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ABSTRACT

This study was designed to replicate and improve upon Kaplan's 1992 study of the possible link between teachers' past experiences and use of aversive disciplinary strategies. The current study examines the possible effect of past home and school experience on both preservice and practicing teachers' choices of intervention. The first study explored the nature of childhood experiences with aversive consequences in preservice teachers and their subsequent selection of intervention choices. The second study examined the degree to which childhood aversive consequences influenced respondents' choice of interventions. Surveys of preservice and practicing teachers (which included case scenarios) found that among preservice teachers, there were no significant differences between aversive and positive/neutral intervention groups on the Personal History of Punishment Inventory (PHPI). Among practicing teachers, restrictive home experiences from the PHPI (such as grounding and restrictions from friends) significantly differentiated teachers when grouped by their choice of aversive versus positive/neutral interventions. Practicing teachers who had experienced restrictive consequences at home or school selected aversive interventions for students significantly more often than did those who had not. (Contains 34 references and 6 tables.) (SM)

Running head: ORIGINS OF AVERSIVE INTERVENTIONS

Origins of Teachers' Selection of Aversive Interventions

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Abstract

Kaplan (1992) found that preservice teachers' experiences with punishment in their families of origin were related to their selection of disciplinary strategies. This paper reports on two studies that examined the above mentioned phenomena in new samples of preservice and practicing teachers. These investigations extended this line of research to include past disciplinary experiences in school for both samples. The major findings included: a) preservice teachers' past experience with aversive consequences at home and school were not predictive of their selection of aversive interventions, and (b) practicing teachers' who had experienced restrictive discipline techniques at home and at school were predictive of their selection of disciplinary interventions. The findings are discussed in relation to the literature on the effect of prior beliefs on teacher behaviors as well as the research on reflective teaching and preactive planning.

Origins of Teachers' Selection of Aversive Interventions

Over the past ten to fifteen years, increasing emphasis has been given to teacher reflection as a key element in good teaching (Porter & Brophy, 1988). Even though teacher reflection was identified as critical to a teacher's repertoire by Dewey as early as 1904, recent research into the components of teachers' thinking and behavior has led to the conclusion that reflection or inquiry (Tom, 1985) is an essential element for good teaching (Doyle, 1985; Porter & Brophy, 1988). As Posner (1993) points out, "Experience with no reflection is shallow and at best and leads to superficial knowledge" (p. 21).

Definitions of teacher reflection have been elusive (Tom, 1988) and complex (Roth, 1989). For Posner (1993), "reflective teachers actively, persistently, and carefully consider and reconsider beliefs and practices" (p. 20) against the assumptions that support them. The reflective process seems to involve a large array of cognitive and behavioral functions including frequent questioning of actions, hypothesizing about problems and potential actions to be taken, evaluation of teaching procedures, and perspective taking, to name a few (Roth, 1989). One critical element of the reflective teaching process also seems to be planning (Shavelson, 1983; Porter & Brophy, 1988; Rudney & Guillaume, 1989-90; Bullough, 1989; Froyen, 1993; Posner, 1993).

Porter and Brophy (1988) have proposed a model, shown in Figure 1, which illustrates relationships between teacher reflection and preactive planning. This model was developed from studies done at the Institute for Research on Teaching (IRT) at Michigan State University. As shown in this model, preactive planning is hypothesized to influence numerous variables including teacher reflection. For example, Porter and Brophy (1988) proposed that teacher preactive planning may be affected by student characteristics, external factors (i.e., school policies, administrators, etc.), and teachers' knowledge base which includes; content knowledge, pedagogy, professional

education and personal experiences at home and school as a child.

Clark, Smith, Newby and Cook (1985) studied preservice and first year teachers' perceptions of the origins of their teaching behaviors through a stimulated recall approach. The largest percentage of teaching behaviors (27%) were cited as their "own idea", while approximately 6% of the teaching behaviors were perceived as stemming from family members or past teachers. Interestingly, more of the first-year practicing teachers attributed their teaching behaviors to their home and school experiences as a child, than did the preservice teachers.

