GIJLSS
Greenation International Journal of Law and Social Sciences
+62 81210467572 https://research.e-greenation.org/GIJLSS greenation.info@gmail.com
GREENATION RESEARCH

DOI: https://doi.org/10.38035/gijlss.v4i4
https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/
Received: 25 June 2026 | **Revised:** 25 September 2026 | **Accepted:** 15 October 2026

Evaluating the Role of Law Enforcement in Addressing Violence in Educational Institutions

Samsul Huda[1*], Raden Muhammad Mukhlasin[2], Putri Indah Safira[3], Femmy Asdiana[4]
[1]Politeknik Ilmu Pelayaran Semarang, Semarang, Indonesia, samsulhuda@pip-semarang.ac.id
[2]Universitas Negeri Semarang, Semarang, Indonesia, motmothaii@students.unnes.ac.id
[3]Politeknik Ilmu Pelayaran Semarang, Semarang, Indonesia, wsputri0@gmail.com
[4]Politeknik Pelayaran Surabaya, Surabaya, Indonesia, femmy.asdiana@poltekpel-sby.ac.id

*Corresponding Author: samsulhuda@pip-semarang.ac.id[1]

Abstract: The study that follows looks at the relationship between the level of violence in society and law enforcement. A high positive link between increasing law enforcement and reported violence was found using regression analysis, as indicated by the 0.768 coefficient. These results do point to a positive association and, in that sense, offer some support for the idea that violence and law enforcement are related. However, care must be taken while making any inferences. Then, rather than a true increase in incidents, the spike in violence would be the result of better reporting and visibility. Additionally, our research revealed that neither variable is normally distributed, highlighting the importance of using strong statistics to guarantee reliable inference. To further explore the subtleties of this link, more study is needed on contextual factors, such as social and economic circumstances, education, and violence prevention initiatives. By advocating for an integrated approach that incorporates larger societal circumstances as a crucial component of efforts to decrease violence and improve civic safety, this study adds to the conversation surrounding the creation of policies in law enforcement.

Keywords: Law Enforcement, Violence, Crime Reporting.

INTRODUCTION

Violence is a wrongful act, and it can be referred to as a form of crime. By definition, the act of violence entails injuring, traumatizing, or even killing another person and causing physical loss and damage (Mubarak & Zuliha Binti Razali, 2022). Data from Semarang City Women's Empowerment and Child Protection Agency shows that in 2021, 170 cases of violence occurred, involving 155 female victims and 15 males. It would therefore appear from this figure that more females than males were victims of violence-an indication of gender injustice in the context of violence (Noer et al., 2025).

Violence does not only happen in household or community settings; even places of learning, like schools, are affected by it. From the figures alone, it can be noted that 57 cases

of violence have occurred among students, 35 in the private sector, and 33 among housewives (Karakuş, 2022). This is indeed the reality of how educational institutions, supposedly a safe haven where knowledge should be nurtured, have become a venue for violent acts. As explained by Suci and Rustam, previous studies have voiced that violence in educational institutions is caused by attitude and behavior that then become bullying by students within schools or communities (Zhang, 2021). Violence can be constructed as an act of physical and non-physical acts carried out secretly.

Violence in educational institutions remains a significant concern, manifesting in various forms including physical, verbal, and symbolic violence (Ridwan, 2023). These acts can occur between students or involve teachers, often stemming from misguided disciplinary measures or lack of understanding about the consequences of violence (Coelho & Santos, 2024). The impact of such violence can be detrimental to students' mental health and character development (Pramono & Dwiyanti Hanandini, 2022). To address this issue, schools have implemented sanctions and disciplinary measures (Melia, 2022). However, more comprehensive approaches are needed, such as promoting non-violent education, encouraging proper discipline, humanizing children's education, and providing continuous training for teachers (Rohmatullah et al., 2023). Additionally, identifying vulnerable times and locations for violent incidents, both within and near school premises, can help in prevention efforts. Ultimately, fostering a safe and nurturing educational environment requires concerted efforts from all stakeholders in the education system (Abner Herry Bajari et al., 2023).

Although some steps to stop violence in school settings - like suspension or expulsion of aggressors - have been taken, violence still usually happens. It means that there is a serious necessity for a more appropriate solution to solve the situation (Ma'unah, 2021). The consequences of unobserved or unaddressed and unresolved violence are very destructive for all sides involved: students, teachers, and society (Sholihat et al., 2023). Therefore, research and prevention remain very crucial for the elimination of violence in the school environment so that schools can still be a secure and appropriate place to learn (Abdullah et al., 2022).

School violence is a complex issue affecting educational institutions worldwide, manifesting in various forms including physical, verbal, and cyberbullying. The crisis of societal values and rapid technological advancements contribute to this problem (Rahmatika, 2021). Research suggests that punitive policies are generally ineffective in increasing campus safety, while supportive practices have shown promise in reducing violent incidents (Crawford & Burns, 2020). Prevention strategies should target multiple groups, including students, parents, and staff, focusing on early identification and intervention. A combined juridical-religious approach within the criminal justice system has been proposed as an effective method for preventing and controlling school violence (Fatoni, 2020). This approach aims to prevent students from becoming victims, educate them against repeating offenses, and instill positive character traits (Safir, 2022). Ultimately, addressing school violence requires a comprehensive, multi-faceted approach involving the entire community (Dias, 2023).

This research is targeted to be done from January 2024 to June 2024 and will aim at the analysis of violence in an educational setting. This study will cover the analysis of the level of violence characterizing the chosen institution, will analyze the effectiveness of law enforcement measures taken, and assess their usefulness in deterring violence incidents (Khoiri, 2018). With the help of a quantitative approach, the paper therefore utilizes an empirical juridical methodology to paint quite clearly and colorfully the degree to which violence is encountered within an educational institution and further, what strategies are used to keep such incidences under check (Figueiredo et al., 2023).

Three research questions guided the study. First, which legal instruments regulate the prevention, handling and sanctioning of violence at the institution, and what enforcement measures do they prescribe? Second, what levels of law enforcement and violence did

respondents report? Third, how strongly, and how robustly, is reported law enforcement associated with reported violence? Contributing factors such as socioeconomic background, psychological aspects, peer dynamics, family environment, media exposure and local crime rates are recognised in the literature as important, but they were not measured in this study; they are discussed as limitations and as directions for future research.

