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ABSTRACT

This study examined characteristics associated with teachers' views on discipline, comparing discipline styles based upon gender, ethnicity, age, years of experience, inservice versus preservice status, school level, and number of offspring. Participants were 201 predominantly white and predominantly female students at a large university who were either preservice or inservice teachers. The participants completed the Beliefs on Discipline Inventory, which assessed their beliefs on classroom discipline by indicating the degree to which they were interventionists, noninterventionists, or interactionalists. Overall, the highest proportion of respondents had an interactionalist orientation, followed closely by an interventionist orientation. Older respondents were more interventionist and less noninterventionist than were younger respondents. Those who had the most teaching experience were more interventionist and less noninterventionist than those with less experience. Inservice teachers were more interventionist and less noninterventionist than were preservice teachers. Secondary school teachers were more interventionist and less interactionalist than were elementary school teachers. There were no differences in intervention, nonintervention, and interactionalism with respect to gender, ethnicity, and number of offspring. (Contains 47 references.) (SM)

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Factors Associated with Teachers' Beliefs on Discipline

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Abstract

Because appropriate behavior is crucial to everything that happens in a classroom, one's approach to classroom discipline can make or break a teacher. Wolfgang and Glickman (1986) categorized approaches to discipline as being either non-interventionist, interventionist, or interactionalist. Non-interventionists are highly student oriented, whereas interventionists are highly teacher oriented, with interactionalists lying in between these two schools of thought.

The purpose of this study was to examine characteristics associated with teachers' views on discipline. Participants were 201 students at a large university who were either preservice or inservice teachers. Findings revealed, first, that older individuals were more interventionist and less non-interventionist than were younger persons. Second, those who had the most teaching experience were more interventionist and less non-interventionist than were their counterparts. Third, inservice teachers were more interventionist and less non-interventionist than were preservice teachers. Fourth, secondary school teachers were more interventionist and less interactionalist than were elementary school teachers. Finally, no differences in interventionism, non-interventionism, and interactionalism were found with respect to gender, ethnicity, and number of offspring. Implications are discussed.

Factors Associated with Teachers' Beliefs on Discipline

Student misbehavior is perceived to be one of the most, if not the most, serious problem facing our nation's schools. According to the annual Gallup Polls of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools, lack of discipline was identified as the most important problem facing schools for 15 out of the 27 years between 1969 and 1993 (Parkway & Stanford, 1998). Because appropriate behavior is crucial to everything that happens in a classroom, one's approach to classroom discipline can make or break a teacher. This statement is not intended to imply that all other responsibilities of a teacher's management of the classroom are not important; rather, it is intended simply to emphasize the importance of appropriate discipline methods (Charles, 1981).

Discipline techniques range from those that are highly student oriented to those that are highly teacher oriented. Indeed, Wolfgang and Glickman (1980, 1986) defined seven discipline strategies commonly used by teachers: *silently looking on*, *using nondirective statements*, *questioning*, *making directive statements*, *modeling*, *reinforcing*, and *using physical intervention and isolation*.

Silently looking on implies that different outcomes in behavior can result from the teacher simply looking at a student who is engaging in behavior that the teacher believes is inappropriate (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). For instance, a teacher can visually engage the student for a brief moment, letting the student know that the behavior has not gone unnoticed. This technique also lets the student know it is time to correct the behavior. Another type of looking on is often referred to as a "glare" or "glaring stare" and often includes a penetrating frown. The learner is cued that the teacher is not pleased with the

behavior, with the frown perceived as a warning to the student of future consequences if the behavior is not modified.

Nondirective statements are intended to inform the student that the teacher is aware of the misbehavior (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). Teachers verbalize what was seen as the inappropriate behavior. This verbalizing by the instructor typically occurs immediately after the inappropriate behavior has been observed. For example, a teacher may reflect the unauthorized episode by saying to the student, "Mark, I saw you throw the paper across the room" or "You must be frustrated to have thrown your work down."

Although *questioning* strategies are used during instruction to assess students' comprehension, guide students throughout lessons, and raise students' critical thinking to higher levels, questions also can be used to gain information about inappropriate behavior (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). By simply asking questions such as "Why did you do this?" or "What are you doing?", a teacher can often ascertain the cause of student misbehavior and determine whether the student perceives the behavior as inappropriate.