Preactive Planning and Classroom Management

While preactive planning seems to play an important role in the delivery of lesson content, numerous scholars have argued that preactive planning is important for all aspects of teaching including classroom management and student discipline (Borko & Niles, 1985; Doyle, 1985; Brophy, 1986; Sugai & Fabre, 1987; Maclennan, 1987; Frisby, 1991; Charles, 1992; Lee, 1992; Froyen, 1993). The recent interest in classroom management planning (Brophy, 1988; Lee, 1994) is not surprising given the large percentage of teacher time spent in managing students' behavior (Gump, 1957) and the value associated with preactive planning (Zahorik, 1970; Clark, 1983; Shavelson, 1983; Borko & Niles, 1985).

However even with formal planning, teachers must be flexible enough to revise their plans on the basis of a myriad of day-to-day influences (Clark, 1983; Kaplan, 1992; Lee, 1992). This is especially true in relation to managing student behaviors and classroom procedures. Therefore, it seems reasonable to assume that teachers' daily classroom behaviors will result from a combination of reflection and preactive planning (written and/or mental), and intuitive or "reflexive" actions directed toward students (Kaplan, 1992). Reflective versus reflexive teacher actions may be viewed as a continuum of complete and fully planned actions to impulsive reactions to student behavior.

Reflective and Reflexive Teaching and Past Disciplinary Experiences

While it has already been posited from Porter and Brophy's (1988) model that teachers' past experiences play a role in the reflective-planning process, it seems logical that past experiences may play a more significant role in reflexive teaching behavior (Rosen, 1968; Kaplan, 1992). For example, since inexperienced or preservice teachers have few true teaching experiences to draw from, they may be more likely to act as they recall their parent or teachers acting in a similar situation. Even experienced teachers may be more likely to respond "reflexively" to an unexpected classroom situation based on their past experiences.

Relatively little is known about how teacher's previous childhood experiences at home and school influence their planning or choices for classroom interventions (Kaplan, 1992), although numerous authors theorize that these past experiences do affect teachers' classroom behavior (Rosen, 1968; Clark, Smith, Newby & Cook, 1985; Porter & Brophy, 1988; Hollingsworth, 1989; Kaplan, 1992; Posner, 1993). Perhaps among the strongest or longest-lasting of influences on children are their experiences with aversive consequences, encompassing everything from reprimands to corporal punishment (Lennox, 1982; Rust & Kinnard, 1983; Zaidi, Knutson,& Mehm, 1989). Although the notion of a cycle of abuse has received virtually axiomatic support from a theoretical basis (Zaidi, Knutson, & Mehm, 1989), evaluation of the empirical evidence has lead to the conclusion that while being maltreated as a child puts one at risk for becoming abusive as an adult, the link between the two points is far from direct and definitely not inevitable. In fact, the best estimate of the rate of intergenerational transmission is considered to be approximately 30% (Kaufman & Zigler, 1987). However, the research that has been conducted within this area has admittedly yielded highly inconsistent findings, thus leaving the hypothesized existence of such a relationship as an area worthy of further consideration. It is within the

framework of this research base, therefore, that the notion of teachers' experiences with punishment affects their choice of discipline strategies was originally derived. This link between past experiences and employed discipline strategies has recently been substantiated by research.

In an effort to determine why teachers use corporal punishment in the classroom, Lennox (1982), in an unpublished dissertation, found that the best predictor of the use of corporal punishment was how often teachers had been spanked as children and or paddled in school. Further, teachers who had rarely been spanked as children almost never spanked their students. Likewise, Rust and Kinnard (1983), have found that teachers who employ corporal punishment at an individual level, tend to be teachers who were physically punished as children. Furthermore, support for the supposition that preservice teachers' home experiences with punishment serve as an originating source of their use of punitive techniques in the classroom has likewise been demonstrated by Kaplan (1992) as he found that "disciplinary experiences in the families of origin are predictive of the strategies they select for classroom management" (p. 263). Hence, the implication that such a relationship exists is not only theoretically grounded but has empirical support as well, although research within this area is admittedly limited.

The Present Studies

In light of the scarcity of research regarding the influence that teachers' past experiences have on their use of disciplinary strategies in the classroom, it is the purpose of this study to replicate and improve upon Kaplan's (1992) study that attempted to establish a link between such experiences and the use of aversive disciplinary strategies. This study also serves to extend Kaplan's (1992) study in two ways by examining the possible effect of past home and school experiences on both preservice and practicing teacher's choice of interventions.