The legal analysis reviews the legislation and regulations that apply to violence in educational settings and assesses whether their enforcement provisions are sufficiently clear and complete (see Method). The empirical analysis then examines whether the enforcement measures reported by respondents are associated with the level of violence they reported. The study does not test the causal effect of enforcement on violence over time.

By addressing these questions, the study contributes evidence on the relationship between enforcement and reported violence in one educational institution, and on the gap between what the law prescribes and what is implemented. Because the design is cross-sectional and the sample small, the findings are exploratory, and any policy implications must be read together with the limitations discussed below. Reducing violence in educational settings in a sustainable way is likely to require collaboration among educators, policymakers, parents, law-enforcement agencies and students, supported by adequate funding and continuous monitoring.

METHODS

This study used a quantitative research approach within an empirical juridical (socio-legal) design, implemented as a convergent design with two strands. The doctrinal strand identified and interpreted the legal norms that regulate violence and its enforcement in educational settings, establishing what the law requires of the institution. The empirical strand measured how enforcement was implemented and perceived, and how much violence was reported, using a questionnaire, observations and institutional records. The two strands were analysed separately and integrated at the interpretation stage, as described below. All procedures described in this section were carried out between January and June 2024.

Legal Materials and Doctrinal Analysis

The primary legal materials examined were Law No. 35 of 2014 amending Law No. 23 of 2002 on Child Protection; Law No. 12 of 2022 on Sexual Violence Crimes; the Ministry of Education and Culture guidelines on the prevention and handling of violence in schools (Nadiem Anwar Makarim, 2020); and the institution's own policies, disciplinary records and safety protocols reviewed in the documentation study. Secondary legal materials were the academic and policy literature cited in this article. No court decisions or legal cases involving the institution were analysed, so the legal analysis is limited to legislation, regulations and institutional rules; court decisions summarised in secondary sources (Arsa Ilmi Budiarti et al., 2024) serve only as context.

The instruments were analysed doctrinally using grammatical, systematic and teleological interpretation. Each enforcement-related provision was coded against four analytical criteria: (1) normative clarity, that is, whether the prohibited conduct and the responsible actors are clearly defined; (2) procedural completeness, that is, whether the provision covers reporting, investigation, sanction and victim protection; (3) orientation, that is, whether the measure is preventive, punitive or restorative; and (4) proportionality of the sanction to the conduct.

Units of Analysis

Two kinds of unit were used. The legal unit of analysis was the individual provision (article or clause) of each legal instrument and institutional regulation. The empirical units were the individual respondent (n = 49) for the questionnaire data, the incident record for the

institutional documents, and the observation session and location for the observation data. Law enforcement (X1–X10) and violence (Y1–Y10) were measured at the respondent level as the sum of ten items each; the maximum possible score of each scale was 50.

Integration of Juridical and Statistical Analysis

Integration took place at three points. First, the legal instruments identified in the doctrinal analysis provided the normative reference against which the law-enforcement items (X1–X10) were interpreted. Second, the results of the statistical analysis were compared with the doctrinal findings to identify gaps between the law as written and the law as implemented, for example a procedure required by regulation but rarely reported by respondents. Third, the observation notes and institutional records were used to interpret the statistical results, in particular to assess whether a positive association between enforcement and reported violence is consistent with enforcement being reactive to incidents or with improved reporting. The statistical analysis was not used to test legal doctrine, and the doctrinal analysis was not used to infer causation.

Study Procedure

The study was carried out in the following order: (1) inventory and doctrinal analysis of the legal materials; (2) development of the questionnaire and assessment of its validity and reliability; (3) administration of the questionnaire to all 49 respondents; (4) direct observation in the educational environment; (5) review of institutional documents and incident records; and (6) statistical analysis and integration of the findings.

Population and Sample

The population consisted of the students enrolled at the institution during the study period, drawn from various academic levels and disciplines. A census technique was used: all 49 eligible students were included as respondents. Because the study covered one institution and 49 respondents, the findings cannot be generalised to other educational institutions. Limitations include possible response bias, social-desirability bias in reporting sensitive experiences, and the possibility that less visible or marginalised students under-reported violence.

Data Collection Methods:

Questionnaires

Structured questionnaires were administered to collect quantitative data on the prevalence of violence, the law-enforcement actions taken, and respondents' perceptions of these measures. The instrument consisted of two ten-item scales, law enforcement (X1–X10) and violence (Y1–Y10), using Likert-type items together with demographic questions. Its psychometric properties were assessed with Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin and Bartlett tests, parallel analysis and Cronbach's alpha, as reported in the Results. The questionnaire included control mechanisms intended to reduce response bias.

Observations

Direct observations were conducted in the educational environment to record occurrences of violence and the context in which they happened. The observations covered student interactions and behavioural patterns during school activities and identified the locations and times at which incidents were most likely to occur. The observations were used descriptively and to interpret the statistical findings; they were not analysed statistically.

Documentation Studies

Documents, reports and records from the Semarang Maritime Science Polytechnic and related authorities were reviewed to supplement the questionnaire and observation data. The review covered institutional policies, incident reports, disciplinary records, safety protocols and statistics on violence cases, and compared documented procedures with the practices observed and reported in order to identify discrepancies between the rules and their implementation.

Data Analysis

Data analysis followed five stages. (1) Instrument quality: Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett tests and parallel analysis were run for each scale, and Cronbach's alpha and alpha-if-item-deleted were calculated. (2) Descriptive inspection of the distribution of each variable, including skewness and ceiling effects. (3) Assumption checks: the Shapiro–Wilk test, density plots, and residual plots with a histogram of standardised residuals. (4) Inference: the Pearson correlation and ordinary least squares regression of violence on law enforcement. Because the assumption checks showed that the data were non-normal, bounded and affected by extreme cases, these results are interpreted as exploratory associations, and rank-based, bootstrap and heteroscedasticity-robust estimation is identified as a necessary next step (see Limitations). (5) Integration: the statistical results were interpreted against the doctrinal findings and the observation and document data, as described above. Observation and document data were analysed descriptively by content analysis. The design is cross-sectional and observational, so results are reported as associations and not as causal effects.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Validity test

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test was conducted for the independent variables to establish the adequacy of data for factor analysis, serving as a crucial preliminary diagnostic tool before proceeding with more complex multivariate analytical procedures. It is a statistical measure that assesses the suitability of the sampling and shows to what extent the data may or may not be appropriate for factor analysis by evaluating the proportion of variance among the variables that might be common variance.

