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Understanding school staff responses to LGBTQ+ discrimination in UK secondary schools

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ABSTRACT

Lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans, queer and questioning (LGBTQ+) pupils report that school staff do not intervene when they are witnessing discrimination and more than half of pupils did not feel they had someone to talk to about their identity or discrimination. This study explores the responses of secondary school staff to LGBTQ+ discrimination in schools in the UK. An online Integrated Behavioral Model (IBM) questionnaire was developed using an elicitation study, and subsequently completed by 119 participants. The model predicted 37% of the variance in intention to intervene and 32% of the variance in the extent to which school staff report intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination. Experiential attitudes, perceived control and self-efficacy were significant predictors of intention to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination. This provides support for the utility of the model. The implications of the study are explored.

Introduction

LGBTQ+ Pupils in School

UK government guidance for schools (DfE, 2019) and the UK schools inspection framework (OFSTED, 2019) encourage schools to protect young people from homophobia, biphobia and transphobia and other forms of prejudice and to educate all young people about sexuality and gender identify. This is against a backdrop of LGBTQ+ pupils experience higher levels of bullying than their peers (Bradlow et al., 2017). Although the approach taken by Bradlow has been criticized (McCormack, 2020) this large scale report of over 3700 lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans (LGBT) pupils suggested that nearly half of lesbian, gay and bisexual pupils and two thirds of trans pupils reported experiencing bullying for being LGBTQ+ at school in the UK (Bradlow et al., 2017). Discrimination can take many

forms: using homophobic, biphobic and transphobic language, deadnaming or purposely using the wrong pronouns, outing someone against their wishes, ignoring or isolating an LGBTQ+ pupil, and verbal, physical or sexual abuse (Bachmann & Gooch, 2017). This can manifest in several ways; directly *via* a face-to-face incident; indirectly through gossiping, spreading rumors or using LGBTQ+ labels in a derogatory manner; or remotely when electronic devices are used (Bacchini et al., 2020).

Despite the legislation and guidance many LGBTQ+ pupils report that school staff are not intervening when they are witnessing discrimination (Kosciw et al., 2020) and more than half of pupils did not feel they had someone to talk to about their identity or discrimination (Bradlow et al., 2017). In addition, 40% of LGBTQ+ pupils felt they had never had any teaching of LGBTQ+ understanding or awareness at school. These findings were congruent with teacher reports of the experiences of LGBTQ+ pupils (Guasp et al., 2014). Many teachers recognized that it was vital to tackle the topic but felt they lacked the confidence, skills and support to address them effectively. Lack of teacher intervention can create a challenging environment for LGBTQ+ pupils (Goodrich & Luke, 2016).

More widely in society the issue can be controversial and divisive. A school programme designed to provide a LGBTQ+ inclusive education and help children to recognize the diversity (in terms of ethnicity, gender, ability, sexuality, gender identity, age and religion) (Moffat, 2015), led to high profile parent protests (Bushby, 2019). Some parents felt that children were too young to learn about same-sex relationships and LGBTQ+ content. Some schools withdrew the programme due to ongoing protests outside several schools in the area (Parveen, 2019).

Negative school experiences appear to have a concerning and long-lasting impact for LGBTQ+ pupils as they experience higher rates of mental health issues, self-harm and suicide than their peers (Russell & Fish, 2016). Experiencing discrimination can contribute to a lower sense of school belonging and feeling unsafe at school (Abreu et al., 2021). This also seems to influence their educational outcomes as experiencing discrimination for LGBTQ+ pupils has been associated with lower attainment, increased absence and they are less likely to express an interest in further education (Russell & Fish, 2016). However, school staff support of LGBTQ+ pupils can have a significant impact on educational and psychological outcomes (Espelage et al., 2008; Kosciw et al., 2010).

Within school, teachers and other members of staff act as role models for pupils. As a result, they have a key role in developing an accepting, inclusive environment for LGBTQ+ pupils (Dessel et al., 2017). When teachers intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination this can help develop feelings of acceptance for LGBTQ+ pupils and foster a supportive and safe environment (Plöderl et al., 2010; Toomey et al., 2012). Research has suggested

that LGBTQ+ pupils with at least one supportive relationship with a teacher have significantly fewer difficulties at school and lower levels of anxiety and depression (Russell et al., 2010). Teacher intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination has also been positively associated with self-esteem for LGBTQ+ pupils (Dessel et al., 2017). Some research has indicated that teachers have the strongest positive influence on pupil outcomes (Kosciw et al., 2013). However, school culture and ethos can vary widely, and staff are not consistently supporting LGBTQ+ pupils despite the positive impact this can have. It is important to develop an understanding of the factors associated with school staff intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination.

Rationale

It is essential to develop an understanding of the barriers and motivators associated with school staff completing supportive behaviors toward LGBTQ+ pupils. This will help to engage more school staff in these behaviors and provide a framework that may help to develop targeted prevention and intervention strategies, such as training programmes for trainee teachers and school staff. In turn, this may help to provide LGBTQ+ pupils with a more supportive school environment, reduce the incidences of discrimination based on gender identity or sexuality and promote positive outcomes for all young people. This study will provide a unique contribution in that it will investigate these factors in a UK context, which has yet to be explored using IBM. It will also add to our understanding of the application of the full IBM in educational research in general.

Research questions

The current study will investigate the following research questions:

1. Do the attitudes, perceived norms and the personal agency of school staff predict the extent to which they intend to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination?
2. Do the attitudes, perceived norms, personal agency and behavioral intentions of school staff predict the extent to which they report intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination?

School staff intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination: barriers and motivators

Internationally, several papers have investigated individual and environmental factors associated with school staff intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination.

Individual factors

On an individual level, gender, attitudes and self-efficacy have all been linked to intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination. Poteat et al. (2019)

found that women report intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination more frequently than men. However, this is not a consistent finding as other studies found no gender differences (Collier et al., 2015; Zotti et al., 2018). Higher levels of homophobic attitudes and sexual prejudice have been associated with lower intentions to intervene (Nappa et al., 2018; Zotti et al., 2018). In addition, teachers, who had more positive attitudes toward intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination and its benefits, have significantly stronger intentions to intervene and report intervening more frequently (Collier et al., 2015; McCabe et al., 2013).

Some teachers reported that a lack of confidence and familiarity dealing with LGBTQ+ discrimination would be a barrier to intervention (Meyer, 2008; O'Donoghue & Guerin, 2017). Self-efficacy in intervening in discrimination toward LGBTQ+ pupils significantly predicted teachers' self-reported intention to intervene (Collier et al., 2015; Greytak & Kosciw, 2014; Poteat et al., 2019). However, Nappa et al. (2018) found that self-efficacy to intervene was not a significant predictor, rather self-efficacy in professional performance was positively associated with intention to intervene in LGBTQ+ harassment. The kind of self-efficacy might therefore have some significance and warrants further exploration, making the inclusion of personal agency in the IBM model valuable, as will be introduced below.

Environmental factors

Knowing LGBTQ+ individuals outside of school was positively associated with intervention in homophobic discrimination (Greytak & Kosciw, 2014; Zotti et al., 2018). Positive subjective norms toward intervening in LGBTQ+ harassment, within the education setting, was also shown as a predictor of supportive behavior (McCabe et al., 2013). Similarly, having support from the school's leadership team was thought to act as a supporting factor in intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination (O'Donoghue & Guerin, 2017) or a barrier when there is a lack of institutional support (Meyer, 2008). Some teachers felt that negative parental attitudes toward LGBTQ+ individuals would be a barrier to intervention (Meyer, 2008; O'Donoghue & Guerin, 2017).