In light of Kaplan's (1992) findings, it is hypothesized that both preservice and practicing teachers may be influenced

by their previous experiences with aversive consequences as a child. Therefore, Study #1 was designed to explore the nature of childhood (home and school) experiences with aversive consequences in preservice teachers and their resultant selection of intervention choices. Study #2 extended the research to practicing teachers to examine the degree to which childhood aversive consequences influenced their choices for interventions.

Study 1

Method

Participants.

One hundred and forty-four participants were solicited from two classroom management classes which are required for junior and senior education majors at the University of Kansas. One hundred and twenty five students volunteered for the study. Ninety three percent of the sample was caucasian with an average age of 22 years. Nearly half of the sample came from a suburban background (48%), with 33% from a small town and 13% urban. The students completed the instruments during class time but they recieved no course credit for participating.

Instruments.

The Personal History of Punishment Inventory (PHPI), developed by Kaplan (1992) was utilized as a means of assessing the frequency and intensity of punishing experiences in the home that an adult could remember from his/her childhood. The survey consists of twenty items covering such disciplinary practices as "grounding," loss of privileges, verbal reprimands, corporal punishment, explanation of rules, parental praise and criticism, and parental demands for total obedience. The items were empirically developed from the most frequent responses obtained from undergraduate students over a period of months when asked to list those punitive and nonpunitive disciplinary practices they had directly observed and vicariously observed while growing up (Kaplan, 1992). Each item was rated by the participants on the following five point Likert scale:

1. Never (not even once)

2. Very Rarely (only once or twice that I can recall)
3. Occasionally (more than just once or twice, but probably not more than 4 or 5 times during all of my years at home)
4. Pretty Often (often enough to remember this as a common experience in my family)
5. Very Often (so common I couldn't even begin to guess how often I experienced this)

This instrument has yielded test-retest item reliabilities ranging from .48 to .81 over a two week period and from .75 to .91 over a five week period (Kaplan, 1992). The internal consistency of the PHPI was found to be acceptable with a Cronbach's alpha of .83 (Kaplan, 1990). The internal consistency of the instrument was also evaluated in this study and noted at .87. The PHPI items were devloped empirically by asking undergraduates in psychology about discipline practices they had experienced or observed. The most frequently mentioned practices were used in the inventory. The PHPI can be seen in Appendix A.

The School Experiences Survey (SES), developed by Lee, Weis, and Forinash (1991) for this study and was employed to assess the frequency and intensity of aversive consequences in school that an adult could recall from his/her childhood. This survey consists of twenty items each which are identical to those of the PHPI with the exception of changes in wording to account for experiences within the school environment rather than home. The same five point Likert scale utilized with the PHPI was utilized with this survey as well. Test-retest item reliabilities associated with SES were evaluated in this sample and were found to range from .39 to .82 over a two week period. The internal consistency of the School Experiences Survey was evaluated in this study and noted at .82. The SES can be seen in Appendix B.

A standard one page case scenario (see below) was used to assess preservice teacher's choice of intervention strategies. Special attention was given to the wording of the scenario to avoid conveying the impression that "Charlie" was seeking

attention, disrupting the class, being defiant, or behaving in an aggressive or destructive manner (Kaplan, 1992).

> Charlie, a first grader, is described by his teacher as "lost in space." Ms. Potts reports that she needs to tell him repeatedly that he has "this assignment" or "that worksheet" to finish within a given time limit. If left alone, he reportedly "spaces out," toying with objects in his desk, staring out the window, or even getting up to wander around the room. Ms. Potts says that if she reminds him to get busy he willingly returns to the task at hand. Unfortunately, within a few moments after leaving him to work independently, Charlie "spaces out" again. Ms. Potts is becoming concerned because Charlie is falling farther and farther behind and the other children are beginning to laugh at him when she reminds him to "get busy." Besides, she has 29 other children to attend to and can't stay by Charlie's side all day.

Procedure.

After attaining informed consent, each subject completed the PHPI (Kaplan, 1992) and the SES (Lee, Weis, Forinash, 1991). No standard order of administration was used. To establish test-retest reliability, the same participants again completed the above mentioned questionnaires two to three weeks later. After completing the two questionnaires, each subject responded to the same case scenario (see case scenario above) of a hypothetical student with learning and behavioral problems. Standard instructions were used for all questionnaire administrations. For the case scenario, respondents were asked to design a intervention program that would result in a more "independent" Charlie. Respondents were also asked to consider antecedents and consequences in their intervention program.

