88. In addition, cyberbullying victimization section included such items as “*something was posted online about me that I didn’t want others to see*” and the Cronbach alpha level for cyberbullying victimization construct was .74 (Hinduja & Patchin, 2010).

The second part of the survey included national L2 identity and oriented L2 identity, which was adopted from Uslu-Ok (2013). In her study, Cronbach alpha for the national L2 identity was .80, while the oriented L2 identity one was .84. National L2 identity items focused on ELLs’ nationalistic values such as “*I am worried that I might lose a part of my national identity if I speak English like a native speaker.*” Oriented L2 identity, on the other hand, focused on such items as “*After coming to the U.S., I am no longer only a citizen of my country. I am a different person now.*” Both national and oriented L2 identity constructs measured ELLs’ identities within social and academic contexts in the U.S.

Data Analysis

Structural Equation Modeling ([SEM]; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) was utilized to investigate the relationship(s) between national identity, oriented identity, traditional bullying victimization, and cyberbullying victimization variables. However, for the current study, Partial Least Square SEM (PLS-SEM; Hair et al., 2014, 2016) was used thanks to its advantages over a regular SEM. Some of the advantages include PLS-SEM’s working well with non-parametric data as well as single and multi-item constructs. It also minimizes unexplained variance amount and maximizes R^2 values in the algorithm. In addition, reliability and validity can be done by multiple criteria (Hair et al., 2016). These are some of the PLS-SEM advantages over a regular SEM, and it was safer to use PLS-SEM considering the current data coming from all over the U.S.

The data were analyzed at three steps, the last step being the structural model that yielded the results; therefore, the last stage is considered under the results section. First, the data were screened for normality, especially for skewness and kurtosis values. Skewness refers to the level on which the scores deviate from the perfect symmetry and kurtosis refers to the extent of the peakedness of a distribution (Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2012). These values should be within the range of ± 2.0 (Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2012). When each item was examined carefully for the skewness and kurtosis values, it was observed that these values were within the limits. Table 1 shows the lowest and highest points of each construct.

Table 1. Lowest and Highest Skewness and Kurtosis Values in Each Construct

	Traditional Bullying	Cyberbullying	National Identity	Oriented Identity
Skewness	.62 & 1.42	.81 & 1.25	.47 & .95	-.89 & .08
Kurtosis	-.76 & 1.37	-.11 & 1.00	-.73 & .35	-1.02 & .33

The second stage of the data analysis was the assessment of the measurement model for reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2016). PLS-SEM analysis for the path weighing was conducted on SmartPLS (v. 3.2.4). The initial algorithm converged in 45 iterations and the estimation parameters showed PLS-SEM’s algorithm output. Each indicator was examined carefully and some items were removed because their outer loadings were lower than .40, as suggested by Hair et al. (2016). With each removal, the PLS algorithm was run again to examine the measurement model.

Table 2. Reflective Measurement Model of Bullying and ELL Identity

Latent Variables	Indicators	Outer Loadings >.70	Composite Reliability .60 & .90	AVE >.50	Discriminant Validity	
					Cross Loadings	Fornell Larcker
Traditional Bullying	16	.71	.94 (initial) .94	.59 (initial) .61	Yes	No
	17	.74				
	23	.77				
	24	.74				
	46	.79				
	47	.81				
	48	.83				
	49	.82				
Cyberbullying	50	.83	.93 (initial) .99	.63 (initial) .66	Yes	No
	18	.74				
	25	.80				
	26	.75				
	51	.85				
	52	.86				
National Identity	53	.87	.88	.59	Yes	Yes
	54	.83				
	14	.75				
	43	.75				
	44	.81				
Oriented Identity	45	.84	.81 (initial) .82	.46 (initial) .60	Yes	Yes
	70	.70				
	42	.74				
	71	.74				
	72	.85				

Overall, after removing one item from traditional bullying construct, one item from cyberbullying construct, and two items from oriented identity construct, the PLS algorithm was run again and all the outer loadings met the criteria (i.e., above .70) along with other parameters suggested by Hair et al. (2016). For instance, convergent validity (Average Variance Extracted [AVE]), composite reliability, and discriminant validity were evaluated. AVE values of each construct should be more than .50, composite reliability should be between .60 and .90, and discriminant validity should discriminate between similar constructs (Hair et al. 2014; 2016). According to the criteria, measurement model was evaluated and removing four items with lower outer loadings improved the overall quality of the model (see Table 2 for initial and final composite reliability and AVE values).