Directive statements are intended to identify appropriate or to correct inappropriate behavior as it occurs (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). These commands have a sense of immediacy. Examples of directive statements to correct inappropriate behaviors are "Pick up the paper and don't throw it again," "Sit down," and "Kathy, stop doing that!"

Modeling can include a teacher publicly identifying a student demonstrating appropriate behavior as an example for others to follow (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). Modeling also can entail physically demonstrating appropriate behaviors. For instance, a teacher may physically take hold of a student's hand, lead her to her desk, and tell her to

sit down. Opening a book to the correct page and pointing to the correct area on the page is another example associated with modeling.

Reinforcement techniques are used both to encourage appropriate and to eliminate inappropriate behaviors (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). A teacher may establish a system of rewards and punishments to maintain discipline and order in the classroom. Students are told which behaviors result in rewards and which result in punishments. Moreover, a teacher may decide to ignore the disruptive behavior and overtly reward the student's subsequent appropriate behavior with praise, commendations, or privileges, or a teacher may choose to punish the student by removing privileges, detaining the student, informing the parents, and so forth.

Finally, *physical intervention and isolation* involves the teacher exerting physical pressure by grabbing, shaking, and even paddling a student, or by isolating the student by having him sit away from his classmates or removing him from the room (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986).

According to Wolfgang and Glickman (1986), these seven strategies represent techniques used by most teachers, with some teachers using all seven methods and other teachers using only a selected few. In any case, each technique represents a certain power relationship between the teacher and student. Some techniques allow the student opportunities to self-correct behaviors, whereas others give the teacher complete control over the student. Additionally, whereas some procedures provide the student with time for the behavior to be corrected, other methods lead to inappropriate behaviors being addressed immediately. Thus, the seven categories can be viewed as lying on a continuum

indicating the level of power a teacher exercises over the student (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). The left side of the continuum is more student-centered (i.e., the teacher uses minimal power), whereas the right side of the continuum is more teacher-centered (i.e., the teacher takes immediate action to modify behavior).

Using various psychological frameworks of child development, Wolfgang and Glickman (1986) operationalized the following three schools of thought that encompass the aforementioned seven discipline strategies: Relationship-Listening, Rules/Rewards-Punishment, and Confronting-Contracting. Each school represents a different view of child development. According to Wolfgang and Glickman (1986, p. 15), Relationship-Listening has its roots in humanistic and psycho-analytical thought, positing that the child develops from an "inner unfolding of potential"; Rules/Rewards-Punishment is based on behavioral learning theory, in which the child develops as a result of external conditioning; and Confronting-Contracting stems from social learning theory (e.g., Bandura, 1969), whereby the child develops from the interaction between internal and external forces.

Each of these three viewpoints has important implications for teachers. Specifically, those who hold a relationship-listening ideology believe that teachers should exhibit empathy toward a student who is engaged in inappropriate behavior. Moreover, rather than focusing on the student's external behavior for understanding her development, such teachers concentrate on her inner feelings, believing that the outward behavior displayed by the student is only a symptom of inner processes. According to these teachers, positive development is achieved if and only if a student is allowed to express his inner dynamics. Thus, relationship-listening teachers often adopt non-interventionist practices (Wolfgang,

1995). On the other hand, teachers who ascribe to a rules/rewards-punishment viewpoint believe that children and adolescents are conditioned by their environment, and, consequently, the teacher must take control of the environment in order to prevent or to address inappropriate behavior. As such, teachers belonging to this camp tend to have an interventionist orientation. Finally, those who take a confronting-contracting point of view believe that teachers should continually interact with a student who behaves inappropriately. Teachers with this philosophy view a disruptive student with respect to what occurs both internally and externally. Simply put, they tend to adopt interactionalist strategies. Thus, teachers who adopt the Relationship-Listening, Rules/Rewards-Punishment, and Confronting-Contracting philosophies are often called non-interventionists, interventionists, and interactionalists, respectively.