The participants' choices of intervention for the case scenario were evaluated in accordance with three types of interventions, rewarding, neutral, and aversive and were subsequently categorized by three independent raters into one of the following categories:

1. Rewarding Interventions only
2. Rewarding and Neutral Interventions only

3. Neutral Interventions only
4. Rewarding and Aversive Interventions
5. Neutral and Aversive Interventions
6. Aversive Interventions

Definitions for rewarding, neutral and punishing interventions are shown in Table 2. Three independent ratings of each subject's intervention program for the case scenario were obtained. Correlations between the independent ratings of the intervention programs for the case scenarios were obtained. These independent ratings of the intervention programs yielded interrater reliabilities ranging from .78 to .90 suggesting that the interventions were reliably rated in accordance with the six intervention categories utilized in Table 2. Due to the high correlations between raters, the ratings for each subject's intervention program were averaged and these average ratings were used in all subsequent data analysis.

To replicate Kaplan's (1992) study the sample was dichotomized into two groups: group 1 chose at least one aversive intervention for the case scenario (aversive interventions group); group 2 chose only positive or neutral interventions (pos./neutral interventions).

Results

Study 1

The descriptive statistics for the preservice sample are shown in Table 3 for the items from the PHPI and the SES. It can be seen that in general, participants in this sample noted few aversive consequences either at home or at school. In fact, their parents' and teachers' demonstrations of approval and praise was commonplace. In addition, only 10.4% (N=13) of the participants chose interventions for "Charlie" that used aversive consequences.

Univariate F-ratios were computed on these data and showed no significant differences between the aversive and the pos./neutral intervention groups for any of the instruments A principal component, factor analysis was performed on both scales. The resultant factors, factor names, factor loadings,

and items are shown in Table 4. All factor loadings resulted from a varimax rotation to clarify the factor structure. For all scales only those factors with eigenvalues of greater than 1.0 were retained. Items on all scales with factor loadings of less than .50 were dropped from the scale and not included in further analyses.

As can be seen in Table 4, four factors were extracted from the PHPI. Factor I was identified as techniques that involved using rules, explaining rules and use of praise. Items that clustered on Factor II involved restrictive punishments (i.e., grounded, sent to room). Factor III items involved physical punishment (i.e., spanked, hit) and on Factor IV verbal punishment items clustered together.

The factor analysis of the SES identified five factors total, with three factors (Physical Punishment; Rules, Explain & Praise; and Restrictions) that were quite similar to those obtained on the PHPI. However, Factors III and IV emerged indicating a different combination of items denoting lost privileges and total obedience to authority.

Study 2

Method

Participants.

One hundred and twenty-eight elementary teachers were solicited from five schools (K-5) in a small school district located in Kansas City, Kansas. Forty-six of the teachers volunteered for the study with 61% of the sample from the primary or K-3 levels. Ninety eight percent of the sample was female with an average age of 38 years. The sample was evenly distributed in years of teaching experience ranging from less than 3 years to 27+ year of experience. Most of the participants came from a suburban background (82%), with 11% urban and 7% rural.

Results

Study 2

The descriptive statistics for the practicing teacher sample are shown in Table 6 for the items from the PHPI and the SES.

It can be seen that in general, participants in this sample also recollected few aversive consequences either at home or at school. In fact, their parents' and teachers' demonstrations of approval and praise was commonplace. Only 13% (N=6) of the practicing teachers chose interventions for "Charlie" that used aversive consequences.

Univariate F-ratios were computed on these data and showed significant differences between the aversive and pos./neutral intervention groups on the use of restrictive types of interventions such as "restricted from friends" (Item #3) and being "grounded" (Item # 15) at home. The group that chose an aversive interventions for the case scenario reported experiencing significantly more restrictive interventions at home (grounding and restrictions from friends) than did the group that chose no aversive intervention for the case scenario. No other PHPI or SES items differentiated the two groups.

Using the same factors identified in Study 1, a stepwise multiple regression was performed using the factor scores on each of the scales as independent variables predicting the case scenario ratings for the practicing teachers. Two factors were predictive of the case scenario ratings, and accounted for approximately 30% of variance in the teacher's selections of interventions for the case scenario. Table 7 shows the results of this analysis.