Swanson and Gettinger (2016) found that middle and high school teachers' in the USA reported engaging in behaviors to support LGBTQ+ pupils more frequently when they worked in a setting that had a school-level support (either an anti-bullying policy that explicitly prohibits discrimination based on sexuality or gender identity, the presence of an LGBTQ+ group within school and teacher training on LGBTQ+ issues). Some studies also indicated that teachers felt more supported and comfortable raising LGBTQ+ issues when their school had an LGBTQ+ harassment policy (Meyer, 2008; Schneider & Dimito, 2008).

Furthermore, lack of training in LGBTQ+ issues has also been highlighted as a barrier to intervention (Meyer, 2008) and a high level of

LGBTQ+ training has been associated with more frequently supporting LGBTQ+ pupils (Swanson & Gettinger, 2016). Conversely, Collier et al. (2015) found the amount of bullying training (including that directed toward LGBTQ+ pupils) was not significantly related to intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination.

In summary factors that might be expected to play a role in predicting staff interventions include: individual factors (gender, attitudes and self-efficacy); school system factors, such as training, leadership support and policy; contact outside of work with LGBTQ+ people and community support and attitudes, in particular parental attitudes. Many of these are part of what might be experienced as the school's culture or overall perspective, and differences between schools will create very different outcomes for young people. The Integrated Behavior Model was selected as a framework for exploring a number of these factors.

Methods
Questionnaire development.

Theoretical context for the questionniare

A deductive theory-driven approach has been used to investigate whether the Inetgrated Behavior Model (IBM) could be applied to school staff intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination (Barker et al., 2016, p. 33). A quantitative approach was chosen to quantify and measure the relationship between variables within the model and examine each research question. This approach is congruent with that proposed by the proponents of IBM and its predecessors the Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behviour (Ajzen, 1991; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The next section will give some of this background context.

The theory of planned behavior
The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991) has been used as a framework to predict educators' intentions to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination in the USA (McCabe et al., 2013). TPB is a model of predicting behavior based on behavioral intention which is affected by the following three constructs: (1) attitudes, (2) subjective norms and (3) perceived behavioral control (PBC; Ajzen, 1991). Behavioral intention is thought to directly predict actual behavior. In the last 30 years, this theory has been used widely in human research to predict a range of behaviors, including within health and medical research (e.g. Armitage, 2005), occupational psychology (e.g. Jones, 2003) and more recently in educational research (e.g. MacFarlane & Woolfson, 2013). TPB has often explained a

significant amount of the variance in behavior, however the influence of each construct has varied significantly between studies (Connor & Norman, 2005). Additionally, several studies have highlighted that PBC can directly predict behavior (Sniehotta, Presseau, & Araújo-Soares, 2014). When applying this model to teacher intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination, McCabe et al. (2013) found that the TPB constructs accounted for 21% of the variance in school staff behavior. Stronger associations were found between intention to intervene and attitudes and subjective norms (McCabe et al., 2013).

The integrated behavioral model

Collier et al. (2015) used constructs from an expanded version of Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), the Integrated Behavioral Model (IBM), also known as the Integrative Model or the Integrated Model of Behavioral Prediction (Fishbein, 2000), to examine teacher responses to LGBTQ+ discrimination in the Netherlands. IBM is similar to TPB as it incorporates the same three constructs (attitudes, perceived norms and perceived behaviors) and considers behavioral intention as the strongest predictor of actual behavior (Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2008). However, this model expands each construct to incorporate aspects of other influential theories, including Social-Cognitive Theory (Bleakley et al., 2011).

Within IBM, attitudes are split into experiential (the emotional response to performing the target behavior) and instrumental attitudes (the cognitive appraisal based on beliefs about the outcome of performing the target behavior). Perceived norms incorporate injunctive norms (beliefs about whether others think you should perform the target behavior) and descriptive norms (beliefs about whether others are performing the target behavior). Finally, a new construct, personal agency, has been introduced to address concerns that PBC overlaps with Bandura's (1997) concept of self-efficacy within the TPB model (Terry & O'Leary, 1995). This includes perceived control, from the TPB model (perceived control over performing the target behavior) and self-efficacy (confidence in your ability to perform the target behavior) as a separate construct (Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2008). In addition, IBM highlights that there are a range of other factors, such as environmental constraints, that are thought to directly impact on behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010).

Over the last ten years, this model has been utilized in a range of research areas, such as to predict use of medication, teacher use of continued professional development and to understand the perspectives of individuals, who use wheelchairs, on using assistive technology (Danter, 2005; Kasprzyk & Montaño, 2007; Mason et al., 2019). When applied to teacher intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination, four IBM constructs explained 24% of the variance in intention to intervene (Collier et al.,

2015). Greater self-efficacy and more positive behavioral beliefs were associated with significantly stronger intentions to intervene. A diagram of the IBM applied to school staff intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination can be seen in Figure 1.

IBM has been utilized in previous literature to investigate teacher responses to LGBTQ+ discrimination in the Netherlands; Collier et al. (2015) used four constructs (instrumental attitude, descriptive norms, injunctive norms and self-efficacy) from the IBM to explain teacher intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination. However, the current study extends this by examining all six concepts from IBM and also includes a self-reported measure of actual behavior.

Design

To explore both of the research questions, a quantitative, non-experimental correlational survey design was employed. This cross-sectional design can effectively evaluate how well conceptual models, such as the IBM, fit data (Barker et al., 2016, p. 140). Kasprzyk et al. (1998) advocate for the use
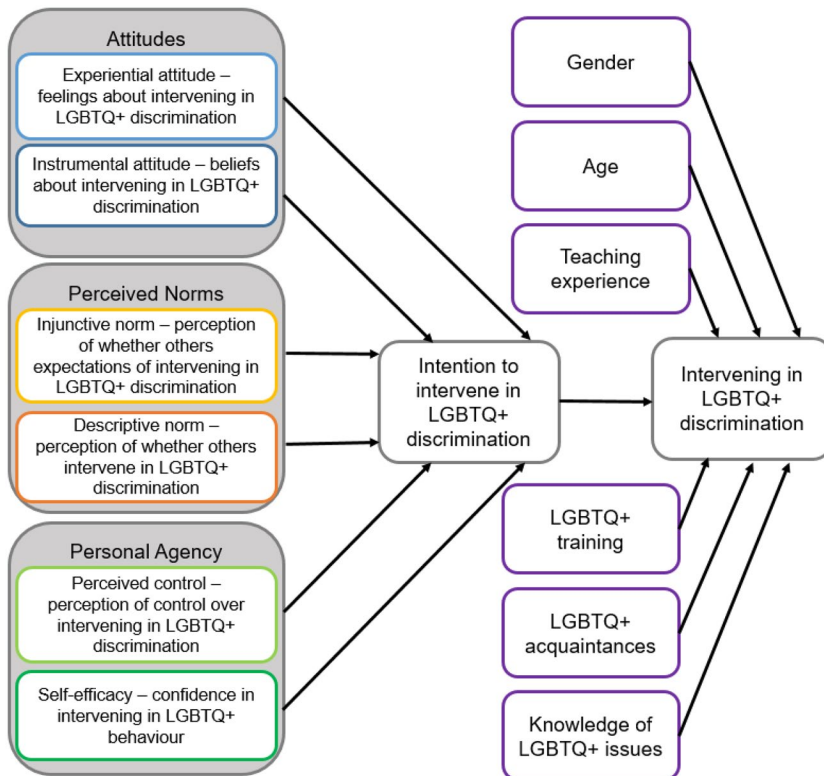

Figure 1. The IBM model applied to school staff intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination, adapted from Montaño and Kasprzyk (2008).

of quantitative questionnaires when investigating applications of IBM as this allows the researcher to examine relationships.

