

The Pennsylvania State University

The Graduate School

College of Education

POWER IN PSYCHOTHERAPY: THE ROLE OF SEXISM, TRAITS AND SEX  
ON THE INFLUENCE STRATEGIES USED WITH FEMALE CLIENTS

A Thesis in

Counseling Psychology

by

Jaime M. Fenton

© 2005 Jaime M. Fenton

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements  
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

December 2005

The thesis of Jaime M. Fenton was reviewed and approved\* by the following:

Robert B. Slaney  
Professor of Counseling Psychology  
Thesis Adviser  
Chair of Committee

Constance R. Matthews  
Assistant Professor of Counselor Education

Kathleen J. Bieschke  
Associate Professor of Counseling Psychology

Phyllis K. Mansfield  
Professor of Women's Studies and Health Education

Spencer G. Niles  
Professor of Education  
Head of Department of Counselor Education, Counseling Psychology,  
and Rehabilitative Services

\* Signatures are on file in The Graduate School.

## ABSTRACT

Thesis Advisor: Robert B. Slaney, Ph.D.

This study examined psychologists' endorsement of power with female clients in psychotherapy. A number of theoretical articles have addressed the issue of power in psychotherapy but very few empirical examinations have been published. This dearth of research regarding how power is used in psychotherapy is problematic in understanding power, particularly as it relates to quality of care issues. The Interpersonal Power Inventory (IPI; Raven, Schwarzwald & Koslowsky, 1998) measures 11 power bases as conceptualized by French and Raven (1959) and Raven (1992). The IPI was adapted by the current author to examine how psychologists use power with female clients. It was named the Interpersonal Power Inventory-Psychologist version (IPI-P). The variables sex, sexism, agency, communion and the unmitigated forms of agency and communion were studied to examine their influence on the use of power in psychotherapy. The study was posted to the Internet research site Psychdata and listserves that cater to practicing psychologists were contacted (n = 156). A cluster analysis produced two homogenous groups that differed on their level of endorsement of the IPI-P scales. The clusters were labeled high and low power. The participants in the high power cluster had higher scores on every scale of the IPI-P. The high power cluster participants also scored significantly higher on the Hostile Sexism scale of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI; Glick and Fiske, 1996). Theoretical orientation differences were found for level of power endorsement. Female participants scored higher on the Personal Coercion scale of the IPI-P. Also, significant correlations were found between several of the variables although the correlations accounted for little of the variance. For example, small relationships were found between the Impersonal Coercion and Impersonal Reward scales of the IPI-P and the scales of the ASI. There were problems with low internal consistency for several of the IPI-P scales. The findings of this study

offer support for the theory that psychologists differ in their level of endorsement of power in psychotherapy. Questions were raised regarding the French and Raven (1959) model and the use of the IPI-P as a measure of the complex construct of power in psychotherapy.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables.....	viii
List of Figures.....	ix
Acknowledgments.....	x
Chapter 1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Chapter 2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	7
Psychotherapy and Power.....	8
Negative Uses of Power in Psychotherapy.....	12
The Empirical Examination of Power.....	16
Five + Power Base Model.....	17
Power/Interaction Model of Social Influence.....	18
The Power Base Model and Psychotherapy.....	24
Studies of the Power Base Model.....	28
Other Studies of Power in Psychotherapy.....	34
Women, Psychotherapy and Power.....	36
The Relationships of Power and Sex to Communion and Agency.....	40
Sex Differences in the Use of Power in Relationships.....	42
The Current Study.....	46
Chapter 3. METHODOLOGY.....	50
Pilot Study.....	50
Final Study.....	51
Participants.....	51
Procedures.....	52
Measures.....	54
Interpersonal Power Inventory.....	54
The Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire and Unmitigated Communion.....	65
Ambivalent Sexism Inventory.....	79
Demographic Questionnaire.....	87
Design.....	88
Statistics.....	89
Chapter 4. RESULTS.....	91
Pilot Study.....	91
Preliminary Analyses.....	91
Primary Analyses.....	100
Final Study.....	103
Preliminary Analyses.....	103
Primary Analyses.....	110
Correlations.....	110
T-tests.....	114
Factor Analysis.....	115

Cluster Analysis.....	118
Hypothesis 1.....	122
Hypothesis 2.....	123
Hypotheses 3 and 4.....	124
Additional Analysis.....	126
Chapter 5. DISCUSSION.....	129
Cluster Analysis.....	129
Hypotheses.....	134
Other Findings.....	136
IPI-P Scale Development.....	138
Limitations.....	142
Future Research.....	145
Implications and Conclusions.....	147
References.....	150
Appendix A: Pilot Study Research Recruitment Email.....	168
Appendix B: Pilot Study Informed Consent .....	169
Appendix C: Pilot Study Feedback Questionnaire.....	171
Appendix D: Final Study Research Recruitment Email.....	172
Appendix E: Final Study Informed Consent.....	173
Appendix F: Final Study Demographic Questionnaire.....	175
Appendix G: Interpersonal Power Inventory (IPI).....	176
Appendix H: Interpersonal Power Inventory-Psychologist Version (Pilot study)	
(IPI-P).....	179
Appendix I: Interpersonal Power Inventory-Psychologist Version (Final study)	
(IPI-P).....	183
Appendix J: Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (EPAQ).....	186
Appendix K: Unmitigated Communion (UC).....	189
Appendix L: Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI).....	190
Appendix M: Schwartz Value Survey (SVS).....	192

Appendix N: Listerves contacted with research request (non-exhaustive list).....195

## List of Tables

Table 1	Further Differentiating Bases of Social Power.....	22
Table 2	Demographic Characteristics of Final Study Sample.....	55
Table 3	Descriptives of Pilot Study Measures.....	92
Table 4	Internal Consistency of Pilot Study Measures.....	98
Table 5	Pilot Study Intercorrelations between IPI-P Scales.....	102
Table 6	Descriptives of Final Study Measures.....	105
Table 7	Internal Consistency of Final Study IPI-P.....	109
Table 8	Correlations between Dependent and Independent Measures.....	112
Table 9	Final Study Intercorrelations between IPI-P Scales.....	113
Table 10	Factor Loadings for Power Bases of IPI-P.....	117
Table 11	Descriptives of Cluster Group and Non-standardized IPI-P Scales.....	120
Table 12	Mean Differences between Clusters and Dependent Measures.....	125
Table 13	Nonparametric Analysis of Clusters and Theoretical Orientation.....	128

List of Figures

Figure 1      Power/Interaction Model of Social Influence.....20

## Acknowledgements

The idea for this dissertation came out of my interest in power dynamics. As a woman I have seen power used not just to oppress but also to empower, helping individuals to achieve their aspirations. This dissertation is dedicated to the many people in my life, including those acknowledged here, who have empowered me.

A first statement of appreciation needs to be extended to my dissertation committee. Kathy Bieschke, Ph.D. and Phyllis Mansfield, Ph.D. provided me with a great deal of feedback and suggestions that helped me to improve and refine this study into something I can be proud of. A next thanks must go to Connie Matthews, Ph.D. Throughout my studies at Penn State, including the dissertation process, she supported me and answered an endless number of questions. I could always expect a thoughtful response, not to mention honesty from her. Thank you in particular to my dissertation advisor Robert Slaney, Ph.D. He might have preferred that I study perfectionism but he gave me the freedom to pursue a study of interest to me. At certain points he seemed intrigued and excited about the study which helped me to have some energy and faith in the dissertation process. I have learned a great deal about research and mentoring from him.

I would be remiss if I did not extend a special thanks to the women supervisors and mentors that I worked with while in the doctoral program at Penn State including Jill Morgan, Ph.D. and Peggy Lorah, Ed.D. These women have served as models of strong, proud feminist women and have been an inspiration to me. I have learned so much about being a feminist from them, helping clarify my own ideas about power and empowerment. I will always value knowing these women and will continue to carry them around in my heart.

Thank you very much to all of my friends and colleagues at the University of Delaware Center's for Counseling and Student Development and Penn State University's Counseling and Psychological Service who helped me to recruit participants. Many individuals at both counseling centers assisted me during the process of this study, offering advice and empathy.

I must also thank my parents Jackie and Edward Fenton. Their support and pride helped me to achieve this goal. Their daughter can finally be finished with college!

Last, but certainly not least, I must thank my best friend and partner Michael Reed. He has been there with me from the beginning with an endless amount of patience, faith and encouragement. I am very fortunate to have had him with me every step of the way, never faltering, always offering unconditional support and love. This dissertation is dedicated to him because he has empowered me to achieve my goals and dreams and our relationship continually serves as a source of power for me.

## Chapter 1

### INTRODUCTION

It is clear that therapists possess power to influence clients (Douglas, 1985; Frank, 1966; Strong & Mattross, 1973). The extent of this power and how therapists use it with clients is far less clear. A number of theoretical articles have been devoted to conceptualizing this issue (Amundson, Stewart, & Valentine, 1993; Gannon, 1982; Strong & Mattross, 1973) but few empirical examinations have been completed. The construct of power is relevant to psychotherapy for a number of reasons. First, as mentioned, psychologists have power at their disposal with clients because they are placed into the role of being able to offer assistance when clients seek out help with their problems (Billow, 1999; Gannon, 1982; Taylor, 1994). It is the responsibility of the therapist to set up the therapeutic relationship to empower rather than to disempower clients. Secondly, authors have conceptualized the experience of powerlessness as being at the root of many psychological conditions. A sense of power over one's life is readily associated with psychological health (Proctor, 2002), particularly self-esteem and sense of self (Mack, 1994).

The question of how power is used in psychotherapy has particular relevance for marginalized clients, like women, because they also experience a disadvantage in terms of social power (Taylor, 1994). Many of the presenting problems of female clients can be seen as a product of this lessened social power (Hertzberg, 1996). Additionally, sexism can be seen as related to power issues (O'Neil & Egan, 1993).

French and Raven (1959) developed a model of power in which power is defined as one's level of influence. Raven (1992, 1999) has more recently expanded this model. His model assumes that there are a variety of power bases that an individual can choose from when making

an influence attempt. Some authors have theorized how therapists may use these power bases in psychotherapy (Douglas, 1985; Goodyear & Robyak, 1981; Raven, 1986) and there have been a handful of studies on the topic (Paradise, Zweig, & Conway, 1986; Robyak, 1981; Robyak, Goodyear, Prange, & Donham, 1986). According to French and Raven (1959) the power base reward is the influencer's ability to provide rewards. A related power base is coercion which involves the influencer's ability to provide punishment. Both reward and coercion power bases have impersonal and personal forms that are determined by whether the therapist is using his or her approval as a source of power or the power is based on some type of physical or tangible form of influence (Raven, 1999). The legitimate power base is derived from the client's perception that the therapist has the right to be influential; it is often called structural power (Brown, 1994). The next base is labeled expert power and is based on the client's belief that the therapist is an expert (Yesenosky & Dowd, 1990). An additional power base is that of referent power that is derived from the client's identification with the therapist (Goodyear & Robyak, 1981). Last, is the information power base which is demonstrated through the presentation of materials such as pamphlets or more didactic information given to the client (Goodyear & Robyak, 1981). A comprehensive examination of this model with therapists is needed because the previous studies have had significant weaknesses such as the inclusion of only a select number of the power bases and the use of instruments with little validity data. A complete review of the literature is located in Chapter 2.

This study sought to understand which power bases psychologists use with female clients using the French and Raven model (1959). The current study examined other variables to understand the influence of sexist beliefs, sex and traits on the choice of power base with this population. I believe that a greater understanding of how psychologists use their power and

influence with female clients may lead to greater attention and awareness of power issues by the profession, particularly as these issues relate to oppressed client populations.

Chapter 3 details the research design and the measures used in this study. A pilot study was undertaken prior to the final study. This preliminary study was completed to obtain feedback from participants regarding the study including the length of time it took to complete the study as well as whether the content was confusing in any way. Additionally, some statistical analyses were completed to compare the adapted version of the Interpersonal Power Inventory to its original form. Some changes to the final study were made based upon the findings from the pilot including the removal of one instrument.

Participants for this study were recruited via Internet listserves that cater largely to psychologists. The research recruitment ad targeted adults who had achieved a doctoral degree in psychology who work with, on average, at least four clients a week. Individuals interested in participating were directed to the secure Internet research site Psychdata and were asked to complete four measures and provide some demographic information. The order of presentation of the measures was randomized and included three different sequences of surveys that participants could receive. Participants were entered into a raffle with the prize of one of ten twenty-dollar gift certificates when their email address was provided. A total of 198 participants responded to the study but only 156 were viable due to early drop out and other factors.

The Interpersonal Power Inventory (IPI; Raven, Schwarzwald, & Koslowsky, 1998) is a 44 item measure designed to examine French and Raven's power bases (1959) and Raven's further conceptualization of the model (1992, 1999). The inventory seeks to examine the types of power bases used by supervisors to influence their subordinates and has an alternate version in which it assesses the subordinate's perceptions of the power bases used by his/her supervisors,

both in terms of the effectiveness of the power bases. Although relatively new, the instrument is thought to possess some strong psychometric properties. It was found to contain two factors: harsh and soft power bases, accounting for approximately 60% of the variance (Raven, et al, 1998). The coefficient alphas ranged from .72 to .90 (Raven et al., 1998). The IPI has been adapted by a number of authors for use with different populations (Dunbar, Blanco, Sullaway & Horcajo, 2004; Erchul, Raven & Whichard, 2001). In this study this instrument was adapted for use with psychologists to assess their perceptions of the effectiveness of the power bases with clients. I revised the measure to fit this population by examining the literature pertaining to the power and influence of psychotherapists. Following the initial conceptualization of items, Raven examined the new items and provided feedback. Several other individuals, with knowledge of psychotherapy and an awareness of power issues, examined the instrument as well. This feedback was incorporated into the final revision of the measure and it was named the Interpersonal Power Inventory-Psychologist Version (IPI-P).

The Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (EPAQ; Spence, Helmreich & Holahan, 1979) is a 40 item measure that was used to assess agency, communion and unmitigated agency. Internal consistencies for the EPAQ major scales have been reported at .77 (Lubinski, Tellegran & Butcher, 1983). The EPAQ was paired with the Unmitigated Communion scale (UC; Helgeson, 1993). Helgeson and Fritz (1999) reported internal consistencies ranging from .70 to .77 and .60 to .85 for the EPAQ and UC respectively across six samples.

The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI; Glick & Fiske, 1996) is a 22 item instrument that measures both hostile and benevolent sexism. This instrument was chosen over other sexism measures because of its ability to assess both the more blatant and the less obvious forms of sexism. The instrument was also considered for this study because it has been validated cross

culturally with supportive results in over 19 countries. During the initial validation of the instrument, alpha coefficients for the subscales and total measure ranged from .73 to .92 (Glick & Fiske, 1996). The instrument has been found to be highly correlated with other measures of sexism (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

The data for the IPI-P was examined using cluster analysis, dividing participants into groups based on their responses to the measure. It was hypothesized that there would be two clusters made up of participants who strongly endorsed either the harsh or soft power bases that have been found in the factor analyses of the measure (Koslowsky, Schwarzwald & Ashuri, 2001; Raven, Schwarzwald, & Koslowsky, 1998). It was further hypothesized that the participants making up each of these clusters would respond to the dependent measures in different ways. For example, it was thought that those who fit into the harsh base cluster would score higher on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory than those in the soft base cluster. Additionally, it was hypothesized that the endorsement of the harsh power bases would be more highly associated with unmitigated communion and unmitigated agency. It was also believed that the participants would respond differently to the dependent measures based on sex.

Chapter 4 reports the findings from both the pilot study and final study. Problems were experienced with the internal consistency of several of the scales of the IPI-P and these scales were excluded from the primary analyses. The cluster analysis did not produce groups made up of participants that strongly endorsed either harsh or soft bases as expected rather the analysis grouped participants according to the strength of their scores across the power base scales. Two groups were produced and were labeled *high* and *low power* clusters. The *high power* cluster was made up of participants who endorsed each of the power bases included in the analysis at a higher level. The participants in the *high power* cluster had significantly higher scores on the

Hostile Sexism scale of the ASI. Significant sex differences were found for the IPI-P scale of Personal Coercion in which women scored significantly higher than men. Women scored higher on the majority of the IPI-P scales although these findings were largely not statistically significant. Some other findings concerned the power base of Information. Participants overall more highly endorsed the Information power base and this scale was positively correlated with communion and negatively correlated with unmitigated agency and unmitigated communion, although these relationships were small.

Chapter 5 discusses the findings of the study, integrating related theory and research. Special attention is paid to the findings related to the IPI-P and the hypotheses of the investigation. The limitations of the study are discussed and future directions are suggested. Particularly, it is suggested that qualitative research methods may be used to create a model of power unique to the psychotherapy relationship. Finally, conclusions are made regarding the findings of the study.

## Chapter 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

The discussion of power in psychology and psychotherapy is not new. Psychologists and counselors have been theorizing about the issue for decades. Early theorists such as Alfred Adler acknowledged the importance of power issues in human development (Griscom, 1992) while other authors have explored the potential role of power and powerlessness in the development of distress (Brant, 1995; Hertzberg, 1996; Mack, 1994). Frank (1961) and Strong and Mattross (1973) were the first to conceptualize therapy as a process of influencing and persuading clients and discussed the power inherent in the role of therapists.

The phenomenon of power is defined in the social sciences literature in a myriad of ways. Feminist authors are credited with creating a dialogue about power in the psychological literature (Allen, 1998; Jones, 2003). Power in this literature is generally broken down into three types: power within, power over, and empowerment (Smith & Douglas, 1990). Power within is defined as the ability to direct and have control over one's life and is discussed as a feeling of strength and mastery within the individual (Smith & Douglas, 1990). This type of power seems similar to the notion of personal power, defined as the ability to determine one's own life course (Smith & Siegel, 1985). Power over is conceived as domination over another that involves controlling the individual's access to resources (Smith & Douglas, 1990). Similarly, interpersonal power is defined as the power to influence another individual's access to resources (Smith & Siegel, 1985). Empowerment is seen as the sharing of power for the enhancement of others (Miller & Cummins, 1992), helping individuals develop a sense of agency and power (Kitzinger, 1991). These definitions imply that power is relational in nature (Griscom, 1992), occurring between individuals and groups in society. The aforementioned powers have particular relevance for

psychotherapy, the topic of examination of this study. Power as it manifests itself in psychotherapy is discussed in the field of psychology although often disguised in the literature as the terms authority, expertise, influence, and domination.

A number of articles have been written conceptualizing the role of power and influence strategies in psychotherapy (Amundson, Stewart & Valentine, 1993; Guilfoyle, 2002; Mack, 1994; Ramsey, 1997; Smail, 1995; Taylor, 1994; Veldhuis, 2001). Relative to the many theoretical articles devoted to the topic and the importance of this issue there have been very few empirical investigations of power issues in psychotherapy. The current study seeks to contribute to the knowledge of power in psychotherapy and the various influences on the types of power used with female clients. This dissertation will explore the literature that has examined power issues in psychotherapy. A model of different power bases that has relevance to psychotherapy will be discussed, as well as the related empirical literature. Additionally, this review will discuss the literature exploring power issues in intimate and non-intimate relationships.

### **Psychotherapy and Power**

Clients often come to psychotherapy because they lack the power to improve their own problems (Billow, 1999; Gannon, 1982; Taylor, 1994), and are looking for some form of assistance from an expert. For example, an individual may be suffering from symptoms of depression and unable to understand the root of these symptoms and may look to a therapist to find some answers. Some authors believe that clients may enter therapy because of negative experiences with power (Brown & Ballou, 1992; Ivey, 1995; Mack, 1994; Rodis & Strehorn, 1997). Such experiences may involve abuses of power and can occur in a variety of realms whether in the home, workplace or in society itself (Rodis & Strehorn, 1997). The effects of physical abuse and sexual trauma are all the result of unequal power relations among people

(Mack, 1994). Additionally, members of oppressed groups experience a lack of power simply by belonging to a marginalized group. Their experiences with discrimination contribute to their lack of power in society. The condition of *nervios* experienced by refugees is one example of distress related to power as experienced by individuals as a result of living in an oppressive society (Mack, 1994). A feeling of personal power is thought to be directly connected to one's self-esteem and identity.

The sense that we have some power or effectiveness in the world, that our voices are heard, or that at least to a degree, we are in charge of our lives or can influence or otherwise have an impact on our surroundings or other people, is tied intimately to how we feel about ourselves (Mack, 1994, p. 180).

Many psychological conditions such as abuse and addictions can be seen as expressions of unequal power (Mack, 1994). Abuse involves an individual having power over another, which could be physical power, leaving the victim unable to protect him or herself. In addictions, often addicts feel powerlessness over their desire or need for alcohol or drugs, unable to fight urges. Most theoretical orientations acknowledge the role of power in psychological distress (Proctor, 2002). Theoretical approaches often have as an underlying assumption, whether implicit or explicit, that a sense of powerlessness is associated with psychological distress and therefore a sense of mastery and power over one's life would be associated with mental well-being (Proctor, 2002). Mack (1994) states that "without a sense of personal power...we experience our desires as painfully unattainable" (p. 188).

A client's dependence on the therapist in order to receive help with distress creates the main power difference in the therapy relationship (Douglas, 1985).

The therapeutic relationship has been traditionally based on the strong belief and assumption that the therapists' knowledge and theories were invariably superior to the clients' and that we thus have the power and authority to designate what comprises normal and abnormal behavior (Chapman, 1993, p. 58).

The psychotherapy relationship can be characterized as a communal relationship (Pratto & Walker, 2001). Communal relationships are different from egalitarian relationships because in communal relationships one member has more power than the other. This power may benefit either the subordinate or the dominant individual or it may simply go unused, benefiting neither party. This power to benefit the subordinate will not lead to some type of exploitation of the dominant because the subordinate simply does not have the power to exploit the dominant. It is thought that the power in communal relationships can be used for beneficence or maleficence, helping or hurting subordinates. Paternalism as seen in sexism or racism (Glick & Fiske, 1996) can be seen in communal relationships and tends to harm subordinates (Pratto & Walker, 2001). It hurts the subordinate, often through domination, impacting the subordinate's access to resources and his/her own power. Egalitarian relationships involve the aspiration of members having equal power in the sense that either party is able to enter, leave and make decisions equally. Egalitarianism in psychotherapy is seen as a "utopian ideal" that is never attainable because the therapist always has power as the expert (Hare-Mustin & Marecek, 1986).

Douglas (1985) theorized that the ability to impact the power difference inherent in the therapy relationship and empower the client comes from the therapist's greater power to facilitate this process. Clients are considered to be always at a power disadvantage because of their vulnerability and dependence on their therapist for help (Ward, 1993). Because the role of the client always involves less power (Proctor, 2002) it is the responsibility of the therapist to

attend to power issues. The client's feelings of powerlessness and the power differential in the therapy dyad can be impacted significantly by how the therapist sets up the therapeutic relationship (Taylor, 1994). The therapists' ideas about power in therapy and personal power can influence the goals as well as how client problems are defined. Therapists can create a space for clients to feel empowered, gaining greater control over their problems and experiencing the ability to make decisions about their futures, and more specifically, their treatment.

Alternatively, therapists may set up the therapeutic relationship in such a way to meet their own power needs at the expense of clients, disempowering them (Smith & Douglas, 1990). DeVaris (1994) states that "power in the treatment relationship is like a double-edged sword, that can either free a patient from the bondage of psychopathology, or unwittingly reduce a patient's sense of empowerment (p. 591)." It is important for all psychotherapists to think about how they use power because all therapies involve power (van Mens-Verhulst, 1991).

Another way in which power issues enter into the therapeutic relationship is through cultural differences between the therapist and the client. Proctor (2002) defines societal power as the power that arises for the specific societal positions of the client and the therapist. These differences pertain to sex, socioeconomic status, disability status, ethnicity and sexual orientation. Those clients who belong to a marginalized or oppressed population clearly have less social power and greater experiences with powerlessness than a psychotherapist from the majority culture. These different societal positions may magnify the power of the therapist (Proctor, 2002). Therapists need to have an understanding of both their own position within society and the position of the client and how these two positions may interact in terms of value differences and level of power.

## **Negative Uses of Power in Psychotherapy**

The majority of authors who discuss power in the therapy relationship address how power can be used in negative ways in psychotherapy (Amundson, Stewart & Valentine, 1993; Gannon, 1982; Veldhuis, 2001). Strupp (1974), as a critic of psychotherapy, asserts that the therapy relationship is the power base from which the therapist influences the client through modeling, manipulation, persuasion, interpretation and encouragement of clients (p. 250). Strupp believes that psychotherapy, in general, is manipulative. He asserts that therapeutic change is largely due to a manipulation of the client and that such controlling aspects of psychotherapy inevitably impact the autonomy of the client.

Inequalities in therapy are particularly seen in inpatient settings (Mack, 1994). It is in these settings that individuals have many aspects of their power taken away from them including the power to make decisions about their psychological treatment. Amundson, Stewart and Valentine (1993) discuss the dangers of unchecked power in the therapy relationship. They present multiple ways in which power can be damaging to the therapy relationship. The first relates to the demonstration of expertise by the therapist such as through using excessive jargon. Therapists often consider a client to be a “good client” if she/he accepts the therapist’s expertness by agreeing with a certain diagnosis and goals of treatment. This is thought to be silencing to clients, promoting their passivity and an acceptance of the therapist’s position rather than the freedom to state their own ideas. Power can also be seen in the therapist’s choice of which client complaints become the focus in therapy, promoting selective attention to certain aspects of a client’s story. This may move therapy in the direction of the therapist’s interests rather than what the client needs to work on. Additionally, a client is often seen as desirable if she/he makes progress in the ways that the therapist values. Amundson et al. (1993) state that

these approaches represent a *therapy of power* rather than a *therapy of empowerment*. Power may also enter into psychotherapy in insidious ways by therapists rescuing clients by doing for clients what they should do for themselves. Therapists may also frame clients as unaware, less insightful or uncooperative when the therapists are feeling frustrated (Amundson et al., 1993).

Therapists without an awareness of power dynamics in psychotherapy may be controlling and impose their beliefs, possibly repeating the conditions that brought the client into therapy (Mack, 1994) when therapy should enhance the client's sense of power and agency. Gannon (1982) points out that a therapist's attempts to avoid answering questions, whether about the process of therapy or about the specifics of the client's problems is one way of holding onto power. The therapist may be unwilling to share his or her knowledge or the goals of treatment in an attempt to keep the client in the dark about his/her treatment (Gannon, 1982). Therapists may often withhold pertinent information about themselves, such as the specifics of their training or their own experience with a certain presenting problem. These approaches can be seen as both mystifying therapy and promoting the idea that therapists are problem-free, which are ways of holding onto expertness within the therapy relationship (Gannon, 1982). Another way that power can be used to disempower clients is through blaming clients for not making improvements in psychotherapy.

DeVaris (1994) differentiates between the helpful and destructive manifestations of power. The therapist's values, attitudes, biases and unconscious and conscious beliefs are seen as potentially harmful or helpful, depending on whether they reduce or increase the power of the client. Countertransference and unmet power needs of the therapist that are not explored and understood by the clinician also have the potential of harming the client. Some therapists simply deny their influential power with clients and see the therapy relationship as equal (Veldhuis,

2001). Gannon (1982) suggests that such a denial of the power differences in therapy is possibly due to the negative connotations associated with power, creating images such as slavery and dirty politicians. A second reason that therapists may deny their power with clients is because to admit that a power difference exists is one step toward losing some power (Gannon, 1982).

In response to challenges about the power structure in therapy, therapists may also argue that such a power structure is helpful to clients (Gannon, 1982). These therapists may assert that such a relationship can help those clients who use power in less effective ways. This suggestion assumes that the therapist always knows what is best for the client, again asserting the status as an expert. The persuasion of clients to enter into sexual relationships with their therapists is an ultimate abuse of power but therapists may also cause damage simply in their role of assisting clients in making life changing decisions on a regular basis (Redlich, 1986). These therapists may exert their own values on clients, influencing their decision making in a way that does not fit the clients' interests and needs.

Feelings of powerlessness on the part of the therapist are thought to be associated with burnout and the use of coercive tactics with clients (Veldhuis, 2001). Such feelings of powerlessness can promote a therapist to deny any potential for harm, leading to ethical abuses. A study by McCarthy and Frieze (1999) attempted to address power issues as they relate to quality of care, using French and Raven's (1959) model of power strategies, a model of power that will be discussed shortly. The participants for this study were 131 undergraduate students who indicated that they had been seen by a mental health professional in the past and the majority of the participants had seen a therapist for four to ten sessions. The authors hypothesized that the participants who reported the use of coercive and expert influence strategies by their therapist would find therapy to be less successful, report less satisfaction, and

view therapy as less effective. These hypotheses were supported by the data. Additionally, the use of providing rewards as a form of power was associated with participants' perceptions of success, satisfaction, and therapist effectiveness. As predicted, participants who left therapy for negative reasons reported that their therapists used more coercive power strategies than participants who left for positive reasons. A limitation of this study is that the scale used to measure expert influence measured the participants' retrospective perception of their therapist's reputation as an expert. Although these findings are preliminary and based on the subjective, retrospective perceptions of therapeutic encounters, this study suggests the importance of understanding therapist influence strategies as they relate to client quality of care.

A study by Bugental and Lewis (1999) demonstrates the danger of those in powerful positions perceiving themselves as powerless. Women in this study (n = 160) were pre-selected by the researchers as having perceived high or low power as measured by a parental attribution measure. These participants were presented with the challenge of teaching a task to a disruptive child. Participants who were in the low power condition demonstrated a change in their response pattern and reactivity when working with the disruptive child, and became preoccupied with control oriented thoughts while those in the high power condition demonstrated no significant reactions. Although this study did not attempt to generalize to the power difference in psychotherapy, it creates interesting speculation regarding therapist responses to difficult clients.

The question of whether power is good or bad is a difficult one. Many authors would have you believe that power is always bad, invariably leading to oppression and unethical acts. Often these voices are those of feminist authors who are skeptical of those in power and argue against the pursuit of power because it could be addictive in a sense (Lipps, 1981). Power is most likely neutral in quality; how it is used determines its value (Kitzinger, 1991). Lipps (1981)

clarifies some considerations that may be used to understand when the power is good and when it is bad. A first issue is the manner in which power is attained. Has the individual acquired this power at others' expense or through unethical means? The second issue is the manner in which the power is used. Does the individual use his/her power to only get his/her needs met or to help others as well? Finally, what are the effects of this use of power, in other words, how are others impacted? It is likely that power in the therapy relationship can operate in both positive and negative ways. In terms of the positive aspects of power, clients would not attend therapy sessions if their therapists did not possess some amount of power to help them; otherwise they would work on their issues alone or with others. Additionally, power can be used by therapists to empower clients, offering them assistance and support through difficult times, and helping them to find their own power.

### **The Empirical Examination of Power**

One might wonder why there is not a better understanding of power and how it affects interpersonal and societal interactions. This lack of understanding is not due to a belief across disciplines that power is an unimportant topic. Rather, there is agreement that power is one of the most fundamental aspects of human interactions (Olson & Cromwell, 1975). Power is a complex phenomenon that is difficult to define, describe and then study (Olson & Cromwell, 1975) but it has been examined across disciplines including sociology, business, social psychology, and family studies. Unfortunately, this multidisciplinary approach has not involved collaboration and has produced an incomplete understanding of power (Cromwell & Olson, 1975). Griscom (1992) notes that there is little chance of the adoption of a single or universal definition of power. She discusses how any definition of power should include an understanding of how it is relational in

nature, that it is more than simply dominance or coercion, that power is a process over time, and that it has individual as well as societal implications.

The field of psychology is behind other disciplines in the study of power (Kitzinger, 1991; Marecek & Kravetz, 1991). Feminist psychologists and counselors can be credited for its increasing popularity in the literature because of their repeated emphasis on the issue. The following model was chosen for use in this study because it conceptualizes power as multifactoral and is interpersonal in nature.