Factor II (Restrictions) from the PHPI and Factor III (Lost Privileges) from the SES were significantly related to the teachers' case scenario ratings. No other factors significantly predicted the teacher's case scenario interventions.

Discussion

The purpose of these investigations was to replicate and extend Kaplan's (1992) study to determine if past home and school disciplinary experiences significantly affect preservice and practicing teachers choices for intervention strategies for classroom misbehavior. In general, this study failed to replicate Kaplan's study as no significant differences between the aversive and pos./neutral interventions groups on the PHPI

for the preservice sample when the participants were grouped by type of intervention chosen for the case scenario.

For the practicing teachers sample, home experiences from the PHPI such as "grounding" and "restrictions from friends" did significantly differentiate these teachers when grouped by their choice of aversive versus positive/neutral interventions for the case scenario. When the full range of interventions selected were used in a regression analysis, restrictive home experiences and school experiences classified as "Lost Privileges" were significantly predictive of practicing teachers' choice of interventions. It should be noted that the "Lost Privileges" factor on the SES shares the "lost privileges" item with the Factor II (Restrictions) of the PHPI which was also significantly related to the selection of interventions by the teachers. Combining these results it would appear that those practicing teachers who had experienced "restrictive" consequences (i.e., grounded, sent to room, lost privileges, restrictive punishments) either at home and/or at school significantly selected more aversive interventions for the child in the case scenario than those who did not.

One explanation of these results may be that working in a school in a potentially conflictual situation with young people serves as a stimulus for remembering the use of restrictive interventions, that these teachers had experienced in school or at home as children. As Clark, Smith, Newby and Cook (1985) point out "...a person's teaching repertoire is already present prior to entering the teacher education program. This marvelous repertoire subconsciously developed over a lifetime of observing one's own teachers, is awakened in student teaching and activated in the first year of teaching. From then on it is modified through further experience" (p. 53). Since preservice teachers have not as yet practiced their profession, they have no stimulus for use of discipline techniques that may have been used with them as children. Therefore, it may be that the preservice teachers may use more aversive interventions (than

those reported here) when they begin teaching than they would for a hypothetical situation in a college context.

Why were restrictions and loss of privileges found to be significantly predictive of intervention selection? It is hypothesized that the practicing teachers recollected that these approaches were effective with them as children, and therefore, they did not immediately rule out using aversive consequences for the case scenario. As a result, these types of techniques were selected for use.

The finding that experiences with physical punishments were not significantly predictive of intervention selection is inconsistent with Kaplan's (1992) study as he reported that "individuals selecting aversive consequences were significantly more likely to report higher instances of a variety of punishments including being screamed at, being spanked with objects such as belts, being bruised by spanking, and being punished physically after the age of twelve" (p. 263). This is not surprising considering the fact that the link between being a victim of even severe abuse and becoming an abusive adult has yet to be consistently established. As was previously noted, at best, the rate of intergenerational transmission of abuse may reach 30% (Kaufman & Zigler, 1987). Thus, while the effects of physical punishment may lead to Post Traumatic Stress Disorder, reduced self-esteem, humiliation, and increased aggressive behavior (Hyman & Wise, 1979; Hyman, 1987), and thus, such management techniques may be deemed as inappropriate and undesirable, they do not seem to necessarily propel one to perpetuate the often proposed cycle of punishment through the subsequent employment of such techniques in the classroom. However, evidence of this link (or lack thereof) is admittedly limited from this study as few respondents in either sample reported physical punishments either at home or at school.

Only 30% of the total variance in intervention selection was accounted for by past experiences with discipline thus leaving 70% unaccounted for in this investigation. Once again this finding is not surprising if one adheres to the general model

proposed by Porter and Brophy (1988, cf. Figure 1, p. 22) which posits that external factors (i.e., social norms, instructional materials etc.), student characteristics, teacher reflection, teacher planning activities as well as teacher's knowledge and beliefs affect teachers' choice of intervention in the classroom. Clearly, while one's past experiences with discipline do seem to affect intervention selection, it appears to serve as only one variable among many.

Placing great emphasis upon past disciplinary experiences in attempts to understand the dynamics influencing a teacher's selection of intervention seems rather inappropriate in light of the current findings. This may be perceived as good news for teacher training institutions suggesting that one's past does not serve as unalterable constraints to adoption of appropriate management techniques. Although one may be influenced to a slight degree by his or her past disciplinary experiences, there are other variables which are more amenable to change ultimately affecting the management of behavior in the classroom.