The data collection and analysis used within this study followed guidance by Montaño and Kasprzyk (2008). An essential step in the application of IBM is conducting interviews with the population under investigation, *via* an elicitation study, prior to data collection. Within the elicitation study, interviews are used to produce IBM constructs that are salient to that population and from this a population-specific IBM measure can be developed (Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2008). Consequently, within this research an elicitation study was completed to develop an IBM questionnaire for secondary school staff that focused on their intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination within this study. A draft questionnaire was developed and this was piloted by some of the elicitation study participants to ensure the question wording and response scales were reliable and valid (Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2008). The questionnaire was then used to gather quantitative data with a larger sample of secondary school staff. Figure 1 provides a diagrammatic representation of the study design.

Participants

Participant recruitment: IBM questionnaire

Convenience sampling was used to recruit participants. Social media platforms (Twitter and Facebook) were used to share a link to the online questionnaire and secondary school Special Educational Needs Coordinators (SENCOs) across the UK were contacted *via* email. While there is a chance of selection bias toward those already interested in the topic or using social media there was a need to access a relatively large number of participants in an efficient way. The SENCOs were invited to complete the questionnaire, *via* an embedded link, and to share it with all staff members.

Sample size

Power analyses were completed using G*Power (Faul et al., 2009) to establish an appropriate sample size. A power analysis using a medium effect size ($R^2 = .15$, Field, 2013[1]), an alpha level of 0.05 and seven predictor variables indicated that 103 participants would be needed to achieve a power level of 0.8. This suggested that the statistical analysis would have an 80% chance of detecting an effect if one exists (Cohen, 1988). Although this is smaller than some 'rules of thumb' for multiple regression might suggest (Maas & Hox, 2004) the power calculation gave a robust prediction of the likely adequacy of the sample size, particularly in light of central limit theorem (Field, 2013).

Procedure

The participants completed the IBM remotely at their convenience, online *via* SurveyMonkey®. The participants were provided with a full information sheet and then an online consent form. They consented by indicating they agreed to each question on the electronic consent form. The questionnaire took approximately 10 min to complete and debrief information was provided on completion to signpost participants to charities and services that could provide extra support should they require it.

Description of the final questionnaire

Within the final IBM questionnaire, all items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1 to 7). Within this questionnaire there were six demographic items, six items relating to other factors, eight direct items, 28 indirect items, three behavioral intention items and one item related to perceived past behavior. In addition, 17 items focused on participants' evaluation of the value attached to behavioral outcomes, their motivation to comply and perceived power were included. However, the responses to these items were not utilized in analysis.

Five direct items were measured on semantic differential scales (e.g. 'Overall, I believe intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination is—harmful/beneficial'). The remaining items were measured using 'strongly disagree/strongly agree', 'bad/good' or 'difficult/easy'. To reduce response style bias, 15 items were reversed (Weijters & Baumgartner, 2012). This is common practice in IBM and TPB questionnaires (Francis et al., 2004). Figure 2 outlines the content of the IBM questionnaire (see the Appendix for the final IBM questionnaire).

The phases of the IBM questionnaire development can be seen in Table 1.

Validity and reliability of the IBM questionnaire

Face validity

The face validity of the questionnaire was assessed through piloting. Participants in the pilot phase were asked to provide feedback on the content, presentation and usability of the questionnaire. They indicated that the questionnaire was appropriate and relevant, suggesting good face validity (Barker et al., 2016).

Internal consistency

The internal consistency of the scale was evaluated to establish whether the items in each subscale were equivalent and they measured the same
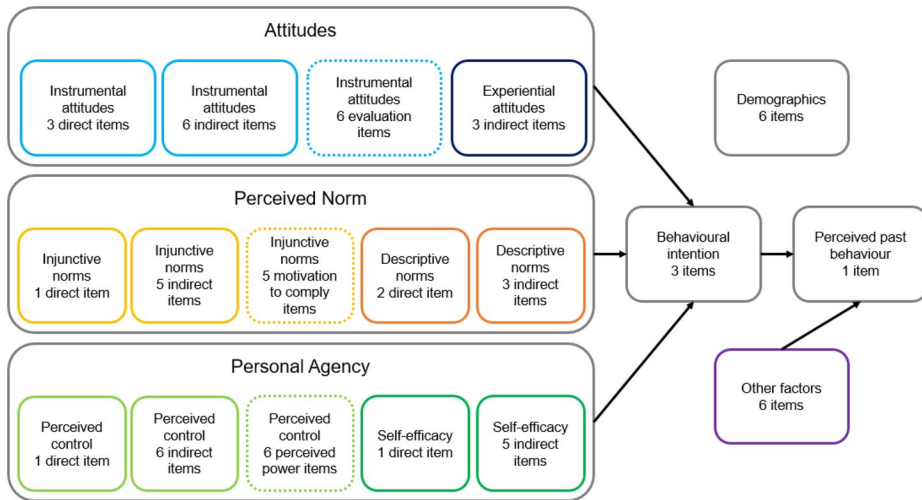
Figure 2. A diagrammatic representation of the final IBM questionnaire.

Table 1. Participant information from the IBM data collection.

Domain	Demographic	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Woman	76	63.87
	Man	39	32.77
	Self-identified	1	0.840
	Prefer not to say	3	2.52
Age	18–24 years	10	7.90
	25–34 years	49	38.60
	35–44 years	30	23.60
	45–54 years	20	15.70
	55–64 years	10	7.90
	65+ years	0	0.00
Educational provision	State	31	24.40
	Grammar	12	9.40
	Independent	9	7.10
	Academy	57	44.90
	Faith	4	3.10
	Specialist/other	4	3.10
Role	Teacher	55	43.30
	Leadership	35	27.50
	Pastoral	13	10.20
	Support Staff	16	12.60
Teaching experience	1–5 years	42	33.10
	6–10 years	29	22.80
	11–15 years	22	17.30
	16–20 years	14	11.00
	21–25 years	6	4.70
	26+ years	6	4.70
Total		119	100.00

construct (Barker et al., 2016). Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of each subscale and the values are outlined in Table 2.

Alpha scores of above .50 are considered acceptable for new measures (Field, 2013). The instrumental attitude constructs demonstrated low internal consistency. This is expected for the indirect measure of attitude as this subscale is based on population-specific beliefs and it is recognized

Table 2. IBM questionnaire development.

Phase	Process
1. Elicitation interviews	Interviews were completed and initial reflections noted within a thesis log.
2. Data familiarization	The data were transcribed and the transcripts were reread several times. Further reflections were noted.
3. Organization of data	Responses to each question were collated and sorted into IBM constructs. A list of codes was generated for each construct.
4. Identifying codes	The code frequency was recorded. Codes that had been identified by only one participant were excluded.
5. Creating categories	The remaining codes were then labeled as categories using the participants' terminology.
6. Question development	Questions were formulated from the categories and structured as a questionnaire using guidance from Montaño and Kasprzyk (2008). These were then compared to previous IBM questionnaires.
7. Questionnaire Pilot	The draft questionnaire was piloted with ten participants and the questionnaire was revised based on their responses and feedback.
8. IBM data collection	The final IBM questionnaire was used to collect data from secondary school staff.

that it is possible to hold both positive and negative beliefs about a behavior (Ajzen, 2002). However for other variables, some researchers suggest that items should be removed to improve the internal consistency of the subscale or the whole subscale should be removed from analysis (Francis et al., 2004). Others argue that this only improves internal consistency for the sample population and this change in reliability within the measure will not be representative of the wider 'true' population (Starkweather, 2012).