### **Five + Power Base Model**

French and Raven (1959) developed a widely accepted model of power. They postulated a theory of social influence and power, defining power as one's level of influence in a relationship. These authors state that P, the person, is influenced by O, which could be another person, a norm or a group. These authors initially conceptualized six qualitatively different types of power that characterize the relationship between P and O. These types of power are reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, expert and Information.

Reward power is a person's perception that O could mediate his/her rewards, administering positive valences or removing negative valences (French & Raven, 1959). The strength of this power is determined by P's perception of O's ability to affect the delivery of rewards. Coercive power is derived from the individual's perception that O can deliver punishment if she/he does not conform to the influence attempt. The magnitude of the punishment is important with this power base and is influenced by P's perception as to what constitutes punishment. Coercion tends to diminish the individual (P) and elevates the influencer (Raven, 1986) It is further thought that punishment decreases P's independence and rewards increase P's independence. This power base is also dependent on surveillance because P will

only be influenced by this power base if he/she believes that O will watch for compliance after the influence attempt has been made (Raven, 1990). The bases of reward and coercion are the only types of influence that require surveillance.

Legitimate power is also called position power in the literature (Erchul & Raven, 1997) or structural power (Brown, 1994). This power is based on the structural relationship or hierarchy between P and O (Raven, 1990). Legitimate power base derives from P's perception that O has the right to influence him/her (French & Raven, 1959). This power is derived from P's internalized cultural norms and values which dictate who is considered to be a legitimate agent. Referent power is derived from P's identification with O. It is "a feeling of oneness with O, a desire for such an identity" (French & Raven, 1959, p. 161). The greater the attraction, or identification with O, the broader the influence of power. Expert power is related to the amount of expertness and knowledge attributed to O. With this power base, P is expected to believe that O knows best in order for O to be influential (Raven, 1990).

The final base of power is Information power which was added to the model at a later date (Raven, 1992). This base is defined as the power of persuasion or logical argument as a method of influencing change that is socially independent of the influencer. P is thought to accept and internalize the information and O becomes less consequential to the change process (Raven, 1992). Information power can be distinguished from expert power in that it is the information and less so the influencer that is the focus of attention (Erchul & Raven, 1997). It is therefore the only base that would be described as socially independent.

### **Power/Interaction Model of Social Influence**

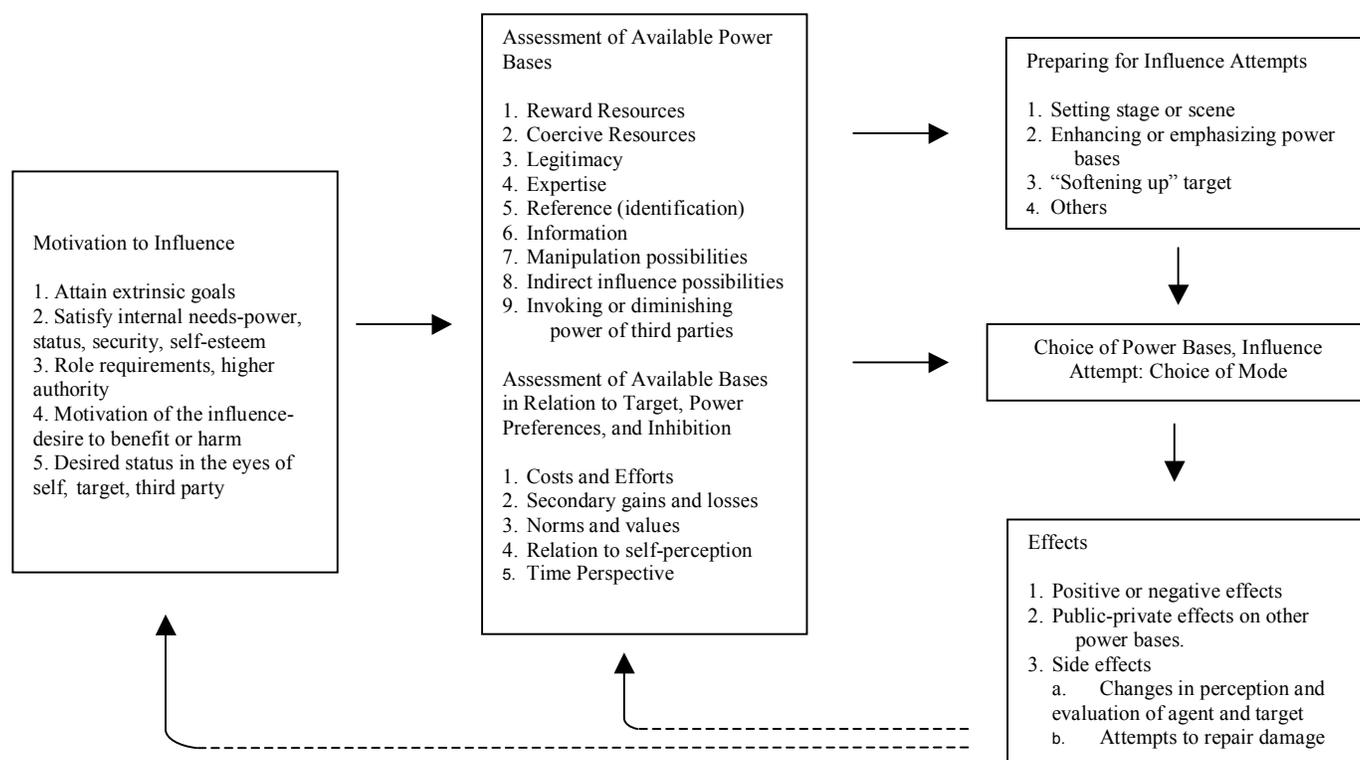
This power model was further developed by Raven following the model's initial conception. Raven's expansion of the model (1990, 1992) involves viewing power as an

interaction and therefore he renamed it the power/interaction model of social influence. See Figure 1 to view this model. This model is thought to be “applicable to all social situations in which social influence and power (potential influence) is involved” (Erchul & Raven, 1997, p. 5). Bruins (1999) describes this model as dynamic because it incorporates the influencer’s ability to be rational and judge the cost, benefits, consequences and effects of the use of strategies. This model is circular and interactive, involving the influencer’s motivation to influence, an assessment of the available power bases, preparatory efforts, choice of power and the effects of the power base (Raven, 1990). The assessment of what power bases are available impacts both the preparatory gestures and the choice of which power base will be used. The effects or the success of the power base used then impacts the motivation to influence in the future. The success of the influence attempt also affects the evaluation of the different power bases. Each of the pieces of this model will be discussed briefly.

The first part of the model involves the motivation of the O to influence. Raven (1990) describes five possible goals or motivations of an influence attempt. The first motivation is the most obvious and involves the attainment of some extrinsic goal. A second external motivator involves the role requirements of some particular position or authority. The next motivations are less obvious to an observer. A third motivation would be to satisfy some internal psychological need such as the need for power, self-esteem or authority. A related motivation of O is to be seen by others as having power or status. A last motivation would involve O having an interest in impacting P in some way. O may have an interest of helping or harming P for some reason unrelated to the other motivations.

The second part of the model involves O assessing the available power bases. A development with regard to this part of the model is the acknowledgement that there are other

Figure 1: Power/Interaction Model of Social Influence. From “The bases of power: Origins and recent developments” by B.H. Raven, 1993, *Journal of Social Issues*, 49, p. 235.



types of influence that are less direct than the aforementioned power bases that are available to O. A first indirect method is that of manipulation in which O changes the situation in such a way that P has no other option but to comply (Raven, 1990). Another method is invoking a third party of some sort to aid in the influence attempt. During this step of the model, O may engage in a cost-benefit analysis of the different power bases, evaluating the potential effectiveness and consequences of each power base for a given situation (Raven, 1992).

O may engage in some preparation for influence before a choice is made of which power base to use. Raven (1992, 1999) discusses ways that individuals “set the stage” for persuasion or use preparatory devices prior to using influence strategies. An influencer may provide background information as a means of setting the stage for an information strategy. In terms of legitimate power, the individual may arrange chairs in a particular way or set up a podium. A way of setting the stage for the expert power base may be to have a library of professional books, and display diplomas. Another way of setting up the expert power base may be for the individual to wear a certain uniform or garb that matches one’s position. O may also engage in finding some manner to diminish other influences on P and/or emphasize one’s own resources as a means of preparing to influence O.

Following the influencing attempt O is likely to assess the effects of the attempt. The influencing agent will determine whether the attempt was successful and whether goals were met (Raven, 1992). O may also examine whether the influence attempt altered P’s view of O in any manner. Lastly, O will examine whether any damage has occurred and may engage in more influence attempts in order to repair such damage.

A model was also developed by Raven (1992) from the perspective of the influence target, or P, to demonstrate the impact of the power bases. This model will not be discussed but

has relevance for future research that could examine the influence attempt from the perspectives of both O and P.

In addition to the creation of the aforementioned model, Raven further differentiated the original power bases. See Table 1 for a summary of how these power bases were further distinguished. French and Raven (1959) had initially conceived reward and punishment power as based only on tangible items such as physical threats or benefits. Further thinking in this area led them to believe that approval or disapproval through acceptance and rejection could be just as powerful (Raven, 1992). This led to the conceptualization of personal and impersonal forms of reward and punishment.

Table 1

*Further Differentiating Bases of Social Power*

Bases of Power	Further Differentiation
Coercion	Impersonal Coercion Personal Coercion
Reward	Impersonal Reward Personal Reward
Legitimacy	Formal Legitimacy (Position power) Legitimacy of Reciprocity Legitimacy of Equity Legitimacy of Dependence (Powerlessness)
Expert	Positive Expert Negative Expert
Referent	Positive Referent Negative Referent
Information	Direct Information Indirect Information

*Note.* From “The bases of power: Origins and recent developments” by B.H. Raven, 1993, *Journal of Social Issues*, 49, p. 235.

Legitimate power was also further developed, acknowledging that there are four different types within this power base. Example statements will help to explain the differences between some of the types of legitimate power. The first is the legitimate power of dependence that has been referred to as the “power of the powerless” (Raven, 1992) and involves the target, or P, feeling obligated to assist O because O is in need of assistance (Raven, Schwarzwald, & Koslowsky, 1998). An example of this sort is “I am not about to force you to follow my method, but it is absolutely essential to me that you do so...I really depend on you to do this for me (Raven, 1992, p. 221). The second is the legitimate power of reciprocity that is based on give and take within a relationship. An example for this power base is “I have spent several sessions helping you...so you should feel obligated to implement the plan to the best of your ability” (Erchul & Raven, 1997, p. 10). The third is the legitimate power of equity that is based on fairness and involves the influencing agent pointing out how equity is desired in a relationship. An example statement would be: “I have worked hard and suffered, so it is only fair that you should do something which I ask of you” (Raven, 1992, p. 166). Last, is the legitimate power of position, which is how French and Raven initially conceived this power. This base involves formal structure such as the influencer’s position as an authority figure.

Referent and expert power were also further differentiated as being potentially negative and positive uses of power. Negative expert power would involve an individual being authoritarian and making unilateral decisions that could be off-putting (Erchul & Raven, 1997). Both of these powers can be negative when they are used in the influencer’s best interests at the expense of others (Raven, 1992). Referent and expert power may be more in opposition of each other. The dilemma for the influencing agent is the following: “should I present myself as someone who is extremely capable and deserving of respect, or better to present myself as a

likeable, friendly member of the gang?” (Erchul & Raven, 1997, p.147). Expert power may be more effective at influencing values and attitudes whereas referent power may be more effective at changing behavior (Raven, 1992). Further, the power base of information was expanded to contain both indirect and direct information. It is thought that Information power may lead to resistance, depending upon how it is presented (Erchul & Raven, 1997) and that indirect information may lead to less resistance overall.

### **The Power Base Model and Psychotherapy**

This taxonomy of power bases (French & Raven, 1959) has been theoretically applied to the therapeutic relationship by many authors (Devaris, 1994; Douglas, 1985; Goodyear & Robyak, 1981; Raven, 1986; Rodin & Janis, 1979; Strong & Mattross, 1973; Yesonosky & Dowd, 1990). Strong and Mattross (1973) theorized that clients enter counseling desiring to change their circumstances but they lack the power to do so without help. Therefore it is the counselor’s purpose to act as a resource for change. This theory states that change is produced in clients through the counselor’s social power that resides in the client’s dependency on the counselor and the correspondence between the client’s needs and the counselor’s resources. In other words, the counselor’s power is a function of the relationship between the client and the counselor that depends upon the degree to which the client perceives the counselor’s resources as meeting the client’s needs. Strong and Mattross (1973) further contend that counselors mainly use three of the five bases of power in their work with clients: expert, legitimate, and referent. Expert power derives from the client’s belief that the counselor is an expert because counselors are socially sanctioned to provide assistance in overcoming psychological problems (Yesonosky & Dowd, 1990). This power is initially based in the counselor’s training and reputation (Goodyear & Robyak, 1981) and may be accentuated by prominently displaying awards and

diplomas and by demonstrating knowledge of the field (Raven, 1986). As counseling progresses, a counselor's expert power is thought to be derived from the accuracy of his/her reflections and the presentation of psychological knowledge (Goodyear & Robyak, 1981).

Legitimate power is similar to expert power as it is theorized to arise from the counselor's participation in professional organizations, and is demonstrated by licenses, certificates and referrals from other professionals (Yesonosky & Dowd, 1990). This power is used by invoking one's authority and the counselor's role relationship with clients (Raven, 1986) i.e. "You should do this because I am your therapist and I am asking you to" (Raven, 1988). Legitimate power is conveyed via the counselor's socially sanctioned role as a helper and by a purposeful reinforcement of the idea that the counselor is in the relationship solely for the benefit of the client (Goodyear & Robyak, 1981). A contract with clients that specifies goals and the treatment plan is an extension of legitimate power (Strong & Mattross, 1973).

Referent power is thought to arise from the client's perception of how similar the counselor is to him/her which may lead the counselor to be perceived as attractive (Goodyear & Robyak, 1981; Yesenowsky & Dowd, 1990). Depending on the similarity of basic values and attitudes, counselors can be referents by which clients can (in their perception) increase their psychological consistency. If the counselor and client discover strong similarities in worldviews, clients can be expected to adopt counselor interpretations, attitudes, and reactions because of the counselor's presumed greater consistency in applying the shared basic personal values (Strong & Mattross, 1973, p. 29). This perception is thought to be a comfort to the client, promoting a belief that the counselor is personally involved in sessions. Mental health professionals may invoke their referent power by revealing themselves to the client (Strong & Mattross, 1973) and drawing on the client's identification with them in order to influence change (Raven, 1986). This power is

thought to be used least by mental health professionals although it may be very helpful in producing change (Raven, 1988; Rodin & Janis, 1979). Rodin and Janis (1979) discuss how health care practitioners may use referent power by pointing out similarities between the client and themselves, conveying benevolent attitudes, and making statements of acceptance to the client. Relevant self-disclosures are also likely to be an intervention of referent power (Strong & Mattross, 1973).

Coercive and reward powers are mediated by the helper's ability to reward or punish a client for his/her actions (Raven, 1986). A potential source of coercive power may be a therapist's expressions of disapproval, anger, and impatience but only if these responses are perceived by the client as punishment (Douglas, 1985). Therapists who use coercive power in therapy are more likely to be disliked by their clients, leading clients to view their quality of care negatively and to see their therapist as less effective (Raven, 1983). Reward power may be demonstrated through the offerings of support, encouragement, and approval (Douglas, 1985). Bertram Raven (2004, personal communication) also discusses how these two types of power can be used in terms of more tangible rewards and punishments. Counselors may use these types of power through their willingness to schedule next and/or additional sessions, or compromising fees or payment schedules.

Lastly, Information power is created through the counselor's presentation of relevant pamphlets, books, and articles (Goodyear & Robyak, 1981; Yesenowsky & Dowd, 1990). Raven (1986) believes that Information power can be used to influence patients through providing knowledge about their treatment so that they will comply with recommendations. Expert, referent, and legitimate power are different from Information power because they are thought to be socially dependent (Raven, 1992). In other words, there must be a continued relationship

between the counselor and client for the behavior to continue (Raven, 1986). Information power is conceptualized as possibly leading to more long lasting changes because it is thought to be separate from the therapeutic relationship and thus will not be affected if the client's feelings for the counselor change and become negative. While reward and coercive powers are also socially dependent, these bases of power are thought to be particularly unstable because the counselor is needed to monitor the client continuously for these power bases to be effective.

Theories have been developed about which powers may be more helpful in influencing change in therapy. Strong and Mattross (1973) state that expert, legitimate, and referent powers may be more helpful in the counseling interview while Information power may be useful in "broadening the impact of change begun in the conversation" (p. 28). Rodin and Janis (1979) suggest that when clients are compliant in response to expert, coercive, or reward powers, they are more likely to attribute change to external factors and less likely to perceive themselves as responsible for their decisions. Rodin and Janis (1979) believe that individuals are more likely to adhere to treatment and present with less resistance when they perceive themselves as involved in making decisions in their treatment.

Although conceptualizations of French and Raven's model (1959) appear to be plausible, they have yet to be researched thoroughly. Furthermore Strong and Mattross' (1973) conceptualization of social influence, which applied French and Raven's findings to counseling, has more often been studied in terms of the constructs of expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness rather than studying how these specific power bases may apply to counseling. The ideas of Strong and Mattross (1973) with regard to power and counseling have yet to be examined empirically. The empirical research in counseling related to this model of power bases (French & Raven, 1959) will be summarized in an attempt to determine how the model may be

applied to the therapeutic relationship and studied quantitatively to answer the question of how psychologists use power in therapy.

French and Raven's bases of power have been theoretically examined in the feminist literature with regard to psychotherapy. Douglas (1985) states that reward power can be used to validate or confirm the client's experiences and perceptions, and by providing support and encouragement to promote the client's own sense of personal power. Information power involves the therapist having knowledge that can be helpful to the client. An example is the therapist being knowledgeable about the effects of sex role socialization and sharing this information with clients. Legitimate power is seen through a contract between the therapist and client to achieve certain goals, therefore giving the therapist permission to assist the client with certain issues and in a certain manner. Expert power would be derived by the therapist's knowledge and in concert with the legitimate power to work with the client in a given manner based upon the therapist's training. Referent power is seen through the techniques used by therapist such as self-disclosure and modeling. Coercive power is not thought to be a desirable power to use with clients but may be used in disapproving or negating the client's behaviors, values or beliefs.

### **Studies of the Power Base Model**

Dell (1973) completed one of the first studies that examined the power base model in counseling. In this analogue study, two male counselors portrayed either expert or referent power with participants who were male undergraduate students ( $n = 48$ ) who had problems with procrastination. The expert counselor was identified in a write up as a psychologist while the referent counselor was described as a teaching assistant. Towards the end of the interview, the counselors attempted to influence the participants in either an expert or referent manner. The referent influence attempt involved a self-disclosure while the expert influence attempt consisted

of the counselor telling the client what to do based upon the counselor's prior knowledge. This approach seemed to place referent and expert powers as polar opposites. Dell found that counselors whose influence attempt was consistent with their power base were more effective in influencing the participants through their ratings of the counselor effectiveness. There were not, however, any statistically significant differences between the expert and referent roles.

In another study, Claiborn and Schmidt (1977) gave 48 female students a written description of a therapist that they were about to view in videotaped mock counseling sessions. The counselor descriptions varied by counselor power base, either referent or expert, and by counselor status, high or low. Counselors in the high status condition were described as having a Ph.D. while no such titles were given to counselors in the low status condition. These videotapes were similar to one another with female therapists attempting to influence a female client. Counselors who demonstrated an expert power base were given higher ratings of expertness by the participants than counselors using the referent power base. Counselors in the expert power base and low status condition were given higher ratings of expertness than those in the high status condition. This study did not produce any significant findings for counselor attractiveness. This study built upon previous research by using more pre-session information and the researchers did not dichotomize the referent and expert roles in terms of warmth as did Dell (1973). This study is limited by its inclusion of only women as the participants, counselors, and the clients. Additionally the authors examined the influence of only two of the power bases: expert and referent.

Merluzzi, Merluzzi, and Kaul (1977) examined race and power in their analogue study with 42 undergraduate students. Participants with procrastination and career planning issues were exposed to female interviewers who were either black or white, in either expert or referent roles

and possessed either an external or internal locus of control. White interviewers were perceived as significantly more expert and participants recalled significantly more of the problem solving process with an interviewer that used expert rather than referent power. In post hoc analysis, the most influential conditions for attitude and behavior change were the white counselor referent role and, to a lesser degree, the black counselor expert role conditions. This study suggests the importance of examining the race and ethnicity of the counselor when researching power in counseling. A limitation of the study is the authors' use of only female counselors.

Paradise, Zweig, and Conway (1986) studied power in counseling by using 128 undergraduate students who were told to imagine themselves as the client in one of eight videotaped vignettes. Counselors in the videotapes used either expert or referent power and expert or referent influence strategies in these mock sessions. Counselors using both expert power and expert influence were rated higher on professional attributes such as competency, preparedness, and being knowledgeable. Counselors who used referent power and influence were rated higher in terms of personal attributes such as warmth, sociability, and agreeableness. This study presented further support for the idea that counselors who display congruence, or consistency in power base and influence attempt, are rated more highly. A strength of this study is its use of both female and male counselors, although no effects for sex were found. This study has some limitations including the analogue nature of the research design. Thus, these findings may not generalize to actual therapy sessions. Additionally, demonstrations of power and influence styles were limited to one introduction and one influence.

Robyak (1981) hypothesized that a counselor's choice of power base from French and Raven's model would be associated with the sex of the counselor and the client. Fifty-two practitioners at university counseling centers were presented with vignettes of either a female or

male client. The results of the study demonstrated that a counselor's choice of either expert, legitimate, or referent power was associated with both the client's and the counselor's sex. Women counselors preferred the use of legitimate power more than men, regardless of the client's sex. Expert power was used more often with clients of the same sex as the counselor. Neither the sex of the client nor the counselor was associated with the use of referent power. The authors question whether these findings suggest that a counselor's choice of power base may be affected by sex role stereotyping. This study used only three of the six power bases and asked for one response from the participants in order to determine choice of power base. A strength of this study is its use of actual counselors in practice as participants.

Practicum counselor choice of power bases was studied with participants from both counseling and counseling psychology programs (Robyak, Goodyear, Prange, & Donham, 1986). One hundred and two participants were given vignettes with hypothetical clients, whose sex were not identified, and were asked to indicate their choice of expert, legitimate, and referent power response with the client and to guess the client's sex. Students with less supervised experience in counseling demonstrated a preference for referent and legitimate power bases while students with more counseling experience were more likely to choose the expert power strategy with the client. There were no statistically significant differences based on the clients' presenting problem or the client's sex, unlike the study by Robyak (1981). It is unclear from the findings of this study why the level of supervised experience of a counselor would influence one's choice of power bases. In addition, the participants were given only three responses to choose from in response to a client asking for change strategies. Finally, a high number of responses were excluded from analysis because so few participants identified the hypothetical client as female. A strength of this study is its use of actual practicum counseling students.

Guinee and Tracey (1994) sought to build upon the findings of Robyak et al. (1986). They hypothesized that less experienced counseling students would prefer referent and legitimate power bases more and expert power less than more experienced counseling students. Novice students were defined as having less than two practicum class experiences and advanced students were seen as having two or more practicum class experiences. Participants ( $n = 40$ ) were given the Power Base Assessment (PBA), an instrument that measures preference of power bases including expert, legitimate, and referent power base in response to client vignettes. The scores on the PBA, or choice of a power base, were not significantly related to level of counseling experience, in contrast to Robyak et al. (1986). The students preferred the expert power base with a vignette of a client with career indecision and legitimate power with the suicidal, depressed client vignette. Overall, the participants preferred legitimate power and referent power over expert power. These researchers use of a more extensive instrument to examine choice of power base is a strength although the PBA has limited empirical support. Additionally, this study had some interesting findings although it has the strong limitation of the authors' questionable definitions of novice and advanced students.

These nine research studies have multiple limitations when attempting to evaluate French and Raven's (1959) model in determining how counselors use their power in therapy. First, a majority of these studies used constructs and conceptualizations that have not been tested empirically. The bulk of these studies addressed only a few of the power bases, making the assumption as to what power bases are used with clients. These researchers base the decision to primarily study expert, legitimate, and referent power on Strong and Mattross' (1973) theory that there are the three main types of power used in counseling. Their idea that the other types of power bases are not used in counseling does not have any empirical evidence to support it.

Therapy sessions should be examined for the existence of all six power bases and counselors should be surveyed about their use and understanding of the power inherent in the therapeutic relationship. The study by McCarthy and Frieze (1999) regarding power and quality of care issues suggests that counselors may also use reward and coercive power with clients, although not always in the client's best interests as seen by those clients who reported negative outcomes with counselors using coercive tactics. Other studies did not even examine these three power bases but only looked at two, usually expert and referent.

Third, many of the studies provided a single opportunity to gauge which type of power a counselor would use in counseling. Counselors were asked to indicate which power base they would use in the form of a single intervention with a hypothetical client (Guinee & Tracey, 1994; Robyak, 1981, Robyak et al., 1986). It is likely that counselors use multiple types of power across sessions and differentially with clients (Strong & Mattross, 1973). The type of power that is used by counselors and therapists is likely to vary in response to the characteristics of the client as seen with sex in the study by Robyak (1981) and likely with the ethnicity of the client, which has not yet been studied.

Additionally, the vast majority of these studies used analogue or survey methods to obtain their findings. It is unknown whether these results would generalize to actual counseling or supervision experiences. Lastly, the majority of the studies address power in terms of gaining compliance or affecting behavioral change in clients, not from the viewpoint that counselors may need to manage their power or use certain powers to assist clients in meeting their goals. Furthermore, more studies like that of McCarthy and Frieze (1999) need to be done to determine how power can relate to the issue of quality of care.

Power continues to be an important area of research. As stated above, it is a relatively unexplored field. The aforementioned studies indicate that much is yet to be learned in counseling and that French and Raven's model (1959) may be appropriate for this line of inquiry.

### **Other Studies of Power in Psychotherapy**

There are a number of different ways that the study of power in psychotherapy has been approached (Cooke & Kipnis, 1986), separate from French and Raven's model. The first is to study the target of influence, the client. A second approach would be to study the influencing agent, the therapist. A last approach would be to study the interaction between the target of influence and the influencing agent, or the process of influence. The following studies examined power in psychotherapy through a variety of methods.

Houser, Feldman, Williams and Fierstien (1998) sought to examine the different influence tactics used by counselors using the authors' own measure of persuasion with 499 members of the American Mental Health Counselors Association. Significant differences were found between the influence tactics used by the participants. Follow up analysis demonstrated that metaphors were used significantly more than other tactics. Other commonly used techniques were reasoning, pointing out negative consequences, noting positive rewards, modeling, and encouraging the client to compare real self to ideal self. A significant effect for theoretical orientation was found with behavioral/cognitive behavioral counselors reporting the use of rewards/reinforcement and reinforcement of importance or influence of others more than other theoretical orientations. There was no significant relationship for years of counseling experience and influence tactics. The measure of persuasion used by the authors was employed solely for the purpose of this study and has little data to support its use and these findings.

A study by Cooke and Kipnis (1986) examined power issues from the perspective of the therapist. Eleven therapists each provided two videotapes, a session with a male or a female client. The verbal statements by the therapists were analyzed by the researchers and coded for the level of influence on the therapist's part. Male therapists used significantly more influence tactics than the female therapists in the study. In addition, male therapists demonstrated significantly greater number of interruptions with their clients than the female therapists. Another finding was that therapists of both sexes were significantly more likely to use the influence tactic of instruction with female clients, in other words telling the client what to do in a situation. Therapists were significantly more likely to use explanatory statements with male clients. The strength of the influence attempt, or how demanding the therapist was being, was significantly higher with female clients than with male clients. A strong influence attempt involves leaving the clients with few or less options for refusal such as in the statement "I want you to tell me what you are thinking about at this moment" (p.23). This study lends credence to the idea that therapists use different strategies, depending upon their own sex and the sex of the client.

Reandean and Wampold (1991) used sequential analysis to analyze power and involvement in four therapy dyads that varied in their level of working alliance. The Penman Classification System (Penman, 1980) was used to code verbal responses for power and involvement. The most frequently used therapist behavior according to this classification system was advice, which is classified as a high power and is a neutral involvement behavior. Generally, all of the clients demonstrated low power behaviors as compared to the therapists, even across working alliance levels, supporting the idea that therapists have greater power in therapy. This study has limits in generalizability because of the small number of participants.

Heppner and Heesacker (1982) examined therapist influence including the perspectives of both the client and the therapist. The therapists in this study were practicum or intern counselors (n = 27) each with at least one client (n = 31). Three items on an instrument assessed the counselor's perception of his/her ability to influence the client. A significant finding was that therapists who were rated highly attractive by their clients indicated that they had more influence with their clients. One issue with this study is that the authors present no validity or reliability data on the brief instrument that assessed the therapist's ability to influence the client.

A qualitative study by Guilfoyle (2002) sought to examine the power and knowledge of therapists when a client displays resistance. Eight therapists who were currently in practice were shown two vignettes and interviewed about them. The first vignette depicted a client who was continuously late but resistant to the therapist's attempts to discuss his/her tardiness. The second vignette involved a therapist and a colleague who was also continuously late and resistant to discussing the issue. The participants in this study were overall more accepting of the therapist's attempts to uncover and explore the reasons for the client's lateness, demonstrating a greater acceptance of the therapist's use of power with the client than the colleague. Participants found similar attempts with the colleague to be "disrespectful." While not discussed explicitly by the author, the participants in this study did not seem to identify the interaction between the client and therapist as a power struggle nor did they acknowledge the role of power in this interaction, possibly lending credence to the author's idea that the role of power in therapy is simply accepted without being analyzed.

### **Women, Psychotherapy and Power**

It is important to define the terms sex and gender before undertaking an examination of the differential experiences of women in psychotherapy. Sex refers to the socially sanctioned

biological criteria for distinguishing between men and women (West & Zimmerman, 1998).

Whereas sex is determined by biology, gender is thought to be socially determined. West and Zimmerman (1998) define gender as the possession of attitudes, activities and behaviors that are seen as appropriate for one's sex and promote one's membership in a sex category (p. 105).

Power issues present dangers for the therapy relationship regardless of the sex of the client (Taylor, 1994). However, they are believed to be a greater concern when the client is a woman (Gannon, 1982). Women are at a disadvantage compared to men in terms of power, including access to resources and control over life's process. Feminist theorists assert that the core problem of women who enter therapy is the experience of powerlessness, a socially created experience (Enns, 1997; Rodis & Strehorn, 1997; Wenegrat, 1995). Hertzberg (1996) discusses how women often internalize their experiences with domination and powerlessness, leading to many of the conditions women bring to therapy. "The lack of concrete power...contributes to the lowered self-esteem, the depression, and the ineffectual problem-solving activities that frequently motivate women to seek counseling" (Taylor, 1994, p. 322). Additionally, trauma, as in rape, abuse, and incest, is largely due to issues of power in which a dominating male exerts greater power over a woman (Enns, 1997). Relationships exist between such forms of trauma and the development of eating disorders, depression and post traumatic stress disorder (Enns, 1997; Molinari, 2001). The relationship between trauma and eating disorders has been particularly supported in the research (see Lating, O'Reilly, & Anderson, 2002; Wonderlich et al., 2001). Research also supports the idea that violence against women, particularly rape, is largely about power (Chiroro, Bohner, Vicki, & Jarvis, 2004; Drieschner & Lange, 1999).