Non-interventionists

Non-interventionists believe that students are capable of managing their own behavior. Furthermore, they believe that all students want to do well and experience success in school. The teacher takes on a supportive and empathetic role, and compromise is a common strategy. Non-interventionists are viewed as using minimal power, so the discipline strategies best align with the left (student-centered) side of the continuum. More specifically, these teachers use visual cuing and nondirective statements to encourage the student to determine a solution in order to self-correct behavior. These teachers demonstrate supportive behavior toward the student through glances that are empathetic and questions that are reflective in nature.

Approaches that fit into the non-interventionist framework include Carl Rogers' (1951)

client-centered therapy and the ideas expressed in his (1969) Freedom to Learn. Rogers (1969) contended that a client (e.g., student) should be the agent of control rather than the therapist (e.g., teacher). Under Rogers' framework, the teacher assumes that students have the ability to learn how to manage their own behaviors (Biehler & Snowman, 1986). Additionally, teachers must be able to exhibit positive regard for their students and to empathize with students' feelings and experiences. Accordingly, students are expected to develop a greater awareness of themselves and their own behaviors (Rogers & Stevens, 1967).

Other models that can be classified as non-interventionist include Thomas Harris' (1969) Transactional Analysis; Jacob Kounin's (1970) Ripple Effect and Group Management; Louis Raths, Merrill Harmin, and Sidney Simon's (1966) Values and Teaching; Clark Moustakas' (1972) The Authentic Teacher; Eric Berne's (1964) Psychology of Human Relations; Haim Ginott's (1972) Sane Messages Model; and Thomas Gordon's (1974) Teacher Effectiveness Training (see Figure 1).

Insert Figure 1 about here

Interventionists

Interventionists stress teacher authority and practice behavior modification strategies to shape student behavior. For these teachers, components of an environment conducive to learning include conditioning and reinforcement techniques, as well as tangible strategies to correct inappropriate behaviors. Because interventionists do not recognize the student's

inner emotions or her ability to come to rational decisions on her own, rules are established and consequences are enforced. Interventionists use techniques associated with the right (teacher-centered) side of the continuum. That is, teachers immediately take control of the situation through techniques such as reinforcement, modeling, physically restraining, or isolating. Although Wolfgang and Glickman (1986) noted a division in this school between those who contend that behavior should be controlled by use of positive and negative reinforcement alone and those who assert the additional use of punishment, interventionists believe that teachers should exert maximum power over students.

Models that can be categorized as interventionist include Saul Axelrod's (1977) Behavior Modification, Lee Canter and Marlene Canter's (1976) Assertive Discipline, James Dobson's (1970, 1992) Dare to Discipline, Siegfried Engelmann's (1969) Behaviorism with Corporal Punishment Model, Madsen and Madsen's (1974) Teaching Discipline, Lloyd Homme's (1970) Behavior Modification Model, and Blackham and Siberman's (1975) Behavior Modification Model (Figure 1).

Interactionalists

Interactionalists focus on what the student does to modify the external environment, as well as on what the environment does to develop the student. As such, they combine strategies used by non-interventionists and interventionists. The interactionalist teacher maintains constant interaction with the student and believes that both must be willing to compromise. In fact, interactionalists believe that conflict between the student and the teacher cannot be resolved without shared responsibility--that is, without full participation in the decision-making process by all the parties involved in the conflict (Dreikurs & Cassel,

1972). Interactionalists also believe that boundaries should be established and that students should be made aware of certain behavioral expectations.

Interactionalists tend to use techniques at the center of the continuum. They might choose to use nondirective statements, questions, or directive statements. In certain situations, interactionalists exert power over students; in others, they provide opportunities for students to self-correct behaviors. Generally, these teachers are willing to compromise, listening to and considering student input. Regardless of the behavior, a solution must be reached that is acceptable to both teacher and student. Models that can be categorized as interactionalist include Rudolph Dreikurs and Pearl Cassel's (1972) Social Model, William Glasser's (1969) Reality Therapy Model, and Alfred Adler's (1972) Psychology Theory (Figure 1).