Within this study, the low internal consistency produced by the direct measure of instrumental attitude may be due to the small number of items within this subscale (Field, 2013). Alternatively, as this construct was measured based on items using a differential semantic scale (e.g. harmful/beneficial) and these scales are not always considered appropriate for some behaviors, which may result in low internal consistency (Francis et al., 2004). Within the pilot study, participants suggested that the use of these scales did not 'feel right' for some items, as a result two items were removed but some were retained to ensure direct measures were included.

Construct validity
In addition, the originators of both TPB and IBM highlight the importance of direct and indirect measures of the same construct relating to each other as this will also provide an indication of the construct validity (Francis et al., 2004; Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2008). This was explored by calculating the association between the direct and indirect measures for each construct using Pearson's correlation coefficient, r. The coefficients are displayed in Table 3.

This analysis revealed that there was a significant relationship between the direct and indirect measures for injunctive norms ($r = .32$, $p < .01$) and descriptive norms ($r = .23$, $p < .05$). However, a significant relationship was not found in instrumental attitudes ($r = .08$, $p > .05$) or perceived control ($r = .13$, $p > .05$).

Table 3. Cronbach's Alpha scores.

Subscale	n	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha coefficient
Instrumental attitude direct	101	3	.40
Instrumental attitude indirect	101	6	.47
Experiential attitude indirect	106	3	.54
Injunctive norms direct	106	1	–
Injunctive norms indirect	106	5	.82
Descriptive norms direct	99	2	.56
Descriptive norms indirect	100	3	.82
Perceived control direct	106	1	–
Perceived control indirect	106	5	.62
Self-efficacy direct	100	1	–
Self-efficacy indirect	100	5	.94
Behavioral intention	100	3	.90
Perceived past behavior	106	1	–

Note. Cronbach's alpha scores could not be calculated for constructs with only one item.

Based on the Cronbach's alpha score, the correlation analysis and feedback provided in the pilot study, the direct measure of instrumental attitude was removed and all further analysis was completed using only the indirect measure. However, the direct measure of perceived control was retained as the Cronbach's alpha score for perceived control (both direct and indirect measures) was acceptable ($\alpha < .60$).

Results

A total of 119 survey responses were received. It impossible to know how many teachers might have looked at the survey and not completed it, so a completion or response rate is not available. Reversed items scores were reflected so that all responses were in the same direction for analysis. To clearly outline each aspect of the analysis, the results section is split into four parts (1) descriptive statistics and preliminary analysis, (2) exploration of the assumptions of multiple regression and (3) research question analyses.

Descriptive statistics and preliminary analysis

The mean, standard deviations and Skewness and Kurtosis values for each IBM variable and knowledge of LGBTQ+ issues are presented in Table 4.

The Skewness values indicate that all the variables are heavily negatively skewed, suggesting a clustering of scores at the high end. This suggests generally positive attitudes and norms and high perceived control and self-efficacy. Similarly all the variables have positive Kurtosis values, signifying a peaked distribution with long, thin tails. Within samples of 50–300 participants, a skewness or kurtosis z-score of above 3.29 indicates the distribution of the sample is not normally distributed (Kim, 2013). This suggests that only instrumental attitudes and knowledge of LGBTQ+ issues were normally distributed.

Table 4. Correlation coefficients between the direct and indirect measures.

Subscales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Instrumental attitude direct	–	.08	−0.13	−0.03	.01	−0.01	.29**	−0.04	.33**	.07
Instrumental attitude indirect		–	.31**	.36**	−0.01	.12	.02	.20*	.09	−0.01
Experiential attitude indirect			–	.61**	.35**	.31**	.06	.33*	−0.10	−0.16
Injunctive norms direct				–	.32**	.46**	.22*	.43**	.11	.01
Injunctive norms indirect					–	.73**	.19	.21*	.23*	.18
Descriptive norms direct						–	.23*	.31*	.29*	.24*
Descriptive norms indirect							–	.12	.47**	.31**
Perceived control direct								–	.13	−0.08
Perceived control indirect									–	.39**
Self-efficacy direct										–

Note. *p < .05. **p < .01.

This is consistent with the previous investigation of IBM constructs and teacher intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination (Collier et al., 2015). Within this study, Collier and their colleagues found that all four IBM constructs investigated (instrumental attitudes, descriptive norms, injunctive norms and self-efficacy) were also negatively skewed. This may suggest that within the UK and the Netherlands school staff generally have positive attitudes and high self-efficacy around intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination and that schools have positive norms. However, it is likely that due to the self-selecting nature of the recruitment in both these studies that the participants have more positive attitudes, high-self efficacy and come from schools with positive norms around intervention.

Frequencies and percentages of the categorical other factor variables can be seen in Table 5.

Montaño and Kasprzyk (2008) recommend calculating the relationship between each model construct and the measures of the target behavior. Consequently, a correlation matrix was produced to illustrate the relationships between all the variables, this can be seen in Table 6.

This analysis showed that experiential attitude ($r = .36$, $p < .01$), descriptive norms ($r = .27$, $p < .01$), perceived control ($r = .47$, $p < .01$), self-efficacy, ($r = .49$, $p < .01$), LGBTQ+ training ($r = .24$, $p < .05$) and knowledge of LGBTQ+ issues ($r = .31$, $p < .01$) were significantly associated with behavioral intention. However, only experiential attitude ($r = .23$, $p < .05$), perceived control ($r = .22$, $p < .05$), self-efficacy ($r = .44$, $p < .01$), knowledge of LGBTQ+ issues ($r = .36$, $p < .01$) and behavioral intention ($r = .51$, $p < .01$) were significantly associated with perceived past behavior.

Assumptions of multiple regression

Both research questions were addressed through multiple linear regression analyses. This analysis can model the relationship between several variables and is widely used to analyze TPB and IBM data (Field, 2013; Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2008). First, the assumptions of regression, as outlined by Field (2013) will be explored: (1) multicollinearity, (2)

Table 5. Means, standard deviations and Skewness and Kurtosis z-scores.

	n	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Instrumental attitude	101	5.35	0.57	−0.85	0.18
Experiential attitude	106	6.15	1.12	−6.71	3.47
Injunctive norms	106	5.15	1.08	−4.04	3.07
Descriptive norms	99	5.29	1.19	−3.72	1.09
Perceived control	106	4.98	0.88	−5.2	5.00
Self-efficacy	100	6.02	0.90	−4.42	1.72
Knowledge of LGBTQ+ issues	119	4.88	1.47	−3.07	0.52
Behavioral intention	100	6.43	0.96	−9.52	12.94
Perceived past behavior	118	6.04	1.28	−8.54	9.27

Note. The mean figures were calculated using the mean values from various items measured on a 7-point Likert Scale, with higher scores indicating more positive attitudes, norms and higher perceived control or self-efficacy, z-scores were calculated from the skewness and kurtosis values and the standard error.