Findings

The last step in data analysis focused on the assessment of structural model and this part is where the results were drawn. This final stage consisted of evaluating four parameters. These are collinearity (VIF) by means of examining predictors in the model, significance of each path coefficients by means of running bootstrapping, coefficients of determination (R^2), and the effect size (f^2). First, collinearity values of indicators were between .20 and 5, and multicollinearity among the exogenous constructs directly connected to the same endogenous construct was good and within the limits, which allowed the path coefficients to be examined next. In bootstrapping stage, path coefficients were analyzed for a significant alpha level each time bootstrapping was run, and all of them were significant at .01 and .001 levels (see Table 3). Then, coefficient of determination was evaluated for the predictive power of the structural model. In other words, coefficient of determination of endogenous variables explains the variance that is accounted by exogenous variables (Hair et al., 2016). The criteria for the coefficient of determination are as follow: 0.75 and above as substantial, 0.50 as moderate, and 0.25 as weak (Hair et al., 2016).

Based on the criteria, R^2 values of cyberbullying and national identity were moderate while the R^2 value of oriented identity was weak in the final structural model (see Table 3). Last, effect sizes, in other words, removal effects (f^2) of exogenous variables on the endogenous variable (i.e., oriented identity) were examined. The criteria for f^2 is as follows: 0.02 indicates a small effect size, 0.15 indicates a medium effect size, 0.35 indicates a large effect size, and if it is lower than 0.02, it refers to no effect (Cohen, 1988; Hair et al., 2016). According to the criteria, traditional bullying had a large removal effect on cyberbullying ($f^2 = 2.23$), while cyberbullying ($f^2 = .15$) had a medium effect on national identity. The rest of the effect sizes were either small or there was no effect (see Table 3).

Table 3. Structural Model Results

Constructs	Paths	Path Coefficients	Indirect Effects	Totals Effects f^2	R^2	
Traditional Bullying Victimization	TB → CB	0.831***		0.831***	2.228***	
	TB → NID		0.555***	0.555***		
	TB → OID	0.129**	-0.142**	-0.013	.007	
Cyberbullying Victimization	CB → NID	0.335***	0.225***	0.560***	.146***	.690
	CB → OID	-0.199***	-0.128***	-0.327***	.015*	
National Identity	NID → OID	0.124***		0.124***	.010	.568
Oriented Identity						.359

Note. * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$, *** indicates $p < .001$

After the structural model parameter examination, the relationships between the variables in the model were evaluated carefully (see Table 3 and Figure 1). First, there was not a statistically significant relationship between traditional bullying victimization and national identity ($p > .05$) and the pathway was removed during the bootstrapping stage. However, when the indirect relationship between the two was examined, it was observed that the indirect relationship was significant ($p < .001$). On the other hand, there was a statistically significant relationship between cyberbullying victimization and national identity and their path coefficient was .335 ($p < .001$). The effect size (f^2) of cyberbullying victimization on national identity was calculated as .146 ($p < .001$), which indicated a medium effect on the R^2 of national identity.