Differences Between Non-Interventionists, Interactionalists, and Interventionists

The viewpoints of non-interventionists, interventionists, and interactionalists lie on a continuum that reflects the corresponding degrees of power possessed by the student and teacher (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). Non-interventionists provide students with the most power, whereas interventionists provide the student with the least power, with interactionalists lying somewhere in between these two views. Wolfgang and Glickman (1986) asserted that although many teachers believe and act according to all three approaches of discipline, most teachers adopt the approach that best reflects their beliefs about the most appropriate discipline strategies.

In examining studies that have compared length of teaching experience and discipline styles, one finds conflicting results. For example, Swanson, O'Connor, and Cooney (1990)

reported that novice teachers (zero- to 3-year experience) tended to be more non-interventionist, whereas experienced teachers (more than a 3-year experience) tended to be more interventionist. However, Martin and Baldwin (1993, 1994) found that novice teachers were statistically significantly more interventionist than experienced teachers and at a statistically significant level. Prior to comparing novice with experienced teachers, Martin and Baldwin (1992) compared the discipline styles of preservice and experienced teachers, finding no significant differences. These researchers found that preservice teachers with an external locus of control, as measured by Rotters' (1966) Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, were statistically significantly more non-interventionist than were experienced teachers with an external locus of control, who were more interventionist. Similarly, Martin and Baldwin (1993) documented that experienced teachers with internal locus of control were more non-interventionist than were novice teachers with an external locus of control. Additionally, these authors reported that teachers who were more open to change were the least interventionist (Martin & Baldwin, 1995). Martin and Baldwin (1996) extended their previous work by comparing elementary school teachers to secondary school teachers with respect to their discipline beliefs. Findings revealed that elementary school teachers were less interventionist than were their secondary level counterparts.

Bailey and Johnson (1999) found that after completion of their student teaching placement, the sample comprising elementary (n = 42) and secondary education (n = 24) majors became statistically significantly less interactionalist and non-interventionist, but statistically significantly more interventionist. Most recently, Martin and Shoho (1999), using the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control Inventory (Martin, Yin, & Baldwin, 1998),

compared teachers from a Regional Service Alternative Teacher Certification (AC) Program to teachers enrolled in university graduate courses. These researchers reported that AC teachers were more interventionist with respect to instructional management than were their counterparts. Finally, Martin and Ying (1999) found that rural teachers were statistically significantly more interventionist in the area of instructional management, whereas urban teachers were statistically significantly more interventionist in the area of people management. No gender differences were noted.

Unfortunately, neither Bailey and Johnson (1999) nor Martin, Baldwin, and their colleagues reported any effect sizes, nor did they provide any standard deviations from which effect sizes could be calculated (cf. Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2000). Thus, it is not clear how large the reported differences were in any of these studies. Moreover, the above investigations were undertaken in the Southwestern part of the United States, with little or no research in the area of teachers' discipline beliefs being conducted in other regions. Yet, as noted by Martin and Ying (1999), teaching setting (i.e., rural vs. urban vs. suburban) appears to be an important influence on discipline beliefs. Furthermore, the majority of these inquiries examined only a few variables at a time. The purpose of this study, then, was to replicate and to extend the work conducted by Martin, Baldwin, and others. Specifically, the objective of this investigation was to compare the discipline style of teachers based upon gender, ethnicity, age, years of experience, teacher status (i.e., inservice vs. preservice), school level (elementary vs. secondary), and number of offspring.

Method

Participants

Participants were 201 students at a large university who were either preservice (77.0%) or inservice (23.0%) teachers. This sample size was selected via an *a priori* power analysis because it provided acceptable statistical power (i.e., .82) for detecting a moderate difference in means (i.e., Cohen's [1988] d = .5) at the (two-tailed) .05 level of significance, maintaining a familywise error of 5% (i.e., .approximately .01 for each set of statistical tests comprising the three subscales) (Erdfelder, Faul, & Buchner, 1996).