Table 1. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Test for Independent Variables Validity

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test

	MSA
Overall MSA	0.500
X1	0.500
X2	0.500
X3	0.500
X4	0.500
X5	0.500
X6	0.500
X7	0.500
X8	0.500
X9	0.500
X10	0.500

Bartlett's test

X^2	df	p

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test

			MSA
∞	**45.000**	**< .001**	

For the independent variables (law enforcement), the overall KMO measure of sampling adequacy and the MSA of every item (X1–X10) were all exactly 0.500, and Bartlett's χ^2 was reported as infinite (Table 1). Identical MSA values and an infinite χ^2 are not a normal outcome with real data; they indicate a degenerate (singular) correlation matrix, which arises when items are perfectly collinear or duplicated. This is consistent with the reliability analysis (Table 3), in which X9 and X10 correlate perfectly. Under these conditions the KMO and Bartlett results cannot be interpreted as evidence that the data are adequate for factor analysis, and they are not used here as evidence of validity. Table 1 is reported as originally produced, for transparency.

Scree Plot

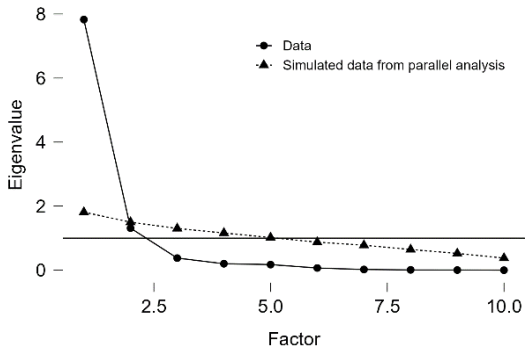


Figure 1. Scree Plot Independent Variables Validity

The scree plot for the independent variables (Figure 1) shows one dominant factor with an eigenvalue close to 8 out of a possible 10, that is, about 80% of the total variance, followed by a sharp drop. With a singular correlation matrix and at least one duplicated item, this pattern more likely reflects item redundancy (and possibly common-method bias) than a well-defined unidimensional construct, so it is not interpreted as evidence of construct validity. The construct validity of the law-enforcement scale is therefore regarded as not established in this study and is listed as a limitation.

Table 2. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Test for Dependent Variables Validity

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test

	MSA
Overall MSA	0.839
Y1	0.877
Y2	0.813
Y3	0.818
Y4	0.760
Y5	0.927
Y6	0.757
Y7	0.845
Y8	0.849
Y9	0.894
Y10	0.870

Bartlett's test

X^2	df	p
1034.156	45.000	< .001

This gives assurance that items on the dependent variables will be suitable for further factor analysis, being the validity test for the dependent variables through Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Test and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. The general result of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test indicates an overall MSA of 0.839, which is highly above the minimum threshold of 0.6 recommended, hence indicating highly suitable data for factor analysis. This means the items of the dependent variables have strong and relevant correlations for the analysis. Also, each item in the dependent variable showed adequate values in terms of MSA, the highest being Y5 at 0.927, while the lowest was Y6 with 0.757. The values indicate that all items are suitable for further analysis.

Bartlett's test was significant: $X^2 = 1034.156$, df = 45, $p < .001$. This would imply that Bartlett's Test was highly significant, which in turn means that a correlation matrix among the items is not an identity matrix, indicating further variability in the data and justifying factor analysis. In this case, the validity of the items in the dependent variables for further analysis is strong, as based on the results of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's Test. With a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of 0.839 and significant results from Bartlett's Test, there is a strong basis to proceed with factor analysis, which is expected to delve deeper into the insights from the constructs measured within this research.

Scree Plot

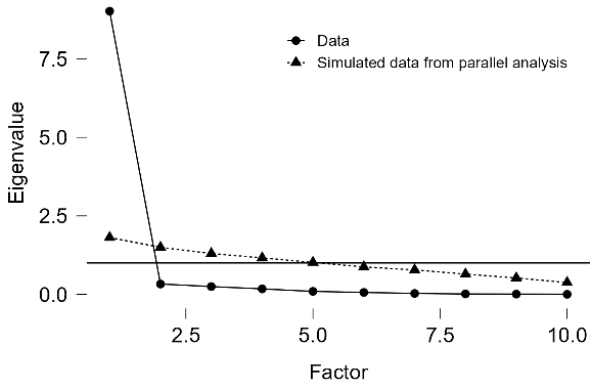


Figure 2. Scree Plot Dependent Variables Validity

The Scree Plot maps the distribution of eigenvalues for the factors extracted from the analysis of dependent variables. This was further supported by the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test, which confirmed data adequacy for factor analysis, with an overall MSA of 0.839, indicating that the sampling was highly adequate.

From the plot, we have the actual eigenvalues represented by the circles ● and the simulated eigenvalues from the parallel analysis shown by the triangles ▲. This curve radically drops after the first factor, meaning that the great bulk of the variation in the data is explained by the first factor. As indicated, the "elbow" position of the curve indicates that only one or a few factors are meaningful with further eigenvalues falling below 1.0 and adding little additional explanatory power to the model.

The numbers of factors to retain are determined by the comparison with simulated eigenvalues via parallel analysis, which serves as a more robust and statistically rigorous

method compared to traditional approaches such as the Kaiser criterion or scree plot interpretation alone. In the current case, actual eigenvalues fall below the simulated ones after the second factor, suggesting that factors beyond the second may not be statistically significant and could potentially represent noise or random variation rather than meaningful underlying constructs. This statistical threshold provides a clear demarcation point for factor retention decisions. The result confirms that only one or two factors need to be retained for further analysis, hence supporting results from the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test that the dependent variable items strongly uphold their validity and are suitable for factor analysis. However, it is critical to question whether the reduction to such a limited number of factors might oversimplify the complexity of the construct being measured, potentially losing nuanced dimensions that could be theoretically important despite not meeting strict statistical criteria. Furthermore, researchers must consider whether the sample size is adequate to detect subtler factorial structures, as parallel analysis can be sensitive to sample characteristics. The decision to retain factors should therefore balance statistical evidence with theoretical justification, ensuring that the final factor solution not only meets mathematical requirements but also provides meaningful and interpretable representations of the underlying phenomena being investigated, while acknowledging potential limitations in capturing the full complexity of human behavior or attitudes.