Other findings

A number of other interesting findings emerged from the study. For example, the test-retest data from the PHPI showed that the most stable recollections of discipline experiences at home did involve the use of physical and verbal punishment. While physical and verbal punishments were most reliably remembered, these data have shown that they were not the strongest factors influencing the teachers' selection of consequences.

Of special note are the participants' recollections of home and school disciplinary experiences, which showed that significantly more aversive consequences were used at home than at school. Table 8 shows a t-test comparison of the means of similar PHPI and SES items for the preservice samples. This table shows that the home environment as recollected by the preservice sample offered more aversive verbal and physical punishment, but was also the seat of more meaningful communications (items #9 and #20).

Limitations and future research

Future research addressing the interaction of the variables presented in the proposed model is warranted. Furthermore, research on the role that past disciplinary experiences play in intervention selection needs to be conducted with a larger, more heterogeneous teacher populations. The small and rather limited sample of practicing teachers from midwestern, suburban schools utilized in Study 2 leads one to question the generalizability of these results to a larger, more diverse population.

Another limitation of this study was the lack of punishing backgrounds of both the preservice and practicing teachers. Neither group experienced much punishment and the entire group of practicing teachers report never being spanked or hit in school. This is not congruent with Pross (1988) and one must wonder whether a sample of teachers that had experienced more punishment at home or in school would have yielded different results. The next logical step would be to select different samples from various settings to find teachers with a more extensive punishment history and examine their responses to a case scenario.

The inclusion of multiple case scenarios, presented in various formats (e.g. video, role play, etc.) may serve to enhance the stability of new findings. In addition to the utilization of case scenarios, the examination of teacher's actual responses to misbehavior in the classroom is needed to validate the assumption that how a teacher responds to a simulated discipline problem is congruent with his or her response to actual problems occurring within a classroom environment.

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Figure Caption

Figure 1. Model of factors influencing teachers' instruction of their students in particular content

[Reprinted from Porter and Brophy (1988) with permission]