The majority of the sample was female (79.1%). With respect to ethnicity, the respondents were Caucasian-American (87.1%), African-American (10.0%), Hispanic (1.0%), Asian-American (0.5%), and other (1.5%). Ages ranged from 20 to 55 (M = 27.4, SD = 7.8). With regard to school level, approximately two-thirds (67.6%) of the participants represented elementary schools, with the remainder representing secondary schools. Of the inservice teachers, the mean number of years taught was 1.81 (SD = 4.67). Finally, the sample members' mean number of offspring was 0.8 (SD = 1.22).

Instruments and Procedure

Participants completed the Beliefs on Discipline Inventory (BODI), which was developed by Roy T. Tamashiro and Carl D. Glickman (as cited in Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). This measure was constructed to assess teachers' beliefs on classroom discipline by indicating the degree to which they are non-interventionists, interventionists, and interactionalists. The BODI contains 12 multiple-choice items, each with two response options. For each item, participants are asked to select the statement with which they most agree. The BODI contains three subscales representing the non-interventionist, interventionist, and interactionalist orientations. Scores on each subscale range from zero

to eight, with a high score on any of these scales representing a leaning toward the particular discipline approach (Wolman & Glickman, 1986). Thus, for example, a score of zero on the interactionalist scale indicates that the individual did not endorse this approach for any of the items. On the other hand, a score of eight on the non-interventionist measure indicates that the respondent endorsed every item pertaining to this discipline style. As noted by Wolfgang and Glickman (1986), the subscale with the highest score represents a leaning toward the discipline it underlies.

Results

The mean and standard deviations pertaining to each subscale are reported in Table 1. It can be seen that, on average, the sample was highest on the Interactionalist subscale and lowest on the Non-interventionist subscale. A series of dependent *t*-tests, using the Bonferroni adjustment to control for Type I error (Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2000), revealed that although there was no difference between scores on the Interactionalist and Interventionist subscales ($t = 1.80$, $p > .05$), scores on both the Interactionalist ($t = 18.52$, $p < .0001$) and Interventionist ($t = 13.18$, $p < .0001$) subscales were statistically significantly higher than scores on the Non-interventionist subscale. The Cohen's (1988) *d* effect size pertaining to these statistically significant differences were 2.19 and 1.74, respectively. Using Cohen's (1988) criteria, these differences are extremely large.

Insert Table 1 about here

A series of independent *t*-tests was used to examine the relationship between each

of the demographic variables and scores on each of the three subscales. The Bonferroni adjustment was used to maintain a familywise error of 5%. With respect to gender, no statistically significant difference emerged between males and females for scores on the Interventionist (t = -0.40, p > .05), Non-interventionist (t = 1.35, p > .05), and Interactionalist (t = -0.92, p > .05) subscales. Similarly, no statistically significant difference emerged between Caucasian-American and Minority participants for scores on the Interventionist (t = -1.47, p > .05), Non-interventionist (t = 0.88, p > .05), and Interactionalist (t = 0.52, p > .05) subscales.

Although no statistically significant difference emerged between the elementary and secondary school sample members for scores on the Non-interventionist (t = 1.32, p > .05) subscale, secondary school teachers (M = 5.21, SD = 1.62) had statistically significantly (t = 3.06, p < .001; d = 0.53) higher scores on the Interventionist subscale than did elementary school teachers (M = 4.40, SD = 1.49), whereas secondary school teachers (M = 4.72, SD = 1.18) had statistically significantly (t = 2.47, p < .01; d = 0.40) lower scores on the Interactionalist subscale than did elementary school teachers (M = 5.21, SD = 1.24). Both effect sizes were moderate (Cohen, 1988).

Furthermore, no statistically significant difference emerged between preservice teachers and inservice teachers for scores on the Interactionalist (t = 1.11, p > .05) subscale; however, inservice teachers (M = 5.43, SD = 1.48) had statistically significantly (t = 3.74, p < .001; d = 0.65) higher scores on the Interventionist subscale than did preservice teachers (M = 4.47, SD = 1.50), and inservice teachers (M = 1.70, SD = 1.04) had statistically significantly (t = 3.75, p < .001; d = 0.54) lower scores on the Non-

interventionist subscale than did preservice teachers (M = 2.44, SD = 1.70). Again, both effect sizes were moderate.