Reliability Test

Table 3. Frequentist Scale Reliability Statistics

Estimate	Cronbach's α
Point estimate	0.792
95% CI lower bound	0.676
95% CI upper bound	0.872

Note. Of the observations, pairwise complete cases were used. The following items correlated negatively with the scale: X3, X5, X6. Variables X9 and X10 correlated perfectly.

Table 3 reports a Cronbach's alpha of 0.792 (95% CI 0.676–0.872). This estimate cannot be accepted as the reliability of either scale: it was computed over the pooled set of law-enforcement (X) and violence (Y) items, which measure different constructs, and the table note shows that X3, X5 and X6 correlate negatively with the scale and that X9 and X10 correlate perfectly. An alpha computed under these conditions is not interpretable, and the reliability of the two scales is therefore regarded as not established. Scale-level alpha should be recomputed separately for each scale after the duplicated item is removed and the negatively correlated items are checked.

Table 4. Cronbach's α

Frequentist Individual Item Reliability Statistics	
	If item dropped
Item	Cronbach's α
X1	0.778
X2	0.762
X3	0.861
X4	0.758
X5	0.872
X6	0.873
X7	0.762
X8	0.777
X9	0.771

Frequentist Individual Item Reliability Statistics	
	If item dropped
Item	Cronbach's α
X10	0.771
Y1	0.757
Y2	0.756
Y3	0.765
Y4	0.762
Y5	0.757
Y6	0.748
Y7	0.771
Y8	0.754
Y9	0.754
Y10	0.752

In Table 4, dropping X3, X5 or X6 raises alpha (to 0.861, 0.872 and 0.873, respectively, compared with 0.758–0.778 for the other X items). These items therefore weaken, rather than strengthen, the internal consistency of the scale, which is consistent with their negative item–scale correlations. The most likely explanations are reverse-keyed items that were not recoded, or items that respondents did not interpret as intended. The wording of these items should be checked and they should be recoded or removed. X9 and X10 are duplicates, and only one can be retained. For the violence items (Y1–Y10), the alpha-if-deleted values lie between 0.748 and 0.771, so no violence item materially weakens the scale. All values in Table 4 are based on the pooled item set and must be recomputed for each scale separately.

Correlation Test

Table 5. Pearson's Correlations

Variable		Law Enforcement	Violence
1. Law Enforcement	Pearson's r	—	
	p-value	—	
2. Violence	Pearson's r	0.534	—
	p-value	< .001	—

Table 5 shows a positive Pearson correlation between law enforcement and violence ($r = 0.534$, $p < .001$), which is a moderate association: respondents who reported more law enforcement also tended to report more violence. Because both variables are strongly non-normal, bounded and affected by ceiling effects, and because the law-enforcement scale has the measurement problems described above, this coefficient is treated as descriptive and exploratory. A rank-based coefficient was not computed in this study (see Limitations). The correlation shows that the two variables vary together; it does not show that either causes the other.

Table 6. Assumption checks

Shapiro-Wilk Test for Bivariate Normality				
			Shapiro-Wilk	p
Law Enforcement	-	Violence	0.524	< .001

The Shapiro–Wilk test (Table 6) gave $W = 0.524$, $p < .001$, so the null hypothesis of normality was rejected. The density plots in Figure 3 show why: both variables are bounded and strongly skewed, with most values near the upper end of the scale (law enforcement mostly

between 35 and 50, violence mostly between 40 and 50) and a few very low values. The Pearson correlation and the ordinary least squares regression assume approximately normal residuals, so their results are interpreted as exploratory.

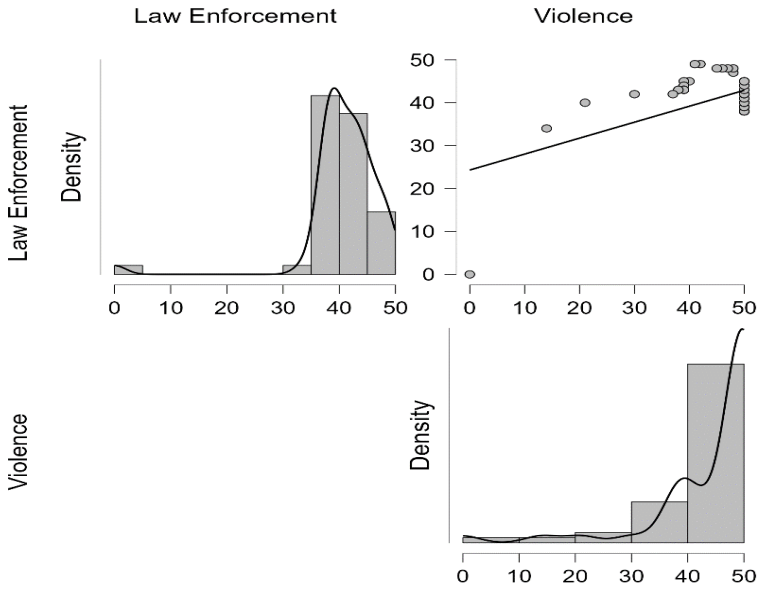


Figure 3. Correlation Plot

Below is the correlation plot, showing the relationship between two of the most important variables: "Law Enforcement" and "Violence" (Asni, 2020). Both distributions are left-skewed, with a long tail toward low values and most observations at the upper end of the scale. Violence in particular is piled up at its maximum of 50, a ceiling effect that limits variation and attenuates linear relationships. The scatter plot also shows one case with a value of 0 on both variables and a few other low-scoring cases. If the lowest attainable score of each scale is above 0, this case may be a missing value coded as 0 and should be checked against the raw questionnaire. A fitted line through such data is strongly influenced by these few low cases. Similarly, the "Violence" density plot shows, in a similar way, a skewed distribution-the majority of the values are at the high end of the scale-and confirms its non-normality (Desyana et al., 2022). This pattern is particularly concerning as it indicates that despite seemingly high levels of law enforcement measures, violence rates remain persistently elevated in many educational settings. The scatter plot with the fitted line reveals the actual correlation between these variables, allowing for a critical examination of whether increased law enforcement truly correlates with reduced violence or if other confounding factors, such as school culture, community environment, or socioeconomic conditions, play more significant roles in determining violence levels within schools.