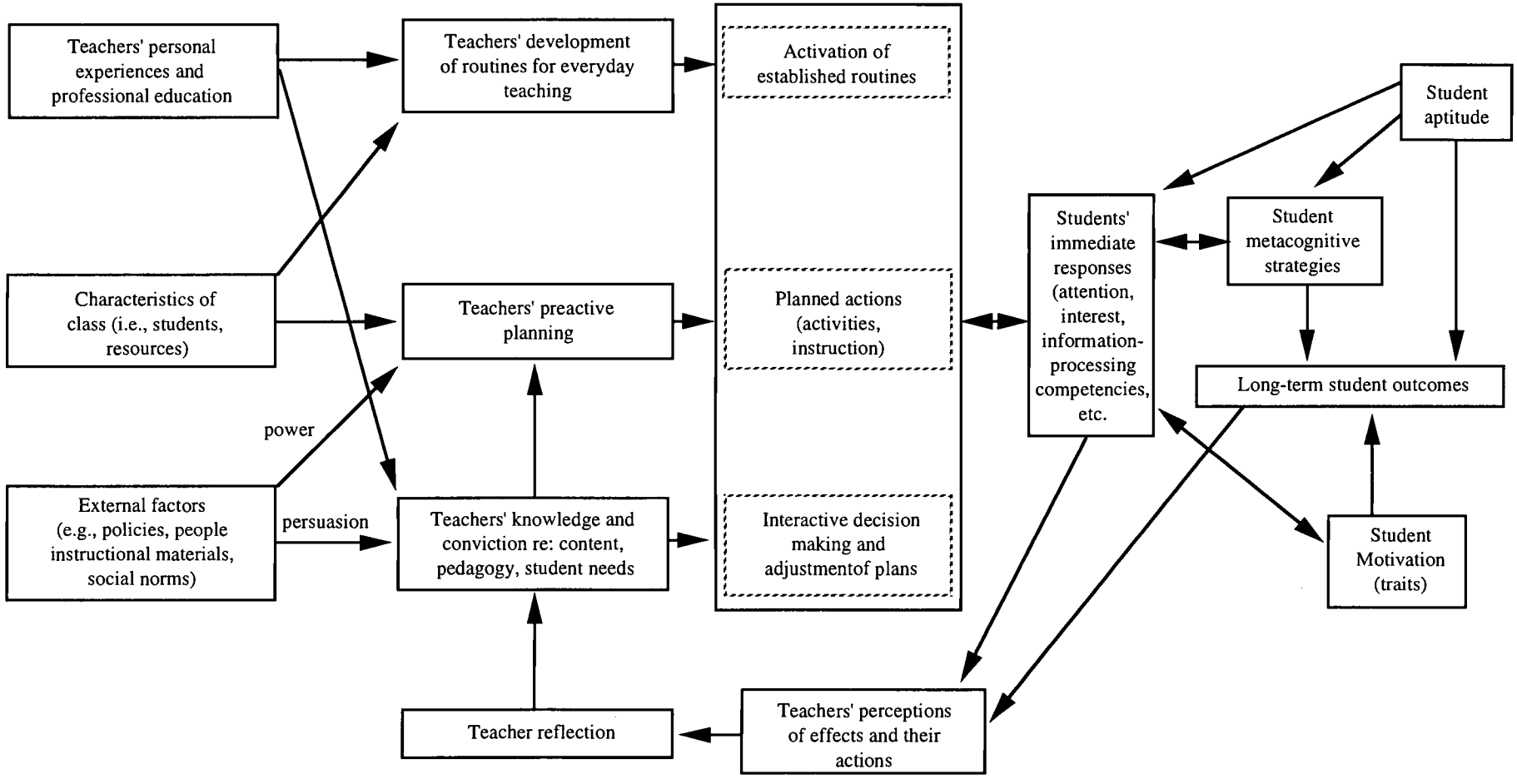

Table 1

Rating scale and inter-rated reliabilities for rating of the case scenarios.

Rating Scale Used for Scoring Case Scenario

Definitions

Rewarding Interventions - Teacher techniques, methods, or strategies whose purpose is to reward, with the potential for increasing, a student's behavior. Examples include stickers, food rewards, praise, etc.

Neutral Interventions - Teacher techniques, methods, or strategies whose purpose is to change a student's behavior through organizational approaches or teacher monitoring that are not clearly rewarding or aversive in nature. Examples include parent conferences, proximity control, etc.

Aversive interventions - Teacher techniques, methods, or strategies whose purpose is to reduce or eliminate a student's problem behavior. Examples include reprimands, striking at student, exclusion, etc.

Rating Categories

1 - Rewarding Interventions only
2 - Rewarding & Neutral Interventions
3 - Neutral Interventions only
4 - Rewarding & Aversive Interventions
5 - Neutral & Aversive Interventions
6 - Aversive Interventions only

Inter-Rater Reliabilities for the Case Scenario

	Rater #1	Rater #2
Rater #2	.90	
Rater #3	.78	.79

Table 2

Descriptive statistics and t-test comparisons for items on the Personal History of Punishment Inventory (PHPI) and the School Experiences Survey from the preservice sample.

		Personal History of Punishment History (PHPI)		School Experiences Survey (SES)	
#	Item Descriptions	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
	Absolute obedience	3.17	1.13	3.31	.94
2	Explanations	3.87	1.00	3.62	.98
3	Restricted from friends	2.89	1.05	2.65	1.03
4	Lost privileges	3.47	1.01	3.22	1.02
5	Punished first	2.21	1.15	2.26	1.12
6	Cursed at me	2.11	1.15	1.20	1.58
7	Sent to room/time-out	3.10	1.08	2.16	1.06
8	Explained rules	3.58	1.33	3.50	1.12
9	Willing to listen	3.50	1.09	3.10	.98
10	Approval	4.14	.91	4.06	.81
11	Spanked	2.82	1.20	1.20	.73
12	Hit-bruises	1.43	.94	1.04	.36
13	Praised	4.30	.95	4.18	.82
14	Spanked-object	1.85	1.16	1.14	.54
15	Grounded/restrictions	2.82	1.28	2.43	1.15
16	Screamed at me	2.83	1.19	1.71	.82
17	Physical punishment	1.42	.94	1.12	.51
18	Criticized	2.74	1.08	2.34	.95
19	No question authority	2.40	1.16	2.54	.99
20	Understand effect	3.62	1.01	3.23	.95

Table 3

Factors for the Personal History of Punishment Inventory (PHPI) and the School Experiences Survey.