A series of correlations, using the Bonferroni adjustment to control for familywise error, revealed that age was not statistically significantly related to scores on the Interactionalist subscale (r = -.06, p > .05); however, age was statistically significantly related to scores on both the Interventionist (r = .19, p < .01) and Non-interventionist (r = -.16, p < .01) subscales. Specifically, older individuals were more likely to endorse interventionism and less likely to endorse non-interventionism than were their younger counterparts. Both these effect sizes were small to moderate (Cohen, 1988). Similarly, the number of years teaching was not statistically significantly related to scores on the Interactionalist subscale (r = -.10, p > .05); however, number of years teaching was statistically significantly related to scores on both the Interventionist (r = .25, p < .01) and Non-interventionist (r = -.19, p < .01) subscales. Specifically, the most experienced teachers were more likely to endorse interventionism and less likely to endorse non-interventionism than were their less-experienced colleagues. Again, both these effect sizes were small to moderate. Finally, the number of offspring was not statistically significantly related to scores on the Interventionist (r = .08, p > .05), Non-interventionist (r = -.05, p > .05), or Interactionalist (r = -.05, p > .05) subscales.

Discussion

The purpose of this investigation was to compare the discipline style of teachers based upon gender, ethnicity, age, years of experience, teacher status (i.e., inservice vs. preservice), school level (elementary vs. secondary), and number of offspring. Findings

revealed that the highest proportion of sample members had an interactionalist orientation, followed closely by an interventionist orientation. Indeed, the study participants were significantly more oriented toward interactionalist and interventionist approaches than non-interventionist discipline styles. Interestingly, this finding is identical to that of Bailey and Johnson (1999). In fact, the overall means observed in Bailey and Johnson's inquiry for preservice teachers, prior to their student teaching, were remarkably similar to that obtained in the present sample with respect to the Interactionalist (5.00 vs. 5.05), Interventionist (4.82 vs. 4.73), and Non-interventionist (2.18 vs. 2.23) subscales. These findings combined suggest that neither inservice nor preservice teachers have a humanistic orientation (i.e., relationship-listening). Simply put, neither set of teachers believed that educators should provide students with opportunities to make choices and be responsible for their own learning (Biehler & Snowman, 1986). In addition, these teachers did not believe that teachers should provide a classroom environment in which students are allowed, and even encouraged, to express their inner feelings freely. Moreover, the teachers did not think that they should exercise only minimal power with a student who is displaying inappropriate behavior.

Interestingly, in the current investigation, inservice teachers, older teachers, and more experienced teachers tended to be the least non-interventionist. What these three subgroups have in common is that they represent individuals with the longest tenure in the teaching profession. Thus, it is possible that these teachers were least likely to endorse non-interventionism because they have had the most opportunity either to experiment with or to observe all three modes of discipline (i.e., non-interventionism, interventionism, and

interactionalism). In so doing, they may have come to the conclusion that non-interventionism is the least effective discipline approach. In fact, these educators tended to be significantly more interventionist than their counterparts.

Alternatively, their interventionist perspective might have stemmed from the fact that, compared to their younger and less experienced colleagues, they were more resistant to educational change and less comfortable experimenting with different discipline approaches, preferring to maintain the status quo in the classroom. Indeed, Martin and Baldwin (1995) found that teachers who were less open to change tended to be more interventionist. Thus, future research should investigate the link between age/teaching experience and discipline beliefs.

The finding that secondary school teachers were more likely to endorse interventionism than were elementary school teachers is consistent with Martin and Baldwin's (1996) findings. Additionally, in the present study, elementary school teachers were more likely to have an interactionalist orientation. These findings may reflect the fact that the disciplinary problems that occur in the secondary school setting typically are more complex and severe than those at the elementary level. Thus, it is likely that secondary school teachers believe they should maintain the maximum amount of power over their students in order to secure control over the learning environment. Further, it is feasible that the most extreme interventionists, those who endorse physical intervention and isolation, tended to represent secondary school teachers because of the general belief that these discipline measures are less appropriate and are less needed in the elementary school context. Nevertheless, as noted by Martin and Baldwin (1996), future research should strive

to determine whether the differences between elementary and secondary school teachers with respect to discipline beliefs stem from the nature of the school setting, from preservice training, or from an *a priori* belief that draws them to teach either younger or older students.