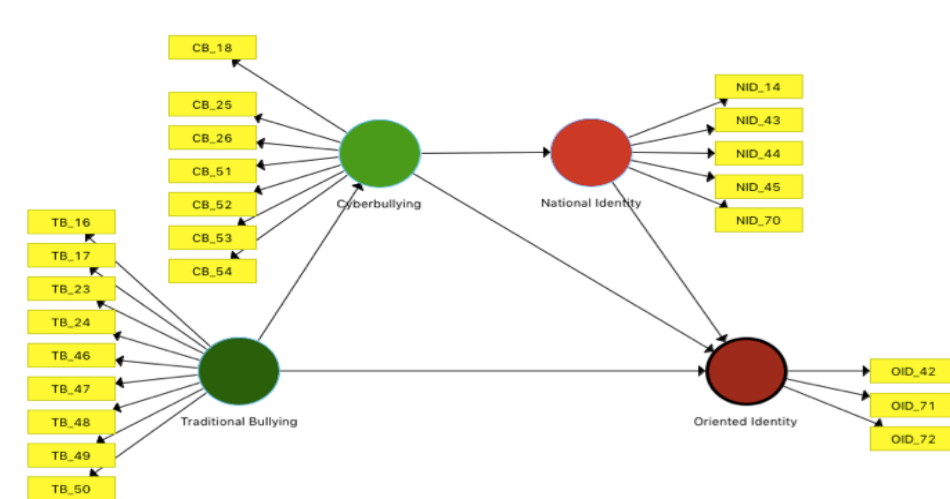


Figure 1. A Model of Bullying Victimization and ELL Identity

Furthermore, there was also a statistically significant relationship between traditional bullying victimization and oriented identity, and the path coefficient was .129 ($p < .01$). The effect size (f^2) of traditional bullying victimization on oriented identity was .007 ($p > .05$), which did not show any effect of traditional bullying victimization on the R^2 of oriented identity. In addition, the relationship between cyberbullying victimization and oriented identity was statistically significant, and the path coefficient was -.199 ($p < .001$). The effect size (f^2) of cyberbullying victimization on oriented identity was .015 ($p < .05$), which indicates a small effect. Finally, there was a statistically significant relationship between traditional bullying victimization and cyberbullying victimization, and the path coefficient was found to be .831 ($p < .001$). The effect size (f^2) of on cyberbullying victimization was 2.228 ($p < .001$), which indicated a large effect on the cyberbullying victimization R^2 .

Discussion and Conclusion

The current study sheds light on several aspects in the field. First, both traditional bullying victimization and cyberbullying victimization contributed to ELL identity development either positively or negatively overall. Even though national identity was not directly affected by traditional bullying victimization, it was affected by cyberbullying victimization. This indicates that ELLs feel more nationalistic when they are cyberbullied. This may be because cyberbullying was a constant factor affecting ELLs' lives everyday. As mentioned in the literature review section, studies indicated that bully victims in cyberbullying cases couldn't escape from the bully even if they change their school, work or environment because bullies are online and they can reach the victim any time on social media (Ovejero, Yubero, Larrañaga, & de la V. Moral, 2016).

Furthermore, the relationship between traditional bullying victimization and oriented identity was positive. This means that ELLs became more oriented into the target culture and language, as they were bullied physically or face-to-face. This is actually an interesting finding because ELLs may have fought against bullies in a non-online environment and gained self-confidence. According to Vitanova et al. (2015), ELLs may act as agents and take actions while learning an L2. They draw upon others' words such as family members, friends, teachers and peers, and then, they appropriate what other say or do to them. They use language as a tool to orient their identities. Considering this situation, ELLs possibly mediated the traditional bullying coming from others and their oriented identity to adjust in the target society while appropriating the discourse with others around them, as these bullies are the individuals that they would always see in their daily lives and within the community (van Lier, 2008; Vitanova, 2010). In other words, this connection may be "one of active participation in the L2 community or of resistance as in the case of national identity" (Peker, 2016, p. 112). However, to be able to make a definite conclusion on this, the participants whose oriented identities were higher could have been interviewed. This could be a future direction to examine.

The negative relationship between cyberbullying victimization and oriented identity also support the findings above. When cyberbullying occurs towards ELLs, they possibly do not want to be more involved in the L2 community, and they become more nationalistic. This also explains the positive relationship between national identity and cyberbullying. However, to stay connected and oriented within the society as active agents for their L2 learning, they may have preferred to resist and not use English as an L2. This could be true especially when bullies victimize an ELL by focusing on ELL's language proficiency. In some cases, ELLs may have responded in their native language as an indication of their resistance. Therefore, L2 agency could be considered as a part of both oriented and national identity (Norton, 2013; Uslu-Ok, 2013).