Moving to the top-right scatter plot, we can observe a graphical presentation of "Law Enforcement" against "Violence." The fitted line in the graph is positively sloped, which may indicate that as the enforcement measures are increased, the violent incidents also grow accordingly. However, this counterintuitive correlation raises critical questions about causality and interpretation, as it challenges the conventional assumption that stricter law enforcement naturally leads to violence reduction. This paradoxical relationship could suggest several alternative explanations: perhaps increased enforcement is a reactive response to rising violence rather than a preventive measure, or enforcement strategies may inadvertently escalate tensions and confrontations within educational settings. Consistency of data points around that line suggests a predictable pattern in the relationship between "Law Enforcement" and

"Violence"; though there are some outliers. These outliers warrant careful examination as they may represent institutions that have successfully implemented enforcement differently, potentially offering valuable insights into more effective approaches. Furthermore, this positive correlation might indicate that current enforcement methods focus predominantly on punitive measures rather than addressing underlying causes, or that the metrics used to measure enforcement intensity fail to capture the quality and appropriateness of interventions, highlighting the need for more nuanced assessment frameworks.

In summary, the fitted line in Figure 3 slopes upward, indicating that higher reported law enforcement goes with higher reported violence. Given the ceiling effects, the influential low-scoring cases and the non-normality, the size of this slope is uncertain and should be confirmed with robust methods in future analyses. Plausible explanations that the present data cannot separate are that enforcement is reactive to violence, that more enforcement leads to more incidents being detected and reported, and that unmeasured contextual factors affect both(Arsa Ilmi Budiarti et al., 2024).

Linear Regression Test

Table 7. Model Summary - Violence

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	RMSE
H_0	0.000	0.000	0.000	10.272
H_1	0.534	0.285	0.270	8.779

The Model Summary for the variable "Violence" has some critical statistics assessing the overall fit and predictive accuracy of the model at hand. The R of 0.000 value in the first model, H0, indicates no association between independent variables and the dependent variable, "Violence." In this model, the value of R2 is 0.000, which explains that the "Violence" data is not explained by this model. The Adjusted R2 also has a similarly very tiny value of 0.000, further establishing the fact that this model does not provide any effective prediction. Besides, the RMSE is 10.272, showing that the average deviation among the predictions from actual observations is very high.

On the other hand, the alternative model, H_1, has an improved result with an R value of 0.534. This positive correlation presents the relationship of independent variables and "Violence" at a moderate level. The R^2 value of 0.285 suggests that about 28.5% of variance in "Violence" can be accounted for through independent variables in this model. The adjusted R^2 of 0.270 was lower, factoring in the number of predictors within this model and giving evidence that the model is relevant. Also, the RMSE of 8.779 is indicative of a better goodness of fit by the model in predicting the actual values compared to H_0-the predicted values are closer to the actual data points.

All in all, the results indicate that while the null model was unable to explain any variation within "Violence," the alternative model did provide evidence for at least a moderate association with an increased predictive capability; the identified independent variables could have some amount of influence.

Table 8. Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized	Standard Error	Standardized	t	p
H_0	(Intercept)	44.489	1.498	—	29.692	< .001
H_1	(Intercept)	13.122	7.508	—	1.748	0.087
	Law Enforcement	0.768	0.181	0.534	4.240	< .001

The Coefficients table reports how much each predictor in the models contributes to the dependent variable "Violence" as well as the statistical significance of these effects. The null modelH_0 reports an intercept of 44.489, with the standard error of 1.498. This means that when all the predictors are zero, "Violence" would be approximately 44.489. Such an intercept is statistically significant in that its t-value is 29.692 and the p-value is less than .001.

In the alternative model (H_1) the intercept was 13.122 (SE = 7.508, t = 1.748, p = 0.087), which does not differ significantly from zero at the 0.05 level. It also lies outside the range of the observed data and has no substantive interpretation, because nearly all observations of law enforcement are 35 or higher. It is reported for completeness only.

Also, in model H_1, the coefficient for the predictor "Law Enforcement" is 0.768, and its standard error is 0.181. This coefficient is positive, which indicates that for every one-unit increase in "Law Enforcement," the "Violence" is expected to increase by about 0.768 units. The standardized coefficient is 0.534, showing that there is a moderate effect size. This is a statistically significant predictor given the t-value of 4.240 and a p-value less than .001, hence there is good evidence that the predictor "Law Enforcement" contributes meaningfully to variation in levels of "Violence."

Taken together, the regression shows a statistically significant positive association between law enforcement and violence in this sample (B = 0.768, 95% CI 0.404 to 1.132 based on SE = 0.181 and 47 degrees of freedom, $p < .001$, $R^2 = 0.285$): respondents who reported higher law enforcement also reported higher violence. This estimate should not be described as robust, and it is not evidence that enforcement increases violence. The diagnostics in Figure 4 show problems with the model: the residuals are structured rather than randomly scattered around zero, the histogram of standardised residuals is left-skewed, one observation has a predicted value of about 13 and a large negative residual, and the ceiling effect at the top of the violence scale produces a visible diagonal pattern of residuals. These features indicate violations of the normality and homoscedasticity assumptions and the presence of influential cases, so the estimate is treated as exploratory. The design is cross-sectional and observational. Explanations that remain open include reactive enforcement (enforcement increasing after violence occurs), better detection and reporting where enforcement is stronger, and confounding by unmeasured contextual factors such as school climate and socioeconomic conditions (Lantemona et al., 2025).