The finding of no gender differences in discipline is consistent with Martin and Ying (1999); however, this finding somewhat contradicts Witcher, Onwuegbuzie, and Minor (in press) and Minor, Onwuegbuzie, and Witcher (2000a), who found that female preservice teachers were less likely than were their male counterparts to endorse classroom and behavior management as a characteristic of an effective teacher. Moreover, these authors found that females tended to place more weight on student-centeredness as a measure of teacher effectiveness than did males. Thus, one would have expected females in the current sample to have been more non-interventionist than were males. The non-significant finding in the present study may have been the result of the fact that the sample contained a disproportionately large number of females (i.e., 79.1%). Indeed, an *a posteriori* power analysis conducted pertaining to the gender comparisons revealed a statistical power of .68 for detecting a moderate difference in means (i.e., Cohen's d = .5) at the (two-tailed) .05 level of significance, maintaining a familywise error of 5% (Erdfelder et al., 1996). Thus, the lack of statistically significant gender differences may have stemmed from the relatively low statistical power observed. As such, replications of this investigation are needed using a larger proportion of males.

The finding of no ethnic differences in discipline beliefs is also not congruent with Witcher et al. (in press), who reported that minority preservice teachers less often endorsed classroom and behavior management skills as characteristic of effective teachers than did

Caucasian-American preservice teachers. Again, the non-significance could have stemmed from the relatively small proportion of minority students (i.e., 12.9%), which induced relatively low statistical power (i.e., 0.66) for comparing the two groups (Erdfelder et al., 1996). Replications are thus needed to determine the reliability of the present findings of no ethnic differences in discipline belief.

Future studies should attempt to ascertain the philosophical underpinnings of each of the three viewpoints on discipline. Indeed, Minor, Onwuegbuzie, and Witcher (2000b) currently are investigating how these viewpoints are related to beliefs about education, as measured by the Witcher-Travers Survey of Educational Beliefs (Witcher & Travers, 1999). The Survey borrows from the work of Doll (1992), who posited that two major belief systems present themselves in contemporary American schools: the transmissive and the progressive.

Transmissive educators are often referred to as being *conservative* or *traditional*. Such teachers deem the needs of the community and student to be essentially stable and, thus, are reluctant to change programs or curriculum. Because transmissive teachers believe that the purpose of school is to develop the intellect, they view their role as one of dispensing important knowledge to students; lecture, demonstration, and recitation are the preferred teaching methods. In addition, teachers representing this school of thought tend to favor classrooms that have a business-like atmosphere in which students are passive learners who generally work independently. Examples of transmissive philosophies, theories, and tenets include idealism, realism, perennialism, and essentialism (Witcher & Travers, 1999).

Progressive teachers are often referred to as being *experiential* or *modern*. Teachers ascribing to this view regard the school as a social institution and seek to align school programming with contemporary needs in order to make education meaningful and relevant to the knowledge, abilities, and interests of their students (Witcher & Travers, 1999). That is, these individuals tend to base curricula upon their students' personal, familial, and social experiences, with a goal of providing a continuous link between students' school-based learning and their lives outside the school context. Consequently, progressive teachers view their role as one of facilitator, guide, or motivator (Witcher & Travers, 1999). Students of progressive educators engage in active learning, both independently and cooperatively. Examples of progressive philosophies, theories, and tenets include constructivism, experimentalism, and naturalism (Witcher & Travers, 1999).

Based upon the characteristics of these two opposing schools of thought, the researchers hypothesize that transmissive teachers are more likely to be interventionist, whereas progressive teachers are more likely to be non-interventionist. In any case, it is hoped that the findings from Minor et al.'s (2000) investigation will increase our understanding of the antecedent correlates of discipline beliefs.

Another question of interest that researchers should address in the future is whether the discipline beliefs of inservice teachers are related to the academic achievement of their students. That is, is there a difference in student academic performance among the three teacher groups? The answer to this question should provide direction for teacher educators as they attempt to disseminate best practices to preservice and inservice teachers in this era of accountability.