Overall, it could be concluded that ELLs who were traditionally bullied might have considered their L2 identity as more oriented by adopting some agency roles because of having to live with the bullies around them. However, in cyberbullying case, they probably became more nationalistic. This finding may align with Ovejero, Yubero, Larrañaga, and de la V. Moral (2016)'s statement "the size of the potential audience in cyberbullying is much larger" and "cyberbully has access to his or her victims 24 h, 7 days a week, while a traditional bully only has access at school" or outside school (p. 6). Therefore, cyberbullying victims "cannot avoid the bully, not even by changing school or moving to another city or town; the victims' fear of the bully can trigger genuine panic" (Ovejero et al., 2016, p. 6). In addition, in the previous study findings, it was indicated that cyberbullying victimization was predicted by the number of friends on Facebook (Dredge, Gleeson, & de la Piedad Garcia, 2014; Staksrud, Olafsson, & Livingstone, 2013). This may also explain why they opt for becoming more nationalistic.

Unfortunately, there is no other study focusing on learners' bullying experiences and its effect on their language learning processes either in Turkey or in other countries. Therefore, this study is the first one examining bullying effects on L2 learning. Future research should be conducted on bullying victimization effects on L2. Based on future research and the current study results, some anti-bullying clubs could be established to help individuals who are bully victims because of their language and ethnicities. These clubs could offer workshops that could take place at schools or community centers. In addition, cyberbullying and traditional bullying prevention programs could be integrated into school curricula.

Last, compared to the U.S. context, most of the bullying related studies in Turkey focused on cyberbullying and they did not focus on traditional bullying (Erođlu, Aktepe, Akbaba, Iřık, & Özkorumak, 2015; Sengupta & Chaudhuri, 2011; Sticca, Ruggieri, Alsaker & Perren, 2013; řentürk & Bayat, 2016; Turan 2013). Even though these studies focused on the relationship between cyberbullying and participants' demographic features such as age and grade levels, none of them focused on bullying effects on L2 identity (Beyazit, Simsek, & Ayhan, 2017; Sengupta & Chaudhuri, 2011; řentürk & Bayat, 2016). These studies indicated that as the grade level and age increase, the risk of being a cyberbully victim increases. Considering the age range in this current study, it is not surprising that cyberbullying has been a significant contributor to the model of L2 identity. Since this indicates a gap in the literature, future studies should be conducted with adult participants who are bullied due to their L2 proficiency levels and ethnicity.

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Appendix I

Demographic Category	Demographic Characteristics	Valid	Valid %	
Ethnicity	White	280	28.9	
	Hispanic or Latino	273	28.1	
	Black or African American	57	5.9	
	Native American or American Indian	10	1.0	
	Asian / Pacific Islander	241	24.8	
	Arab	65	6.7	
	Egyptian	1	.1	
	Indian	5	.5	
	Middle Eastern	28	2.9	
	Other	10	1.0	
Country	Brazil	101	10.4	
	China	103	10.6	
	Colombia	30	3.1	
	Cuba	14	1.4	
	Dominican Republic	12	1.2	
	Germany	20	2.1	
	Haiti	11	1.1	
	India	41	4.2	
	Iraq	10	1.0	
	Japan	11	1.1	
	Kazakhstan	12	1.2	
	Kuwait	30	3.1	
	Mexico	50	5.2	
	Morocco	13	1.3	
	Philippines	10	1.0	
	Russian Federation	11	1.1	
	Saudi Arabia	49	5.1	
	South Korea	12	1.2	
	Turkey	90	9.3	
	United States of America	61	6.3	
	Venezuela	37	3.8	
	Vietnam	29	3.0	
	Other	213	22.2	
		Total (missing 52)	970	100