Table 6. Frequencies and percentages of the other factor variables.

Domain	Demographic	Frequency	Percentage
LGBTQ+ training	None	43	45.4
	1–3 h	30	31.9
	4–6 h	13	14.3
	7–9 h	2	1.7
	10+ hours	6	6.7
LGBTQ+ acquaintances	None	3	2.5
	1–5 acquaintances	44	37.0
	6–10 acquaintances	25	21.0
	11–15 acquaintances	14	11.8
	16+ acquaintances	33	27.7
Total		119	100

independent errors, (3) normality, (4) homoscedasticity and linearity and 5) outliers and influential data.

Multicollinearity

The correlation matrix shown in Table 6 indicates that the correlations between the predictor variables were considerably lower than .80 suggesting no multicollinearity. This was supported by the variance inflation factor (VIF) values and tolerance statistics (Myers, 1990); all the VIF values were significantly lower than 10 (range: 1.01–1.74) and the tolerance values were larger than 0.2 (range: 0.58–0.99).

Independent errors

The Durbin-Watson test was used to examine whether the errors were uncorrelated. Within each analysis, the Durbin-Watson value was greater than 0.01 and less than 3.99, indicating that the residuals were not significantly correlated (Savin & White, 1977).

Normality

For each regression analysis, the histograms and normal probability plots of the standardized residuals were visually inspected to ascertain whether

the error was normally distributed. This inspection indicated that the data for each analysis was not normally distributed.

Homoscedasticity and linearity

The scatterplots of standardized predicted error against standardized residual were inspected visually to establish whether there was a linear relationship between the outcome and predictor variables and whether there is equal variance (homoscedasticity). For each research question, this examination indicated that the assumption of linearity had been met, however there appeared to be some violation of the assumption of homoscedasticity.

Outliers and influential data

The standardized and studentised residuals were examined to establish whether outliers were present within the data and the influence of these cases was explored using the adjusted predictive value, deleted residual, studentised deleted residual, Cook's distance and Mahalanobis distance. Several cases had a standardized residual value of −3 or +3 and problematic Mahalonobis distance values (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2011). However, the Cook's distance values were all less than 1, consequently all the cases were retained within the analysis.

Violation of assumptions

The data appeared to violate the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity, which can result in bias in the confidence intervals, significance tests and model parameters produced within the regression analyses (Maas & Hox, 2004). However, given the large sample size, normality was assumed based on central limit theorem (Field, 2013). Central limit theorem indicates that for large samples, as in the current study, the distribution of the sample will be approximately normal, despite violations of normality (Ernst & Albers, 2017). Furthermore, violations of homoscedasticity are also tolerable. Multiple regression analyses with large sample sizes are considered robust to these violations (Ernst & Albers, 2017).

Research question analyses

Research Question 1: Do the attitudes, perceived norms and the personal agency of school staff predict the extent to which they intend to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination?

Results of the multiple linear regression found that there was a significant effect between the six IBM constructs and behavioral intention, explaining 37% of the variance $F(6, 92) = 9.08$, $p = .001$. Self-efficacy ($\beta = .34$, $p = .001$), perceived

control (β = .27, p = .01) and experiential attitude (β = .18, p = .04) were significant predictors within this model. The model parameters, confidence intervals and standard errors for the model are displayed in Table 7.

A diagrammatic representation of the results are shown in Figure 3.

Research Question 2: Do the attitudes, perceived norms, personal agency and behavioral intentions of school staff predict the extent to which they report intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination?

Results of the second regression indicated that the model explained 32% of the variance and significantly predicted perceived past behavior $F(7, 90)$ = 6.05, p = .001. Within this model, only behavior intention was a significant predictor (β = .40, p = .001). Interestingly, self-efficacy did not significantly contribute to the model despite the result indicating a small strength of association (β = .20, p = .07). The model parameters, confidence intervals and standard errors are displayed in Table 8.

A diagrammatic representation of these results can be seen in Figure 4.

Discussion

This study aimed to explore the application of IBM to school staff intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination, in order to develop our understanding of the motivators and barriers. Within this section, the descriptive findings will be considered and each research question will be discussed in turn.

Descriptive findings

Experience and training

Within this study, the vast majority of school staff reported working with lesbian, gay or bisexual pupils (96.6%) and a high proportion reported working with trans pupils (80.75%). This demonstrates the relevance of this research and highlights the need for school staff to feel confident in supporting these pupils, particularly if they experience LGBTQ+ discrimination. Notably, just under half of the participants (45.4%) had never received any LGBTQ+ training. This finding is congruent with previous research indicating that very few teachers accessed training and consequently feel that they do not have the confidence or skills necessary to intervene effectively (Greytak & Kosciw, 2010; Guasp et al., 2014; Swanson & Gettinger, 2016).

Attitudes, norms, personal agency, behavioral intention and perceived past behavior

The mean values for both instrumental (5.35) and experiential (6.15) attitudes highlighted that within this study, the participants' attitudes were

Table 7. Correlation coefficients between the study variables.

| Subscales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Instrumental attitude	–	.09	.37**	.06	.14	.05	.11	.02	.01	.02	.14	-0.08	.08	.02
2. Experiential attitude		–	.13	.19	.24**	.27**	-0.06	.03	-0.02	.13	.02	.23*	.36**	.23*
3. Injunctive norms			–	.43**	.35**	-0.07	.02	-0.03	-0.03	.20*	-0.07	-0.03	.14	-0.03
4. Descriptive norms				–	.34**	.30**	.07	-0.00	.03	.22*	-0.07	-0.04	.27**	.20
5. Perceived control					–	.38**	-0.03	-0.07	.04	.43**	-0.02	.12	.47**	.22*
6. Self-efficacy						–	-0.09	.08	.07	.18	.18	.22*	.49**	.44**
7. Gender							–	.01	.07	.04	.06	.03	-0.03	.12
8. Age								–	.66**	.03	-0.14	.22*	.12	-0.00
9. Teaching experience									–	.13	-0.04	-0.19	.15	-0.03
10. LGBTQ+ training										–	.19*	.25**	.24*	.06
11. LGBTQ+ acquaintances											–	.46**	.18	.13
12. Knowledge of LGBTQ+ issues												–	.31**	.36**
13. Behavioral intention													–	.51**
14. Perceived past behavior														–