The lack of power clients feel when entering therapy because of their inability to resolve their issues is believed to be greater in women (Enns, 1997). This is due to limited social power

and the tendency of women to blame themselves for their concerns (Enns, 1997) as is frequently seen in survivors of violence (Herman, 1997). Chesler (1997) asserts that clinicians, whether feminist or non-feminist, in their attempts to “help” women, continue a cycle of oppression by believing that women need their expert help, reinforcing their feelings of powerlessness. Chesler (1997) states “For most women...psychotherapeutic encounter is just one more instance of an unequal relationship, just one more opportunity to be rewarded for expressing distress and to be “helped” by being (expertly) dominated (p.140).” In Chesler’s conversations with eleven women who had sex with their therapists during treatment, she demonstrates the pain that comes from such exploitation, one of the most damaging uses of therapist power. DeVaris (1994) theorizes that the power difference between the therapist and client may be more balanced when the participants in the dyad are of the same sex. When the therapist is male and the client is female, the power in the dyad is overly skewed towards the therapist.

Power, sexism, violence and sex role conflict are interrelated concepts (O’Neil and Egan, 1993). Sexism is defined as the expression of power and patriarchy that maintains the status quo through promoting power differences between the sexes. Limiting women’s access to power may often be disguised as benevolence (Pratto & Walker, 2001). An example is paternalistic or benevolent sexism that involves “protecting” women from dangers such as less safe occupations while limiting women’s freedoms to choose. Both men and women are thought to be negatively affected by sexism. Abuses of power may manifest themselves in the devaluation and restriction of women or to an extreme, violence against women. Rape, as an example mentioned previously, is theorized to be about issues of power (Drieschner & Lange, 1999). While men are impacted by sexism and the abuse of power, they continue to hold the balance of power and experience the rewards of such power (Taylor, 1994).

There is little research that has examined the sexist attitudes of psychologists per se, certainly no research that has studied the role of sexism on the influence strategies used with clients. There have been a fair number of studies though that have examined gender bias in clinicians, the most notable being Broverman et al. (1970). While this study is considered groundbreaking it is not without its critics. This study demonstrated that clinicians have different conceptions about health and well-being for women and that these largely parallel stereotypes found in the general society ( $n = 79$ ). Another study by Danzinger and Welfel (2000) demonstrated gender bias in which clinicians judged female clients to be less competent regardless of their age ( $n = 93$ ). A study by Tredinnick and Fowers (1997) sought to examine whether psychologists demonstrate a different degree of gender bias than the general public using clinical vignettes of varying sexes ( $n = 294$ ). Gender bias in this study was defined as choice of gender stereotyped responses. A significant finding was that participants, both psychologists and the general public, were more likely to choose gender stereotyped responses for the male client. However, the psychologists were significantly more likely to choose traditionally masculine responses than the general public. These findings were not supported across all vignettes though, indicating that there may have been some effects from particular vignettes. Additionally, the researchers did not find an effect of sex across participants even though sex differences are often found in sexism and gender bias studies (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Glick & Fiske, 2001). While a complete review of this literature is not possible, it points to the importance of understanding how gender bias and sexism influence not only the way that therapists conceptualize women overall, but how it may affect the power strategies used in sessions.

Although not the focus of this study, it is important to point that out that sex is not the only variable that has relevance for the study of power. Demographics such as race, class, and sexuality are other determinants of social power (Griscom, 1992). Ramsey (1997) points out that the role of power in multicultural counseling is often neglected even though power is central to multicultural relationships in particular.

### **The Relationships of Power and Sex to Communion and Agency**

The terms agency and communion became popular through the writings of Bakan (1966). He conceptualized the traits as “two fundamental modalities in the existence of living forms, agency for the existence of an organism as an individual, and communion for the participation of the individual in some larger organism of which the individual is a part” (p. 14-15). Bakan (1966) saw agency as repressing of communion and believed that this relationship prevents an individual from having a high degree of both traits. Bakan argued that a certain amount of communion is needed to mitigate, or lessen, an individual from being overly agentic. Spence (1979) further theorized that a certain level of agency is needed to mitigate communion or one would be overly concerned about others.

Helgeson (1994) and Helgeson and Fritz (2000) built upon Bakan’s conceptualization of these traits. Fritz and Helgeson (1998) define communion as a positive focus on others and interpersonal relationships involving the helping and understanding of others. Unmitigated communion is defined as “a focus on others to the exclusion of the self” (Helgeson & Fritz, 1998, p. 174). The difference between the two is that unmitigated communion negatively impacts one’s well being because the individual is so focused on others that one’s own needs are ignored. (Fritz & Helgeson, 1998). Unmitigated agency is defined as a focus on the self to the exclusion of others (Helgeson & Fritz, 2000) whereas agency is defined as a healthy focus on one’s needs

but not to exclusion of others. The unmitigated forms of the traits of agency and communion are seen as extremes of their mitigated forms (Saragovi, Koestner, Di-Dio, & Aube, 1997).

Continuums exist between communion and unmitigated communion and between agency and unmitigated agency. Therefore the traits of communion and agency are related to their unmitigated forms. Unmitigated agency and unmitigated communion are related to poor health behaviors, having a lack of support from others, and a difficulty asking for help from others (Helgeson & Fritz, 2000).

Bakan (1966) theorized that women generally strive for communion and men work towards agency. While these two traits are not opposite of one another, they are considered separate ways of being (Baken, 1966). Helgeson and Fritz (1998) theorize that gender role socialization, rather than the biology of men and women, leads to the development of the traits of communion and unmitigated communion. It is thought that while women generally have stronger interpersonal skills, they often possess the trait of unmitigated communion which may account for women's greater level of psychological distress. Specifically, Helgeson (1994) discusses how women's greater morbidity rate but lower mortality rate may be due in part to women's level of distress regarding relationships.

Helgeson (1994) discusses how the traits of communion, agency and their unmitigated forms are related to power. She theorizes a relationship between power and agency, specifically that the motive for power is even more strongly related to the trait of agency than the motive for achievement, which is more readily associated with agency. The relationship between power and unmitigated agency may even be stronger, because the power motive is often seen as maladaptive. Alternatively, a motive for intimacy is related to communion and is seen as adaptive. She discussed however that the relationships between these variables are not entirely

clear and that more research is needed. This study seeks to clarify the relationship between power and agency and communion and their unmitigated forms.

### **Sex Differences in the Use of Power in Relationships**

In order to hypothesize about the ways in which male and female psychologists might use power differently one must look to related research that examines sex differences in intimate and non-intimate relationships. This is required because of the little research overall that has studied power in psychotherapy focusing on the variable of sex. Research regarding power in both intimate and non-intimate relations is relevant because the therapy relationship can be characterized as both. It is intimate in the sense that the client shares very deep, personal aspects of her or himself with the therapist and because of the generally emotional nature of sessions. It may also be characterized as non-intimate because it is a one-sided relationship in many ways in which therapists, for the most part, maintain strict boundaries, sharing less about themselves. Therefore the literature from both areas will be discussed.

Research into the different uses of power or influence strategies by men and women has often demonstrated sex differences. Falbo and colleagues have studied influence strategies along continuums of direct and indirect and bilateral and unilateral, developing a two-factor model (Falbo, 1977, 1982; Falbo & Peplau, 1980). Women report the use of unilateral and indirect strategies more often while men report the use of bilateral and direct strategies more (Falbo, 1982; Falbo & Peplau, 1980). An example of a direct influence strategy would be reasoning, or using a logical argument, and asking while withdrawal and making suggestions would be examples of less direct and more indirect strategies (Sagrestano, 1992b). Examples of unilateral strategies would be stating the importance of a request while bargaining and persuasion would be considered to be bilateral strategies. While it is generally believed that women and men use

different influence strategies, one study found no statistically significant differences in the power strategies used overall by the men and women (Aida & Falbo, 1991). In a study of non-intimate relationships, Gruber and White (1986) found that women and men are stereotyped regarding their use of power. Men in general were associated with more direct strategies such as arguing and yelling while women were associated with more indirect strategies such as acting in a subtle manner and making hints or suggestions.

It is important to point out in terms of the current study that Falbo's (1982) contribution to this research also includes the finding that sex role orientation, as measured by the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ), was a better predictor of influence strategies than sex. Those individuals who were classified as feminine were more likely to report the use of indirect and unilateral strategies while those classified as masculine were more likely to report the use of direct and bilateral strategies.

Sex differences have been found not only for individuals' choice of influence strategies but also in participants' perceptions of the amount of power and equality in their relationships. Women are significantly more likely to report valuing autonomy and equal power in relationships, and to state that their relationships are egalitarian (Falbo & Peplau, 1980). Participants who report valuing equality in their relationships were more likely to report the use of unilateral strategies while those who reported valuing having greater power than their partners were more likely to report the use of bilateral strategies (Falbo & Peplau, 1980). Another study found that couples categorized as more egalitarian reported greater satisfaction with their relationship and used fewer power strategies (Aida & Falbo, 1991). Aida and Falbo (1991) also found a negative relationship between the use of indirect power strategies and marital satisfaction. The few studies specific to level of satisfaction in relationships, equality, and

influence strategies suggest that women value and report greater equality in their relationships but that the type of strategies they use, such as indirect strategies, are not associated with satisfaction. More research is needed to clarify these contradictory findings.

One particular study of sex, relationships, and influence strategies has particular relevance to this review. Bui, Raven and Schwarzwald (1994) examined the influence strategies used by women and men in relationships using the Power/Interaction Model of Interpersonal Influence. Participants (n = 176) were provided with a vignette describing a relationship with someone of the opposite sex that was either satisfying or dissatisfying and they were asked how likely they would be to use the power bases with their hypothetical partner. A principal component analysis revealed four factors. The first factor was labeled strong tactics and included the power bases of coercion (personal and concrete), reciprocity, obligation and equity. The second factor was labeled weak tactics and included personal reward, third party, helplessness, and misleading information. The next factor was titled rational tactics and included both indirect and direct information and expertise and the last factor included concrete reward and referent and was labeled miscellaneous tactics. Some interesting findings of this study concerned sex. Women were significantly more likely to indicate that men use strong tactics in a dissatisfying relationship whereas men were significantly more likely to report that women use such tactics in a satisfying relationship. Men were significantly more likely to report the use of strong tactics in dissatisfying relationships and women reported the use of these tactics in both types of relationships. Weak tactics were also significantly related to dissatisfying relationships.

These studies have not reflected favorably on women. Cowan, Drinkard and MacGavin (1984) aptly state “Women have long been seen as using more indirect, that is devious, strategies to get their way than men. It is said that men debate and women manipulate” (p. 1391). Johnson

(1976) states that women are constrained to using indirect forms of power because to use direct forms of power, women are often conceived of as pushy, overbearing, or even worse, castrating. Therefore women are believed to use more indirect forms of power because these strategies are seen as more socially appropriate. Falbo and Peplau (1980) theorize that women may use such strategies because they do not expect cooperation which is a precondition for using more direct and bilateral strategies. A major problem with the use of indirect and unilateral strategies is that they are conceptualized as being effective only in the short term (Johnson, 1976). Additionally, indirect forms of power are seen as manipulative in that the source of one's power is concealed (i.e. indirect), possibly keeping its user in a less powerful position. Therefore these differences may not be based on sex but on power inequities.

Some authors assert that research studies such as Falbo and Peplau (1980) support the theory that women use such indirect strategies because of their experience of having less interpersonal power (Cowan, Drinkard & MacGavin, 1984; Sagrestano, 1992a). Given that women are generally seen as using the less "positive" or "healthy" strategies, such an approach pathologizes women without taking into account their experiences with less social power. It is a focus on sex differences that does not take into account the influence of social power on one's use of power. Men use the strategies that are generally associated with power and status (Cowan, Drinkard & MacGavin, 1984). Males are thought to be socialized to use their power in more tangible and overt ways and are more comfortable using their power because such use of power is more socially supported (O'Neil & Egan, 1993). On the other hand, women are socialized to use their power in more indirect and subtle ways. Sagrestano's (1992b) own research did not find main effects for sex in the choice of power strategies. Rather she found a main effect for participant's position of power. When participants' position of power was manipulated in a study

of non-intimate relationships, participants ranked direct power strategies significantly more often in an expert condition. They ranked bilateral strategies significantly more often when in a position of equivalence. Sagrestano (1992b) proposes that it is the position of power of the individual and not sex or the specific target of influence that determines one's choice of power strategies.

This brief review of the literature in the area of sex and power strategies suggests that sex differences will be found in a study of the use of power or influence strategies with clients. Additionally it suggests that the PAQ may be a better predictor of these strategies, as discussed in Falbo (1982). French and Raven's (1959) model of power bases has not been examined in terms of the types of influence strategies discussed here. Therefore it is difficult to predict from these research studies to the current investigation.

### **The Current Study**

This study is exploratory in nature and aims to contribute to the field's understanding of how psychologists use their influence, or power bases, with clients. Although there have been some studies of this issue, they have used different definitions of power and have not led to programmatic research that would begin to explain how therapists use their power. Another concern is that few studies have used ipsative measures to examine the use of power bases and when such measures were employed, the instruments had poor validity or reliability data. For this reason, a widely accepted model of power was chosen both because the model has research to support its validity and because future studies might then use this model to further examine this area. A unique aspect of this study was that it sought to examine the influence strategies used with female clients, a population that is at greater risk because of a lack of social power. No studies as of yet have examined variables such as level of sexism and their impact on the use of

power strategies by therapists with this specific client population. The current study sought to examine how beliefs, sex and traits are related to influence strategies psychologists perceive as useful with female clients.

The hypotheses of the study are based on the findings from a cluster analysis in which participants were grouped based on their responses to a revised version of the Interpersonal Power Inventory (Raven, Schwarzwald & Koslowsky, 1998), named the Interpersonal Power Inventory-Psychologist Version (IPI-P). I hypothesized that two groups would naturally form from the data, separating participants by their preferred power strategies of either “harsh” or “soft” bases. I hypothesized that these two groups would form based on the results of studies that have used the data reduction technique of factor analysis and found the two types of power bases entitled harsh and soft bases (Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001; Raven, Schwarzwald, & Koslowsky, 1998). The harsh bases include the power bases of Legitimate Reciprocity, Impersonal Coercion, Legitimate Equity, Impersonal Reward, Personal Coercion and Legitimate Position. The soft bases include the powers of Expert, Referent power, Information, Legitimate Dependence, and Personal Reward power. These two groups of power bases were to serve as independent variables if the data broke out in this manner. Sex was another independent variable that was examined. The term sex denotes the biological criteria that distinguish men and women (West & Zimmerman, 1998).

The following are the hypotheses of how I believed that the clusters would differ in terms of participants’ responses to the dependent variables.

- 1.) A greater number of male participants would endorse the harsh bases. There are conflicting results regarding sex differences and the IPI. Raven, Schwarzwald and Koslowsky (1998) did not find any significant differences between men and women

during the initial validation of the Interpersonal Power Inventory. Dunbar, Blanco, Sullaway and Horcajo (2004), however, found some significant sex differences using their adaptation of the IPI in which male participants had significantly higher scores for the majority of all of the power bases excluding two of the soft bases. Erchul, Raven and Wilson (2004) however found significant differences between male and female participants with females significantly rating both harsh and soft bases are more effective than males.

- 2.) The participants endorsing harsh power bases would have higher scores on the both the Hostile Sexism and Benevolent Sexism subscales of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI; Glick & Fiske, 1996). This hypothesis was based on the idea that participants who believe that the harsh bases will be more effective with female clients will score higher on the sexism scale. Feather (2004) found a significant positive relationship between the endorsement of the value of Power on the Schwartz Value Survey and scores on the ASI. The relationship between power and sexism has not been studied using the Interpersonal Power Inventory and therefore some extrapolation is required.
- 3.) The participants endorsing soft power bases would have higher scores on the communion scale, F+, of the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (EPAQ; Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1974) and the Unmitigated Communion scale (UC; Helgeson 1993). This hypothesis was based on the expectation that the soft bases will be positively associated with a focus on the needs of others as seen in communion and its unmitigated form.

4.) The participants endorsing harsh power bases would have higher scores on the agency scale, M+, and the unmitigated agency scale, M-, of the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1974). This relationship was based on the theorization of Helgeson (1994) in which she hypothesizes a strong relationship between agency and power and a more strong relationship between power and unmitigated agency. A relationship between agency and the different harsh and soft power bases has not been studied before and thus some speculation about the outcome was required.

## Chapter 3

### METHOD

#### **Pilot Study**

A pilot study was undertaken as an exploratory initiative. The first goal of the pilot study was to gather feedback on the study as a means of increasing participation in the final study. Another goal was to examine the relationship between the IPI and its adapted version the IPI-P and the relationship of the IPI-P to the other instruments in the study. Lastly, this preliminary study was completed as a way to begin examining the reliability of the IPI-P, examining internal consistencies of the individual scales.

Participants were recruited from the Counseling Psychology and Counselor Education doctoral listserves of the department of Counselor Education, Counseling Psychology and Rehabilitation Services at The Pennsylvania State University. These listserves reach the students, department faculty and alumni of these two doctoral programs. Permission was obtained from the listserv moderators as suggested by the Institutional Review Board. The pilot study was posted to the Internet research website Psychdata for 5 weeks. Twenty-two participants completed the pilot study including 4 males, and 16 females. Two participants did not complete the entire study and did not respond to the demographic questionnaire to indicate their sex. The data from these two participants were not included in the analysis.

The pilot study asked for feedback from participants regarding the length of time it took to complete the study and any criticisms of the study. The time range to complete the pilot study was 15 to 45 minutes, with a mean of 29 minutes and median of 30 minutes. Six participants gave feedback indicating that the study was too long. Seven participants offered criticism regarding confusing instructions, either in general or specifically in regard to the IPI or IPI-P.

The final study was changed following the feedback from the participants of the pilot study. The directions for the IPI-P were shortened and simplified to reduce confusion on the part of participants. Several sentences were discarded because these statements were repetitive and therefore unnecessary, reducing the directions from over 200 words to approximately 160 words. Additionally the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS; Schwartz, 1992) was removed from the final study in order to reduce the length of the study. This instrument was chosen for removal based on its length (56 items) and the lengthy set of directions that may have been confusing to participants. Additionally, the SVS was chosen for removal because this measure was seen as less critical to the final study, contributing a minimal amount of information to the research questions. Future research might incorporate this instrument to examine any relationships between values and the power strategies endorsed with clients.

## **Final Study**

### *Participants*

The desired number of participants for this study was 300; 150 male and 150 female participants. The participants for this study were Ph.D. level psychologists currently in practice with at least four clients per week. In others words, the participants were psychologists who for the majority of the weeks of the year work with at least four clients or complete almost one full day in practice. Data for any participants who did not fit these criteria was excluded from the analyses.

### *Procedures*

The final study was posted to the Internet research website Psychdata for 8 weeks. The recruitment ad for the final study was posted to Internet listserves with list moderator or operator permission when applicable. This recruitment email was sent to approximately 100 listserv moderators. Multiple follow up emails were sent to the listserv moderators when no reply was received regarding the request to post. Confirmation was received that the study was posted to 30 of these listserves although some listserv moderators may have posted the study to their listserv without responding directly to email contact. Some examples of listserves in which the recruitment notice was posted include: [newpsychlist@yahoogroups.com](mailto:newpsychlist@yahoogroups.com), [counselors@yahoogroups.com](mailto:counselors@yahoogroups.com), [humanisticpresence@yahoogroups.com](mailto:humanisticpresence@yahoogroups.com), and [christianpsychologists@yahoogroups.com](mailto:christianpsychologists@yahoogroups.com). The study was also posted to several of the listserves of divisions of the American Psychological Association, following approval from the APA research office, including Division 17 (Counseling Psychology), Division 29 (Psychotherapy), Division 35 (Society for the Psychology of Women), Division 45 (Psychological Study of Ethnic Minority Issues), Division 43 (Family Psychology) and Division 51 (Society for the Psychology of Men and Masculinity). Additionally the recruitment ad was posted to several listserves for state and city psychological associations including those of Pennsylvania, Florida and Ohio and Boston.

The subject header for the submission was “Study looking for practicing psychologists, Enter drawing for Amazon.com prize.” Interested individuals were instructed to click on a link that led to the study on the website Psychdata, a secure site for psychological Internet research. The participants were provided with a password to access the site. The opening page of the website would be considered to be a cover letter. This cover letter explained the purpose of the

study, and the expected time to complete the study. The letter also discussed any potential risks and benefits of the study and ensured participants of anonymity. Additionally, the letter explained that consent is obtained through clicking on a button “Continue”, and full completion of the study. Further, participants were provided with contact information for the principal investigator and her dissertation advisor. Lastly, the cover letter explained that participation in this study would put the individual into a drawing for one of ten \$20 gift certificates for Amazon.com. Participants were asked to provide their email address if interested in participation in the drawing and were assured that their email addresses would be kept separately from the study related data. This was ensured by creating a link between the actual study to a separate study, so to speak, which only asked participants for their email address for the raffle, keeping the email addresses separate from responses.

A total of 198 participants completed the final study. Thirty-six participants did not complete a substantial portion of the study and/or did not complete the IPI-P and were therefore excluded. Six participants were also excluded from the study because their reported self-description on the demographic questionnaire did not match the requirements of the study. For example, some of these participants only had completed a master’s degree or worked outside of the United States.

The final sample included 156 participants, 46 males and 110 females. The ethnic diversity of the sample was assessed and included 85% Caucasians, 5% identified as Bi-racial or Multi-ethnic, 4% Latino/a or Hispanics, 3% Asian Americans, 2% African Americans, and 1% American Indians. In comparing these demographics to those of the American Psychological Association (APA) 2002 membership sample, this sample is more diverse. The 2002 report of the APA reports 1.5 % to under 2% of their members are from an ethnic minority group and

therefore this sample exceeds the diversity of the professional organization. Lastly this study included a higher proportion of women than men than reported by APA which reports 51% female membership and 49% male membership.

A summary of the demographic variables assessed in the final study is reported in Table 2. The three most highly reported theoretical orientations of the sample were the following: Cognitive-Behavioral/REBT (26%), Interpersonal (22%) and Psychodynamic/Psychoanalytic (22%). The two most highly reported work settings were college and university counseling centers (46%) and private practice (28%). A bulk of the participants reported working in the northeast section of the United States (44 %) although large portions of the sample were from the central (19%) and southeast (19%) sections of the country. The number of clients seen per week by the participants ranged from 4 to 50 clients with a mean of 16.48 clients and mode of 20 clients. The number of years in clinical practice for participants ranged from 1 to 50 years, with a mean of 12.19 years and mode of 5 years.

### *Measures*

#### **Interpersonal Power Inventory**

The choice of a measure to examine the power strategies used by psychologists with clients was a difficult one. First, there are not many instruments that examine influence strategies with an ipsative scale. Many researchers have used open-ended methods (see Falbo, 1982; Falbo, 1977; Falbo & Peplau, 1980), vignettes (see Robyak, 1981; Robyak, Goodyear, Prange, & Donham, 1986), or sequential analysis methods with dyads to examine the issue of power (Cooke & Kipnis, 1986; Reandean & Wampold, 1991). Instruments that examine power do exist but often lack adequate psychometric validation. The Power Base Inventory by Thomas and Thomas (1991) is an example. No validity or reliability data are offered in support of the

Table 2

*Demographic Characteristics of Final Study Sample (n = 156)*

Characteristic	<i>n</i>	%
<b>Doctoral Specialty</b>		
Clinical Psychology	83	53
Counseling Psychology	68	44
<b>Work Setting</b>		
University Counseling Center	72	46
Private Practice	44	28
Inpatient/Hospital Setting	23	15
Clinic Setting	14	9
Research Facility	3	2
Correctional Facility	1	1
Other	2	1
<b>Theoretical Orientation</b>		
Cognitive Behavioral/REBT	40	26
Interpersonal	35	22
Psychodynamic/Psychoanalytic	34	22
Humanist/Existential	21	13
Feminist	11	7
Systems	5	3
Behavioral	4	3
Other	6	4

instrument because of the authors' statement that it is to be used as a self-awareness tool. Instruments such as the Fear of Powerlessness Scale (Good, Good & Golden, 1973), while having adequate reliability ( $r = .86$ ,  $p$  not reported) has problems with construct validity as it was negatively correlated with a desire for control measure (Royal & Rutherford, 1994). The Social Orientation Inventory by Good and Good (1972) also has adequate reliability but has no demonstrated validity as a measure of power (Booth, Vinograd-Baussell, & Harper, 1984). A second issue is that the few instruments with demonstrated validity and reliability were designed for use in business and do not offer clear means of adapting the instruments for the purpose of this study. The Rahim Power Leader Inventory (RPLI; Rahim, 1988) has reliability coefficients ranging from .77 to .91. The RPLI measures subordinates' perceptions of the power bases used by supervisors. This instrument could potentially be adapted for use with clients to examine their perception of their therapist's use of these power bases.

The Interpersonal Power Inventory (IPI) was developed in part because of the many weaknesses of other instruments that have attempted to capture French and Raven's model. The problems of inconsistencies in definitions of the power bases and psychometric weaknesses are discussed in Podsakoff and Schreisqueim (1985) and Schreisqueim, Hinkin, and Podsakoff (1991). The original version of the IPI has both a subordinate and supervisor form. The supervisor form asks participants to indicate which influence strategies are more likely to effect compliance whereas the subordinate form asks which influence strategies are used by their supervisors. The influence strategies used as items are derived from French and Raven's (1959) model and Raven's Power Interaction Model (1998). The power bases of indirect information, negative referent and negative expert are not assessed by the instrument (Erchul, Raven & Ray 2001) possibly because more research is needed to understand these bases further.

The Interpersonal Power Inventory was validated through two separate studies that are discussed in Raven, Schwarzwald and Koslowsky (1998). The first study involved open-ended interviews with 317 American college students, 215 females and 102 males, who either took the subordinate or supervisor form of the instrument. There were no significant differences in terms of sex for the instrument. Initially, there were four items for each of the 11 power bases but one item was subsequently dropped from each power base after analysis in an effort to improve the reliability of the measure. Following this effort, 33 items remained and the items for each power base had individual alphas ranging from .67 to .86. A principal components analysis resulted in seven factors rather than 11 factors as conceptualized by the authors. The bases of Impersonal Reward and Impersonal Coercion (titled impersonal sanctions) emerged as part of the same factor with a combined alpha of .90. Additionally Legitimate Equity and Legitimate Reciprocity (credibility) and Personal Reward and Personal Coercion (personal sanctions) were linked together with combined alphas of .85 and .83 respectively. Lastly, Expert and Information emerged together as one factor with a combined alpha of .86. These seven factors had coefficient alphas ranging from .72 to .90. A smallest space analysis produced a coefficient of alienation of .14, demonstrating an adequate two-dimensional structure of harsh and soft bases. The harsh and soft bases explained approximately 24 % and 35 % of the variance respectively. The harsh bases consisted of Legitimate Reciprocity, Impersonal Coercion, Legitimate Equity, Impersonal Reward, Personal Coercion and Legitimate Position. These bases had factor loadings that ranged from .35 to .76. The soft bases were Expert, Referent, Information, Legitimate Dependence, and Personal Reward. In a discriminant analysis of mean compliance scores, the differences between those that adopted a supervisor and subordinate position were analyzed. Results were significant (Wilks's  $\Lambda = .94$ ) ( $\chi^2 (7) = 53.15, p < .01$ ) in terms of the power bases of Reference ( $F (1, 315) =$

15.87,  $p < .01$ ), Expert ( $F(1, 315) = 18.84, p < .01$ ), and Information ( $F(1, 315) = 10.57, p < .01$ ). The difference between groups was seen only for the soft power bases in which the mean compliance scores of supervisors were higher than the subordinates, although this difference is not reported by the authors as statistically significant. No other significant differences were found between supervisor and subordinate participants in terms of their use of power bases. The authors believed that even though some significant differences existed between supervisors and subordinates choices of power bases, the profiles would be similar. A Spearman rank correlation had a high value of .90, demonstrating strong similarities between the choices of power bases between the supervisors and subordinates.

The second validation study by Raven et al. (1998) involved workers at an Israeli hospital ( $n = 101, 63$  females and  $38$  males). The coefficient alphas ranged from .63 to .88 and the factor analysis again found an adequate two-dimensional structure. The soft bases explained approximately 20 % of the variance and the harsh bases explained approximately 40 % of the variance, similar to the factor analysis completed in the first study by Raven et al. (1998). This study also examined the relationship between the compliance profile generated by the IPI and job satisfaction using the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and the findings were significant ( $\chi^2(11) = 24.26, p < .01$ ). A discriminant analysis was conducted with the MSQ as the grouping variable and harsh and soft bases as predictors. The soft bases were significant ( $F(1, 99) = 7.51, p < .01$ ) while the harsh bases were not. No information from any follow up analyses was reported. The rank order correlation between the two samples, the American participants in study 1 and the Israeli participants in study 2, was .93, demonstrating a high degree of similarity between the samples.

Erchul and colleagues have adapted the Interpersonal Power Inventory to examine the influence strategies used in school psychologist and teacher interactions. Erchul, Raven and Whichard (2001) used a national sample of 134 school psychologists and 118 teachers (sex of participants not reported). These researchers (Erchul, Raven & Whichard, 2001) chose to use the 44-item version of the instrument following an analysis that found that 97% of the bivariate correlations for four items were statistically significant, suggesting that the measure is more reliable with four items for each power base. Coefficient alphas ranged from .79 to .83, with a mean of .81, demonstrating adequate reliability. Soft bases were rated to be more effective than harsh bases by both teacher ( $t(117) = 19.01, p < .0001$ ) and psychologist participants ( $t(133) = 16.4, p < .0001$ ). School psychologists and teachers differed significantly in their perceptions of the effectiveness of these power strategies when used in consultation. Teachers indicated that they would be more likely to be influenced by the strategies of Legitimate Dependence, Information and Legitimate Position with effect sizes of .56, .61 and 1.03 respectively. Psychologists demonstrated the belief that they would be more influential using the power strategies of Personal Reward and Impersonal Reward with effect sizes of .78 and .54 respectively. The rank order correlations between psychologists and teachers were significant ( $r^2(9) = .73, p < .05$ ).

Another study by Erchul, Raven and Ray (2001) with 101 school psychologist participants (78 females and 13 males) used the 33 item version of the instrument, asking which power bases would result in compliance from teachers. The participants indicated that softer bases would result in greater compliance ( $t(100) = 11.55, p < .0001$ ). A principal component analysis resulted in four factors that accounted for 70.7 % of the variance. The first factor was titled position power and included Legitimate Equity, Legitimate Position, and Personal

Coercion. The second factor was called personal power and included the power bases of Personal Reward, Referent, Legitimate Dependence and Legitimate Reciprocity. The third factor titled personal sanctions included Impersonal Reward and Impersonal Coercion. The last factor, credibility, included Information and Expert power bases. The coefficient alphas for these factors ranged from .75 to .89 with a mean of .80. A second principal component analysis yielded a two-factor solution that fit with previous research. The only difference is that Legitimate Position power loaded more highly as a soft base (.39) than a harsh base (.35) when previous research found it to be a soft base. The coefficient alphas for harsh bases were .86 and .80 for soft bases.

A last study by Erchul, Raven and Wilson (2004) used the IPI with school psychologists ( $n = 134$ ) examining the consulting relationship. The power bases were again grouped by harsh and soft bases and the sex of participants were explored. The overall model was significant,  $F(2, 128) = 5.09, p < .01$ . Follow up analyses were also significant and revealed that women rated both harsh and soft bases as more likely to result in compliance. The effect sizes for soft and harsh bases were .50 and .42 respectively. This study demonstrated that women participants were more likely to highly endorse the power bases in both the harsh and soft bases.

Schwarzwald, Koslowsky and Agassi (2001) used the IPI in an examination of supervisor power use and subordinates compliance with 280 Israeli police officers (75 females, 163 males with 42 missing values). Coefficient alphas for the IPI ranged from .67 to .86 for the 33 item version of the instrument used in this study. A principal component analysis supported a two-factor solution with harsh bases accounting for 46.8% of the variance and 15.3% of the variance accounted for by the soft bases. Coefficient alphas were calculated and were .79 for the soft bases and .89 for the harsh bases. Soft bases were correlated with harsh bases ( $r = .36, p < .01$ ) and both harsh and soft bases were correlated with transformational leadership styles, which are

characterized by charisma, consideration and stimulation, rather than transactional styles which is characterized by the use of Reward and Coercion ( $r = .22$ ,  $r = .18$ ,  $p < .01$  respectively). Overall, these researchers found that the harsh bases were associated with greater levels of compliance by subordinates ( $p < .01$ ).