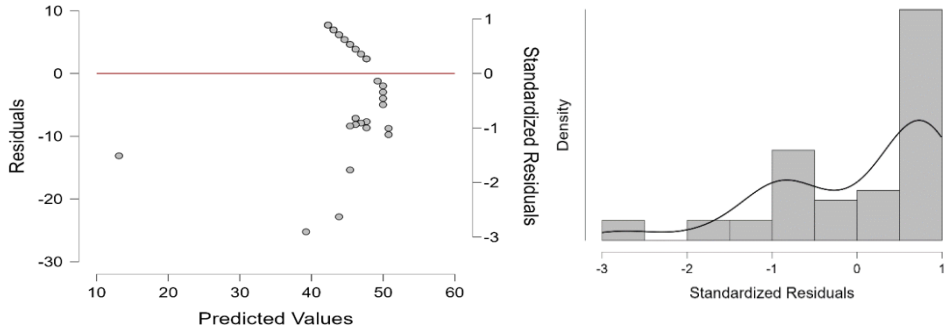


Figure 4. Residuals vs. Predicted - Standardized Residuals Histogram

Second Discussion of the Second Argument

This study found a moderate positive association between law enforcement and violence (B = 0.768, r = 0.534), as discussed in the Results. The finding is consistent with the expectation that an association exists, but it does not show that stricter enforcement changes the level of violence.

It should be taken into consideration that while these results point to the presence of such a relationship, interpretation of these findings should be treated with caution and subjected to rigorous methodological scrutiny. A positive relationship could represent a number of more complex social dynamics that extend beyond simple cause-and-effect assumptions. One possibility is that increased law enforcement may simply be uncovering and reporting more incidents of violence and driving up measured violence, creating a statistical artifact rather than reflecting actual increases in violent behavior (Nadiem Anwar Makarim, 2020). This brings us to the thought that perhaps stricter law enforcement does not help in bringing down violence but puts it in a light where existing violence becomes more apparent, essentially functioning as a better detection mechanism rather than a preventive measure. Furthermore, enhanced surveillance and reporting systems may capture previously unreported cases, leading to documentation inflation that masks the true underlying trends. This is relevant to the challenges between law enforcement agencies and society in general in their attempt to establish security, particularly when considering resource allocation, community trust, and the potential for over-policing in certain demographics. Additionally, the correlation might be influenced by confounding variables such as socioeconomic conditions, cultural shifts, or changes in legal definitions of violence. Therefore, policymakers must critically examine whether apparent increases in violence statistics actually represent deteriorating safety or merely improved transparency and accountability within educational institutions, as misinterpretation could lead to inappropriate policy responses that fail to address root causes.

Furthermore, both variables were non-normally distributed and showed ceiling effects. Parametric estimates can be biased under these conditions, so the Pearson and ordinary least squares results are interpreted as exploratory, and rank-based, bootstrap and heteroscedasticity-robust estimates should be used in follow-up analyses. Longitudinal designs and larger samples are needed to specify the relationship better.

Furthermore, the effects that take place between law enforcement and violence must be better specified through rigorous empirical investigation and longitudinal studies. For instance, the social and economic setting of a neighborhood, public education, and availability of programs regarding violence prevention can act as moderator or mediator variables to explain such a relationship, influencing both the intensity and frequency of violent incidents within educational institutions (Novita et al., 2021). These variables should be considered in future research to give a fuller view of the effects of violence in society, particularly examining how resource allocation, community engagement initiatives, and collaborative partnerships between schools and law enforcement agencies impact outcomes. Additionally, critical analysis must address whether current enforcement approaches disproportionately affect certain demographic groups, potentially perpetuating systemic inequalities rather than resolving them. The intersectionality of race, class, and socioeconomic status requires careful examination to ensure that violence prevention strategies do not inadvertently criminalize vulnerable student populations. Moreover, researchers must investigate the psychological impact of heightened security measures on students' sense of safety versus their feelings of being surveilled and restricted. Understanding these complex dynamics is essential for developing evidence-based interventions that address root causes rather than merely treating symptoms of educational violence.

All in all, this research will contribute to a better understanding of the relationship between law enforcement and violence but at the same time will point toward the need for a more holistic approach in designing the policies of law enforcement (Juandanilsyah et al., 2020). It is not sufficient just to take law enforcement action; what is also necessary is a deep understanding of the social and economic context and of factors influencing violent behavior in society so as to create a safe environment (Umam et al., 2019). This requires integrating multi-dimensional strategies that encompass not only punitive measures but also preventive

interventions, including mental health support services, counseling programs, conflict resolution training, and community engagement initiatives (Giandono et al., 2016). Educational institutions must collaborate with law enforcement agencies, social workers, psychologists, parents, and community leaders to establish comprehensive violence prevention frameworks that address both immediate threats and long-term systemic issues (Rosidah, 2019). Moreover, policymakers should recognize that effective violence reduction cannot be achieved through legislation alone without adequate funding, resources, and ongoing professional development for school personnel. The research emphasizes the critical importance of evidence-based approaches that regularly assess program effectiveness, adapt to emerging challenges, and incorporate feedback from all stakeholders. Ultimately, creating genuinely safe educational environments demands a paradigm shift from reactive enforcement toward proactive prevention, fostering cultures of respect, inclusion, and empathy while simultaneously addressing the underlying structural inequalities and social determinants that perpetuate cycles of violence within and beyond school boundaries.

Integration of the Juridical and Empirical Findings

The doctrinal analysis showed that the legal framework combines punitive measures with preventive and protective obligations (Lantemona et al., 2025; Nadiem Anwar Makarim, 2020). The empirical data show that, at the institution studied, reported enforcement and reported violence were positively associated. Read together, these findings suggest that enforcement at the institution may operate mainly after violence has occurred, which is the reactive pattern that the preventive provisions of the legal framework are intended to avoid. This reading is an interpretation and not a tested conclusion, and it is equally consistent with the alternative explanation that stronger enforcement increases the reporting of incidents.

Limitations

This study has several limitations. The design is cross-sectional and observational, so no causal inference is possible and the direction of the relationship cannot be established. The sample is small (n = 49) and drawn from one institution, which limits generalisation and statistical power. Both variables are self-reported, non-normal and affected by ceiling effects. The law-enforcement scale contained duplicated and negatively correlated items, so its validity and reliability are not established. The scatter plot and residual plot show at least one extreme case (0 on both scales), and the regression estimate may be sensitive to it. Rank-based, bootstrap and heteroscedasticity-robust estimation was not performed and is needed to confirm the estimate. Contextual variables such as socioeconomic conditions, school climate and prevention programmes were not measured. Future studies should use a validated instrument, a larger multi-institution sample, longitudinal data and appropriate robust or multilevel models.