Note. $*p < .05$; $**p < .01$.
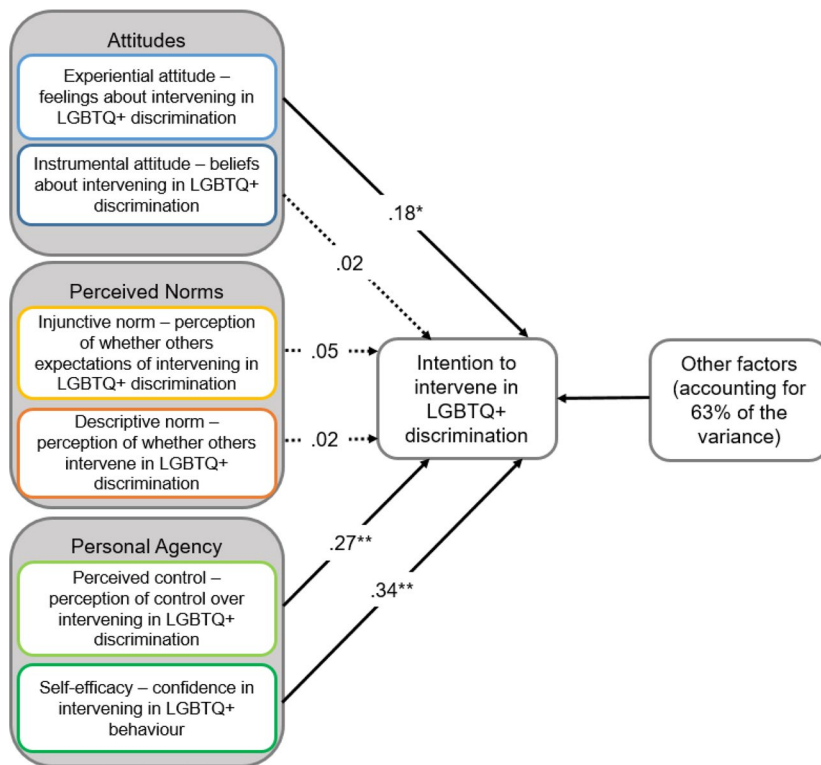
Figure 3. A diagrammatic representation of the results from the multiple regression completed to analyze Research question 1.
Note. *p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 8. Multiple regression models of IBM variables on behavioral intention.

	b	95% CI		SE	β	p
		LL	UL			
Constant	1.23	−0.67	3.13	0.96		.20
Instrumental attitude	.04	−0.27	0.34	0.15	0.02	.80
Experiential attitude	.15	0.01	0.30	0.07	0.18	.04
Injunctive norms	.05	−0.15	0.24	0.10	0.05	.64
Descriptive norms	.02	−0.14	0.18	0.08	0.02	.82
Perceived control	.31	0.09	0.53	0.11	0.27	.01
Self-efficacy	.36	0.15	0.57	0.10	0.34	.00

Note. $R^2 = .37$, p =.001; n = 99; CI = confidence intervals; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

generally very positive toward intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination. Similarly, the norm mean values indicated that the participants felt that there were positive norms around intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination at their educational settings. This result may reflect the relatively large number of staff (27.5%), whose role within school included a leadership element (Head of Department, Head of Year or a Senior Leader). Leadership staff have a role in creating the ethos and culture of the school (Day & Sammons, 2019). These individuals may create positive norms (actual or
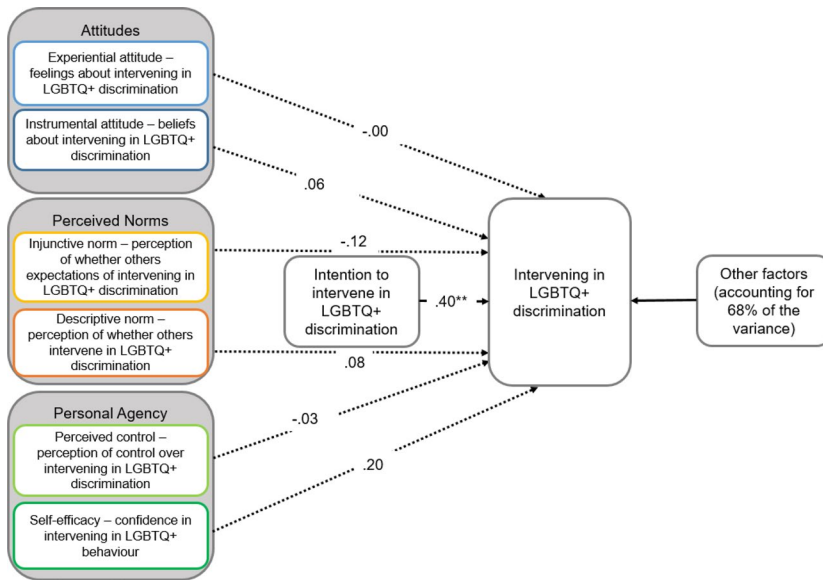
Figure 4. A diagrammatic representation of the results from the multiple regressions completed to analyze research Question 2.
*Note. *p* < .05. **p* < .01.

Table 9. Multiple regression model of IBM variables on perceived past behavior.

| | b | 95% CI | | SE | β | p |
		LL	UL			
Constant	1.15	−1.49	3.78	1.32		.39
Instrumental attitude	−0.01	−0.42	0.41	0.21	−0.00	.97
Experiential attitude	0.07	−0.14	0.28	0.11	0.06	.51
Injunctive norms	−0.14	−0.41	0.12	0.13	−0.12	.29
Descriptive norms	0.08	−0.14	0.30	0.11	0.08	.46
Perceived control	−0.05	−0.36	0.27	0.16	−0.03	.78
Self-efficacy	0.28	−0.02	0.58	0.15	0.20	.07
Behavioral intention	0.53	0.24	0.81	0.14	0.40	.00

*Note. R^2 = .32, p =.001; n = 98; CI = confidence intervals; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

perceived by them) toward intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination, which may contribute to the high mean values of both norm constructs.

The mean value for perceived control was the lowest of all the IBM variables (4.98), however this shows that participants still felt positively about their control over intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination. The high self-efficacy value (6.03) indicated that participants generally felt confident in their ability to intervene. Finally, the high behavioral intention value (6.43) shows that participants had strong intentions to intervene. Interestingly, perceived past behavior (6.04) was lower than the behavioral intention score. This may indicate that participants are actually intervening at a lower rate than their intention to intervene. Alternatively, this may indicate that participants had not experienced LGBTQ+ discrimination so have been unable to intervene. However, it is not possible to draw strong conclusions as this was not measured within the questionnaire.

Overall, these findings are consistent with previous research investigating responses to LGBTQ+ discrimination measured as part of a TPB or an IBM questionnaire (Collier et al., 2015; McCabe et al., 2013). However, despite this, research in the UK suggests that school staff often do not intervene (Guasp et al., 2014). This may represent a disconnect between the viewpoints of school staff and LGBTQ+ young people regarding LGBTQ+ discrimination in secondary school (Harris et al., 2021).

Research questions

Research question 1: Do the attitudes, perceived norms and the personal agency of school staff predict the extent to which they intend to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination?

The results revealed that three variables were significant predictors of intention to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination. Self-efficacy was the strongest predictor, this result is consistent with previous research applying IBM to intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination in school (Collier et al., 2015). It is also congruent with other studies that investigated the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and LGBTQ+ discrimination (Poteat et al., 2019) and those that indicated that a lack of confidence can be a barrier to intervention (Meyer, 2008; O'Donoghue & Guerin, 2017). Perceived control also made a significant independent contribution to the model. Although this specific construct has not been studied previously in relation to intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination, PBC was not found to be a significant predictor within an application of TPB (McCabe et al., 2013). However, these results are broadly in line with TPB literature, which indicates that PBC is often found to be the strongest predictor of behavioral intention (Armitage & Conner, 2001).

Experiential attitudes also made a significant independent contribution to the model, however, instrumental attitudes did not. Similarly, this specific construct has not been studied in relation to this topic but the finding is congruent with general attitudes or beliefs within the previous IBM and TPB studies in this area (Collier et al., 2015; McCabe et al., 2013). Experiential attitudes have also been seen to have a larger role in predicting other behaviors (e.g. physical activity of wheelchair users) than instrumental attitudes (Mason et al., 2019). This suggests that an individual's emotional response may influence behavior more than their behavioral beliefs and the role of attitudes in predicting intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination is nuanced.