A study by Schwarzwald, Koslowsky and Ochana-Levin (2004) used the Interpersonal Power Inventory to investigate the relationship between influence strategies and the complexity of tasks in organizations ( $n = 291$ , 114 females and 162 males, 15 missing values). The authors adapted the original 33 item IPI using three versions of the instrument assessing subordinate compliance to influence strategies, and supervisor and subordinate use of certain influence strategies. The correlations for the harsh and soft bases for the three versions of the instrument were .34 for subordinate compliance, .51 for supervisor usage of strategies and .52 for subordinate usage of strategies. A confirmatory analysis of the 11 power bases for the three sets of data supported the two-factor model of harsh and soft bases with goodness of fit indices ranging from .80 to .83. A significant effect was found in terms of complexity of task with harsh bases used more with routine tasks ( $F(1, 282) = 23.30$ ,  $p < .01$ ) but the relationship between complexity of task and soft bases was not significant. Another significant finding was that supervisors reported greater use of soft bases than subordinates (harsh:  $F(1, 282) = 13.86$ ,  $p < .01$ ; soft:  $F(1, 282) = 14.16$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The subordinate and supervisor rank orders were highly related ( $Rho = .83$ ).

Lastly, Dunbar, Blanco, Sullaway and Horcajo (2004) used the IPI to examine power relations with peers and attitudes regarding human rights ( $n = 100$ , 64 females and 36 males). These authors used the name Raven Social Influence Inventory (RSII) rather than the IPI with the measure possibly to demonstrate a variation of the instrument for the purpose of assessing the

influence strategies used in peer relationships. The instrument was adapted to reflect an interaction between individuals with equal status and involved the participant wanting to influence a peer to agree with him/her regarding an equal rights issue. The mean reliability coefficient was .67 with alphas ranging from .43 to .80. Male participants had higher scores on the RSII for the majority of the power bases excluding Legitimate Dependence and Information. Significant differences were found between men and women for Personal Coercion ( $t = 2.71, p < .01$ ), Expert ( $t = 2.81, p < .01$ ), Personal Reward ( $t = 2.35, p < .05$ ), Reward-material ( $t = 2.16, p < .05$ ), Legitimate Equity ( $t = 2.51, p < .05$ ), and Legitimate Reciprocity ( $t = 2.04, p < .05$ ). For both male and female participants, the preferred influence strategies were Legitimate Dependence ( $M = 11.22, SD = 3.84$ ), Formal position ( $M = 10.85, SD = 11.00$ ) and Information ( $M = 17.27, SD = 2.79$ ). The prejudice/tolerance scales of the MMPI which reflect bitterness and cynicism were significantly positively correlated with Legitimate-equity ( $r = .20, p < .05$ ) Information ( $r = -.23, p < .05$ ), and Coercive-material ( $r = .25, p < .01$ ).

In summary, the IPI (Raven, Schwarzwald & Koslowsky, 1998) has demonstrated adequate psychometric properties in previous research. Factor analyses have found that the instrument breaks down into the two factors of harsh and soft bases (Raven et al., 1998; Schwarzwald, Koslowsky, & Agassi, 2001). Harsh or hard bases are theorized as fitting the “stereotypes of power as being coercive, overt, and heavy handed” (Erchul, Raven & Wilson, 2004, p. 583). Soft bases are theorized as the more weak power strategies that are more subtle and less coercive in nature (Erchul, Raven & Wilson, 2004). A number of researchers have adapted the IPI for use with populations other than supervisors and subordinates (Dunbar, Blanco, Sullaway & Horcajo, 2004; Erchul, Raven & Whichard, 2001). The original version of the IPI was included in the pilot study to establish validity evidence.

The data classification technique of cluster analysis had not been previously used to determine how individuals cluster in terms of their preference for the power bases. It was hypothesized that the cluster analysis from this study would validate previous studies that used factor analysis and found the two factors of soft and harsh bases. Cluster analysis and factor analysis are both data reduction techniques but while factor analysis groups items, cluster analysis groups participants.

The version of the IPI used for this study was adapted by the current researcher from the original version of the IPI used in Raven, Schwarzwald and Koslowsky (1998) and the adapted version used by Erchul, Raven and Whichard (2001). For the purposes of this study, it was named the Interpersonal Power Inventory-Psychologist version (IPI-P). Raven agreed to examine this adapted version of the instrument and gave feedback regarding his thoughts on the measure for sampling psychologists. Raven (personal communication, 2004) stated that overall the instrument was good and had minimal feedback for the majority of the power bases. Raven disagreed however with the items related to Impersonal Reward and Impersonal Coercion power bases. An example item is “I can provide her with a validation of her efforts to meet her goals in therapy.” He believed that these items should be more tangible and include items related to fee schedules, phoning insurance companies, and scheduling extra sessions. Raven stated that he was concerned that the less tangible items were too similar to other power bases and might not reflect his conceptualization of the power base adequately. An example item that includes his suggestions is “If she complies, I may be more inclined to negotiate fees.”

The IPI-P was then given to 5 colleagues (3 psychologists, and 2 counselors) who were asked to provide feedback because Raven does not have psychotherapy experience and therefore I desired the input of therapists. These reviewers were asked to give feedback particularly related

to their impressions and whether to include Raven's suggestions for Impersonal Reward and Impersonal Coercion. The original items that I had created were included and labeled "less tangible." Items that included Raven's suggestions were also included and labeled "more tangible." Four of the colleagues preferred the less tangible items, stating the more tangible items seemed to relate to business-type interactions that are too narrow to apply to all psychologists. One reviewer stated that the tangible items reflected the overt rather than covert or more subtle uses of power. Only one reviewer preferred the more tangible items but offered concrete reasons for his preference. He stated that these more tangible items seemed to reflect the theory and conceptualization of the power bases better than the less tangible items and he offered suggestions for other more tangible items. The decision was made to include the more tangible items based on Raven's feedback because these items reflect the use of more concrete influencing strategies. I acknowledge that this decision has some drawbacks because items related to insurance and payment are less applicable to psychologists who do not work in private practice. Further research with this measure may examine the validity of these items and whether other items could be created to reflect how impersonal coercion and reward are theorized and applicable to most psychologists practicing psychotherapy. These colleagues who were sampled for feedback also gave suggestions related to grammar issues and their overall impressions which were incorporated to improve the instrument.

The final version of the adapted IPI-P asked psychologists to indicate their perception of how a female client would respond in terms of compliance to influence. Participants were directed to think about a female client whom they have worked with recently or are currently working with in therapy. The measure includes 44 items and contains items that reflect 11 power bases. A brief measure immediately after the IPI-P asked participants to provide information

regarding specific details about the female client that they were thinking about when completing the instrument as a check that participants were thinking about a specific client. The specifics include the ethnicity, presenting problem and diagnosis of the client.

### **Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire and Unmitigated Communion**

The Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) was developed to address some of the shortcomings of its predecessor, the Sex Role Stereotype Questionnaire (SRSQ; Rosenkrantz, Vogel, Bee, Broverman & Broverman, 1968). These shortcomings include a difficult scoring system, time-consuming method of administration, and an excessive number of items, 122 items total (Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1974). In developing the PAQ, participants were instructed to go through the SRSQ, and 16 additional items, and rate either the typical or ideal male and female college student or adult (total  $n = 405$ , 220 females and 185 males). As a result, 66 of the items demonstrated significant sex role stereotyping by the participants. In the process, three scales were developed. The two major scales were initially titled Masculine (M+) and Feminine (F+) scales and included items thought to represent the sex role stereotype of each sex. The third scale is called the M-F scale and contains items that reflect a mixture of instrumental and expressive items (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1975) that are thought to be “differentially desirable for men and women” (Spence, 1984, p. 5). Through this validation study the researchers arbitrarily cut the items to 55 and gave the measure to 530 participants (282 females and 248 males) and asked them to rate themselves and the typical male and female (Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1974). This scale demonstrated adequate reliability coefficients with alphas of .73 and .91 for the self-ratings of men and women. The alphas were .90 and .91 for women and men for ratings of others. Test-retest data after 13 weeks for 31 of the participants revealed correlations ranging from .80 to .98 for ratings of self and other. Internal consistency was

examined and significant correlations were found for every item for both males and females (rs ranging from .19 to .70,  $p < .05$ ) (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1975). Eventually the authors selected 8 items from each of the three scales to lessen the time of administration to create the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1975). Correlations between the 24 item and 55 item instruments are reported as .93 for the M+, .93 for the F+, and .91 for the M-F scales (Spence & Helmreich, 1978). Eventually the authors and other researchers ceased using the 55 item scale (Lenney, 1991).

Following these initial studies, Spence and colleagues developed the theory surrounding the instrument. The PAQ is theorized to measure desirable expressive and instrumental traits and is based on a multifactorial sex role identity theory. Spence (1993) developed this theory based on the idea that one's sex role is made up of many factors, beyond simply instrumental and expressive traits. Therefore sex role identity can not simply be understood through a scale that measures one set of attributes as with the Bem Sex Role Inventory and the PAQ. The correlations between these measures and other instruments examining sex role phenomena, such as the Attitudes Toward Women Scale and Male-Female Relations Questionnaire, are generally low or zero which may indicate a small relationship but adds credence to the idea that sex role identity is complex and made up of independent factors (Spence, 1993; Spence & Helmreich, 1980). Therefore Spence and Helmreich (1980) argue against the assertions of Bem and other authors who generalize the findings from these instruments to all other sex roles and behaviors, arguing that while expressivity and instrumentality have some relationship to other sex role phenomena, these traits are one piece of the puzzle. The PAQ is used somewhat less than the BSRI, although their psychometrics are comparable, possibly because the authors openly state

that the PAQ and BSRI should be limited to measuring certain aspects of sex roles (Lenney, 1991).

Although Spence has argued that instruments like the PAQ and BSRI measure only limited pieces of masculinity and femininity, researchers continue to use these terms to describe the scales (Hoffman, 2001). Many researchers refer to the scales as M and F rather than as prescribed by the authors as I and E, Instrumental and Expressive. Her contention that the two instruments measure similar attributes has been supported in her research. Spence (1993) found correlations of .75 for men and .76 for women between the BSRI F and PAQ E scales. The BSRI M+ and PAQ F+ scales were also correlated for men and women (.75 and .79 respectively). Spence (1993) states that the only differences between the BSRI and the PAQ are that the BSRI contains some items that do not measure positive expressivity and instrumentality. Neither of these sets of scales were significantly correlated with each other, supporting the idea that the feminine and masculine scales are distinct.

A factor analysis of the PAQ by Gross, Batlis, Small and Erdwins (1979) sampled undergraduate and graduate participants ( $n = 419$ , 298 females and 121 males) and found a four factor solution that accounted for approximately 51% of the variance. Factor 1 was named a bipolar masculinity versus femininity dimension that accounted for 34.2% of the variance. This factor includes 13 F+ items and 7 M+ items. The second factor was titled masculinity and accounted for approximately 7 % of the variance. The third factor included items related to taking action and accounted for approximately 5% of the variance while the last factor accounted for almost 4% of the variance and included F+ items related to open interactions with others. A relationship was found between the sex of the participant and the F+ scale ( $r = -.39$ ,  $p < .01$ ) but this relationship was not found with the M+ scale. Another factor analysis by Hill, Fekken and

Bond (2000) examined whether the three-factor model suggested by Spence and colleagues fit the 24 item instrument. These researchers sampled 637 staff members at Canadian universities and comparisons were made between English and French speaking participants. They found that a three-factor model fit the data marginally well through a structural analysis with LISREL. For female participants, all loadings were significant ( $T > 1.96$ ) and all loadings were significant for men as well with the exception of two items ( $T > 1.96$ ).

Twenge (1997) completed a meta-analysis of studies that used the PAQ and BSRI with both male and female participants in studies completed between 1973 and 1995 to examine whether changes in the culture have affected the instruments' relevance. The BSRI showed greater cohort effects with women's scores on the BSRI M scale showing a steady increase over time with year of administration explaining approximately 55% of the variance. Women's scores on the M scale were significantly correlated with year of administration ( $r = .74, p < .001$ ). Men's scores on the BSRI M scale were also correlated with year of administration ( $r = .47, p < .01$ ). Year of administration was significantly positively correlated with female participants on the PAQ-M+ scale (weighted  $r = .43, p < .01$ ). The PAQ and the BSRI showed a similar pattern for women participants although the correlations were higher for the BSRI, indicating greater cohort effects.

Through their validation of the PAQ, Spence and colleagues recognized how their terms of expressiveness and instrumentality paralleled Bakan's (1966) conceptualization of communion and agency. They became interested in studying the negative or unmitigated forms of these traits and created the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (EPAQ; Spence, Helmreich & Holahan, 1979), a 40-item measure. Items that would be considered negative or socially undesirable for men and women were added to the 24 item PAQ to form the EPAQ

(personal communication with Spence, 2004). The first added scale is the M- (I-) scale which includes items that reflect an agentic or instrumental position which would be more likely seen in males, paralleling the M+ (I-) scale. This scale contains 8 items including hostility, boastfulness, greed, arrogance, and selfishness. This scale was originally called the negative masculinity scale but has been reconceptualized as unmitigated agency. The second scale is the E- (F-) which reflects a communal stance and contains 8 items total which are broken down in two subscales. The first scale is FVA- scale and contains items that reflect a neurotic and passive aggressive stance. The items for this scale include nagging, complaining, fussiness and whining. The second subscale is the FC- scale and is meant to reflect an unmitigated communal position, although the authors were less satisfied with the criterion validity of the scale. They were unable to develop items that accurately reflected extreme selflessness as indicated by unmitigated communion but believe that these items approach this trait (Spence, Helmreich & Holahan, 1979). Items include an inability to stand up for oneself, being spineless, being servile and subordination of self to others. Overall the E- scale contains items that would be more readily associated with women but are considered undesirable for both sexes. Spence and Helmreich (1980) discuss how the relationships between the negative and positive scales are routinely low, thus demonstrating the complexity of human sex role identity and supporting their theory of multidimensionality.

Lubinski, Tellegen and Butcher (1983) report internal consistencies of .77 for the EPAQ M+ and F+ scales. These researchers investigated whether the short form BSRI and EPAQ could be used interchangeably ( $n = 172$  undergraduates, 85 females and 87 males). A multi-trait multi-method matrix revealed a substantial degree of overlap between the two scales as well a convergent and discriminant pattern supporting their contention that either instrument could be used with confidence. McCreary and Korabik (1994) tested the theorized relationships between

agency and communion and their unmitigated forms with 134 undergraduate students (99 females and 40 males). Internal consistencies for the EPAQ scale were the following: M+ (.75), F+ (.73), M- (.74) and F- (.42). As demonstrated by these Cronbach alpha coefficients, F- had poor reliability. Their findings lent some support to Spence's conceptualization that the unmitigated forms have a negative relationship with their positive forms. F- was negatively correlated with M+ ( $r = -.34, p < .01$ ) and F+ ( $r = -.34, p \text{ ns}$ ) but positively related to M- ( $r = .25, p < .01$ ). M- was positively related to M+ ( $r = .23, p < .01$ ) and negatively related to F+ ( $r = -.53, p < .01$ ).

Spence, Helmreich and Holahan (1979) examined the relationship of the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire to self-esteem, neuroticism and acting out behaviors ( $n = 583$  undergraduates, 363 females and 220 males). Self-esteem was significantly positively correlated for male and female participants with the M+ scale ( $r$ s of .66 and .68,  $p < .001$ ), and the F+ scale ( $r$ s of .23 and .20,  $p < .01$ ). For the negative scales, self-esteem was negatively correlated with both male and female participants with the FVA- scale and FC- scale with males ( $r$ s ranging from -.16 to -.40,  $p$ s .01 and .001). Neuroticism was significantly related to the FC- scales with males ( $r = .24, p < .001$ ), the M- scale with females ( $r = .19, p < .001$ ) and the FVA- scale with both males and females ( $r$ s of .33 and .31,  $p < .001$ ). As expected, neuroticism was negatively correlated with the M+ scales with males and females ( $r$ s of -.53 and -.41,  $p < .001$ ). Acting out was significantly correlated with the following scales: F+ (males:  $r = -.17, p < .01$ ), M- (males:  $r = .26$  and females:  $r = .18, p < .001$ ), FVA- for males ( $r = .22, p < .001$ ) and the FC- for males ( $r = .13, p < .05$ ). This study supports the theory behind communion and agency and their unmitigated forms. Conditions that are seen as negative such as neuroticism and acting out were largely found to be related to the unmitigated forms of the traits while self-esteem was associated

with the mitigated forms of the traits. These findings were generally supported with both male and female participants.

Helmreich, Spence and Wilhelm (1981) examined the psychometric properties of the EPAQ with over 8,000 participants from a variety of populations. Factor analyses revealed values ranging from .76 to .85 for 16 matrices and a test of sphericity was significant at the .001 level. The analysis revealed a two-factor solution for the PAQ with eigenvalues around 4. The mean correlation between the F and M factors was -.04. The mean loadings for the F scale were .53 and .51 for the M scale. In factor analysis of the EPA, different factors emerged for male and female participants. For females, a three factor solution emerged with each of the three scales (i.e. M-, FVA-, and FC-) accounting for a different factor. For males, a two-factor solution emerged with M- and FVA- as one factor and FC- as the second. A discriminant analysis was performed to assess sex role differences for one of the populations ( $n = 2,319$ ) revealed a Wilk's lambda of .63, correctly classifying 79% of the participants by sex role. The majority of the items, 39 of 40, demonstrated significant univariate Fs ( $p < .0001$ ). Mean internal consistencies for male and female participants combined for this population were the following: M- (.70), FVA- (.62) and FC- (.44). The FC- scale showed the lowest reliability.

Holahan and Spence (1980) used the EPAQ in a study of the differences between the clients of a university counseling center and non-clients ( $n = 1,205$ , 688 females and 517 males). The largest differences between the populations were seen on the M+ scale with clients scoring significantly lower than non-clients ( $r$ s of 17.8 and 17.0 for males and females respectively,  $p < .001$ ). Clients scored higher though on the M-, FVA-, and FC- scales ( $p < .001$ ) as predicted by the authors. Male clients were statistically different from non-clients on the M-, FVA-, FC-, and M+ ( $p$ s ranging from .05 to .001). Female clients were also significantly different on the scales

of M+, M-, FVA-, and FC- ( $p < .001$ ). To summarize, this study demonstrates that clients report a greater level of unmitigated agency and unmitigated communion than non-clients.

Helgeson and Fritz (2000) state that the EPAQ captures the construct of unmitigated agency well but that it does not capture unmitigated communion adequately. The problem with the FC- scale is seen in the low internal consistency value of .44 reported in Helmreich, Spence and Wilhelm (1981). The FC- scale of the EPAQ scale lacks validity because of the heterogeneous nature of the items (Helgeson, 1994). Therefore, Helgeson created her own measure of unmitigated communion (UC) and often pairs this brief instrument with the EPAQ. The instrument contains nine items and was first used in Helgeson (1993) with coronary patient's and their spouses ( $n = 96$ ). During its initial use, it had internal consistencies around .71. Factor analysis revealed two factors. The first factor accounted for 35% of the variance and included items that addressed putting others' needs before one's own. The second factor accounted for 16% of the variance and included items related to distress over one's concern for others. It has since been adapted for general use by removing words or statements specific to coronary patients (Helgeson, 1994).

Helgeson and Lepore (1997) examined agency and unmitigated agency with male participants with prostate cancer ( $n = 178$ ) with the EPAQ. The internal consistency for agency (M+) and unmitigated agency (M-) scales were .69 and .75 respectively. Unmitigated agency was significantly correlated with problems expressing emotions ( $r = -.31, p < .001$ ), general health ( $r = -.20, p < .05$ ), mental health ( $r = -.20, p < .05$ ), vitality ( $r = -.19, p < .05$ ), and social functioning ( $r = -.15, p < .10$ ). Agency was significantly correlated with general health ( $r = .27, p < .001$ ), physical health composite score ( $r = .16, p < .10$ ), mental health ( $r = .27, p < .001$ ), and vitality ( $r = .26, p < .001$ ). This study demonstrates a relationship with cancer patients between

unmitigated agency and lower functioning while agency seems to be associated with higher functioning.

In a series of studies Fritz and Helgeson (1998) sought to distinguish agency, communion and their unmitigated forms from each other and related traits. Helgeson's UC measure was paired with the EPAQ and had an internal consistency of .71. Attachment style was measured with Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) self-report measure of attachment style. In the first study, communion and unmitigated communion were examined with adolescents ( $n=69$ , 44 female and 25 male). Unmitigated communion was significantly negatively correlated with self-esteem ( $r = -.49, p < .001$ ), self-acceptance ( $r = -.29, p < .05$ ), self-regard ( $r = -.54, p < .001$ ) and depression measured with the Beck Depression Inventory ( $r = .46, p < .001$ ). Communion was significantly associated with the following: empathy ( $r = .54, p < .001$ ), secure attachment style ( $r = .46, p < .001$ ), preoccupied attachment style ( $r = .53, p < .001$ ), dismissing attachment style ( $r = -.34, p < .01$ ). Unmitigated communion was significantly correlated with the preoccupied ( $r = .46, p < .001$ ) and fearful attachment style ( $r = .21, p < .10$ ). This study further lends support for the theory that unmitigated communion is related to less healthy forms of interpersonal relations.

In the second study reported in Fritz and Helgeson (1998) communion and unmitigated communion were examined with 50 female adult participants. Communion was significantly related to comfort with support ( $r = .32, p < .05$ ) and a desire to influence others ( $r = .31, p < .05$ ). Unmitigated communion was significantly correlated with comfort level with support ( $r = -.26, p < .10$ ), desire to influence others ( $r = .26, p < .10$ ), and desire for others to take advice ( $r = .34, p < .05$ ). In terms of interpersonal competence, unmitigated communion was significantly negatively correlated with assertion ( $r = -.33, p < .05$ ) and self-disclosure ( $r = -.41, p < .01$ ). In a

third study, 43 female undergraduate participants were placed into a situation in which a confederate talked about an interpersonal problem that she was having. The participants took a series of questionnaires and were contacted at a later date regarding their thoughts since hearing about this confederate's problem. Unmitigated communion was significantly correlated with communion ( $r = .26, p < .10$ ), self esteem ( $r = -.27, p < .10$ ), empathy ( $r = .32, p < .05$ ), and distress ( $r = .30, p < .05$ ). At follow-up, UC was significantly positively correlated with intrusive thoughts ( $r = .35, p < .05$ ) and frequent thoughts about the event ( $r = .34, p < .05$ ). In this study, communion was only significantly related to empathy ( $r = .48, p < .001$ ).

In the last study discussed in Fritz and Helgeson (1998), participants were asked to bring a close friend to the investigation and were directed to talk to each other about a relationship problem for a set amount of time ( $n = 93$ , 47 females and 45 males, 1 missing value). The participants took similar measures to those used in study 3 and were followed up with about their thoughts regarding the event. In this study unmitigated communion was significantly correlated with communion ( $r = .51, p < .001$ ), empathy ( $r = .51, p < .001$ ), external self-perception ( $r = .43, p < .001$ ), self-neglect ( $r = .33, p < .001$ ), overinvolvement ( $r = .74, p < .001$ ) and depression ( $r = .36, p < .001$ ). At follow-up, it was significantly positively correlated with intrusive thoughts ( $r = .46, p < .01$ ) and frequent thoughts ( $r = .58, p < .001$ ). These four studies demonstrate the relationship between unmitigated communion and communion and the traits' relationship to other interpersonal variables such as empathy. A relationship was also established between UC and level of distress.

Helgeson and Fritz (1999) completed a series of studies to assess the relationships between agency, communion and their unmitigated forms and other variables. Helgeson's measure of UC was again paired with the EPAQ. The first study used six samples ( $n = 1546, 690$

females and 856 males) made up of undergraduate students, university staff members, patients and the children of patients. The internal consistencies for communion scales of the EPAQ ranged from .72 to .81 and from .70 to .77 for the agency scale of the EPAQ. The internal consistencies for the unmitigated agency scale ranged from .60 to .85 for the six samples. Helgeson's UC demonstrated internal consistencies ranging from .69 to .76. In this study, female participants scored higher on both unmitigated communion and communion (means not reported,  $p$ 's ranging from .05 to .001). In all six samples, unmitigated communion and unmitigated agency were significantly negatively correlated for the male and female samples ( $r$ 's ranging from -.04 to -.37), and when men and women were combined as one sample ( $r$ 's not reported). When men and women were combined, unmitigated agency and agency were positively significantly correlated for all six samples ( $r$ 's not reported). Additionally when men and women were combined unmitigated communion and communion were significantly positively correlated across all of the samples.

Helgeson and Fritz (1999) used one sample ( $n = 211$ , 99 females and 112 males) of cardiac patients to examine the relationship of the traits of communion, agency and their unmitigated forms to health behaviors, self-esteem, distress, and interpersonal relationships. Unmitigated communion was predictive of the provision of support to others ( $\beta = .36$ ,  $p < .001$ ), negative social interactions ( $\beta = .24$ ,  $p < .001$ ), well being ( $\beta = -.15$ ,  $p < .05$ ), hostility ( $\beta = .23$ ,  $p < .001$ ), anxiety ( $\beta = .21$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and depression ( $\beta = .27$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Unmitigated agency was predictive of self-esteem ( $\beta = -.15$ ,  $p < .05$ ), hostility ( $\beta = .30$ ,  $p < .001$ ), anxiety ( $\beta = .17$ ,  $p < .01$ ), depression ( $\beta = .12$ ,  $p < .10$ ), well being ( $\beta = .32$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and negative social interactions ( $\beta = .15$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Lastly, health behaviors were significantly predicted by unmitigated communion ( $\beta = -.18$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and unmitigated agency ( $\beta = -.18$ ,  $p < .05$ ). In a sample of

undergraduate students ( $n = 93$ , 45 females and 43 males, 5 missing values), unmitigated communion was correlated with depression ( $r = .23$ ,  $p < .05$ ), dependency ( $r = .53$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and self-critical experiences ( $r = .24$ ,  $p < .05$ ). The relationship of unmitigated communion to self-critical experiences disappeared however when agency was statistically controlled for but unmitigated communion's relationship to dependent experiences was the same. Agency was significantly correlated with depression ( $r = -.43$ ,  $p < .001$ ), dependency ( $r = -.29$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and self-critical experiences ( $r = -.53$ ,  $p < .001$ ). When the role of unmitigated communion was controlled for, the relationship of agency to dependent experiences became marginally significant but the relationship to self-critical experiences remained the same.

In two samples with a total of 149 undergraduate student participants (58 females and 91 males), Helgeson and Fritz (1999) examined the relationship of agency, communion and their unmitigated forms to interpersonal relationship with the Inventory of Interpersonal Problems. The following were the results for the first sample ( $n = 57$ ). Unmitigated agency was correlated with being overly nurturant ( $r = -.39$ ,  $p < .01$ ), nonassertive ( $r = -.31$ ,  $p < .05$ ), cold ( $r = .27$ ,  $p < .05$ ), domineering ( $r = .45$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and vindictive ( $r = .31$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Unmitigated communion was significantly correlated with being cold ( $r = -.30$ ,  $p < .05$ ), vindictive ( $r = -.33$ ,  $p < .05$ ), overly nurturant ( $r = .52$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and exploitable ( $r = .34$ ,  $p < .01$ ). In the second sample ( $n = 92$ ), unmitigated agency was correlated with interpersonal control ( $r = .42$ ,  $p < .001$ ), being overly nurturant ( $r = -.28$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and exploitable ( $r = -.21$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Unmitigated communion was associated with being overly nurturant ( $r = .68$ ,  $p < .001$ ), nonassertiveness ( $r = .28$ ,  $p < .01$ ), exploitableness ( $r = .45$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and intrusiveness ( $r = .50$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Helgeson and Fritz (2000) examined the relationship of unmitigated agency and agency to personality variables ( $n$  and specific measures not reported). Unmitigated agency ( $M-$ ) was

negatively related to emotional stability ( $r = -.26, p < .001$ ), agreeableness ( $r = -.54, p < .001$ ) and conscientiousness ( $r = -.17, p < .001$ ). It was positively associated with openness to experience although the size of the correlation was small ( $r = .12, p < .01$ ). Agency (M+) was significantly positively correlated with many of the variables emotional stability ( $r = .39, p < .001$ ), openness to experience ( $r = .30, p < .001$ ) and conscientiousness ( $r = .27, p < .001$ ).

Saragovi, Koestner, Di-Dio, and Aube (1997) assessed the validity of Helgeson's model of sex, communion and agency with 201 undergraduate participants (125 females and 76 males). A scale titled Short-Form Sex Role Behavior Scale (Orlofsky, 1981) assessed the interests and behaviors thought to be associated with agency, male preferred, and communion, female preferred traits. The UC scale had an internal consistency of .71 for the 97 participants who took the measure. The model was largely supported in terms of the relationships between communion, agency and their mitigated forms. Agentic traits were significantly correlated with agentic interests ( $r = .39, p < .001$ ), agentic role behaviors ( $r = .27, p < .001$ ), communal role behavior ( $r = -.14, p < .05$ ), unmitigated communion as measured by the EPAQ ( $r = -.44, p < .001$ ), and unmitigated communion as measured by Helgeson's UC ( $r = -.24, p < .05$ ). Communal traits were correlated with communal role behavior ( $r = .30, p < .001$ ), communal interests ( $r = .39, p < .001$ ), and unmitigated communion as measured by Helgeson's UC ( $r = .33, p < .01$ ). Unmitigated communion as measured by the two instruments was significantly correlated at .23 ( $p < .05$ ). Additionally, the proposition that women would score higher on communion and men would score higher on agency was supported by the data.

Korabic and McCreary (2000) used the EPAQ with Helgeson's (1993) UC scale and the BSRI with 177 participants (98 females and 79 males). Significant intercorrelations were found

for the majority of the subscales of the instruments, most notably UC and unmitigated agency ( $r = -.21, p < .01$ ).

Conway and Vartarian (2000) examined whether women's lower status in society would account for the lower attributions or stereotypes made of them. Study 1 asked participants about their stereotypes of men and women using the EPAQ ( $n = 64$ , 34 females and 30 males). Participants completed the EPAQ twice, once for their perceptions of women and once for their ideas about men. There were significant sex effects for all of the scales in which men and women were stereotyped differently ( $p < .001$ ). The participants stereotyped women as possessing higher degrees of a trait on the following scales: communion (F+), unmitigated communion (FC-), and FVA- (neurotic/passive aggressive). Men were stereotyped as having higher levels of a trait on the scales agency (M+), unmitigated agency (M-) and the MF scale. The follow-up analyses for each of these findings were not discussed in the article; only the means and standard deviations are reported. Study 2 asked participants about their perceptions of the characteristics of men and women ( $n = 50$ , 29 females and 21 males). In this study, similar sex effects results were found, with women and men stereotyped differently on communion, agency, unmitigated communion and unmitigated agency. In this study, participants were presented with fictitious cultures in which the status of the fictitious individuals were manipulated ( $n = 42$ , 23 females and 19 males). Effects of status (low v. high) were statistically significant for all of the scales. Low status individuals were rated higher on F+ and F- whereas high status individuals were rated higher for M+, M-, MF+, and FVA-. The participants rated the high status individuals as more in control of their outcomes ( $t = 11.18, p < .001$ ) and able to influence others ( $t = 11.18, p < .001$ ). These results demonstrated that the results for women and low status individuals parallel each other, with some exceptions.