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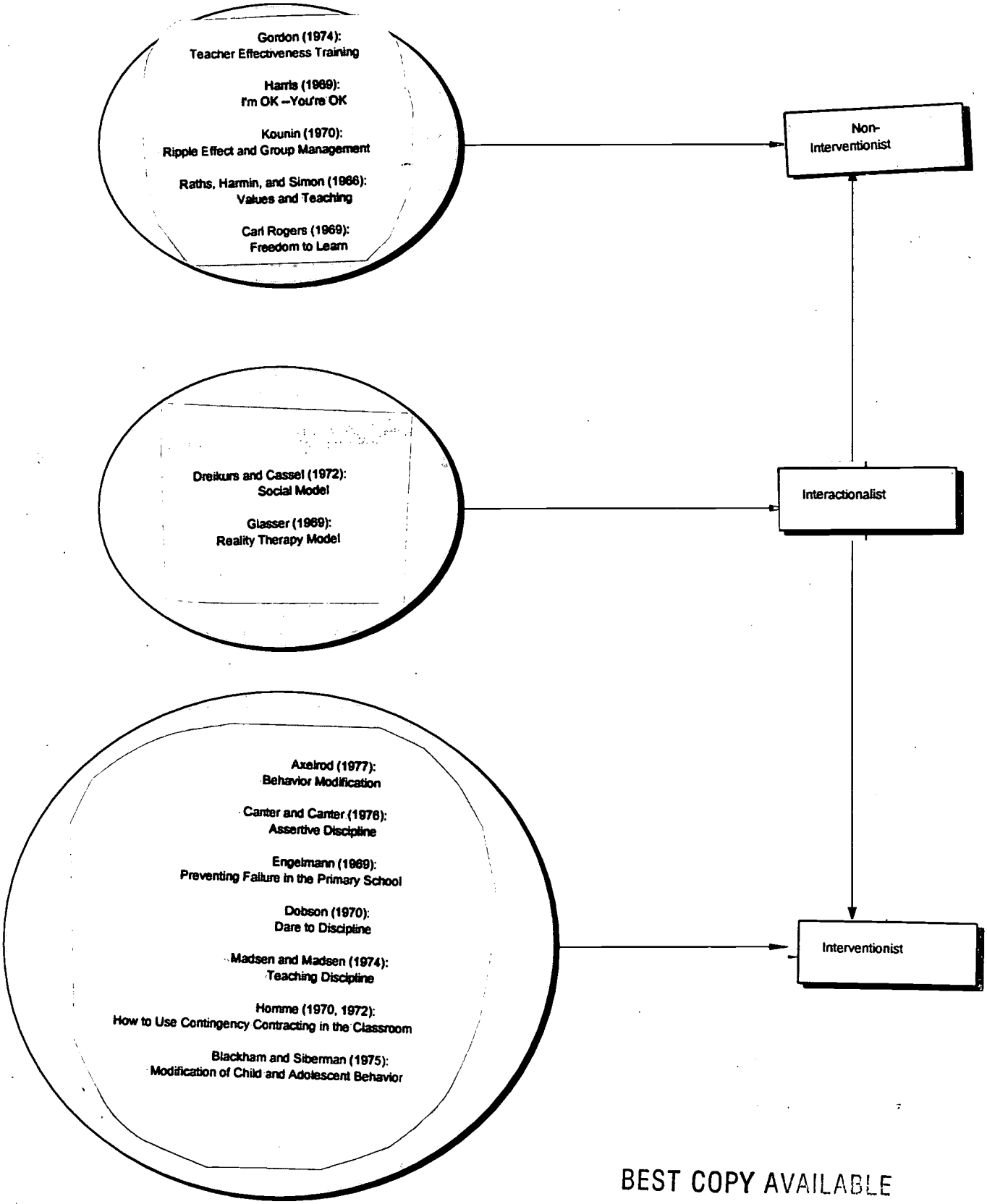
Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations for Each Subscale Score

Subscale	*M*	*SD*
Non-interventionist	2.23	1.33
Interventionist	4.73	1.53
Interactionalist	5.05	1.24

Figure Caption

Figure 1. Teacher Discipline Continuum.



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