In contrast to the proposed IBM, injunctive norms and descriptive norms did not make a statistically significant contribution to the model and did not predict intention to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination. This result conflicts with some previous research in this area, where norm

variables have been seen to be significant predictors of intention to intervene and supportive environments have been identified as a motivating factor (McCabe et al., 2013; Meyer, 2008; O'Donoghue & Guerin, 2017). This result suggests that within the current study, perceptions of whether others intervene and whether others think school staff should be intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination does not affect intention to intervene. This result may be due to the high levels of self-efficacy identified within this sample, these individuals may feel confident in their skills to intervene irrelevant of the norms within their school.

Collier et al. (2015) found that the role of norms was inconsistent within their IBM study. This showed that in response to a vignette depicting an incident of verbal LGBTQ+ discrimination, injunctive norms were a significant predictor of intention to intervene. However, in response to a vignette depicting an incident of physical LGBTQ+ discrimination, neither injunctive nor descriptive norms were significant. This may suggest the role of norms is more complex and where the discrimination obviously requires intervention (e.g. in response to physical altercations) norms do not predict behavior. However, where the discrimination is more subtle, norms may have a bigger role (Collier et al., 2015). Within this study, discrimination was described broadly so it is not possible to ascertain whether the type of discrimination impacts the role of norms. A more detailed and nuanced exploration of different kinds of discrimination, including discrimination relating to different groups and those not part of a minority group but who may nevertheless experience bullying or other forms of harm in schools.

This study found that the IBM constructs were useful in explaining intention to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination as the model explained 37% of the variance in behavioral intention. This result is higher than the previous study applying IBM (24%; Collier et al., 2015) and TPB (21%; McCabe et al., 2013) to teacher intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination. One explanation for this result may be that the current study used the full IBM with six predictor variables. Within the TPB study, only three predictor variables were used (attitudes, norms and PBC) and within the IBM study only four were used (beliefs, descriptive norms, injunctive norms and self-efficacy). The significant contribution of both perceived control and self-efficacy would not have been included within these models, consequently, the model variance is lower. This provides evidence for the utility of the full IBM model within educational research.

Overall, these results indicate that within this study school staff who (a) were confident in their ability to intervene effectively, (b) felt in control over their decision to intervene and (c) had a positive emotional response to intervening had stronger intentions to intervene.

Research question 2: Do the attitudes, perceived norms, personal agency and behavioral intentions of school staff predict the extent to which they report intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination?

Within this study, the results showed that intention to intervene significantly predicted the participants' self-reported intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination. In line with the IBM, this was the only significant predictor of perceived past behavior. Although this supported IBM and the TPB model, previous research applying the TPB to advocacy for LGBTQ+ pupils indicated that behavioral intention was not a predictor of actual behavior (McCabe et al., 2013). Actual behavior has not been investigated within an application of IBM to intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination, so this result adds to our understanding of school staff behavior and the utility of IBM.

Previously, McCabe et al. (2013) found PBC was a direct predictor of intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination. An individual's perceived control over the target behavior is thought to affect both intention and behavior, particularly when the individual's determination to perform the behavior is high (Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2008). However, the results in this study illustrated that no other variable, including perceived control and self-efficacy, was a significant predictor of perceived past behavior. Although self-efficacy did approach significance and showed a small strength of association.

The findings from this study demonstrated that this model accounted for 32% of the variance in self-reported intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination, which is only very slightly lower than the model predicting intention to intervene. This is considerably higher than the previous study applying TPB to intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination (3%; McCabe et al., 2013), which provides further support for IBM. However, it is difficult to draw strong conclusions, as the way behavior was measured within each study differed. The variance is also higher than research applying IBM to teacher behavior (Danter, 2005). This result provides support for the value of IBM in helping to understand school staff responses to LGBTQ+ discrimination.

In summary, these results show that teachers who intend to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination are more likely to report actually completing this behavior.

Summary of results and implications

Overall, the results of this study show the IBM has good utility in understanding the extent to which secondary school staff in the UK intends to intervene and report intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination. The model accounted for approximately one third of the variation in behavior and highlighted a range of factors that were significant predictors of intention to intervene and self-reported intervention. This provides support for the

effectiveness of IBM as a theoretical framework and suggests that this model can be used to understand the intentions of school staff and subsequently their behavior. Applying a theoretical model to further understand the actions of school staff can provide a foundation in which to promote further intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination.

These results extend the existing literature that indicates that both individual factors (self-efficacy, attitudes and knowledge of LGBTQ+ issues) and environmental factors (perceived control) are associated with intention to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination. Educational professionals and those in teacher training can use the findings from this study to target their support for staff by focusing on developing knowledge, self-efficacy and positive attitudes and encouraging intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination. This may help to develop more inclusive and supportive environments for LGBTQ+ individuals within secondary schools.

Teachers and those teaching teachers can take away the key message that a range of individual and environmental factors predict the likelihood that staff will intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination. Self-efficacy to intervene, perceived control over intervening, having positive feelings about intervening and knowledge of LGBTQ+ issues were all significantly associated with intention to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination in secondary schools in the UK. This suggests that school staff can be supported to develop the knowledge, skills and confidence to positively affect the experience of LGBTQ+ pupils.

This study used a relational design as it would have been unethical to experimentally manipulate the responses of school staff to LGBTQ+ discrimination. Whilst this approach does not directly add to our understanding of what works, the findings provide direction for the development of interventions and a range of practical implications for educational professionals supporting LGBTQ+ young people (McKenney & Reeves, 2019). Reducing LGBTQ+ discrimination and creating a more supportive and inclusive environment for LGBTQ+ young people may help to improve outcomes.

This research also highlights the relevance of LGBTQ+ inclusivity within schools. In total, 135 school staff participated in the project which illustrates the significance of the topic area. The findings also indicated that participants thought intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination was important and there were positive norms in school toward intervention. This shows that considerable progress has been made regarding LGBTQ+ inclusivity in UK schools in the last few decades. However, LGBTQ+ young people are still more likely to be bullied than their peers and many feel that school is not a safe and welcoming environment (Bradlow et al., 2017). This illustrates that more action is needed to ensure schools are fully inclusive for LGBTQ+ young people. The findings from this study can be used as a framework for developing interventions and targeting support.

Conclusion

Overall, the research indicates that the IBM model can help to understand the intentions and actions of school staff intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination. The outlined IBM predicted 37% of the variance in intention to intervene and 32% of the variance in the extent to which school staff report intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination. Experiential attitudes, perceived control and self-efficacy were significant predictors of intention to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination. Intention to intervene and knowledge of LGBTQ+ issues were significant predictors of self-reported intervention in LGBTQ+ discrimination in secondary schools in the UK. This indicates that while there will undoubtedly be differences in the culture of difference schools, with some supporting a more positive and safe culture than others, it can be said that school staff can be supported to develop the knowledge and skills required to effectively intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination and provide a LGBTQ+ inclusive environment.