In summary, the EPAQ and the UC both have demonstrated acceptable reliability and validity. The EPAQ is a 40 item measure that was used to assess the traits of agency (M+), unmitigated agency (M-), and communion (F). Internal consistencies for the EPAQ major scales have been reported at .77 (Lubinski, Tellegran & Butcher, 1983). The EPAQ will be scored using the interpersonal perception method (Shullo & Alperson, 1984) which involves reducing the measure to 32 items by removing the I-E scale, which is rarely used in research. The FVA scale was also excluded from analysis because none of this study's research questions included attention to the traits of neuroticism as measured by this scale of the EPAQ. The internal consistencies of the EPAQ for the final study were less strong than reported elsewhere. The alphas were .66, .67 and .69 for the M-, F+, and M+ respectively.

The UC is a nine item measure used to assess the trait of unmitigated communion or an interest in others to the exclusion of one's self. The UC has been shown to have acceptable internal consistency, with alphas ranging from .70 to .80 (Fritz & Helgeson, 1998; Helgeson & Fritz, 1996). This scale was used in place of the EPAQ FC that has demonstrated problematic internal consistency levels (Helmreich, Spence & Wilhelm, 1981). In this study, the internal consistency alpha for the UC scale was .66, lower than expected. These instruments were used collectively to examine the relationships between these traits and the use of power bases. It was theorized that participants would vary on their scores for these traits which will differ based on the particular power bases chosen with female clients.

### **Ambivalent Sexism Inventory**

Sexism is theorized as containing both positive and negative affect resulting in ambivalence (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Hostile sexism involves negative affect or hostility towards women. Glick and Fiske (1996) define benevolent sexism as a view of women that is positive in

its emotional tone and provoking of helping behaviors; however these authors assert that benevolent sexism is ultimately restricting and stereotyping of women. This form of sexism is viewed as negative because its roots lie in male dominance and the stereotyping of women and therefore it has negative consequences for women. Glick and Fiske (1996) suggest that cultures vary in degree of hostile and benevolent sexism across their populations. Both hostile and benevolent sexism are thought to revolve around the following issues: sexuality, sex role identity and power (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory has 22 items with 11 items for each of the two subscales Hostile Sexism (HS) and Benevolent Sexism (BS) (Glick & Fiske, 1996). The BS scale contains the subfactors of idealized heterosexual intimacy, paternalistic power relations, and cooperation around complementary sex roles. The HS scale contains the subfactors of dominating power relations, tension over heterosexual control and competition across sex roles. Each of the subfactors of the HS scale involves women challenging men's power. Raw scores are generated for each of the two scales, HS and BS, and are added together, with higher scores indicating greater endorsement of sexist views. The total raw score is divided by 11, generating a score for the ASI that ranges from 0-5. The authors suggest that researchers use the raw score averages because the BS scale yields lower reliability scores when analyzed because the scale contains too few items (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Glick and Fiske (2002) state that the ASI does not attempt to classify individuals as sexist or nonsexist, rather the goal is an instrument in which higher scores indicate more ambivalence towards women than lower scores. McHugh and Frieze (1997) conclude that the ASI "measures the (inter) personal from a power perspective" (p.11) through items that address the relations between men and women.

The ASI was chosen over other sexism and sex role attitudes scale for several reasons. First it is more contemporary and relevant in nature than most other instruments. For example, while the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (Spence & Helmreich, 1972) is the most widely used sex role attitude instrument (McHugh & Frieze, 1997) it has not been updated since its conception in the 70's, a different time in the women's movement. Additionally, it contains a number of items that ask specifically about marriage, making it fairly heterosexual in nature. Although the AWS has been used in studies of sexism, it is classified as a measure of sex role attitudes and it does not measure negative affect towards women, which is thought to be an important component of sexism (Eagly & Mladinic, 1989). Specifically, other measures such as the Neosexism Scale (Tougas, Brown, Beaton & Joly, 1995) and the Modern Sexism Scale (Swim, Aiken, Hall, & Hunter, 1995) appear promising but lack the creativity of the ASI which seeks to assess subtle sexism through the benevolent sexism scale. Additionally, these measures lack the large scale and cross cultural validation of the ASI.

The initial validation of the ASI involved six studies with over 2,250 participants (1,304 females and 978 males, 22 missing values) (Glick & Fiske, 1996). In an analysis of the goodness of fit, the BS and HS scales were found to be separate entities and the two factor model was found to be an improvement over a one factor model, both suggesting the relevance of separate BS and HS scales. Across five of the six samples, the GFIs for a one factor model ranged from .69 to .80, for the two factor model the range was from .79 to .89, and for the full model the range was from .80 to .94 ( $p < .01$ ). One of the six samples was omitted from analysis because of low sample size. Alpha reliability coefficients for the ASI range from .83 to .92, for the HS scale the range was .80 to .92 and for the BS scale the range was .73 to .85. The two scales of the ASI were found to be correlated, indicating a relationship between benevolent and hostile

sexism. For female participants the correlations ranged from .45 to .61 ( $p < .01$ ). For male participants, the correlations ranged from -.12 to .55, with the majority of these correlations located above .31 ( $p < .01$ ). Low correlations for two of the samples of male participants were thought to be due to differences in the samples as well as the different methods used to analyze the results. Sex was found to be a significant main effect, with men having higher scores, supporting the validity of the instrument. The factor structure of the instrument was similar for men and for women with goodness of fit indices greater than .90, indicating the model fit women as well. The ASI was significantly correlated with other measures of sexism ( $n = 171$ , 94 females and 77 males) including the following: Attitudes Toward Women Scale ( $r = .63$ ,  $p < .01$ ), Old Fashioned Sexism Scale (.42,  $p < .01$ ), Modern Sexism Scale (.57,  $p < .01$ ), and the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (.54,  $p < .01$ ). The HS scale was as strongly correlated with these other measures of sexism ( $r$ s ranged from .48 to .68,  $p < .01$ ) as the overall scale ( $r$ s ranged from .42 to .63,  $p < .01$ ) but when the HS scale was partialled out, these significant correlations disappeared ( $r$ s then ranged from -.06 to .04). The authors state that this finding suggests that benevolent sexism is not addressed by other measures. These researchers assessed the predictive validity of the ASI using a 5-item semantic differential scale used by Eagly, Mladinic and Otto (1991) to measure attitudes toward specific social groups such as men and women. The HS and overall ASI were found to be significantly correlated with ambivalence toward feminine traits in three samples. In at least one of the samples, HS was significantly negatively correlated and BS was significantly positively correlated with positive attitudes towards women using the Eagly et al. (1991) measure. The ASI was also found to be a predictor of stereotypes about women by men.

A few of these studies that have used and examined the ASI will be summarized. Glick, Diebold, Bailey-Werner, and Zhu (1997) asked participants ( $n = 74$ , 37 females and 37 males) to

generate different classifications of women and then evaluate these categories. Some of the overarching themes of these categories were nontraditional, traditional, good sexy and unattractive. Men with high scores on the ASI generated more types of women related to their sexuality (42 v. 29 by low scoring men). High scores on the ASI for men were significantly related to an overall evaluation of women ( $r = .36, p < .05$ ), positive traits ( $r = .31, p < .05$ ) and negative traits ( $r = .31, p < .05$ ) ascribed to women, and both positive affect ( $r = .35, p < .05$ ) and negative affect ( $r = .36, p < .05$ ) towards women. This study additionally found positive support for the reliability of the instrument with alpha coefficients of .90 for the total ASI, .89 for HS and .81 for BS. The HS scales and BS scales were also found to be significantly correlated for both men ( $r = .52, p < .01$ ) and women ( $r = .42, p < .01$ ). Male participants scored higher on the ASI as predicted ( $F(91, 75) = 4.30, p < .05$ ). In a second study, Glick et al. (1997) asked participants to evaluate subtypes of women: career, sexy, homemakers and unattractive women ( $n = 87, 44$  females and 43 males). The stereotypes and affect toward these types were then measured. The HS scale was significantly related to men's reaction to career women in terms of overall evaluation ( $r = -.25, p < .05$ ), stereotypes ( $r = -.43, p < .01$ ), and affect ( $r = -.37, p < .05$ ). BS scores were related to positive attitudes toward homemakers by men in terms of stereotypes ( $r = .34, p < .01$ ) and symbolic beliefs ( $r = .24, p < .05$ ).

Glick, Fiske, Mladinic, Saiz, et al. (2000) administered the ASI in 19 countries to over 15,000 participants to establish cross-cultural validity. It was administered with a measure of stereotypes about women and the United Nations indices of sex equality (United Nations Development Programme, 1998). The HS scale was found to be more internally consistent with alphas ranging from .68 to .89 while the BS scale had alphas ranging from .53 to .84. The HS and BS scales were found to be significantly correlated in the majority of the samples with the

exception of men in five countries and men and women in one country. Significant correlations for men ranged from .16 to .49 and for women the correlations ranged from .11 to .64. When men and women were examined together, the HS was negatively correlated and the BS was positively correlated with stereotype ratings, reaching statistical significance in 22 of the 24 correlations. In terms of the HS correlations ranged from -.12 to -.43 and were significant for all countries with the exception of the Netherlands. In all of the countries examined the relationship between stereotypes and the BS were significant and ranged from .11 to .33. In all of the countries, male participants scored significantly higher than women on the HS scale while results varied for the BS scale. The HS and BS scales were found to be fairly predictive of sex inequality as measured by the United Nations indices of sex equality. The national means of men's HS and BS scores were negatively predictive of sex inequality, although marginally significant ( $r$ s ranged from -.40 to -.47 for the BS and HS respectively). Women's mean scores on both scales were marginally statistically significant in predicting sex inequality as seen in women's status or power in a country as measured by the United Nations indices ( $r$ s ranging from -.38 to -.42 for the HS and BS respectively). In all but three of the samples, the preferred model for the measure consisted of two subscales with the BS subscale possessing three subfactors. This model was the best fit using goodness of fit indices ( $p < .01$ ). In two of these three samples in which another model was a better fit, the samples were smaller than recommended for factor analyses.

Other studies have administered the ASI in foreign countries. Sakahl-Urgurlu and Glick (2003) examined the relationship between the ASI and beliefs about premarital sex in Turkish undergraduates and adults ( $n = 184$ , 92 females and 92 males). Men in this study were more likely to endorse negative beliefs about women who engage in premarital sex. Correlations

between the BS and such beliefs were significant for both men ( $r = .38, p < .01$ ) and women ( $r = .29, p < .01$ ). The HS scale was related to these negative beliefs in men ( $r = .31, p < .01$ ) but only marginally significantly in women ( $r = .18, p < .10$ ). In a regression analysis, the BS scale uniquely predicted negative beliefs about women engaging in premarital sex for men and women while the HS did not.

Glick, Lamieras, and Castro (2002) examined the ASI's relationship to religiosity and level of education with participants in Spain ( $n = 1,003, 508$  females,  $495$  males). Men scored significantly higher than women on both the HS and BS. The scales of the ASI were significantly negatively correlated with level of education (HS:  $r = -.21, p < .01$ ; BS:  $r = -.34, p < .01$ ), indicating that the less educated in this study endorsed more sexist beliefs. Religiosity was significantly predictive of benevolent sexism ( $r = .22, p < .01$ ) but not hostile sexism.

Vicki, Abrams, and Hutchison (2003) examined the relationship of ASI to paternalistic chivalry with undergraduates ( $n = 142, 88$  females and  $54$  males). These authors demonstrated that scores on the ASI are significantly positively related to paternalistic chivalry using a 16 item measure of the construct, finding that benevolent sexism is related to paternalistic chivalry ( $t = 4.03, p < .001$ ). A significant effect of sex was found ( $F(3, 138) = 4.83, p < .01$ ). Men scored significantly higher than women on HS ( $F(1, 140) = 9.30, p < .001$ ) and BS ( $F(1, 140) = 11.40, p < .001$ ) but similarly on the paternalistic chivalry measure.

Whitly (2001) examined the relationship between sexism, sex role beliefs and attitudes and behaviors towards sexual minorities ( $n = 394, 227$  females and  $207$  males). Benevolent sexism was significantly related to anti-gay attitudes including affect and stereotypes ( $t = 7.52, p < .001$ ) but not anti-gay behaviors such as harassment or assault. Scores on both scales were

significantly correlated with measures of attitudes toward homosexuals (HS,  $r = .38$ ,  $p < .001$ ; BS,  $r = .57$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and antigay behaviors (HS,  $r = .34$ ,  $p < .001$ ; BS,  $r = .33$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Masser and Abrams (1999) investigated the ASI's relationship to another sexism scale, the Neosexism scale (Tongas, et al. 1995) using three samples ( $n = 907$ , 509 females and 398 males). Men scored significantly higher on both the ASI and Neosexism scales across all three samples although the differences were smaller with the BS scale. In two of the three samples, BS and HS scales were significantly positively correlated. The correlations between the HS scale and Neosexism scale were significant and positive across men and women and ranged from .52 to .81 (specific correlation values were not reported). A significant positive relationship was found between the Neosexism scale and the BS scale with women participants ( $r$  ranged from .22,  $p < .01$ , to .48,  $p < .001$ ) and for men this relationship was significant for only two samples ( $r$ s of .18 and .31,  $p < .05$ ).

Conn, Hanges, Sipe, and Salvaggio (1999) compared the ASI with the measures Old-fashioned and Modern Sexism (OFS and MS, Swim, Aiken, Hall and Hunter, 1995) to determine whether the ASI captures unique aspects of sexism ( $n = 757$  undergraduates, sex breakdown was not reported). A confirmatory factor analysis of the instrument found a problem with kurtosis with the HS scales (average kurtosis =  $-.084$ , average  $t = -4.75$ ). The authors found an acceptable level of fit for the model that was fairly consistent with the findings of Glick and Fiske (1996). When controlling for the effects of the BS scale, the relationship between the MS scale and the BS scale was not significant ( $r = -.01$ ). Partial correlations were found between the BS subfactors of paternalistic power relations with OFS ( $r = .15$ ,  $p < .005$ ), heterosexuality intimacy with OFS ( $r = .08$ ,  $p < .05$ ), and complementary sex roles with MS ( $r = -.13$ ,  $p < .005$ ).

In response to this finding, the authors concluded the MS scale does tap some aspect of the BS scale.

Petrocelli (2002) points out that articles supporting the ASI often fail to publish standard deviations and that it is likely that respondents more often endorse “agree slightly” or “disagree slightly” rather than the extreme polar opposites of a Likert scale. Sax (2002) argues against the ASI along theoretical lines, questioning whether some of the items reflect sex differences in personality rather than prejudice towards women. Additionally Sax points out that some of the items reflect cultural beliefs such as the item that states that men are incomplete without women. He discusses how this is a tenet of Judaism and therefore endorsement of this item should not be taken to be an indicator of benevolent sexism.

In summary, the ASI contains two scales: Hostile Sexism (HS) and Benevolent Sexism (BS). Research has shown that other sex role attitudes and sexism measures, such as the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (Spence & Helmreich, 1972), do not adequately capture benevolent sexism (Glick & Fiske, 1996). The ASI has been supported as a measure of sexist beliefs in the short ten years since its first publication. The instrument possesses adequate cross-cultural validity as seen in its validity data from other countries (Glick, Fiske, Mladinic, Saiz, et al., 2000). The ASI was used in this study to first examine the relationship of sexism to the influence strategies used by psychologists with female clients. The current study examined the internal consistencies for the ASI. In the final study, the HS, BS and total ASI had alphas of .84, .76 and .85 respectively.

### **Demographic Questionnaire**

A demographic questionnaire was developed by the author to assess several variables: sex, ethnicity/race, theoretical orientation, and number of years in practice. In order to compare

the demographics of the respondents to the general population, the demographic questionnaire asked the respondents to indicate their age, and geographic location.

### **Design**

This study constituted a between-subjects design in which every participant received the same measures and therefore there was no random assignment of participants. The order of the measures was counterbalanced to control for order effects, a threat to internal validity.

The research design of this study is considered a “cybersurvey” which involves the posting of research requests and survey materials on-line (Mathy, Kerr & Haydin, 2003). While such an approach to research has its limitations, it is also considered to be more economical (Mathy, Kerr & Haydin, 2003). Some other advantages of Internet research are a greater access to more obscure samples, and efficiency (Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava, & John, 2004). Mathy, Kerr and Haydin (2003) summarize the findings of multiple studies that have used the Internet to access participants and found that the demographics of their respondents did not differ significantly from those accessed through more traditional sampling means. Gosling et al. (2004) compared the samples from one year of the *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (510 samples) to a large Internet sample ( $n = 361,703$ ) to examine the validity of some of the preconceived conceptions about Internet research seen in the social sciences literature. The researchers examined six preconceptions in the areas of generalizability of the data, the motivation of Internet participants, and issues related to the anonymity of participants. They found that many of these ideas were in fact myths. The authors found that while the Internet sample was not completely representative of the general population at large, the sample was more representative than traditional research samples. While the Internet sample was more diverse in terms of sex, age and geographic location, the Internet sample was mostly

homogenous in terms of socioeconomic status. They also concluded that the quality of the responses was at least as good for the Internet as responses gathered through traditional methods.

An important part of Internet research is demonstrating the representativeness of the sample. This will be determined by assessing the participants through a demographic questionnaire. The demographics of the participants were compared to recent demographic information of psychologists obtained through the American Psychological Association (APA).

Security for this study was established through the use of the Psychdata website. Only individuals who clicked on the web address listed in the email posting and who provided the survey number and password had access to the site. Their access was limited to completing the survey and entering into the drawing. Participants did not have access to their results or the results of other participants. Participants could elect to receive a copy of the results when the study is complete. To achieve the anonymity of participants, the identifying information of participants, namely email addresses, was stored separately from survey material results as suggested in the literature (Kraut et al., 2004).

Internet research may involve less risk to participants because there is less social pressure for them to complete the study if it is an uncomfortable experience for them (Kraut et al., 2004). This study involved little risk because it did not involve the manipulation of participants nor did it include questions or procedures that would be distressing.

### **Statistics**

The main analysis of this study involved the groups created by a cluster analysis using the results of the Interpersonal Power Inventory-Psychologist version (IPI-P) and sex. Participants were grouped according to their scores on the 11 different power bases. Because of the exploratory nature of this study, specific hypotheses regarding the nature of the relationships

between the independent and dependent variables were unclear pending the results of the cluster analysis. Some ideas regarding the findings were formulated though. First it was assumed that the participants would vary according to their responses on the Interpersonal Power Inventory-Psychologist Version. It was hypothesized that the participants would separate into homogenous groups according to their scores on the IPI-P by cluster analysis. The participants were also separated into groups by the independent variable sex. Secondly, it was assumed that these groups of participants would vary in some way from each other on the dependent variables. Therefore, it was hypothesized that the participants would vary in their responses according to their clusters and sex on the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire and Helgeson's Unmitigated Communion Scale, and the Ambivalent Sexism Scale. Multivariate Analyses of Variance (MANOVA) were completed to examine the relationships between the dependent variables and the independent variables, the sex of participants and the clusters. MANOVA was an appropriate choice to evaluate the differences among dependent variables with two or more groups (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The hypothesis that participants would differ on the IPI-P in terms of the variable sex was tested with a chi-square of independence to see if sex was distributed across the clusters. The reliability coefficients of each measure and effect sizes were also calculated. Lastly a table of intercorrelations between the variables was created.

## Chapter 4

### RESULTS

#### **Pilot Study**

##### *Preliminary Analyses*

Mean and standard deviations values are reported in Table 3 for the IPI, IPI-P, ASI, EPAQ and UC. Data checking procedures were utilized using the procedures recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001). All participants were required to respond to each question before moving on with the study and therefore there were no missing data.

Outliers were found when assessing for normality using sex as the dependent variable. Every instrument used in the pilot study exhibited outliers with the exception of the Unmitigated Communion instrument. Three extreme values, or values beyond three box lengths from the upper and lower quartiles of a box plot, were found. These three extreme values occurred for two participants with the IPI-P. The outliers occurred for the two variables Impersonal Coercion and Impersonal Reward. No specific patterns of responses were found for these two cases and thus it appeared as though these respondents completed the survey correctly. These two respondents were more likely to endorse extreme values for certain questions but with no particular discernable pattern. When these three extreme outliers were removed from the analysis, the data exhibited similar significant skewness and kurtosis. This suggests that removal of the outliers would not significantly improve the distribution of the scale and therefore these two cases were retained for the data analysis. The relationships between the mean and the 5% trimmed mean of each variable were examined, and no issues were found with any of the variables using this criterion as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001).

Table 3

*Descriptives of Pilot Study Measures*

Scales	Males (n = 4)		Females (n = 16)		Total (n = 20)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<b>IPI</b>						
Expert	21.75	3.30	23.00	3.08	22.75	3.07
Impersonal Coercion	15.75	4.11	17.00	2.90	16.75	3.09
Impersonal Reward	22.25	2.50	20.50	2.92	20.85	2.87
Information	23.75	2.63	24.19	2.81	24.10	2.71
Legitimate Dependence	17.50	4.12	20.25	2.91	19.70	3.26
Legitimate Equity	17.50	5.80	19.06	2.38	18.75	3.19
Legitimate Position	18.75	2.50	18.87	3.65	18.85	3.39
Legitimate Reciprocity	18.25	3.30	20.44	2.28	20.00	2.57
Personal Coercion	21.25	2.06	19.56	1.63	19.90	1.80
Personal Reward	20.75	2.63	20.87	2.82	20.85	2.72
Referent	20.50	4.43	22.06	2.38	21.75	2.83
<b>IPI-P</b>						
Expert	20.25	3.30	22.37	3.05	21.95	3.14
Impersonal Coercion	10.50	3.32	13.94	5.05	13.25	4.89
Impersonal Reward	14.25	5.74	16.62	3.76	16.62	4.16
Information	23.75	2.36	22.19	2.76	22.50	2.70
Legitimate Dependence	16.75	5.56	20.56	1.75	19.80	3.12

Table 3 (continued)

Scales	Males (n = 4)		Females (n = 16)		Total (n = 20)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Legitimate Equity	11.00	4.69	15.75	2.79	14.80	3.66
Legitimate Position	16.50	4.36	17.69	2.06	17.45	2.56
Legitimate Reciprocity	16.00	4.32	19.12	2.16	18.50	2.87
Personal Coercion	19.75	.96	17.81	1.97	18.20	1.96
Personal Reward	20.25	2.99	19.75	3.00	19.85	2.92
Referent	19.50	4.12	19.87	2.92	19.80	3.07
ASI						
Total Score	30.50	23.47	31.56	18.47	31.35	18.88
Hostile Sexism (HS)	12.75	9.29	13.06	10.89	13.00	10.36
Benevolent Sexism (BS)	17.75	14.41	18.50	8.67	18.35	9.60
EPAQ						
Communion (F+)	26.00	4.55	25.87	3.84	25.90	3.86
Agency (M+)	19.50	7.05	20.44	2.45	20.25	3.57
Unmitigated Agency (M-)	9.50	4.79	13.06	5.00	12.35	5.05
UC						
Total Score	27.25	9.91	29.25	5.67	28.85	6.51

*Note.* IPI = Interpersonal Power Inventory; IPI-P = Interpersonal Power Inventory-Psychologist

Version. Scale = 1-7. Higher score indicates higher endorsement of power base as effective

means with female client. ASI = Ambivalent Sexism Inventory; EPAQ = Extended Personal

Attributes Questionnaire; UC = Unmitigated Communion measure.

Normality, linearity and homoscedasticity were examined for each of the variables utilizing SPSS Explore, using the instruments as dependent variables, and sex as the independent variable. Normality was problematic as a whole for male participants because of the limited number of males included in the sample.

The total ASI, BS, and HS scales demonstrated normality using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic with significance values of .20 for the total ASI and BS scales while the HS scale had a significance value of .18 for female participants. Probability plots were also examined for these scales and appeared normal with reasonably straight lines for each variable for both male and female participants. Skewness values for these three scales ranged from .45 (BS) to 1.0 (HS) and kurtosis ranged from -.53 (total ASI) to 1.15 (HS), and were therefore not ideal.

Using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic, the M+ and F+ scales of the EPAQ demonstrated normality with significance values of .20, .18, and .08 respectively for female participants. The M- scale did not reach significance level for normality. Probability plots were also examined for these scales. The M-, M+, F+ scales appeared normal with a reasonably straight line for male and female participants. The EPAQ demonstrated significant levels of skewness and kurtosis. The skewness values ranged from -1.10 (F+) to -.54 (M+). The kurtosis values ranged from 2.24 (F+) to -.09 (M-).

The Unmitigated Communion scale had skewness and kurtosis values of -.27 and -.17 respectively. The UC scale demonstrated normality ( $p < .06$ ) for females and the probability plot appeared normal for males and females.

Several of the IPI-P scales demonstrated problematic skewness and kurtosis levels ranging from .31 (Legitimate Position) to -2.21 (Legitimate Dependence) and -1.25 (Personal

Reward) to 7.25 (Legitimate Dependence) respectively. The following scales demonstrated normality for females using Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic: Legitimate Dependence, Legitimate Position, Legitimate Reward, Personal Reward, and Referent power bases ( $p < .20$  for each scale). Impersonal Coercion, Personal Coercion, Legitimate Dependence and Interpersonal Reward demonstrated problems with normality with values less than .05. Probability plots were also examined for these scales and the majority appeared normal with reasonably straight lines for each variable for both male and female participants. The probability lines for these scales approached normality particularly for male participants.

The skewness values of the IPI ranged from  $-1.15$  (Personal Reward) to  $.11$  (Impersonal Coercion). The kurtosis values ranged from  $-.67$  (Expert) to  $2.94$  (Personal Reward). The majority of the scales of the IPI demonstrated normality with Kolmogorov-Smirnov significance values ranging from  $.08$  to  $.20$ . The two scales Referent and Personal Reward demonstrated problematic normality levels with significance values of  $.01$  and  $.04$  respectively. Probability plots were also examined for these scales and each variable appeared normal with straight lines for each variable for both male and female participants.

The choice was made to not alter the skewness and kurtosis values of any of the scales under investigation of the pilot study because of the limited value of the findings from such a small sample size. However, the problematic skewness and kurtosis levels of the variables likely impacted the ability to find significant correlations between the variables under investigation. Therefore it was decided to approach the pilot study as an exploratory endeavor. Skewness and kurtosis were examined and dealt with more actively in the final study.

Multicollinearity was examined for the variables, examining the relationships between the IPI-P and sex because these are the independent variables of the final study. Significant

relationships were found for the variable sex and Legitimate Dependence, Legitimate Equity, and Legitimate Reciprocity ( $p < .05$ ). Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) suggest that independent variables should not be included if the variables are correlated at .7 or above (p. 86) and this assumption was not violated.

Internal consistency scores were examined for the ASI, UC, EPAQ, IPI-P and IPI. The reliability measures for these instruments are reported in Table 4. The majority of the scales of the IPI-P, 6 out of 11 to be specific, demonstrated adequate reliability with alpha coefficients that ranged from .82 to .92. Impersonal Reward and Impersonal Coercion demonstrated the strongest reliability with alphas of .91 and .90 respectively. The Referent and Legitimate Reciprocity scales demonstrated lower internal inconsistency levels between .54 and .59. Personal Coercion and Legitimate Position demonstrated the lowest reliability levels each with alphas of .37 and each had three items with problematic corrected item-total correlations. The four scales of Referent, Legitimate Position, Legitimate Reciprocity, and Personal Coercion were not included in the primary analyses of the pilot analyses because of low alphas.

The bulk of the scales of the IPI demonstrated good reliability with Cronbach's alphas ranging from .74 to .85. The power bases of Information, Expert and Legitimate Equity had the strongest reliability coefficients of the IPI with alphas of .85, .82, and .82 respectively. Three of the scales demonstrated poor internal consistency. The Impersonal Coercion scale had two problematic items that resulted in an alpha of .50. Impersonal Reward also had a lower level of internal consistency with an alpha of .59. Lastly, the Personal Coercion scale demonstrated extremely low reliability ( $\alpha = -.09$ ), with all items having low corrected item-total correlation. The finding that some of the scales of IPI had unacceptable internal consistency levels was surprising given that other studies have found acceptable levels, particularly when using the 33

item version of the instrument (Erchul, Raven & Ray, 2001; Raven, Schwarzwald & Koslowsky, 1998). Cutting one item from each scale as done in the previous studies would not have impacted the scales with lower alphas much and therefore this option was not exercised. The choice was made to exclude the scales of Impersonal Coercion, Impersonal Reward and Personal Coercion scale in the primary analyses of the pilot study.

In terms of the ASI, the total ASI and BS scales had adequate Cronbach's alphas of .91 and .80 respectively. The total ASI and BS scale were negatively impacted by the item "Women, as compared to men, tend to have a more refined sense of culture and good taste" which demonstrated a low corrected item-total correlation. The HS scale demonstrated good internal consistency ( $\alpha = .88$ ). These findings are consistent with the reliability levels reported in Glick and Fiske (1996).

Several scales of the EPAQ demonstrated problematic internal consistency levels. The M+ and F+ scales had alphas that ranged from .66 to .68, lower than expected. As reported earlier, some studies such as Lubinski, Tellegen and Butcher (1993) found strong internal consistency levels for the M+ and F+ scales whereas McCreary and Korabik (1994) found poor internal consistency for the F-scales. The M- scale was the only scale to demonstrate adequate internal consistency ( $\alpha = .73$ ).

The Unmitigated Communion scale had a Cronbach's alpha score of .85, that was lowered by the item "I have no trouble getting to sleep at night when other people are upset" which had a low corrected item-total correlation. The internal consistency of the UC scale was

Table 4

*Internal Consistency of Pilot Study Measures*

Scale/Subscale	$\alpha$
Interpersonal Power Inventory-	
Psychologist Version (IPI-P)	
Expert	.82
Impersonal Coercion	.90
Impersonal Reward	.91
Information	.85
Legitimate Dependence	.83
Legitimate Equity	.89
Legitimate Position	.37*
Legitimate Reciprocity	.59*
Personal Coercion	.37*
Personal Reward	.85
Referent	.54*
Interpersonal Power Inventory (IPI)	
Expert	.82
Impersonal Coercion	.50*
Impersonal Reward	.59*
Information	.85
Legitimate Dependence	.74

Table 4 (continued)

Scale/Subscale	$\alpha$
Legitimate Equity	.82
Legitimate Position	.75
Legitimate Reciprocity	.76
Personal Coercion	-.09*
Personal Reward	.77
Referent	.65
Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)	.91
Benevolent Sexism	.80
Hostile Sexism	.88
Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (EPAQ)	
Agency (M+)	.66
Unmitigated Agency (M-)	.73
Communion (F+)	.68
Unmitigated Communion Scale	.85

*Note.* \*The following scales were excluded from future analyses because of poor alpha levels:

Impersonal Coercion, Impersonal Reward and Personal Coercion scales of the IPI and

Legitimate Position, Legitimate Reciprocity, Personal Coercion and Referent of the IPI-P.

greater than what has been reported in past studies that have reported reliability estimates around .71 (Fritz & Helgeson, 1998; Helgeson & Fritz, 2000).

### *Primary Analyses*

Bivariate correlations were completed to examine the relationships between all of the variables in the study. The scales of the ASI were found to be correlated. The BS scale was correlated with the total ASI ( $r = .94, p < .01$ ) and HS ( $r = .79, p < .01$ ) and the HS was correlated to the total ASI ( $r = .95, p < .01$ ). The correlations between the scales of the ASI and to the total scale have been reported in other studies (Glick, Diebold, Bailey-Werner, & Zhu, 1997; Glick & Fiske, 1996).

No significant relationships were found between scales of the EPAQ. This lack of relationships between these scales is inconsistent with other research that has found relationships between these scales (Helgeson & Fritz, 1999).