CONCLUSION

This study found a statistically significant, moderate positive association between law enforcement and the level of violence reported at the institution ($r = 0.534$; $B = 0.768$, $p < .001$). The association is not evidence that enforcement causes violence: the design is cross-sectional, the sample is small, the data are non-normal with ceiling effects, and the law-enforcement scale has unresolved measurement problems. The positive association may reflect enforcement that reacts to violence, or better reporting and visibility of incidents, rather than a real increase in violent acts. Robust and rank-based methods are therefore needed for valid inference with data of this kind.

Moreover, social and economic context, public education and existing violence-prevention programmes are plausible moderators or mediators of the relationship between law enforcement and violence, but they were not measured in this study and the present data cannot

test them. These factors are likely to determine whether legal interventions succeed, because enforcement cannot operate in isolation from the broader societal structures that shape individual behaviour and institutional responses. Future research should examine how poverty, community resources, parental involvement, teacher training, counselling services and cultural attitudes toward violence influence the effectiveness of legal measures, and whether punitive approaches need to be complemented by restorative justice, mental health support, conflict resolution programmes and community engagement.

In a nutshell, while the police have a central role to play in dealing with violence, policy needs to be framed within a broad social and economic context that shapes violent behavior. This requires recognizing that law enforcement alone cannot solve deeply rooted societal problems without addressing underlying issues such as poverty, unemployment, inadequate education systems, substance abuse, mental health crises, and social inequality that often serve as catalysts for violent incidents. Such a multi-disciplinary perspective can help forge more effective policies on reducing violence and improving community safety by integrating collaborative efforts among various stakeholders including educators, social workers, mental health professionals, community leaders, policymakers, and families. However, critical questions remain about resource allocation, inter-agency coordination effectiveness, and whether current institutional frameworks truly prioritize prevention over punishment, demanding continuous evaluation and adaptive strategies that respond to evolving community needs.

REFERENCES

Abdullah, M., Hanafi, H., Khalid, A., Wardiansyah, G., & Riinawati, R. (2022). Women Victims of Domestic Violence as a Gender-Based Crime. International Journal of Social Science, Education, Communication and Economics (SINOMICS JOURNAL), 1(1), 9–14. https://doi.org/10.54443/sj.v1i1.2

Abner Herry Bajari, Yusuf Gabriel Maniagasi, Semuel Risal, Maddi, & Nimbrot Waniopi. (2023). Empowerment of Women and Children to Realize Justice and Equality from a Gender Perspective. Jurnal Multidisiplin Madani, 3(5), 944–958. https://doi.org/10.55927/mudima.v3i5.3339

Arsa Ilmi Budiarti, Marsha Maharani, Maria Tarigan, Bestha Inatsan Ashila, Dio Ashar Wicaksana, & Adery Ardhan Saputro. (2024). REFLEKSI PENANGANAN KEKERASAN SEKSUAL DI INDONESIA (Indeksasi terhadap putusan pengadilan tahun 2018 – 2020) (A. R. Akbari (ed.); Kedua). Indonesia Judicial Research Society (IJRS). https://ijrs.or.id/wp-content/uploads/2024/05/REFLEKSI-PENANGANAN-KEKERASAN-SEKSUAL-DI-INDONESIA-Indeksasi-terhadap-putusan-pengadilan-tahun-2018-–-2020_Cetakan-kedua.pdf

Asni. (2020). *Perlindungan perempuan dan anak dalam hukum Indonesia (Pendekatan integratif).* https://repositori.uin-alauddin.ac.id/18318/1/DR.%20HJ.%20ASNI%2C%20M.HI..pdf

Coelho, H. E., & Santos, S. M. A. V. (2024). the Teachers' Perception of the Religious Education Component To Reduce Violence in Public Schools. Revista Foco, 17(2), e4364. https://doi.org/10.54751/revistafoco.v17n2-024

Crawford, C., & Burns, R. (2020). Support or punishment practices: What works to reduce school violence. Social Sciences, 9(12), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci9120220

Desyana, S. R. A., Haq, M. N., Antika, R., & Eridani, A. D. (2022). Analisis Tantangan Implementasi dan Kebutuhan Operasionalisasi Undang-Undang Tindak Pidana Kekerasan Seksual (UU TPKS). In C. S. Martha & M. Rahmawati (Eds.), International NGO Forum for Indonesian Development (INFID) (1st ed.). International NGO Forum for Indonesian Development (INFID).

Dias, R. J. de L. (2023). Confronting school violence in Brazil: insights from social psychology for safer educational environments. Contribuciones a Las Ciencias Sociales, 16(10), 22508–22523. https://doi.org/10.55905/revconv.16n.10-225

Fatoni, S. (2020). VIOLENCE ERADICATION IN EDUCATION THROUGH A JURIDICAL-RELIGIOUS APPROACH: Seeking an Ideal Model under the Criminal Justice System. Al-Risalah: Forum Kajian Hukum Dan Sosial Kemasyarakatan, 20(1), 87–95. https://doi.org/10.30631/alrisalah.v20i1.319

Figueiredo, C. C. de, Florentino, M. de A., Mendes, I. dos S. S., & Lima, S. B. T. de. (2023). Aggressiveness X Violence in the School Environment. Revista Ibero-Americana de Humanidades, Ciências e Educação, 9(6), 1959–1967. https://doi.org/10.51891/rease.v9i6.10371

Giandono, R., Widodo, R., Reswanto, H., Meyria, A., & Abdillah, B. (2016). BUKU PENDAMPING UNTUK GURU (1st ed.). Perpustakaan Nasional. https://www.komnasham.go.id/files/20161214-buku-pendamping-guru-dalam-pembelajaran-$R0.pdf

Juandanilsyah, Firngadi, A., Anom, E., Fitriono, H., Rozy, N. F., Hidayat, R., & Firdhany, D. E. (2020). Sekolah Gaul Anti Kekerasan (1st ed., Vol. 17). Direktorat SMA. https://repositori.kemendikdasmen.go.id/22442/1/SEKOLAH GAUL ANTI KEKERASAN.pdf