Note

1. A medium effect size was used as no effect sizes were available within the previous literature.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

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Appendix. The IBM questionnaire

Construct	Question	Response	Reverse Scored	Page
Other factors	What best describes your gender?	Man Woman Prefer not to say Prefer to self-describe		1
Other factors	What is your age?	18–24 years 25–34 years 35–44 years 45–54 years 55–64 years 65+ years		1
Demographics	What best describes your role within your educational provision?	Administration staff Facilities staff Head of Year or Head of Department Leadership or Management Pastoral support Support staff Teacher		1
Demographics	What best describes your current educational provision?	Academy College Grammar school Independent school Faith school Specialist/Other State maintained school		1
Demographics	What best describes your current educational provision?	Co-educational Single gender – female Single gender – male		1
Demographics	What county do you work in?	Text box		1
Other factors	How many years have you been working in secondary education?	1–5 years 6–10 years 11–15 years 16–20 years 21–25 years 26+ years		1
Other factors	How much training have you have received on working with LGBTQ+ pupils?	None 1–3 h 4–6 h 7–9 h 10+		1
Demographics	To the best of your knowledge, how many lesbian, gay or bisexual pupils have you worked with?	None 1–5 pupils 6–10 pupils 11–15 pupils 16+ pupils		1
Demographics	To the best of your knowledge, how many trans pupils have you worked with?	None 1–5 pupils 6–10 pupils 11–15 pupils 16+ pupils		1
Other factors	How many LGBTQ+ acquaintances do you have?	None 1–5 acquaintances 6–10 acquaintances 11–15 acquaintances 16+ acquaintances		1
Other factors	How knowledgeable do you feel regarding LGBTQ+ terminology, issues and rights?	Not at all knowledgeable/ extremely knowledgeable		1
Behavior	When I have witnessed LGBTQ+ discrimination I have intervened.	Never/always		1

Construct	Question	Response	Reverse Scored	Page
Instrumental attitude (direct)	Overall, I think intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination is ____	Important/unimportant	Yes	2
Experiential attitude (indirect)	I could ignore LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree	Yes	2
Experiential attitude (indirect)	I feel comfortable intervening with LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		2
Experiential attitude (indirect)	It is important to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		2
Perceived control (direct)	The decision of whether I intervene with LGBTQ+ discrimination is ____	Easy/difficult	Yes	2
Perceived control (indirect)	My school have a specific policy, procedure or approach on how to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		2
Perceived control (indirect)	My school educate pupils on LGBTQ+ terminology and issues.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		2
Perceived control (indirect)	My school has training for staff on how to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		2
Perceived control (indirect)	My school celebrates the LGBTQ+ community and discuss issues e.g. with LGBTQ+ clubs, LGBTQ+ posters etc.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		2
Perceived control (indirect)	LGBTQ+ pupils at my school don't want staff intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination against them.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		2
Perceived control (indirect)	At my school pupils will respond negatively to staff intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination e.g. 'are you calling me homophobic?'	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		2
Instrumental attitude (direct)	Overall, I think intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination is ____	Worthless/useful		2
Injunctive norm (direct)	Most people think it is important to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		2
Injunctive norm (indirect)	The Leadership Team at my school think it is important to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		2
Injunctive norm (indirect)	Other members of staff at my school think it is important to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		2
Injunctive norm (indirect)	LGBTQ+ advocates at my school think it is important to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		2
Injunctive norm (indirect)	Parents/carers (of pupils at my school) think it is important to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		2
Injunctive norm (indirect)	Pupils think it is important to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		2
Injunctive norm (motivation to comply)	When it comes to intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination, I want to do what the Leadership Team think I should do.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		3
Injunctive norm (motivation to comply)	When it comes to intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination, I want to do what the other members of staff think I should do.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		3
Injunctive norm (motivation to comply)	When it comes to intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination, I want to do what the LGBTQ+ advocates think I should do.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		3

Construct	Question	Response	Reverse Scored	Page
Injunctive norm (motivation to comply)	When it comes to intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination, I want to do what the parents (of pupils in my school) think I should do.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		3
Injunctive norm (motivation to comply)	When it comes to intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination, I want to do what the pupils think I should do.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		3
Instrumental attitude (direct)	Overall, I believe intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination is _____	Harmful/beneficial		3
Instrumental attitude (indirect)	Intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination can help to educate the perpetrator to understand the implications of their actions.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		3
Instrumental attitude (indirect)	Intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination can help to educate other pupils who witness the discrimination.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		3
Instrumental attitude (indirect)	Intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination can empower and support LGBTQ+ pupils.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		3
Instrumental attitude (indirect)	Intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination can embarrass LGBTQ+ pupils.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		3
Instrumental attitude (indirect)	Intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination can make it worse for LGBTQ+ pupils in the future.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		3
Instrumental attitude (indirect)	Intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination can embarrass the perpetrator(s).	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		3
Perceived control (perceived power)	A specific policy, procedure or approach on how to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Easy/difficult	Yes	3
Perceived control (perceived power)	Education for pupils of LGBTQ+ terminology and issues and celebrating the LGBTQ+ community.	Easy/difficult	Yes	3
Perceived control (perceived power)	Training for staff on how to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Easy/difficult	Yes	3
Perceived control (perceived power)	Celebrating our LGBTQ+ community and discussing issues e.g. with LGBTQ+ clubs, LGBTQ+ posters etc.	Easy/difficult	Yes	3
Perceived control (perceived power)	LGBTQ+ pupils not wanting staff intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination against them.	Easy/difficult	Yes	3
Perceived control (perceived power)	Negative pupil responses e.g. 'are you calling me homophobic?'	Easy/difficult	Yes	3
Descriptive norm (direct)	Most people intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		4
Descriptive norm (indirect)	The Leadership Team at my school intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		4
Descriptive norm (indirect)	Other members of staff intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		4
Descriptive norm (indirect)	LGBTQ+ Advocates intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		4
Descriptive norm (direct)	It is expected that I intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination at school.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		4
Self-Efficacy (indirect)	I feel able to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination even if there was no specific policy, procedure or approach on how to deal with LGBTQ+ discrimination provided by my school.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		4

Construct	Question	Response	Reverse Scored	Page
Self-Efficacy (indirect)	I feel able to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination even if there was no education for pupils on LGBTQ+ terminology and issues.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		4
Self-Efficacy (indirect)	I feel able to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination even if there was no training for staff on how to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		4
Self-Efficacy (indirect)	I feel able to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination even if there was no opportunities to celebrating our LGBTQ+ community and discussing LGBTQ+ issues	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		4
Self-Efficacy (indirect)	I feel able to intervene in LGBTQ+ discrimination even if pupils are likely to react negatively.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		4
Instrumental attitude (evaluation)	When it comes to intervening in LGBTQ+ discrimination, I think: Helping to educate the perpetrator to understand the implications of their actions is____	Good/bad	Yes	4
Instrumental attitude (evaluation)	Educating other pupils who witness LGBTQ+ discrimination is____	Good/bad	Yes	4
Instrumental attitude (evaluation)	Empowering LGBTQ+ pupils is ___	Good/bad	Yes	4
Instrumental attitude (evaluation)	Embarrassing LGBTQ+ pupils is ___	Good/bad	Yes	4
Instrumental attitude (evaluation)	Making the situation worse for LGBTQ+ pupils is ___	Good/bad	Yes	4
Instrumental attitude (evaluation)	Embarrassing the perpetrator is ___	Good/bad	Yes	4
Behavioral intention	If I witnessed LGBTQ+ discrimination at school I want to intervene.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		4
Behavioral intention	If I witnessed LGBTQ+ discrimination at school I intend to intervene.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		4
Behavioral intention	If I witnessed LGBTQ+ discrimination at school I expect to intervene.	Strongly disagree/strongly agree		4
Self-efficacy (direct)	If I witnessed LGBTQ+ discrimination I feel able to intervene.	Uncertain/certain		4
	Would you like to make any comments about your responses?	Text box		4