Specific attention was paid to the correlational values between the corresponding power base scales of the IPI and IPI-P because the IPI-P is an adaptation of the IPI. The following scales demonstrated significant relationships: Expert ( $r = .71, p < .01$ ), Information ( $r = .56, p < .05$ ), Legitimate Dependence ( $r = .67, p < .01$ ), and Legitimate Equity ( $r = .53, p < .05$ ). The relationships between the scales of Impersonal Reward, Impersonal Coercion, Personal Coercion, Legitimate Position, Legitimate Reciprocity and Referent were not examined because of inadequate alpha levels. Personal Reward was the single scale included in the analysis in which a correlation was not found between the IPI and IPI-P. Future validation efforts might continue to examine the relationships between these two scales with a larger sample.

Correlations were also found between individual scales of the IPI-P. These values are located in Table 5. The Expert power base was related to many other bases: Information ( $r = .62$ ,

$p < .01$ ), Legitimate Dependence ( $r = .60, p < .01$ ), and Personal Reward ( $r = .50, p < .05$ ).

Impersonal Coercion was related to Impersonal Reward ( $r = .50, p < .05$ ), and Legitimate Equity ( $r = .61, p < .01$ ). The Information power base was correlated with Personal Reward ( $r = .48, p < .05$ ). Impersonal Reward was related to Legitimate Equity ( $r = .72, p < .01$ ). Legitimate Dependence was related to Legitimate Equity ( $r = .52, p < .05$ ).

Many of the relationships found between scales of the IPI-P were also found between the scales of the IPI. The Expert power base was related to the bases of Information ( $r = .65, p < .01$ ), Legitimate Dependence ( $r = .51, p < .05$ ), and Referent ( $r = .50, p < .05$ ). Legitimate Dependence was correlated with Legitimate Equity ( $r = .46, p < .05$ ), Legitimate Reciprocity ( $r = .59, p < .01$ ), and Referent ( $r = .59, p < .01$ ). Legitimate Equity was correlated with Legitimate Reciprocity ( $r = .74, p < .01$ ), Personal Reward ( $r = .62, p < .01$ ), and Referent ( $r = .49, p < .01$ ). Many of these relationships between the power bases were found by Raven, Schwarzwald and Koslowsky (1998) through a principal component analysis. Expert and Information were found to be one factor in the study by Raven et al. (1998), therefore the correlation between these two bases fit with their findings. The relationships between Expert and Information, Legitimate Dependence and Referent power bases also fits with Raven et al. (1998) finding that these bases can be seen as one factor: soft bases. The Legitimate Dependence base's correlations with Legitimate Equity and Legitimate Reciprocity were a surprise because Legitimate Dependence was deemed a soft base and the other two are seen as harsh bases. This finding may be logical though given that all three of these power bases were once part of the larger legitimate power base.

Table 5

*Pilot Study Intercorrelations between IPI-P Scales*

IPI-P Subscale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Expert	--	.09	-.03	.62**	.60**	.41	.62**
2. Impersonal Coercion	.90	--	.74**	-.06	.09	.61**	.37
3. Impersonal Reward	.62**	-.06	--	-.18	.22	.72**	.32
4. Information	-.03	.74**	-.18	--	.30	.14	.33
5. Legitimate Dependence	.60**	.09	.22	.30	--	.52*	.61**
6. Legitimate Equity	.41	.61**	.72**	.14	.52*	--	.63**
7. Personal Reward	.50*	-.14	.04	.48*	.35	.17	.42

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .  $n = 20$ . Variables Personal Coercion, Legitimate Reciprocity, Legitimate Position and Referent were excluded based on low internal consistency levels.

The relationships between the dependent measures of this study were examined. The F+ scale of the EPAQ was found to be negatively correlated with the HS ( $r = -.49$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and total ASI ( $r = -.46$ ,  $p < .05$ ) but not correlated to the BS scale. This finding suggests that individuals higher in levels of communion tended to score lower on Hostile Sexism and on the overall instrument.

The UC was not significantly correlated with any of the scales of the EPAQ, which was surprising. Helgeson and Fritz (1999) found inverse relationships between the UC scale and M- and Fritz and Helgeson (1998) found a positive relationship between the UC and F+. The UC was also not significantly correlated with any of the scales of the ASI.

Interest was directed towards the relationships between the scales of the IPI-P and the other instruments used in this study. No significant correlations were found between the scales of the IPI-P and the ASI. Additionally, the UC was not significantly correlated with any of the

scales of the IPI-P. Only one significant relationship was found when the correlations between the EPAQ and IPI-P were examined. Legitimate Dependence was significantly correlated to M+ ( $r = -.46, p < .05$ ).

Given the overall small number of participants and small number of male participants, these findings should be considered exploratory because they are not likely generalizable. Many of the findings of the pilot led to increased attention to specific results of the final study. First, the internal consistency level of the IPI-P scales was examined again, paying particular attention to the scales of Personal Coercion, Legitimate Position, Legitimate Reciprocity and Referent because of their exclusion in the pilot due to problematic reliability coefficients. Secondly, the correlations between the instruments were examined again in the final study. Few relationships were found in the pilot study possibly because of the low number of participants, which impacts the power of the statistical tests used. The lack of correlations found in this study may also be due to the problematic skewness and kurtosis levels of the variables, which generally impact the ability to find significant relationships even when they exist (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). These issues were examined more fully in the final study.

## **Final Study**

### *Preliminary Analyses*

Data checking procedures were again utilized using the procedures recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001). The majority of the participants had no missing data for several reasons. Participants who did not complete the majority of the study were excluded from analysis and participants were required to answer every question of the study or were not permitted to move on with the study in an effort to avoid excessive missing data. The one exception is that 2 participants elected to skip one instrument. Thus the ASI and EPAQ include one less participant.

This issue was dealt with by including these participants in the analyses and allowing SPSS to account for the missing data. Descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations for the independent and dependent variables are reported in Table 6.

Normality, linearity and homoscedasticity were examined for each of the variables utilizing SPSS Explore. The scales of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory did not demonstrate normality using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic with values ranging from .00 (HS) to .04 (total ASI scale). Probability plots were examined as another means of checking normality and the plots demonstrated that each scale approached normality. Histograms for each scale demonstrated slightly positively skewed distributions for the HS and ASI total scale while the BS approached a normal curve. Each of the scales demonstrated normality for male participants though with p values ranging from .08 to .20 when female and male participants were examined separately.

The scales of the EPAQ did not demonstrate normality with p values hovering around .00. The M+ and M- scales approached normal curves on histograms and the scale scores appeared normal when plotted. The F+ approached normality when plotted but demonstrated a fairly positively skewed distribution on a histogram. The F+ demonstrated one extreme outlier. The variable of F+ was transformed using a logarithm transformation. This transformed F+ was retained but used only in secondary analyses when statistical significance was not found in primary analyses with this variable to determine whether the outlier associated with this variable affected the ability to find statistical differences.

The Unmitigated Communion scale did not demonstrate normality using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov ( $p < .03$ ) but the histogram and plotting of scale scores both appeared

Table 6

*Descriptives of Final Study Measures*

Scale/Subscale	Males (n = 46)		Females (n = 110)		Total (n =156)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<b>IPI -P</b>						
Expert	20.06	2.36	20.14	2.74	20.11	2.62
Impersonal Coercion	14.39	3.62	15.24	3.81	14.99	3.76
Impersonal Reward	16.02	2.44	16.14	3.23	16.10	3.01
Information	21.35	2.76	21.35	3.18	21.35	3.05
Legitimate Dependence	18.50	2.90	19.10	2.77	18.92	2.82
Legitimate Equity	13.63	3.62	14.64	3.45	14.34	3.52
Legitimate Position	15.67	2.94	16.26	3.39	16.09	3.27
Legitimate Reciprocity	18.56	2.51	18.95	2.39	18.84	2.43
Personal Coercion	16.78	4.13	18.80	3.85	18.20*	4.03
Personal Reward	18.59	2.89	19.30	3.26	19.09	3.16
Referent	19.04	2.48	19.52	2.56	19.38	2.53
<b>ASI</b>						
Total Score	62.39	9.86	58.95	7.74	59.97*	8.54
Hostile Sexism (HS)	30.24	5.65	28.81	4.48	29.23*	4.88
Benevolent Sexism (BS)	32.15	6.14	30.15	5.06	30.74*	5.46

Table 6 (continued)

Scale/Subscale	Males (n = 46)		Females (n = 110)		Total (n = 156)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
EPAQ						
Communion (F+)	26.93	3.97	27.71	3.53	27.48	3.67
Agency (M+)	24.29	2.78	24.13	2.93	24.17	2.88
Unmitigated Agency (M-)	23.69	2.35	22.28	2.14	22.69*	2.29
UC						
Total Score	25.11	4.27	25.19	4.42	25.11	4.36

*Note.* Both the ASI and EPAQ had 155 participants with one female participant missing for each of these two scales. \*Significant differences were found between male and female participants for Personal Coercion ( $t = -2.92, p. < .00$ ), total ASI ( $t = 2.32, p. < .02$ ), HS ( $t = 1.68, p. < .10$ ), BS ( $t = 2.11, p. < .04$ ), and M- ( $t = 3.61, p. < .00$ ).

normal. Both male and female participant samples demonstrated normality when examined separately with  $p$  values of .20.

The dependent measures of the ASI, UC and EPAQ were each examined for multivariate outliers using Mahalanobis distances. The critical value of 24.32 was exceeded by the Mahalanobis value with a value of 27.11 indicating that the data possessed some number of multivariate outliers. This issue was examined more fully using the Explore option of SPSS Descriptives. Only one participant exceeded the critical value of 24.32 with a score of 27.11, matching the previously reported Mahalanobis distance value. This extreme outlier appeared to be sampled from the target population and therefore was included in analyses (Tabachnick &

Fidell, 2001). Inclusion of this outlying participant did not appear to negatively impact the analyses. Similar results were obtained when this participant was excluded from the analyses.

Many of the scales of the IPI-P demonstrated leptokurtic distributions in which scores strongly clustered around the mean. Many of the variables also demonstrated negatively skewed distributions in which scores tended to be high. These issues impacted the skewness and kurtosis levels of the scales scores and therefore the 11 scales did not demonstrate normality using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic with values hovering around .00. Probability plots were examined as another examination of normality and each of the variables approximated a straight line ascending to the right. Several of the subscales of the IPI-P demonstrated normality for male participants when the scales were examined using the independent variable sex. These scales included Legitimate Dependence, Legitimate Position, Legitimate Reciprocity, Referent and Personal Reward ( $p < .05$ ).

Three of the IPI-P variables exhibited extreme outliers using the Explore option of SPSS. These variables were Impersonal Reward, Legitimate Dependence and Legitimate Equity and these variables exhibited a total of 15 extreme outliers for 14 participants. The skewness values ranged from .04 to -1.41. The highest skewness values were seen for Impersonal Reward (-1.41), Legitimate Equity (-1.10), and Impersonal Coercion (-1.02). The kurtosis values ranged from -.25 to 4.95. The highest kurtosis values were seen for Impersonal Reward (4.95), Legitimate Dependence (2.62), and Impersonal Coercion (1.29). Procedures to explore the presence of outliers were employed as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) who suggest that outliers may be removed if the outliers are not from the target population or transformed prior to primary analyses. The participants were each examined to ensure that the outliers were sampled from the target population and this was confirmed by examining the demographics of the participants.

Removal of all of the extreme outliers was then examined as a first option. As a result of removing the outliers, more outliers developed and the skewness and kurtosis of several of the variables worsened. The option of data transformation was explored for the three scales of Impersonal Reward, Impersonal Coercion, and Legitimate Equity. Several of these variables demonstrated improved distributions when square root and logarithm transformation procedures were employed. Due to the controversy surrounding data transformation, these procedures were employed as a secondary analysis in each primary analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Multicollinearity was examined for the independent variables, examining the relationships between the scales of the IPI-P and sex. The few significant relationships that were found were well below the cut off of .7 suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) and thus the variables were retained for analysis.

Internal consistency scores for the ASI, UC and EPAQ were examined and are reported in the Method Section. The Cronbach alphas for the IPI-P are reported in Table 7. The majority of the scales of the IPI-P demonstrated acceptable to strong internal consistency levels however the Referent scale had an alpha of .44. The scale was negatively impacted by the item “She sees me as someone she can identify with” which had a corrected item total correlation of .13. This low level of reliability is similar to the pilot study that reported an alpha level of .54 for the Referent power base. Legitimate Reciprocity also demonstrated a lower level of internal consistency of .51 due to one item with a lower corrected item total correlation of .06. This item was “In the past I have been patient and understanding of her resistance.” Legitimate Position demonstrated a lower internal consistency with an alpha of .56 due to one problematic item with a corrected item total correlation of .08. The item was “It is my job to help her improve and understand the situation.” This finding is similar to that of the pilot study that reported a

Table 7

*Internal Consistency of Final Study IPI-P (n = 156)*

Scale/Subscale	$\alpha$
Interpersonal Power Inventory-	
Psychologist Version (IPI-P)	
Expert	.67
Impersonal Coercion	.77
Impersonal Reward	.72
Information	.79
Legitimate Dependence	.62
Legitimate Equity	.81
Legitimate Position	.56*
Legitimate Reciprocity	.51*
Personal Coercion	.85
Personal Reward	.78
Referent	.44*

*Note.* \*Legitimate Position, Legitimate Reciprocity and Referent were excluded from further analysis based on low levels of internal consistency.

problematic alpha of .37 for Legitimate Position. The scales of Referent, Legitimate Position and Legitimate Reciprocity were excluded from future analyses because of problematic levels of internal consistency.

As discussed previously, several authors that have used the original IPI have opted to use a 33 item version of the instrument in order to have the highest level of internal consistency

(Erchul, Raven & Ray, 2001; Raven, Schwarzwald & Koslowsky, 1998). This option was explored with the IPI-P due to the problematic internal consistencies of three of the scales. The items with the lowest level of reliability were removed from each scale and internal consistencies were then examined. The problematic scales of Legitimate Position and Legitimate Reciprocity improved considerably, attaining alpha levels of .64 and .66 respectively. The Referent scale only improved moderately ( $\alpha = .47$ ) and did not achieve an acceptable level of internal consistency. The Legitimate Dependence scale actually worsened and dropped below an acceptable level ( $\alpha = .59$ ). Three other scales improved and four worsened although not to dramatic degrees with only several tenths of a point changes. A decision was made to retain the 44 item version of the instrument with direction from the thesis advisor.

## **Primary Analyses**

### *Correlations*

Bivariate correlations were completed to examine the relationships between all of the variables. The total score of the ASI was statistically significantly related to each of its subscales as expected (HS:  $r = .80$ ,  $p < .01$ ; BS:  $r = .85$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and the subscales were significantly correlated with each other ( $r = .36$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The total ASI was also correlated with the Unmitigated Communion scale (total ASI:  $r = .20$ ,  $p < .05$ ). This finding seems consistent with other research that found that unmitigated communion is related to less healthy forms of interpersonal relations (Fritz & Helgeson, 1998).

A statistically significant relationship was found between two of the scales of the EPAQ. The M+ and F+ scales were positively correlated ( $r = .29$ ,  $p < .01$ ). M+ and M- were not significantly correlated although a statistically significant positive relationship has been found in previous research (McCreary & Korabik, 1994). Statistically significant relationships were also

found between the total ASI and both of the M scales of the EPAQ (M+:  $r = .20$ ,  $p < .01$ ; M-:  $r = .19$ ,  $p < .02$ ).

Multiple statistically significant relationships were found between the scales of the IPI-P and the dependent measures. These correlations are reported in Table 8. A positive statistically significant correlation was found between the Expert power base and F+ ( $r = .19$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Impersonal Coercion was found to be related to the total ASI ( $r = .22$ ,  $p < .01$ ), the HS scale ( $r = .21$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and the BS scale ( $r = .16$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Significant relationships were also found between Impersonal Reward and the total ASI ( $r = .17$ ,  $p < .05$ ), and the BS scale ( $r = .18$ ,  $p < .05$ ). The power base of Information was significantly correlated with the Unmitigated Communion scale ( $r = -.17$ ,  $p < .05$ ), F+ ( $r = .23$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and M- ( $r = -.17$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Relationships were also found between Legitimate Dependence and the HS scale ( $r = .21$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and F+ ( $r = .17$ ,  $p < .05$ ). It is important to stress that the correlation values between the scales were quite small, accounting for little of the variance.

A number of the scales of the IPI-P were significantly correlated. The Expert scale was highly correlated with all scales with the exception of Impersonal Coercion and Impersonal Reward with significant correlations ranging from .31 to .52 ( $p < .01$ ). Both Impersonal Reward and Impersonal Coercion were significantly correlated with all of the scales, with the exception of Information and Expert, with values ranging from .24 to .66 ( $p < .01$ ). Information was significantly correlated with Legitimate Dependence ( $r = .47$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Legitimate Dependence was significantly correlated with all of the power bases with correlations ranging from .24 to .47 ( $p < .01$ ). Legitimate Equity was also significantly correlated with all of the power bases with correlations ranging from .23 to .66 ( $p < .01$ ) with the exception of Information. Personal

Table 8

*Correlations between Dependent and Independent Measures*

Subscales of IPI-P	ASI			EPAQ			UC
	Total	BS	HS	F+	M+	M-	Total
Expert	.03	-.03	.09	.19*	.03	.07	.02
Impersonal Coercion	.22**	.16*	.21**	-.12	-.03	.01	-.02
Impersonal Reward	.17*	.18*	.10	.00	.07	-.01	-.07
Information	-.11	-.07	-.10	.23**	.05	-.17*	-.17*
Legitimate Dependence	.15	.04	.21**	.17*	.00	-.13	-.06
Legitimate Equity	.15	.13	.13	.00	-.11	.04	.09
Personal Coercion	.11	.03	.15	.08	-.07	.05	.08
Personal Reward	.11	.03	.15	.12	-.09	.03	-.03

*Note.* N = 156 for majority of analyses. IPI-P = Interpersonal Power Inventory- Psychologist Version. ASI = Ambivalent Sexism Inventory. EPAQ = Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire. UC = Unmitigated Communion Scale. \*\* p. < .01, \* p. < .05.

Coercion was not significantly correlated with Information but was significantly correlated with all of the other power bases with correlations ranging from .28 to .61 (p. < .01). Lastly, Personal Reward was not significantly correlated with Information but was correlated with all of the other power bases with correlations ranging from .32 to .61 (p. < .01).

The intercorrelations among the scales of the IPI-P by sex of participant are reported in Table 9. Stronger correlations exist for many of the interrelationships between the scales of the

Table 9

*Final Study Intercorrelations between IPI-P Scales by Sex of Participant*

IPI-P Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Expert	--	.08	.04	.51**	.36**	.19*	.33**	.44**
2. Impersonal Coercion	.30*	--	.69**	-.14	.19	.65**	.44**	.36**
3. Impersonal Reward	.48**	.56**	--	-.14	.15	.49**	.30**	.39**
4. Information	.55**	-.03	.29*	--	.52**	-.01	.13	.13
5. Legitimate Dependence	.70**	.41**	.53**	.37*	--	.42**	.28**	.33**
6. Legitimate Equity	.32*	.66**	.48**	-.14	.35*	--	.51**	.48**
7. Personal Coercion	.41**	.55**	.28	-.04	.29*	.57**	--	.59**
8. Personal Reward	.66**	.34*	.43**	.12	.57**	.39**	.63**	--

*Note.* IPI-P = Interpersonal Power Inventory, Psychologist Version. \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ . Females are reported above the diagonal and

males are reported below the diagonal.

IPI-P for male participants. The strongest statistically significant relationships were seen for male participants for the scales of Expert and Legitimate Dependence ( $r = .70, p. < .01$ ), Legitimate Equity and Impersonal Coercion ( $r = .66, p. < .01$ ), Expert and Personal Reward ( $r = .66, p. < .01$ ), and Personal Reward and Personal Coercion ( $r = .63, p. < .01$ ). The strongest statistically significant correlations for female participants were seen for the scales of Impersonal Reward and Impersonal Coercion ( $r = .69, p. < .01$ ), Impersonal Coercion and Legitimate Equity ( $r = .65, p. < .01$ ) and Personal Reward and Personal Coercion ( $r = .59, p. < .01$ ). It is quite clear from these correlations that many of the scales of the IPI-P overlap to substantive degrees.

#### *T-Tests*

The differences between the means of female and male participants were examined for each variable. The reader is referred back to Table 6. Although the assumption of normality was violated these tests were undertaken because the t-test is considered robust and may handle this assumption violation (Ladenbruch, 2003). Only one statistically significant difference was found between the sexes on the scales of the IPI-P. There was a significant difference between males and females for the scale Personal Coercion ( $t = -2.92, p. < .00$ ). Female participants had a higher mean score of 18.80 for the scale of Personal Coercion compared to men who had a mean score of 16.78. The highest mean scores on the IPI-P across the sample were seen for the power bases of Information ( $M = 21.35, SD = 3.05$ ), and Expert ( $M = 20.11, SD = 2.62$ ), demonstrating that participants overall more highly endorsed these types of strategies. The mean differences between the IPI-P scales were not examined through statistical means.

Significant sex differences were also found between men and women for the scales of the ASI. Significant differences were seen for the total scale ( $t = 2.32, p. < .02$ ) and the BS ( $t = 2.11, p. < .04$ ). These differences between men and women with the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory

were expected and consistent with previous research (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Male participants had higher scores for each of the scales of the ASI with mean scores of 62.39, 30.24 and 32.15 for the total scale, Hostile Sexism and Benevolent Sexism scales, respectively. Female participants had mean scores of 58.95, 28.81 and 30.15 for the total scale, Hostile Sexism and Benevolent Sexism respectively. To reiterate, statistically significant differences were found between men and women for the total ASI and the BS scale only.

Significant sex differences were additionally found for the M- scale ( $t = 3.61, p < .00$ ). Males scored higher than females for the M- scale with a mean score of 23.69 compared to a female mean score of 22.28. The sex differences for F+ and the UC scale were not statistically significant. Female participants demonstrated higher mean scores on the scales of F+ (Females:  $M = 27.71, SD = 3.53$ ; Males:  $M = 26.93, SD = 3.97$ ) and the Unmitigated Communion scale (Females:  $M = 25.19, SD = 4.42$ ; Males:  $M = 25.11, SD = 4.27$ ). These last findings are consistent with previous research (Helgeson & Fritz, 1999) but were not statistically significant in this study. T-tests were also undertaken with the transformed variables of the IPI-P and EPAQ that had demonstrated problems with skewness and kurtosis. This analysis was undertaken only with the variables that had been transformed because no statistically significant findings were found with these variables. These variables were Impersonal Reward, Impersonal Coercion, Legitimate Equity, and F+. No statistically significant findings were uncovered with these transformed variables suggesting few differences between the transformed and non-transformed variables.

### *Factor Analysis*

A factor analysis was completed to examine the underlying structure of the IPI-P prior to undertaking a cluster analysis. The first step in completing the factor analysis was ensuring the

suitability of the correlations among the IPI-P. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) recommend that the majority of the correlation coefficients between the scales of the instrument be greater than .3 and this was upheld. The Kaiser Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) was statistically significant with a value of .73. Additionally Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ( $p < .00$ ). As recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) an exploratory approach was first undertaken to determine the most satisfactory solution. A principal component analysis found the best solution to be two factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1 for each factor. These two factors explained 65% of the variance. The first factor explained 43% of the variance while the second factor explained 22% of the variance. Two components were therefore retained and a Varimax rotation method was performed to aid in interpretation. The two factors again explained 65% of the variance. Factor 1 explained 38% of the variance and factor 2 explained 27%. Factor loadings are reported in Table 10. The following scales loaded heavily on the first factor with loadings ranging from .62 to .87: Impersonal Coercion, Legitimate Equity, and Impersonal Reward. The scales Personal Coercion and Personal Reward loaded more heavily on the first factor with loadings of .67 and .62 but also loaded, although less strongly, on the second factor with loadings of .32 and .47. The scales Expert and Information loaded only on the second factor with loadings of .81 and .83 respectively. Legitimate Dependence loaded most heavily on factor 2 with a loading of .70 but also loaded less strongly on factor 1 with a loading of .32. These findings were comparable to the factor analyses of the original Interpersonal Power Inventory (Schwarzwalder, Kowalsky, & Agassi, 2001; Schwarzwalder, Kowalsky, & Ochana-Levin, 2004). The first factor found in the current study resembled the component labeled harsh power bases because the factor contains four of the six

Table 10

*Factor Loadings for Power Bases of IPI-P*

IPI-P Scale/Subscale	Factor 1 (Harsh)	Factor 2 (Soft)
Expert	.00	.83
Impersonal Coercion	.87	.00
Impersonal Reward	.76	.00
Information	.00	.83
Legitimate Dependence	.32	.70
Legitimate Equity	.82	.00
Personal Coercion	.67	.32
Personal Reward	.62	.47

*Note.* N = 156. IPI-P = Interpersonal Power Inventory, Psychologist Version.

scales identified as harsh bases by Raven et al. (1998). Erchul, Raven and Wilson (2004) characterized harsh bases as more coercive and heavy handed and more consistent with how power is stereotyped. The two harsh bases of Legitimate Position and Legitimate Reciprocity were excluded from the analyses based on their poor internal consistency levels. The second factor resembles the component labeled soft bases in the study by Raven et al. (1998). Soft bases are considered more subtle and less coercive than the harsh power bases (Erchul, Raven & Wilson, 2004). In the current study Expert and Information loaded heavily on this factor as expected. Legitimate Dependence also loaded most heavily as a soft base, also as expected. One of the soft bases Referent was not included in this analysis, as mentioned previously. The second power base Personal Reward loaded on both the first and second factor in this study, surprisingly

loading more strongly on the first factor, but was labeled as a soft base in previous research (Raven, Schwarzwald & Koslowsky, 1998).

### *Cluster Analysis*

The primary analysis of the final study involved cluster analysis as a method of grouping participants by their responses to the subscales of the IPI-P, maximizing homogeneity among groups and heterogeneity between groups. The Referent, Legitimate Reciprocity, and Legitimate Position power bases were excluded from this analysis because of low levels of internal consistency. A two step procedure was undertaken utilizing both hierarchical and nonhierarchical procedures. Hair and Black (1998) suggest that a combination of hierarchical and nonhierarchical approaches allows for a “fine-tuning” of results (p. 183).

Scores on the IPI-P scales were standardized prior to analysis. A hierarchical cluster was undertaken first, the more common method of clustering (Borgen & Barnett, 1987). Ward’s minimum variance technique was completed to minimize variance between the clusters. Although this method may be biased towards creating more even groupings (Hair & Black, 1998), it is still considered one of the best techniques for finding underlying structure in data (Borgen & Barnett, 1987). The proximity between participants was examined and reported in an Agglomeration schedule. In the Agglomeration schedule a 33% difference was found between the last two clusters, indicating that the participants separated into two clusters. These two clusters represented the simplest structure possible that differentiated among groups (Hair & Black, 1998).

The nonhierarchical *k*-means iterative partitioning method was undertaken next, specifying two clusters. The means of the scales once clustered were used as centroids in this analysis. The data converged in 10 iterations using two clusters for this nonhierarchical analysis.

This analysis grouped 111 participants into the first cluster and 45 participants into the second cluster.

The means and standard deviations of each scale of the IPI-P in the cluster analysis are reported in Table 11. A multivariate analysis was completed, examining the 2 clusters as independent variables and the scales of the IPI-P as dependent variables. These findings must be interpreted with caution because the homogeneity of variance assumption was violated ( $p = .00$ ). Additionally, several of the scales violated the assumption of equality of variance including the scales of Impersonal Coercion, Impersonal Reward, and Legitimate Equity ( $p = .00$ ). A more conservative alpha of .01 was set for this multivariate analysis due to this assumption violation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Pillai's Trace was examined due to these assumption violations and the issue of unequal sample sizes because this test of significance is considered more robust (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). The overall model was significant,  $F(8, 147) = 36.18, p < .00$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .66$ . Each of the scales of the IPI-P demonstrated significant differences between the means. The majority of the scales were significant at the .00 level with  $F$  values ranging from 4.41 to 143.92 and effect sizes ranging from .23 to .48. The scale of Information was an exception,  $F(1, 154) = 7.19, p < .04$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .03$ .

Participants in cluster 1 demonstrated significantly higher means than participants in cluster 2 for each of the subscales. Again, the reader is directed to Table 11. Cluster 1 and cluster 2 appear to be differentiated by the size of scores participants achieved. Participants in cluster 1 had higher scores on every scale of the IPI-P. Cluster 1 is therefore made up participants who are more homogenous in terms of higher levels of endorsement across the power base scales. The most striking differences between the clusters were seen for the mean scores for the scales of Legitimate Equity, Impersonal Coercion, and Personal Coercion.

Table 11

*Descriptives of Cluster Group with Non-standardized IPI-P Scales*

Scale	Cluster 1 High Power (n = 111)		Cluster 2 Low Power (n = 45)		F (1,154)	Partial $\eta^2$
	M	SD	M	SD		
Expert	20.92	2.17	18.13	2.62	46.70	.23
Impersonal Coercion	16.46	2.32	11.38	4.19	93.21	.38
Impersonal Reward	17.04	1.83	13.80	3.99	48.30	.24
Information	21.68	2.83	20.56	3.44	4.41*	.03
Legitimate Dependence	19.83	2.19	16.69	2.97	53.10	.26
Legitimate Equity	15.89	1.93	10.51	3.63	143.92	.48
Personal Coercion	19.58	3.89	14.82	3.48	62.07	.29
Personal Reward	20.14	2.60	16.49	2.94	58.67	.28

*Note.* With the exception of the scale Information, all values were significant at  $p < .00$ . Information was significant at  $p < .04$ .

The hypothesis of this study had predicted that two groups would form from the data, separating participants by their preferred power strategies of either harsh or soft bases. As you may recall, Erchul, Raven and Wilson (2004) characterized harsh bases as coercive and overt and soft bases as more subtle and less coercive. Although the cluster analysis results did not produce clusters that fit the harsh and soft bases as predicted, this hypothesis was speculative in nature and based on the findings from principal component analyses using the original Interpersonal Power Inventory (Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001; Raven, Schwarzwald, & Koslowsky, 1998). Rather than clusters being made up of participants who more highly endorsed either the harsh or soft power strategies as predicted, participants within each cluster scored either high or low across the harsh and soft bases scales.

The finding of two clusters in which participants in each group scored similarly across the power bases is possibly related to the high number of significant correlations found between the scales of the IPI-P. The reader is directed again to Table 9. It is probable that the scales of the IPI-P measure one construct, likely overall power strategy endorsement, rather than individual scales measuring separate power bases.

The clusters found in this analysis yielded statistically significant differences that appear to be meaningful and therefore the hypotheses of the current study were examined using these particular clusters as independent variables. To differentiate these two clusters based on this finding cluster 1 was titled *high power* and cluster 2 titled *low power*. Cluster 1 is labeled *high power* because the participants in this cluster had higher scores on each of the power base scales, finding cluster 1 was titled *high power* and cluster 2 titled *low power*. Cluster 1 is labeled *high power* because the participants in this cluster had higher scores on each of the power base scales, indicating a stronger endorsement of the potential viability of using these power bases with

female clients. The *high power* cluster is therefore made up of participants who exhibit a higher power strategy endorsement in responding to the items of the instrument. These participants were more likely to answer at the high end of the scale with responses of 5, 6 and 7. Cluster 2 is labeled *low power* because participants in this cluster had lower scores across the power base scales, indicating a weaker endorsement of the effectiveness of these power bases with female clients. This finding will be explored further in the discussion section.

### *Hypothesis 1*

The first hypothesis of this study stated that a greater number of male participants would endorse the harsh bases. This hypothesis was revised to reflect the findings of the cluster analysis and it was hypothesized that a greater number of males would fit into the *high power* cluster. A chi-square for independence was undertaken to explore the relationship between the categorical variables of sex and the 2 clusters. The assumption regarding the minimum expected cell frequency was not violated. Cluster 1 (*high power*) contained 67% of the males and 73% of the females whereas cluster 2 (*low power*) contained 33% of the males and 27% of the female participants. Contrary to expectations, these differences were not statistically significant with a Chi square value of .45 (1, N =156, p. = .50). Hypothesis 1 was therefore not supported.