Karakuş, G. (2022). Literature Review of Studies about Violence at School and Recommendations for Teachers. Acta Educationis Generalis, 12(3), 63–84. https://doi.org/10.2478/atd-2022-0024

Khoiri, Q. (2018). Dimensions Of Islamic Education In The Prevention Bullying ; Assessing In an Effort of Character Building for Children In School. Publikasi Pendidikan, 8(2). https://doi.org/10.26858/publikan.v8i2.5560

Lantemona, R. S., Tuwaidan, H. F. D., & Pande-Iroot, P. A. E. (2025). ANALISIS YURIDIS KEKERASAN TERHADAP ANAK DI SEKOLAH, DITINJAU DARI UNDANG-UNDANG NOMOR 35 TAHUN 2014 TENTANG PERLINDUNGAN ANAK. Lex_Crimen Jurnal Fakultas Hukum UNSRAT, 13(3), 12. https://share.google/SCBUBWflH6nSzcXNh

Ma'unah, S. N. (2021). The Concept of Gender Justice from the Perspective of Indonesian Women Ulama. Santri: Journal of Pesantren and Fiqh Sosial, 2(1), 65–76. https://doi.org/10.35878/santri.v2i1.284

Melia, Y. (2022). Symbolic Violence In Educational Institutions in Indonesia; Case Study of Private High School in Padang City, West Sumatera. Indonesian Journal of Religion and Society, 4(2), 80–87. https://doi.org/10.36256/ijrs.v4i2.283

Mubarak, M. Z., & Zuliha Binti Razali, S. (2022). Preventing Violence and Extremism in Indonesian Educational Institutions: Policies and Strategies. KnE Social Sciences, 2022, 76–85. https://doi.org/10.18502/kss.v7i14.11955

Nadiem Anwar Makarim. (2020). Buku Pedoman Pencegahan Dan Penanggulangan Tindak Kekerasan (1st ed.). DIREKTORAT SEKOLAH DASAR DIREKTORAT JENDERAL PENDIDIKAN ANAK USIA DINI, PENDIDIKAN DASAR, DAN PENDIDIKAN MENENGAH KEMENTERIAN PENDIDIKAN DAN KEBUDAYAAN REPUBLIK INDONESIA. https://savethechildren.or.id/wp-content/uploads/2022/05/Kemdikbud-RI-Pedoman-Pencegahan-dan-Penanggulangan-Tindak-Kekerasan-di-Sekolah.pdf

Noer, K. U., Kusmawati, A., Khusnaeny, A., Madanih, D., & Nur Qamariyah, Choirunnisa Marzoeki, I. S. (2025). Panduan Pencegahan dan Penanganan Kekerasan di Satuan Pendidikan. In Jakarta: Kemendikbud (1st ed.). https://lldikti3.kemdikbud.go.id/wp-content/uploads/2025/07/Panduan-Pencegahan-dan-Penanganan-Kekerasan-di-PT-UMJ.pdf

Novita, F., Ismail, Z., Ahmad, & Lestari, M. P. (2021). *Hukum perlindungan anak dan perempuan*. Madza Media. https://repository.ubharajaya.ac.id/12739/1/Buku%20Ajar%20Hukum%20Perlindungan%20Anak%20dan%20Perempuan_removed_compressed.pdf

Pramono, W., & Dwiyanti Hanandini. (2022). TINDAK KEKERASAN TERHADAP ANAK DI SEKOLAH: Bentuk dan Aktor Pelaku. Jurnal Administrasi Publik Dan Pemerintahan, 1(1), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.55850/simbol.v1i1.6

Rahmatika, A. V. (2021). Violence on Women and Children: Background, Effects, and Solutions. Semarang State University Undergraduate Law and Society Review, 1(1), 69–86. https://doi.org/10.15294/lsr.v1i1.49840

Ridwan, M. (2023). Strategi Penanaman Karakter untuk Mengatasi Dampak Kekerasan di Lingkungan Pendidikan.

Rohmatullah, R., Arief Fakrulloh, Z., & Barthos, M. (2023). Violent Crime Policies in the Teaching and Learning Process in a Criminal Law Perspective. Jurnal Indonesia Sosial Sains, 4(05), 467–473. https://doi.org/10.59141/jiss.v4i05.833

Rosidah, N. (2019). SISTEM PERADILAN PIDANA ANAK. In Universitas Lampung. Universitas Lampung. http://repository.lppm.unila.ac.id/15653/1/Buku Sistem Peradilan Pidana Anak.pdf

Safir, K. B. (2022). The Scenario-Based Approach (S.B.A) as a New Approach to Prevent School Violence: Theories vs. Real World Contextualized Situations. European Journal of Education and Pedagogy, 3(5), 46–54. https://doi.org/10.24018/ejedu.2022.3.5.438

Sholihat, N., Miftahul Falah, Rossy Rosnawanti, & Heri Budiawan. (2023). An Overview Of Cases Of Violence Against Women And Children In Tasikmalaya City. HealthCare Nursing Journal, 5(2), 848–854. https://doi.org/10.35568/healthcare.v5i2.3793

Umam, N. K., Rusdiatin, E., Ardiansyah, A., Siregar, M. H., Nurjanah, N., Bolat, K., & Ifan. (2019). MENYOAL PERAN NEGARA DAN MASYARAKAT DALAM MELINDUNGI PEREMPUAN DAN ANAK: ASESMEN PUSAT PELAYANAN TERPADU PEMBERDAYAAN PEREMPUAN DAN ANAK (P2TP2A) DI EMPAT KABUPATEN/KOTA DI JAWA BARAT (1st ed.). SEKRETARIAT PUSAT KAJIAN WANITA DAN GENDER UNIVERSITAS INDONESIA. https://repository.umj.ac.id/6594/1/BUKU P2TP2A.pdf

Zhang, X. (2021). Measures to Prevent Campus Violence: Based on the Analysis of the Current Situation of Campus Violence. Proceedings of the 2021 5th International Seminar on Education, Management and Social Sciences (ISEMSS 2021), 571(Isemss), 142–145. https://doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.210806.028