Personal History of Punishment Inventory		School Experiences Survey*	
Factor I (Rules Explain & Praise)		Factor I (Physical Punishment)	
Factor		Factor	
Item #	Loading	Item #	Loading
1-Obedience	-.508	6-Cursed	.549
2-Explain	-.734	11-Spanked-hand	.749
8-Explain rules	.753	12-Hit	.764
9-Listen	.754	14-Spanked-obj	.862
10-Approval	.631	17-Phy punish	.913
13-Praise	.509		
19-No question	-.629	Factor II (Rules Explain & Praise)	
20-Beh effect	.779		
Factor II (Restrictions)		Item #	
		2-Explain	.697
Item #		8-Explain rules	.771
3-Restrictions	.691	9-Listen	.665
4-Lost privileges	.864	10-Approval	.783
5-Punished first	.517	13-Praise	.754
7-Sent to room	.615	20-Beh effect	.751
15-Grounded	.706		
		Factor III (Lost Privileges)	
Factor III (Physical Punishment			
		Item #	
Item #		3-No friends	.787
11-Spanked-hand	.604	4-Lost privileges	.792
12-Hit	.785		
14-Spanked-obj	.711	Factor IV (Total Obedience)	
17-Phy punish	.624		
		Item #	
Factor IV (Verbal Punishment		1-Total obedience	.801
		19-No question	.730
Item #			
6-Cursed	.764	Factor V (Restrictions	
16-Screamed	.551		
18-Criticized	.552	Item #	
		7-Time out	.685
		15-Restrictions	.699
		18-Criticized	.575

* Items 5 and 18 were dropped due to factor loadings of <.50

Table 4

Descriptive statistics for items on the Personal History of Punishment Inventory (PHPI) and the School Experiences Survey from the practicing teacher sample.

		Personal History of Punishment History (PHPI)		School Experiences Survey (SES)	
#	Item Descriptions	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1	Absolute obedience	3.64	1.15	3.64	.99
2	Explanations	3.89	.92	2.67	1.11
3	Restricted from friends	2.28	1.15	1.86	.97
4	Lost privileges	3.07	1.23	2.42	1.05
5	Punished first	2.27	1.27	2.12	.97
6	Cursed at me	1.44	.83	1.07	.33
7	Sent to room/time-out	2.39	1.08	1.50	.85
8	Explained rules	3.24	1.48	3.14	1.21
9	Willing to listen	3.52	1.13	2.47	.94
10	Approval	4.15	1.10	3.98	.95
11	Spanked	2.87	1.08	1.09	.36
12	Hit-bruises	1.34	.65	1.00	0
13	Praised	4.24	.83	4.11	1.03
14	Spanked-object	1.74	1.06	1.00	0
15	Grounded/restrictions	2.24	1.30	1.84	1.12
16	Screamed at me	2.13	1.11	1.43	.87
17	Physical punishment	1.29	.59	1.02	.15
18	Criticized	2.53	1.14	1.98	.93
19	No question authority	2.64	1.23	2.48	1.02
20	Understand effect	3.63	1.04	3.17	1.07

Table 5

Stepwise multiple regression of past home and school factors that significantly predicted practicing teachers selection of aversive interventions.

Step	Factors	Dfs	R	R^2
1	PHPI-Restrictions	1, 35	.35	.12
2	SES-1 Loss of Privileges	2, 34	.55	.30

Table 6

T-test comparisons for items on the Personal History of Punishment Inventory (PHPI) and the School Experiences Survey from the preservice sample.

#	Item Descriptions	t
1	Absolute obedience	-1.23 NS
2	Explanations	2.30 NS
3	Restricted from friends	2.10 NS
4	Lost privileges	2.53 NS
5	Punished first	-.63 NS
6	Cursed at me	8.79*
7	Sent to room/time-out	7.68*
8	Explained rules	.75 NS
9	Willing to listen	3.57*
10	Approval	.88 NS
11	Spanked	14.23*
12	Hit-bruises	4.43*
13	Praised	1.05 NS
14	Spanked-object	6.83*
15	Grounded/restrictions	3.16*
16	Screamed at me	11.12*
17	Physical punishment	3.80*
18	Criticized	4.02*
19	No question authority	-1.14 NS
20	Understand effect	3.57*

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