### *Hypotheses Two through Four*

The remaining hypotheses were examined using multivariate analyses of variance using the 2 clusters as the independent variables and the scales of ASI, UC and EPAQ as dependent variables. Many of the assumptions of MANOVA were discussed previously but will be reiterated here. Only one multivariate outlier was identified through a Mahalanobis distance analysis and was chosen to be included in the analyses because the participant appeared to be from the sample under investigation. The assumptions of linearity and multicollinearity were not

violated. Although problems were seen with normality across the variables of this study, it was assumed that these statistical analyses could withstand this assumption violation due to the robustness of the procedures chosen (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Due to the two participants who elected to skip one of the dependent variables each, 154 participants were included in these analyses. Both of these participants were members of the *high power* cluster, leading to 110 participants in this cluster.

### *Hypothesis 2*

The second hypothesis was revised based on the cluster analysis findings and stated that participants in the *high power* cluster would have higher scores on both the Hostile Sexism and Benevolent Sexism subscales of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory. The total scores of the ASI for participants were also examined, hypothesizing that those in the *high power* cluster would have significantly higher scores.

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was not completed because the data contained less than two nonsingular covariance matrices. The HS scale violated Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances with a significance value of .00. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) suggest that a more conservative significance level should be used in further analyses with variables that violate Levene's test and therefore a .01 significance cut off value was used for the HS variable. Pillai's Trace was examined in the multivariate analyses because this test is more robust when several statistical assumptions have been violated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). This multivariate analysis of the model was significant,  $F(2, 152) = 3.67, p < .03$ , with an effect size, partial eta squared, of .05, a moderate effect size (Cohen, 1988).

There was a statistically significant difference between the clusters on the variable of Hostile Sexism,  $F(1, 153) = 7.38, p < .007$ . The mean scores demonstrated that the participants

in the *high power* cluster had higher estimated marginal mean ( $M = 29.90$ ,  $SD = 5.07$ ) compared to the participants in the *low power* cluster ( $M = 27.60$ ,  $SD = 3.99$ ). This finding had a moderate effect size of .05 (Cohen, 1988). Significant differences were not found for the variable Benevolent Sexism,  $F(1, 153) = .97$ ,  $p = .33$ . Lastly, statistical significance was found for the total scores on the ASI,  $F(1, 153) = 4.74$ ,  $p < .03$ , with a small effect size of .03, although it is likely that the significance of the total score was highly impacted by the significant findings of the HS scale. An inspection of the mean scores demonstrated that the participants in the *high power* cluster again had a higher estimated marginal mean ( $M = 60.92$ ,  $SD = 8.92$ ) than the participants in the *low power* cluster ( $M = 57.67$ ,  $SD = 7.09$ ). The hypothesis was therefore supported for the total scores and HS scale of the ASI. These findings are reported in Table 12.

#### *Hypotheses 3 and 4*

The third hypothesis stated that participants in the soft power bases cluster would have higher scores on the communion scale,  $F+$ , of the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire and higher scores on the total Unmitigated Communion scale. This hypothesis was also revised and it was hypothesized that the participants in the *low power* cluster would demonstrate higher scores on these variables. Box's test of equality of covariance matrices was not violated with a significant value of .13. Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances was also not violated. The overall model was not statistically significant using Pillai's trace,  $F(4, 150) = .84$ ,  $p = .50$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ . The variable  $F+$  had nonsignificant results,  $F(1, 153) = 1.32$ ,  $p = .25$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ . The UC scale also demonstrated nonsignificant results,  $F(1, 153) = .50$ ,  $p = .48$ ,  $\eta^2 = .00$ . The third hypothesis was therefore not supported by the data.

Table 12

*Mean Differences Between Clusters and Dependent Measures*

Scale/Subscale	Cluster 1		Cluster 2		F (1, 153)	p. Value	Partial $\eta^2$
	M	SD	M	SD			
			<i>High Power</i> (n = 110)	<i>Low Power</i> (n = 45)			
Ambivalent Sexism Inventory							
Benevolent Sexism (BS)	31.02	5.67	30.07	4.91	.97	.33	.01
Hostile Sexism (HS)	29.90	5.07	27.60	5.07	7.38	.01	.05
Total Score	60.92	8.92	57.67	7.09	4.74	.03	.03
Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire							
Communion (F+)	27.76	3.53	27.03	3.90	1.32	.25	.01
Agency (M+)	24.28	3.00	23.96	2.72	.23	.63	.00
Unmitigated Agency (M-)	22.89	2.33	22.36	2.21	1.55	.21	.01
Unmitigated Communion Scale							
Total Score	25.39	4.80	24.71	3.60	.49	.48	.00

The fourth hypothesis stated that participants endorsing harsh power bases would have higher scores on the agency scale, M+, and the unmitigated agency scale, M-, of the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire. This last hypothesis was revised to reflect the findings of the cluster analysis and it was hypothesized that the participants in the *high power* cluster would have higher scores on these variables. These hypotheses were also not supported by the data. As reported previously, the overall model was not statistically significant. Statistically significant differences were not found between the participants in the clusters for the M+,  $F(1, 153) = .23$ ,  $p = .63$ ,  $\eta^2 = .00$ , and M-,  $F(1, 153) = 1.55$ ,  $p = .21$ ,  $\eta^2 = .00$  scales of the EPAQ. The transformed scores for the variable F+ were also examined and similar nonsignificant results were obtained for the model,  $F(2, 109) = 1.41$ ,  $p = .24$ ,  $\eta^2 = .00$ .

#### *Additional Analysis*

A supplementary analysis was undertaken to explore possibly theoretical differences between the clusters using a significance value of .05. This analysis had not been planned during the development of the research design but grew out of an interest that developed as the study progressed. A chi square test for independence was completed because the two variables of theoretical orientations and the clusters are categorical in nature. Several of the theoretical orientations were collapsed because of the similarities associated with the approaches and to avoid violating the assumption of minimum expected cell frequencies for the majority of the theoretical orientations. Behavioral and Cognitive Behavioral were collapsed because of the similarities associated with these two approaches in terms of both interventions and structured process (Sharf, 2004). Interpersonal and Psychoanalytic/Psychodynamic were collapsed because Interpersonal theory is an outgrowth of Psychodynamic theory and shares many of its tenets (Wolitzky & Eagle, 1997). This minimum expected cell frequency assumption was violated for

the responses of Systems theory and “other” because of the few participants that endorsed these approaches, 5 and 6 participants respectively. These 11 responses were therefore excluded from the analysis and a total of 145 participants were examined.

The findings of this additional analysis are reported in Table 13. The Pearson chi square value was significant with a value of 8.67 (3, N = 145, p. < .03). A total of 44 participants endorsed the theoretical orientations of Cognitive Behavioral and Behavioral. Eight-six percent of these therapists fit the *high power* cluster, a majority of the Behavioral/Cognitive-behavioral therapists. Only 11 participants reported subscribing to the Feminist theoretical approach. A higher percentage of these therapists also fit the *high power* cluster (73% v. 27%). A higher percentage of Interpersonal/Psychoanalytic/Psychodynamic therapists made up of the *high power* cluster with a percentage of 71%. Twenty-one participants characterized themselves as Humanistic or Existential therapists. A higher percentage of Humanist/Existential therapists fit the *high power* cluster with 52%, although only one participant accounted for the difference which is not likely meaningful. Overall a higher percentage of the therapists of these four theoretical orientations fit the *high power* cluster with a percentage of 73%.

Table 13

*Nonparametric Analysis of Clusters and Theoretical Orientation*

Theoretical Orientation	Cluster 1 <i>High Power</i> (n = 106)		Cluster 2 <i>Low Power</i> (n = 39)	
	N	%	N	%
Behavioral/Cognitive Behavioral	38	86	6	14
Feminist	8	73	3	27
Humanist/Existential	11	52	10	47
Interpersonal/Psychodynamic- Psychoanalytic	49	71	20	29

*Note.* N = 145. Responses of Systems theory and “other” were excluded from this analysis.

## Chapter 5

### DISCUSSION

The present study represents an attempt to learn more about how psychologists use their power with clients and the variables that influence the choice of power strategies. As discussed previously, power itself is considered to be neutral in quality (Kitzinger, 1991). The qualitative value of power is thought to be determined by how power is used (Lipps, 1981). It was a goal of this study to examine the relationship between power and other variables such as sexism to begin to generate an understanding of how the influence strategies might impact female clients, particularly with regard to quality of care issues. The actual power related behaviors of psychologists in psychotherapy with female clients were not measured in this study so some extrapolation is required, relying on theory and previous research. This chapter summarizes and discusses the findings of the pilot and the final study. The limitations of the study and suggestions for future research are also discussed.

The participants who responded to this study were fairly homogenous in nature for several of the demographic variables that were assessed. The vast majority of the participants were women (70%) as is often the case in survey research (Senn, Verberg, Desmarai & Wood, 2000). Men and women did not differ dramatically in terms of their responses to most of the independent and dependent variables however. The majority of the participants were also Caucasian (85%) and many were from the Northeast (44%). The participants worked primarily in university counseling centers (46%) and private practice offices (28%).

#### *Cluster Analysis*

The primary analysis of this study involved a cluster analysis using the Interpersonal Power Inventory-Psychologist Version. It was hypothesized that participants would cluster into

groups based on a stronger endorsement of either the harsh and soft power bases, differentiating participants based on their scores for these two types of power bases. To reiterate, the harsh power bases are characterized as more overt and coercive than the more subtle soft power bases (Erchul, Raven & Wilson, 2004). This hypothesis was based on the findings from factor analyses of previous authors (Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001; Raven, Schwarzwald, & Koslowsky, 1998), a statistical technique that groups scale items into homogenous groups rather than grouping participants as in the current study. The results of the cluster analysis were different than what had been expected although still statistically significant and interesting. The cluster analysis grouped participants by high and low scores across the power bases. Those participants that formed cluster 1 were designated as *high power* because these participants had higher scores on every IPI-P scale that was included in the analysis than did the participants in the *low power* cluster. Furthermore the participants in the *high power* cluster had higher scores than the participants in the *low power* cluster across both the harsh and soft power bases and therefore the groups could not be classified by the harsh and soft labels. Individuals in the *high power* cluster had stronger beliefs in the potential viability of all of the power bases to influence female clients than those participants in the *low power* cluster.

The groupings that were created through the cluster analysis probably occurred because the IPI-P seemed to act as an overall measure of power strategy endorsement rather than a measure of different types of power. In other words, the power bases collectively acted together to measure overall power endorsement across the power bases rather than measuring the different 11 power bases independently. The interpretation of this finding is supported by the significant correlations seen in Table 4 (pilot study) and 9 (final study) in which many of the power base scales were strongly correlated at values greater than .40, suggesting that the scales

measure similar constructs. Many of the scales measuring the power bases were significantly correlated, across the factors of harsh and soft bases. These significant correlations may suggest that the individual IPI-P scales do not measure separate types of power. For example, Legitimate Dependence was correlated with every power base included in the analyses, suggesting some degree of overlap between this scale and other IPI-P scales. This interpretation of the two clusters that formed is also supported by the findings of the factor analysis in which several of the power base scales loaded on more than one factor (see Table 10) possibly suggesting that the factors are not separate constructs.

Raven (1990) theorized that one's appraisal or belief in the effectiveness of the power base impacts whether this base is utilized. Therefore, one might speculate that higher scores for each of the scales may indicate a greater likelihood of using these strategies to influence female clients. Some examples of the meaning of high scores on subscales of the Interpersonal Power Inventory-Psychologist Version will be discussed briefly to illustrate the differences between the clusters. Participants in the *high power* cluster had higher scores on the scale of Personal Reward and therefore endorsed items more strongly, reflecting a proclivity to use their approval as a means of influencing clients. From these responses to the individual items and scores for the scale, it appears as though these individuals more strongly believe in using demonstrations of liking the client as a form of reward to influence the client than the participants in the *low power* group. Examples of items from this scale include "She likes me and my approval is important to her" and "It makes the client feel better to know I like her." Another example concerns those individuals that had higher scores on the power base of Expert. The participants in the *high power* cluster more strongly endorsed items related to using their status as an expert in psychology and/or psychotherapy as an effective means of influencing clients. Examples of

items from the Expert scale include “She trusts me to give her the best direction” and “I probably have more knowledge about such a problem.” Lastly high scores on the Legitimate Dependence scale demonstrates that the participants in the *high power* cluster more strongly endorsed the use of their role relationship as a means of influence than those in the *low power* cluster. An example item from the Legitimate Dependence scale is “My ability to help her in therapy really depends on her following my suggestions.”

Statistically significant differences were found between the clusters for the power base of Information although the means for the two clusters appear quite similar (21.85 v. 20.52). Additionally the mean scores for participants overall for the Information power base are relatively high compared to the other power bases given an equal number of items. This power base had the highest overall mean score ( $M = 21.35$ ), followed by the Expert power base ( $M = 20.11$ ), suggesting that the participants more heavily endorsed this strategy with their female clients. This finding was also seen in the descriptive statistics of the pilot study (Information:  $M = 22.50$ ; Expert:  $M = 21.95$ ). Examples of items from the Information scale are “I have carefully explained the basis for this request” and “Once I point it out, she can see why the change is necessary.” Some examples of power base scales in which the participants of the final study sample had lower means scores are Legitimate Equity ( $M = 14.34$ ) and Impersonal Coercion ( $M = 14.99$ ), suggesting that participants less strongly endorsed the viability of these strategies with their female clients. These values for the pilot study and final study are reported in Tables 2 and 6 respectively. The finding that participants more highly endorsed the Information power base seems consistent with a study by Cooke and Kipnis (1986) who found that both male and female therapists were more likely to use instruction as an influence strategy with female clients, which was operationalized similarly to the power base of Information. Raven (1992) suggests that the

Information power base is an especially effective means of influence because this power acts independently from the influencer, in other words the psychologist is not needed to monitor this influence attempt for it be effective unlike many of the other power bases. It is important to point out that the differences between the means for the scales of the IPI-P were not examined statistically and that these differences are simply based on observation. Further investigation is warranted.

An additional analysis using the clusters revealed statistically significant differences between the different theoretical orientations of participants. Table 13 reports how strongly each theoretical approach was represented in each cluster. Cognitive Behavioral and Behavioral therapists were disproportionately represented in the *high power* cluster (86%). Cognitive Behavioral therapy (CBT) and Behavioral theory are approaches that are often criticized with respect to power issues (Kipnis, 2001; Proctor, 2002). The techniques used by CBT and Behavioral therapists are seen as more controlling and more directive than other therapies and the onus of the outcome of therapy is placed on the therapist, increasing the power level of the therapist (Kipnis, 2001). Psychodynamic/Psychoanalytic and Interpersonal therapists were also more strongly represented in the *high power* cluster (71%). This finding also appears consistent with how these approaches are conceptualized in the literature with regard to their use and attention to power issues (Kuyken, 1999; Newirth, 1999). In Psychodynamic theory, the therapist is identified as the expert because of knowledge and training and the imbalance in the therapy relationship is used to evoke and work through clinical issues (Kuyken, 1999). There is “power invested in the therapist’s ability to interpret the transference and thus define reality” (Proctor, 2002, p. 135). These interpretations emphasize the therapist’s role as the expert, increasing the power of the therapist.

Feminist and Humanist/Existential therapists were more evenly distributed in the clusters with only a few participants creating a difference in the distributions. Still, these two theoretical approaches were more greatly represented in the high power cluster. This finding was unexpected given how these two approaches are discussed in the literature in terms of power (Kuyken, 1999; Mahalik, Van Ormer & Simi, 2000; Proctor, 2002). Humanistic approaches are thought to be more balanced in the use of power in psychotherapy (Kuyken, 1999). Rogers, the creator of the Person Centered approach, a Humanistic theory, is credited for challenging the notion of the therapist as the expert and underscoring the value of the client's autonomy, emphasizing a nondirective approach to therapy (Proctor, 2002). Additionally, Feminist Therapy is one approach that explicitly attends to the role of power in therapy. This approach attempts to remove the power hierarchies present in psychotherapy and emphasizes the importance of examining how power inequities contribute to psychological problems (Mahalik, Van Ormer, & Simi, 2000). This last finding that Feminist and Humanistic/Existential therapists were more highly represented in the high power cluster may not be generalizable given that these two approaches were not well represented in the study with samples of 11 and 21 participants respectively.

### *Hypotheses*

The first hypothesis which stated that men and women would be distributed differently across the clusters was not supported by the data. More women were represented in the *high power* cluster (73%) even though this finding was not statistically significant.

The second hypothesis stated that participants in the *high power* cluster would score higher on the scales of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory. This hypothesis was supported specifically in terms of the Hostile Sexism subscale and total scores on this inventory, although

statistical significance with the total score of the ASI is probably due to the significance of the HS scale. The reader is directed to Table 12 for a summary of these findings. Participants in the *high power* cluster had higher scores on this measure of sexism. This result suggests that psychologists in this study who demonstrated a higher power strategy endorsement reported greater Hostile Sexist beliefs. O'Neil and Egan (1993) define sexism as the promotion of power differences between the sexes and therefore it seems logical that those most interested in power might demonstrate greater levels of sexism. It is notable that the significant difference between the clusters on Hostile Sexism yielded a moderate effect size. Hostile Sexism is defined by Glick and Fiske (1996) as negative affect and opposition towards women. Recall that Hostile Sexism has been found to be significantly related to paternalistic chivalry (Vicki, Abrams, & Hutchison, 2003) and predictive of stereotyping of women (Glick, Fiske, Mladinic, Saize, et al., 2000). Overall, this finding may suggest that lower levels of power usage might reflect healthier, or at least less sexist, beliefs about women and one might wonder if perhaps lower power endorsement may be more consistent with the needs of women clients. There were no significant differences between the clusters for the Benevolent Sexism subscale of the ASI.

The last two hypotheses concerning the clusters and the dependent variables of communion (F+), unmitigated communion (UC scale), agency (M+) and unmitigated agency (M-) were not supported by the data. The reader is again directed to Table 12 for a summary of these nonsignificant findings. Additionally few correlations were found between the power bases and these dependent variables (see Table 8). The relationships found between these scales and the Information power bases are noteworthy but represent small correlations that account for little of the variance. The few significant findings found between the IPI-P and EPAQ and UC suggests that one's endorsement of a power base may not strongly related to the traits of agency

and communion and their unmitigated forms. It is possible that the low power of the statistical tests due to small sample size and other factors, affected the ability to find relationships between these variables. Replication of the current study with a larger participant pool may produce different results.

### *Other Findings*

A single statistically significant sex difference was found for the scales of the IPI-P. Females in this study scored significantly higher on Personal Coercion, suggesting that female psychologists more heavily endorsed the use of their disapproval as a means of influence with their female clients. Some examples of items from this scale include “She does not want me to dislike her” and “A negative evaluation of her by her therapist would be upsetting.” Although not statistically significant, female participants did score higher than males on the majority of the IPI-P scales. The reader is directed to Table 6. The single exception is the power base of Information in which male and female participants shared an identical mean score. Erchul, Raven and Wilson (2004) also found that females scored higher than male participants on both harsh and soft bases. This result may suggest that women psychologists more strongly endorse the use of power in psychotherapy with female clients as examined in this study. No previous research has examined sex differences in power strategy endorsement in psychotherapy with clients of the same sex although some have speculated that the power in the therapy relationship is more balanced when the therapist and client are of the same sex (DeVaris, 1994). More research is needed given that this finding was exploratory and was not statistically significant.

The lack of statistically significant differences between men and women found in this study is consistent with the research of Raven, Schwarzwald, and Koslowsky (1998) using the power base model but inconsistent with the research of Falbo and colleagues who reliably have

found sex differences using their model of power (Aida & Falbo, 1991; Falbo & Peplau, 1980). Differences in how power is operationalized probably accounts for these differences in previous research.

Statistically significant relationships were found between scores on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory and both Impersonal Coercion and Impersonal Reward strategies on the IPI-P, although it is important to point out that the size of these correlations was quite small. See Table 8 for a summary of these correlation values. These significant correlations may suggest that individuals with higher levels of sexism may be more likely to endorse coercive and rewarding strategies as effective means of influencing female clients. An example from the Impersonal Coercion scale is “If she does not comply, I may be reluctant to schedule future sessions.” An example item from Impersonal Reward is “If she complies, I may be more inclined to negotiate fees.” In general, in terms of coercive strategies, Raven (1986) asserts that coercion likely elevates the power of the powerful and diminishes the power of the less powerful. The use of rewarding and punishing strategies is also thought to be less effective with clients because clients do not experience a sense of their own power in therapy in response to these strategies (Rodin & Janis, 1979). More research is needed to clarify these findings although it deserves to be repeated that the correlations among these variables were small, accounting for very little variance.

The correlation between the Legitimate Dependence power base and Hostile Sexism may suggest a relationship between negative affect towards women and relying on one’s role relationship with the client as a means of influence. It is once again important to reiterate that the size of this correlation was also small.

Both Hostile Sexism and overall scores on the ASI were positively correlated with agency (M+) and unmitigated agency (M-) possibly suggesting that individuals that are more

focused on their own needs endorse scales that indicate greater levels of sexism. Additionally, individuals who scored significantly higher on the Unmitigated Communion scale scored higher on Hostile Sexism and Benevolent Sexism on the ASI. The finding that these two forms of sexism were significantly correlated with Unmitigated Communion may suggest some relationship between an unhealthy focus on others and sexism. The significant correlations found between these dependent variables may warrant further investigation although, again, the size of each of these correlations was small.

### *IPI-P Scale Development*

In the pilot study a number of scales of the IPI and IPI-P were significantly correlated: the power bases of Expert, Information, Legitimate Dependence and Legitimate Equity with values ranging from .53 to .71. Recall that six scales were omitted from this analysis because of poor internal consistency levels with these scales of the IPI and IPI-P. The relationships seen between the original IPI and the IPI-P for these four scales suggest some degree of relatedness. These correlations may also imply that psychologists think about and use these particular power bases in ways similar to how these powers were conceptualized by Raven (1992) and French and Raven (1959). Significant correlations were not found between the IPI and IPI-P for the other seven power base scales. Some lack of relatedness between the scales was somewhat expected given that the relationships among the target populations for each instrument are qualitatively different. In development of some of these scales, it was difficult to translate the original items into adapted items that reflect the type of influence seen in psychotherapy. Therapists have power with clients but it is a power to assist them with their concerns and help them change which is much different than the power supervisors have with employees. Supervisors may use their power more overtly to punish or reward employees to motivate them to work harder

(Raven, Schwarzwald & Koslowsky, 1998). Therapists may be less likely to use these power bases in such tangible and overt ways because clients are free to leave therapy in the face of such techniques.

Surprisingly, there were problems with the internal consistency levels of several of the IPI scales in the pilot study. Three of the scales of this instrument were excluded from primary analyses of the pilot study based on low reliability levels. These low levels were inconsistent with research by Raven and colleagues who report acceptable levels of internal consistency for all of the IPI scales (Erchul, Raven & Whichard, 2001; Raven, Schwarzwald & Koslowsky, 1998; Schwarzwald, Koslowsky & Ochana-Levin, 2004). The IPI may have had such low levels of internal consistency in this study because of sample differences. Previous studies have used the IPI in business organization settings and in consultation relationships which probably differ considerably from psychologists/client relationships as discussed previously.

The internal consistency levels for the scales of the IPI-P are reported in Table 4 for the pilot study and Table 7 for the final study. Problems were seen with the internal consistency levels of the power bases of Referent, Legitimate Reciprocity, Legitimate Position and Personal Coercion. Internal consistency was problematic for the Referent scale in both the pilot and final study. In the final study the Referent scale items demonstrated low intercorrelations, suggesting that the items do not measure the same construct. The scale items may not fit how the Referent power base was conceptualized and in fact may discuss different strategies; that identifying with the therapist, admiring the therapist and collaborating with the therapist are actually different types of strategies. The Referent items should be revised to focus solely on client identification with the therapist, making the items more consistent with the manner in which the Referent power base was originally conceptualized. Legitimate Reciprocity also had a lower level of

internal consistency of .51 in the final study and .59 in the pilot study. This scale demonstrated one problematic item: “In the past I have been patient and understanding of her resistance.” The scale’s level of internal consistency was higher in the pilot study with a Cronbach’s alpha of .59 although still problematic. Participant responses to the Legitimate Reciprocity items seem to indicate an ambivalence regarding whether the therapist’s past assistance is a means of obtaining future compliance. The Legitimate Reciprocity scale should be revised for future research.

Another IPI-P scale that had a lower level of internal consistency was the variable Legitimate Position with a value of .56 in the final study. This scale demonstrated an even weaker level of reliability in the pilot study with a Cronbach’s alpha of .37. The item “It is my job to help her to improve and understand the situation” was problematic in the final study possibly because the item places sole emphasis on the therapist rather than the client, applying responsibility to the therapist to obtain compliance. This item may have been improved simply by phrasing the item as the following “The client recognizes that I am here to help her improve the situation.” Lastly, in the pilot study, the power base of Personal Coercion had a low level of internal consistency. It appears that participants responded in inconsistent ways to these items, possibly because of ambivalence about using their position power and personal evaluation of clients as influence strategies. This issue was not seen in the final study where this power base demonstrated an acceptable level of internal consistency of .85. Kline (1986) purports that reliability studies should not be completed with samples of less than 200 participants because larger samples minimize sampling error (pp. 122-123). A greater number of both participants and items might have helped to improve the internal consistency levels of these problematic scales (Gable & Wolfe, 1993; Kline, 1986).

Acceptable levels of internal consistency were found for the scales of Impersonal Coercion and Impersonal Reward of the IPI-P with values of .77 and .72 respectively. The reliability of these scales had been a concern during the development of the Interpersonal Power Inventory-Psychologist Version due to negative feedback by the therapists who had been consulted regarding the face validity of the instrument. The choice was made to incorporate the feedback of Raven, one of the original developers of the power base model, rather than these consultants. This seems like a positive choice given the outcome of the reliability of these scales.

Overall, the problems seen with the IPI-P were numerous and may call into question the value of this scale as a measure of power in psychotherapy. As discussed previously, it was difficult to adapt the IPI for a population of psychologists. This issue was probably due to qualitative differences between how power is used in psychotherapy and how it is used between a supervisor and subordinate. The use of power may be more complex in psychotherapy because of the complicated nature of the relationship between therapists and clients. Power in the therapy relationship exists on multiple levels because of the intimacy and emotional nature of the relationship and is not likely completely captured by the IPI-P. Many characteristics that may impact the power in the therapeutic relationship are not captured by the IPI-P. An example is the power of the therapist to help clients work through psychopathology and the problems of living (Gannon, 1982). Furthermore, the positive feelings between a therapist and client may have some role in how power is used in therapy. These issues are not addressed by the IPI-P and suggest that it captures an incomplete picture.

A more appropriate adaptation of the IPI may have been to use it to examine the supervision relationship between therapists and therapists in training. Power may be used in similar ways between supervisors and subordinates and supervising therapists and therapists in

training. An example to illustrate how these relationships may be more similar concerns the use of evaluations which are discussed in several of the items of the IPI. Evaluations, like those used between bosses and workers, are not utilized in psychotherapy but are used between therapy supervisors and therapists in training. Future studies may examine an adaptation of the IPI to examine the therapy supervision relationship to further examine the use of the French and Raven model (1959) and IPI-P.

### **Limitations**

The study has a number of limitations. The first limitations concern the pilot study. Although the pilot study was hosted on the Internet for 6 weeks, only 22 individuals responded to the study and only 20 responses were viable. Additionally, only four males completed the study, an inadequate comparison group. Similar specific limitations concern the participant pool for the final study. This study was hosted on the Internet for over 8 weeks but a smaller number of participants completed the study than was desired. The power of the statistical techniques was limited by this small participant pool. It was hoped that the study would have 300 participants to provide adequate power to find meaningful relationships. This study includes a high number of variables and items and therefore a large pool of participants would have been ideal to achieve high power. Unfortunately, due to economic and time constraints I was unable to obtain such a high number of participants. As central limit theorem suggests, a larger sample probably would have also improved the issues of normality that plagued the final study (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The number of male participants in the final study was less than ideal. This issue had been considered in the planning stages of the study and attempts were made to post to listserves that catered to male psychologists (i.e. Division 51: Society for the Psychological Study of Men and

Masculinity) though it seems that these efforts helped little in the recruitment of male participants.

A major limitation of this study concerns the generalizability of the findings, or external validity. First, the effect sizes of many of the findings were small to moderate. Secondly, the problematic normality, skewness and kurtosis levels of many of the variables may suggest that the results are not necessarily generalizable to the larger population of psychologists. The participants of this study were fairly homogenous in terms of ethnicity and place of work which also limits generalizability. Another explanation for the problems with normality is that the population under investigation probably does not fit a normal curve in terms of the variables under investigation. Individuals who are attracted to the field of psychology may think more similarly in terms of the strategies they use with clients because of their comparable personal characteristics, training and education. It is likely that their interests and personalities may be related to their attraction to this career field, making psychologists a more homogenous group. It is probable that many of the variables under investigation in this study are not normally distributed within the population of psychologists and therefore may explain this study's issues with normality.

Another issue related to external validity concerns the use of the research design of an Internet study in which participants were reached through Internet listserves. Participants were not randomly selected but self selected and a problem associated with self selection is that the results may not be generalizable to the larger population (Birnbaum, 2004).

Another limitation of this study concerns internal validity, or the degree to which the study demonstrated causal relationships between the variables (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1999). The design of this study is correlational, not experimental. Additionally,

although several significant correlations were found between the variables under study it is important to point out that the correlational values were often small. Future research might further examine these relationships to examine whether the correlation values might be stronger with a larger population with less sampling issues.

An additional internal validity concern is that of contamination. This is a problem common to internet research (Michalak & Szabo, 1998) because when individuals complete a study in their own environment, researchers are unable to control for problems such as noise and distraction that could impact results. Michalak and Szabo (1998) suggest asking participants questions regarding the environment in which the study is completed to assess for possible contamination. The demographics questionnaire might have included questions related to the environment in which participants took the study to assess for this issue.

Another threat to internal validity is the drop out rate associated with this study. Internet studies have a larger drop out rate than traditional laboratory or paper and pencil research because there is less social pressure to complete the study (Birnbaum, 2004). The reasons for drop out in this study are not known but it is probable that some participants may have found the instructions for the IPI-P to be confusing. Several of the participants who dropped out did so at the beginning of the IPI-P. It may not have been the best decision to attempt to make the instructions of the IPI-P consistent with those of the IPI. The instructions of the IPI-P might have been simplified for greater clarity.

Another limitation of the study is the use of only one instrument, the Interpersonal Power Inventory-Psychologist Version, to measure psychologists' use of power bases with female clients. This represents mono-operation bias (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1999) but is a problem that could not be avoided. As discussed previously, there were no other adequate

instruments available for use because little research has been completed on the topic of how psychologists use power in psychotherapy.

An additional limitation is the study's sole reliance on self-report measures. A problem associated with the use of self-report measures is the issue of social desirability. Participants may have been responding to items in socially desirable ways which may have contributed to the low endorsement of IPI-P items related to coercion. The study might have included a measure of social desirability such as the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) to check for this issue.

A last limitation of the study is the choice to not include a comparison group for the independent variable of the IPI-P. I considered having each participant complete the IPI-P twice, each time as though working with clients of a different sex. This would have facilitated making comparisons and understanding whether power is used differently with female clients. A future study using the IPI-P may consider such a research design.

### **Future research**

As discussed previously, earlier studies have examined the use of French and Raven's (1959) model of power bases in counseling and psychotherapy (e.g. Claiborn & Schmidt, 1977; Dell, 1973; Robyak, 1981). This study is the first, however, to explore the use of the Interpersonal Power Inventory with therapists. Studies in the past have created their own measure or used analogue methods rather than using the instrument created by Raven, one of the original developers of this specific model of power bases. Future research could build upon this study's findings and continue to examine the properties of the adapted version. Although this study demonstrated that this measure could be used to examine the issue of psychologists' use of power with clients, the question remains whether the French and Raven (1959) model adequately

captures power in the therapy dyad. The relationship between psychologists and clients is much different than that between a supervisor and subordinate due to the emotional nature of psychotherapy. This study presents some concerns about the instrument's relevance for psychotherapy. As mentioned earlier, this difference in populations may explain the low correlations between many of the scales of the IPI-P and IPI. Additional research aimed at comparing the IPI-P to newly created measures of therapists' use of power may determine whether French and Raven's model adequately describes how power is used in psychotherapy.

Another suggestion would be for future research to examine the primary finding of this study that psychologists can be grouped into high and low power clusters based on their endorsement of the power bases. Replication of the current study, addressing the limitations of this investigation, might lend support to this finding.

The finding that a greater endorsement of power strategies with female clients was associated with Hostile Sexism warrants further attention. Additionally, future empirical investigations could be directed at replicating the finding that sexism is related to the use of particular coercive and rewarding strategies.

Future research may examine the relationship of the use of power with female clients to other variables. Other variables of interest include those assessed by this study's demographic questionnaire that were not included in analysis including ethnicity, specialty area and years in practice.

Another area for future research may be examining therapy dyads to assess both therapist and client perspectives of the effectiveness of the power bases in psychotherapy. The IPI was created by the original authors to assess both supervisee and supervisor perspectives regarding the effectiveness of the power bases through two versions. My adapted version of the IPI-P could

easily be modified to assess a client's view of the potential influence of each of the power bases. Correlational analyses could be completed to compare the different perspectives of therapists and clients, a similar design that used with the original IPI with both supervisors and subordinates (Raven, Schwarzwald & Koslowsky, 1998).

A last suggestion for examining this topic is through qualitative research. One method of studying this issue might be to use grounded theory. Therapists could be interviewed regarding how they define power and how they believe power impacts the therapeutic relationship and quality of care. Additionally, therapists could be asked how they believe they use power with clients. This information could be analyzed to create a grounded theory regarding how therapists conceptualize and use power in psychotherapy. Sex and theoretical orientations could be examined in particular. This direction is highly recommended because qualitative research methods could help create a unique model of power bases tailored specifically to the strategies used by psychologists with clients.

### **Implications and Conclusions**

The field of psychology has uncovered very little about the use of power in psychotherapy (Kitzinger, 1991; Marcek & Kravetz, 1991). The present study was able to expand upon current knowledge regarding how power is used in psychotherapy and examine the relevance of French and Raven's (1959) model of power bases to the psychotherapy relationship. The finding that the participants differed in terms of their overall power use through statistically significant higher and lower scores across the IPI-P scales might suggest that certain psychologists have a greater investment in using their power in therapy to influence clients. This finding seems reminiscent of the term *therapy of power* used by Amundson et al. (1993). This term is divergent from a *therapy of empowerment* that is considered a more desirable approach

with clients, particularly with female clients due to this population's lack of social power (Enns, 1997). Research on intimate relationships has shown that women desire more equality in relationships (Aida & Falbo, 1991; Falbo & Peplau, 1980) and are more satisfied in relationships in which fewer power strategies are used (Aida & Falbo, 1991). The finding that a greater use of power in psychotherapy is associated with sexism may suggest that a lower level of investment in using one's power may be the most beneficial for female clients.

In summary, the current study sought to examine the issue of power in psychotherapy with female clients and the variables that influence the choice of power strategies. Some interesting results were uncovered including the finding that psychologists could be grouped according to their overall endorsement of the power bases, creating high and low power clusters. Participants in the *high power* cluster scored significantly higher across the different power bases than the participants in the *low power* cluster. Another noteworthy finding was that the participants in the *high power* cluster demonstrated higher scores on Hostile Sexism scale of the ASI. The participants in the clusters did not differ significantly on the scales of the EPAQ or the UC as hypothesized. Small correlations were found between the scales of Impersonal Coercion, Impersonal Reward and Legitimate Dependence of the IPI-P and sexism as measured by the ASI. Other interesting findings concerned the power base of Information. Participants overall more strongly endorsed the Information power base and this scale was positively correlated with communion and negatively correlated with unmitigated communion and unmitigated agency, although the size of these correlations were small. Lastly, in this study women scored higher on the majority of the power base scales but only significantly higher on the power base of Personal Coercion. The findings of this study suggest that psychologists differ in their level of

endorsement of power strategies in psychotherapy with female clients and that variables such as sexist beliefs may influence their level of endorsement.

## References

- Aida, Y., & Falbo, T. (1991). Relationships between marital satisfaction, resources and power strategies. *Sex Roles, 24*, 43-56.
- Allen, A. (1998), Rethinking power. *Hypatia: A Journal of Feminist Philosophy, 13 (1)*, 21-41.
- American Psychological Association (2002). [2002 APA Directory Survey]. Unpublished raw data.
- Amundson, J., Stewart, K., & Valentine, L. (1993). Temptations of power and certainty. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy, 19 (2)*, 111-123.
- Bakan, D. (1966). *The duality of human existence: An essay on psychology and religion*. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally and Company.
- Billow, R. M. (1999). Power and entitlement: Or, mine versus yours. *Contemporary Psychoanalysis, 35 (3)*, 473-489.
- Booth, R. Z., Vinograd-Bausell, C. R., & Harper, D. C. (1984). Social power need and gender among college students. *Psychological Reports, 55*, 243-246.
- Borgen, F. H. & Barnett, D. C. (1987). Applying cluster analysis in counseling psychology research. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 34 (4)*, 456-468.
- Brant, W. (1995). *Illness and power: Women's mental disorders and the battle between the sexes*. New York, NY, US: New York University Press.
- Broverman, I. K., Broverman, D. M., Clarkson, F. E., Rosenkrantz, P. S., & Vogel, S. R. (1970). Sex role stereotypes and clinical judgments of mental health. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 34*, 1-7.
- Brown, L. (1994). *Subversive dialogues: Theory in feminist therapy*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

- Brown, L. & Ballou, M. (1994). *Personality and psychopathology: Feminist reappraisals*. New York, New York: Guilford Press.
- Bruins, J. (1999). Social power and influence tactics: A theoretical introduction. *Journal of Social Issues, 55 (1)*, 7-14.
- Bugental, D. B., & Lewis, J. C. (1999). The paradoxical misuse of power by those who see themselves as powerless: How does it happen? *Journal of Social Issues, 55 (1)*, 51-64.
- Bui, K., Raven, B. H., & Schwarzwald, J. (1994). Influence strategies in dating relationships: The effects of relationship satisfaction, gender and perspective. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 9 (3)*, 429-442.
- Buhl-Conn, A., Hanges, P. J., Sipe, W. P., & Salvaggio, A. N. (1999). The search for ambivalent sexism: A comparison of two measures. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 59 (6)*, 898-909.
- Chapman, J. (1993). Politics and power in therapy: A discussion on the implications of postmodern ideas for therapeutic practices. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Family Therapy, 14 (2)*, 57-62.
- Chesler, P. (1997). *Women and madness*. New York: Four Walls Eight Windows.
- Chiroro, P., Bohner, G., Vicki, G. T., & Jarvis, C. I. (2004). Rape myth acceptance and rape proclivity: Expected dominance versus expected arousal as mediators in acquaintance rape situations. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 19 (4)*, 427-441.
- Claiborn, C. D., & Schmidt, L. D. (1977). Effects of pre-session information on the perception of the counselor in the interview. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 24 (4)*, 259-263.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

- Conway, M. & Vartarian, L. R. (2000). A status account of gender stereotypes: Beyond communality and agency. *Sex Roles, 43* (3/4), 181-199.
- Cooke, M., & Kipnis, D. (1986). Influence tactics in psychotherapy. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 54* (1), 22-26.
- Cowan, G., Drinkard, J., & MacGavin, L. (1984). The effects of target, age and gender on use of power strategies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 47* (6), 1391-1398.
- Cromwell, R. E. & Olson, D.H. (1975). *Power in families*. New York, NY: SAGE Publications.
- Dell, D. M. (1973). Counselor power base, influence attempt, and behavior change in counseling. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 20*, 399-405.
- DeVaris, J. (1994). The dynamics of power in psychotherapy. *Psychotherapy, 31* (4), 588-593.
- Douglas, M. A. (1985). The role of power in Feminist therapy. In L.B. Rosewater & L.E. Walker (eds.) *Handbook of Feminist therapy: Women's Issues in Psychotherapy* (pp.241-249). New York, NY: Springer Publishing Company.
- Dunbar, E., Blanco, A., Sullaway, M., & Horcajo, J. (2004). Human rights and ethnic attitudes in Spain: The role of cognitive, social status, and individual difference factors. *International Journal of Psychology, 39* (2), 106-117.
- Drieschner, K. & Lange, A. (1999). A review of cognitive factors in the etiology of rape: Theories, empirical studies and implications. *Clinical Psychology Review, 19* (1), 55-77.
- Eagly, A. H. & Mladinic, A. (1989). Gender stereotypes and attitudes toward women and men. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 15*, 543-558.
- Enns, C. Z. (1997). *Feminist theories and feminist psychotherapies*. New York, NY: Harrington Press.

- Erchul, W. P., Raven, B. H., & Ray, A. G. (2001). School psychologists' perceptions of social power bases in teacher consultation. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 12 (1)*, 1-23.
- Erchul, W. P., Raven, B. H., & Whichard, S. M. (2001). School psychologist and teacher perceptions of social power in consultation. *Journal of School Psychology, 39 (6)*, 483-497.
- Erchul, W. P., Raven, B. H., & Wilson, K. E. (2004). The relationship between gender of consultant and social power perceptions within school consultation. *School Psychology Review, 33 (4)*, 582-590.
- Falbo, T. (1977). Multidimensional scaling of power strategies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 35*, 537-547.
- Falbo, T. (1982). PAQ types and power strategies used in intimate relationships. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 6 (4)*, 399-405.
- Falbo, T., & Peplau, L. A. (1980). Power strategies in intimate relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 38 (4)*, 618-628.
- Falbo, T., & Snell, W. E. (1981). Open ended versus observational methods of assessing power strategy use. *Catalog of Selected Documents in Psychology, 11*, MS 2375:85, November 1981, pp. 85.
- Feather, N. T. (2004). Value correlates of ambivalent attitudes toward gender relations. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 30 (1)*, 3-12.
- Frank, J. D. (1961). *Persuasion and healing: A comparative study of psychotherapy*. Oxford, England: John Hopkins University Press.

- French, J. R., & Raven, B. H. (1959). The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright, (Ed.), *Studies in social power* (pp. 150-167). Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan.
- Fritz, H.L., & Helgeson, V. S. (1998) Distinctions of unmitigated communion from communion: Self-Neglect and overinvolvement with others. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *75*(1), 121-140.
- Gable, R. K. & Wolfe, M. B. (1993). *Instrument development in the affective domain: Measuring attitudes and values in corporate and school settings*. Boston, MA: Kluner Academic.
- Gannon, L. (1982). The role of power in psychotherapy. *Women and Therapy*, *1* (2), 3-11.
- Glick, P., Diebold, J., Bailey-Werner, B., & Zhu, L. (1997). The two faces of Adam: Ambivalent sexism and polarized attitudes toward women. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *23*, 1323-1334.
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1996). The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory: Differentiating hostile and benevolent sexism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *70*, 491-512.
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (2001). Ambivalent sexism. *Advances in experimental social psychology*, *33*, 115-183.
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (2002). Ambivalent responses. *The American Psychologist*, *57*(6-7), 444-446.
- Glick, P, Fiske, S. T., Mladinic, A., Saiz, J. L., Abrams, D., Masser, B., Adetoun, B. et al. (2000). Beyond prejudice as simple antipathy: Hostile and benevolent sexism across cultures. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *79* (5), 763-775.
- Glick, P., Lamerias, M., & Castro, Y.R (2002). Education and catholic religiosity as predictors of hostile and benevolent sexism toward women and men. *Sex Roles*, *47* (9/10), 433-441.

- Good, L. R., & Good, K. C. (1972). Role of vindication motivation in the attitude similarity-attraction relationship. *Psychological Reports, 31* (3), 769-770.
- Good, L. R., Good, K. C. & Golden, S. B. (1973). An objective measure of the motive to avoid powerlessness. *Psychological Reports, 33*, 616-618.
- Goodyear, R., & Robyak, J. (1981). Counseling as an interpersonal influence process. A perspective for counseling practice. *Personnel and Guidance Journal, 60*, 654-657.
- Gosling, S. D., Vazire, S., Srivastava, S., & John, O. P (2004). Should we trust web-based studies? A comparative analysis of six preconceptions about internet research. *American Psychologist, 59* (2), 93-104.
- Griscom, J. L. (1992). Women and power: Definition, dualism, and difference. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 16*, 389-414.
- Gross, R., Batlis, N., Small, A., & Erdwin, C. (1979). Factor structure of the Bem Sex-Role Inventory and the Personal Attributes Questionnaire. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 47* (6), 1122-1124.
- Guilfoyle, M. (2002). Power, knowledge and resistance in therapy: Exploring links between discourse and materiality. *International Journal of Psychotherapy, 7* (1), 83-97.
- Guinee, J. P. & Tracey, T. J (1994). Counselor interpersonal power base preference: An examination of counselor and client variables. *Counselor Education and Supervision, 34* (2), 92-101.
- Hare-Mustin, R. T., & Marecek, J. (1986). Autonomy and gender: Some questions for therapists. *Psychotherapy, 23* (2), 205-212.

- Helgeson, V. S. (1993) Implications of agency and communion for patient and spouse adjustment to a first coronary event. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *64*(5), 807-816.
- Helgeson, V. S. (1994) Relation of agency and communion to well-being: Evidence and potential. *Psychological Bulletin*, *116*(3), 412-428.
- Helgeson, V. S. & Fritz, H. L. (1998). A theory of unmitigated communion. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *2* (3), 173-183.
- Helgeson, V. S. & Fritz, H. L. (1999). Unmitigated agency and unmitigated communion: Distinctions from agency and communion. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *33*, 131-158.
- Helgeson, V. S. & Fritz, H. L. (2000). The implications of unmitigated agency and unmitigated communion for domains for problem behaviors. *Journal of Personality*, *68* (6), 1031-1057.
- Helgeson, V. S. & Lepore, S. J. (1997). Men's adjustment to prostate cancer: Role of agency and unmitigated agency. *Sex Roles*, *37* (3-4), 251-267.
- Helmreich, R. L., Spence, J. T., & Wilhelm, J. A. (1981). A psychometric analysis of the Personal Attributes Questionnaire. *Sex Roles*, *11*, 1097-1108.
- Heppner, P. P., & Heesacker, M. (1982). Interpersonal influence process in real-life counseling: Investigating client perceptions, counselor experience level, and counselor power over time. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *29* (3), 215-223.
- Heppner, P. P., Kivlighan, D. M., & Wampold, B. E. (1999). *Research design in counseling: Second Edition*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

- Herman, J. (1992). *Trauma and recovery: The aftermath of violence-from domestic abuse to political terror*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Hertzberg, J. F. (1996). Internalizing power dynamics: The wounds and the healing. *Women and Therapy, 18* (3/4), 129-148.
- Hill, S. A., Fekken, C., & Bond, S. L. (2000). Factor structure integrity of the Personal Attributes Questionnaire: An English-French comparison. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science, 32* (4), 234-242.
- Hoffman, R. M. (2001). The measurement of masculinity and femininity: Historical perspective and implications for counseling. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 79* (40), 472-485.
- Holahan, C. K. & Spence, J. T. (1980). Desirable and undesirable masculine and feminine traits in counseling clients and unselected students. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 48* (20), 300-302.
- Houser, R., Feldman, M., Williams, K., & Fierstien, J. (1998). Persuasion and social influence tactics used by mental health counselors. *Journal of Mental Health Counseling, 20* (3), 238-248.
- Ivey, A. E. (1995). Psychotherapy as liberation: Toward specific skills and strategies in multicultural counseling and therapy. In J.G. Ponterotto, J.M. Casas, L.A. Suzuki and C.M. Alexander (eds.) *Handbook of Multicultural Counseling* (pp.53-72). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Johnson, P. (1976). Women and power: Toward a theory of effectiveness. *Journal of Social Issues, 32* (3), 99-110.

- Jones, L. S. (2003). Power and women in the counseling relationship. In M.A. Keitel & M. Kopala (eds.) *Handbook of counseling women* (pp. 31-38). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Kipnis, D. (2001). Using power: Newton's second law. In A.Y. Less-Chai and J.A. Bargh (eds.) *The use and abuse of power: Multiple perspectives on the causes of corruption* (pp. 3-18). Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.
- Kitzinger, C. (1991). Feminism, psychology and the paradox of power. *Feminism and Psychology, 1* (1), 111-129.
- Kline, P. (1986). *A handbook of test construction*. New York: Methuen.
- Korabic, K. & McCreary, D. R. (2000). Testing a model of socially desirable and undesirable gender-role attributes. *Sex Roles, 43* (9/10), 665-685.
- Koslowsky, M., Schwarzwald, J., & Ashuri, S. (2001). On the relationships between subordinates compliance to power sources and organizational attitudes. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 50* (3), 455-476.
- Kraut, R., Olsen, J., Banaji, M., Bruckman, A., Cohen, J., & Couper, M. (2004). Psychological research online: Report on Board of Scientific Affairs' Advisory Group on the Conduct of Research on the Internet. *American Psychologist, 59* (2), 105-117.
- Kuyken, W. (1999). Power and clinical psychology: A model for resolving power related ethical dilemmas. *Ethics and Behavior, 9* (1), 21-37.
- Ladenbruch, P. A. (2003). Proper metrics for clinical trials: Transformations and other procedures to remove non-normality effects. *Statistics in Medicine, 22*, 3823-3842.

- Lating, J. M., O'Reilly, M. A., & Anderson, K. P. (2001). Eating disorders and posttraumatic stress: Phenomenological and treatment considerations using the two-factor model. *International Journal of Emergency Mental Health, 4* (2), 113-118.
- Lenney, E. (1991). Sex roles: The measurement of masculinity, femininity, and androgyny. In J.P. Robinson, P.R. Shaver & L.S. Wrightsman *Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes. Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes, Vol. 1* (pp. 573-660). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Lipps, H. M. (1981). *Women, men and the psychology of power*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc
- Lubinski, D., Tellegen, A., & Butcher, J. N. (1983). Masculinity, femininity, and androgyny viewed and assessed as distinct concepts. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 44* (2), 428-439.
- Mack, J. E. (1994). Power, powerlessness and empowerment in psychotherapy. *Psychiatry, 57*, 178-198.
- Mahalik, J. R., Van Ormer, A., & Simi, N. (2000). Ethical issues in using self disclosure in feminist therapy. In M.M. Brabeck (ed.) *Practicing Feminist Ethics in Psychology* (pp.189-201). Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.
- McCarthy, W. C., & Frieze, I. H. (1999). Negative aspects of therapy: Client perceptions of therapists' social influence, burnout, and quality of care. *Journal of Social Issues, 55* (1), 33-50.
- McCreary, D. R. & Korabik, K. (1994). Examining the relationships between the socially desirable and undesirable aspects of agency and communion. *Sex Roles, 31* (11/12), 637-651.

- McHugh, M. C. & Frieze, I. H. (1997). The measurement of gender-role attitudes: A review and commentary. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 21, 1-16.
- Marecek, J. & Kravetz, D. (1998). Power and agency in feminist therapy. In I.B. Seu & M.C. Heenan (eds.) *Feminism and psychotherapy: Reflections on contemporary theories and practices* (pp. 13-29). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Masser, B. & Abrams, D. (1999). Contemporary sexism: The relationships among hostility, benevolence, and neosexism. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 23, 503-517.
- Mathy, R. M., Kerr, D., & Haydin, B. M. (2003) Methodological rigor and ethical considerations in internet-mediated research. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research, Practice, Training*, 40(1-2), 77-85.
- Miller, C. L., & Cummins, A. G. (1992). An examination of women's perspectives on power. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 16, 415-428.
- Michalak, E. E., & Szabo, A. (1998). Guidelines for Internet research: An update. *European Psychologist*, 3 (1), 70-75.
- Molinari, E. (2001). Eating disorders and sexual abuse. *Eating and Weight Disorders*, 6 (20), 68-80.
- Nelson, L. J., Shanahan, S. B., & Olivetti, J. (1997). Power, empowerment, and equality: Evidence for the motives of feminist, nonfeminists, and antifeminists. *Sex Roles*, 37 (3/4), 227-249.
- Newirth, J. (1999). Power in the psychoanalytic relationship: symmetrical, complementary and metacomplementary. *Journal of Melanie Klein and Object Relations*, 17 (1), 135-148.
- Olson, D. E., & Comwell, R. E. (1975). Power in families. In R. E. Cromwell and D. E. Olson (eds.) *Power in families* (p.3-11). New York, NY: SAGE Publications.

- O'Neil, J. M., & Egan, J. (1993). Abuses of power against women: Sexism, gender role conflict, and psychological violence. In E.P. Cook (ed.) *Women, relationships and power: Implications for counseling* (pp. 16-48). Alexandria, VA: American Counseling Association.
- Paradise, L. V., Zweig, J., & Conway, B. S. (1986). Effects of expert and referent influence, physical attractiveness, and gender on perceptions of counselor attributes. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 33* (1), 16-22.
- Petrocelli, J. (2002). Ambivalent Sexism Inventory: Where's the ambivalence? *American Psychologist, 57*(6-7), 443-444.
- Podsakoff, P. M. & Schreischeim, C. A. (1985). Field studies of French and Raven's bases of social power: Critique, reanalysis, and suggestions for future research. *Psychological Bulletin, 97*, 387-411.
- Pratto, F., & Walker, A. (2001). Dominance in disguise: Power, beneficence, and exploitation in personal relationships. In A.Y. Less-Chai and J.A. Bargh (eds.) *The use and abuse of power: Multiple perspectives on the causes of corruption* (pp. 93-114). Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.
- Proctor, G. (2002). *The dynamics of power in counselling and psychotherapy: Ethics, politics and practice*. United Kingdom: PCCS Books, Ross-On-Wye.
- Ramsey, M. (1997). Exploring power in multicultural counselling encounters. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling, 19*, 277-291.
- Reandean, S. G. & Wampold, B. E. (1991). Relationship of power and involvement to working alliance: A multiple-case sequential analysis of brief therapy. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 38* (2), 107-114.

- Rahim, M (1988). The development of a leader power inventory. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 23 (4)*, 491-503.
- Raven, B. H. (1986). A taxonomy of power in human relations. *Psychiatric Annals, 16 (11)*, 633-636.
- Raven, B. H. (1990). Political applications of the psychology of interpersonal influence and social power. *Political Psychology, 11 (3)*, 493-520.
- Raven, B. H. (1992). A power/interaction model of interpersonal influence: French and Raven Thirty years later. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 7 (2)*, 217-244.
- Raven, B.H. (1999). Kurt Lewin address: Influence, power, religion, and mechanisms of social control. *Journal of Social Issues, 55 (1)*, 161-186.
- Raven, B. H., Schwarzwald, J., & Koslowsky, M. (1998). Conceptualizing and measuring a power/interaction model of interpersonal influence. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 28 (4)*, 307-332.
- Redlich, F. C. (1986). The use and abuse of power in psychotherapy. *Psychiatric Annals, 16*, 637-640.
- Robyak, J. E. (1981). Effects of gender on the counselor's preference for methods of influence. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 28 (1)*, 7-12.
- Robyak, J. E., Goodyear, R. K., Prange, M. E., & Donham, G. (1986). Effects of gender, supervision, and presenting problems on practicum student's preference for interpersonal power bases. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 33 (2)*, 159-163.
- Rodin, J. & Janis, I. L. (1979). The social power of health-care practitioners as agents of change. *Journal of Social Issues, 35 (1)*, 60-79.

- Rodis, P. T., & Strehorn, K. C. (1997). Ethical issues for psychology in the postmodern era: Feminist psychology and multicultural therapy (MCT). *Journal of Theoretical and Philosophical Psychology, 17* (1), 13-31.
- Royal, K. C. & Rutherford, D. (1994). Construct validation study of the fear of powerlessness scale. *Psychological Reports, 75*, 1529-1530.
- Sakahl-Urgurlu, N. & Glick, P. (2003). Ambivalent sexism and attitudes toward women who engage in premarital sex in Turkey. *The Journal of Sex Research, 40* (3), 296-302.
- Saragovi, C. Koestner, R. Di-Dio, L., & Aube, J. (1997) Agency, communion, and well-being: Extending Helgeson's (1994) model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 73*(3), 593-609.
- Sagrestano, L. M. (1992a). The use of power and influence in a gendered world. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 16*, 439-447.
- Saagrestano, L. M. (1992b). Power strategies in interpersonal relationships. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 16*, 481-495.
- Sax, L. (2002) Maybe men and women are different. *The American Psychologist, 57*(6-7), 444.
- Schriesheim, C.A., Hinkin, T. R., & Podsakoff, P. M. (1991). Can ipsative and single item measures produce erroneous results in field studies on French and Raven five bases of power? An empirical investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76* (1), 106-114.
- Schullo, S. & Alerpson, B. (1984). Interpersonal phenomenology as a function of sexual orientation, sex, sentiment and trait categories in long term dyadic relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 47*, 983-1002.

- Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the context and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 25, 1-65.
- Schwarzwald, J., Koslowsky, M., & Agassi, V. (2001). Captain's leadership type and police officers' compliance to power bases. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 10 (3), 273-290.
- Schwarzwald, J., Koslowsky, M., & Ochana-Levin, T. (2004). Usage of and compliance with power tactics in routine versus non-routine work settings. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 18 (3), 385-402.
- Senn, C. Y., Verberg, N., Desmarais, S., & Wodd, E. (2000). Sampling the reluctant participant: A random response rate study of men and sexual coercion. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 30 (1), 96-105.
- Sharf, R. S. (2004). *Theories of psychotherapy and counseling: Concepts and cases*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Smail, D. (1995). Power and the origins of unhappiness: Working with individuals. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*, 5, 347-356.
- Smith, A. J., & Douglas, M. A. (1990). Empowerment as an ethical imperative. In H. Lerman & N. Porter (eds.) *Feminist ethics in psychotherapy* (pp.43-50). New York, NY: Springer Publishing Company.
- Smith, A. J., & Siegel, R. F. (1985). Feminist therapy: Redefining power for the powerless. In L.B. Rosewater & L.E. Walker (eds.) *Handbook of Feminist therapy: Women's Issues in Psychotherapy* (pp. 13-21). New York, NY: Springer Publishing Company.

- Spence, J. T. (1984). Masculinity, femininity and gender related traits: A conceptual analysis and critique of current research. In B.A. Maher & W.B. Maher *Progress in experimental personality research, Normative Personality Process, V. 13*. Orlando, FL: Academic Press, Inc.
- Spence, J. T. (1993). Gender related traits and gender ideology: Evidence for a multifactorial theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 64* (4), 624-635.
- Spence, J. T., & Helmreich, R. L. (1978). *Masculinity and femininity: Their psychological dimensions, correlates, and antecedents*. Austin, TX: University of Texas Press.
- Spence, J. T., & Helmreich, R. L. (1980). Masculine instrumentality and feminine expressiveness: Their relationships with sex role attitudes and behaviors. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 5* (2), 147-163.
- Spence, J. T., Helmreich, R. L., & Holahan, C. K. (1979). Negative and positive components of psychological masculinity and femininity and their relationships to self-reports of neurotic and acting out behaviors. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37* (10), 1673-1682.
- Spence, J. T., & Helmreich, R. L., & Stapp, J. (1974). The Personal Attributes Questionnaire: A measure of sex role stereotypes and masculinity and femininity. *JSAS Catalogue of Selected Documents in Psychology, 4*, 43.
- Spence, J. T., & Helmreich, R. L., & Stapp, J. (1975). Ratings of self and peers on sex role attributes and their relation to self esteem and conceptions of masculinity and femininity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 32* (1), 29-39.
- Spini, D. (2003). Measurement equivalence of 10 value types from the Schwartz Value Survey across 21 countries. *Journal of Cross Cultural Psychology, 34* (1), 3-23.

- Strong, S. R., & Mattross, R. P. (1973). Change processes in counseling and psychotherapy. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 20* (1), 25-37.
- Strupp, H. H. (1974). On the basic ingredients of psychotherapy. *Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics, 24*, 249-260.
- Tabachnick, B. G. & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics; Fourth edition*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Taylor, M. (1994). Gender and power in counselling and supervision. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling, 22* (3), 319-326.
- Tredinnick, M. G., & Fowers, B. J (1997). Gender bias and individualism: Responses to case vignettes among psychologists, professors, and students. *Current Psychology: Developmental, Learning, Personality and Social, 15* (4), 291-299.
- Twenge, J. M. (1997). Changes in masculine and feminine traits over time: A metaanalysis. *Sex Roles, 36* (5/6), 305-325.
- van Mens-Verhulst, J.(1991). Perspective of power in therapeutic relationships. *American Journal of Psychotherapy, 45* (2), 198-210.
- Veldhuis, C. B. (2001). The trouble with power. *Women and Therapy, 23* (2), 37-56.
- Vicki, G. T., Abrams, D., & Hutchison, P. (2003). The “true: romantic: Benevolent sexism and paternalistic chivalry. *Sex Roles, 49* (9/10), 533- 537.
- Ward, M. (1993). Therapy as abuse. *Clinical Psychology Forum, 54*, 23-25.
- Wenegrat, B. (1995). *Illness and power: Women’s mental disorders and the battle between the sexes*. New York, NY: New York University Press.

- West, C. & Zimmerman, D. H. (1998). Doing gender. In B. M. Clinchy & J. Norem (eds.) *The gender and psychology reader* (pp. 104-124). New York, NY: New York University Press.
- Whitley, B.E. (2001). Gender role variables and attitudes toward homosexuality. *Sex Roles, 45* (11/12), 691-712.
- Wolitzky, D. L. & Eagle, M. N. (1997). Psychoanalytic theories of psychotherapy. In P. L. Wachtel & S. B. Messer (eds.) *Theories of psychotherapy: Origins and evolution* (pp. 39 – 85). Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.
- Wonderlich, S.A., Crosby, R.D., Mitchell, J.E., Thomspon, K.M., Redlin, J., Demuth, G., Smyth, J., & Haseltine, B. (2001). Eating disturbance and sexual trauma in childhood and adulthood. *International Journal of Eating Disorders, 30* (4), 401-412.
- Yesenowsky, J. M. & Dowd, T (1990). The social psychology of counselling and psychotherapy: A base for integration. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling, 18* (2), 170-185).
- Yik, M. S. M, & Tang, C. S. (1996). Linking personality and values: The importance of a culturally relevant personality scale. *Personality and Individual Differences, 21* (5), 767-774.

Appendix A: Pilot Study Research Recruitment Email

**Subject Header: Searching for participants for a pilot study**

IRB #20312

Dear students and faculty,

I am writing to ask for your assistance in completing a pilot study aimed at improving my dissertation study. To participate in this pilot study you must be a doctoral level graduate student, alumni or faculty member in the Department of Counselor Education, Counseling Psychology and Rehabilitation Services. This study is being conducted by a doctoral candidate in counseling psychology named Jaime M. Fenton, who is the principal investigator, and Robert Slaney, who is the faculty advisor through Penn State University.

The purpose of this pilot study is to examine the psychometric properties of the measures involved and to obtain feedback regarding the length and content of the study to improve the final study. Answering questions regarding your beliefs, values and strategies with clients however may stimulate some insight and self-knowledge. Please contact the principal investigator with the contact information found below if you have any questions.

If you are interested in participating in this study, please click on the link below which will lead you to website where the survey is located. Please be assured that this is a secure website in which your responses will be kept safe and confidential. You must provide the survey number **8338** and password **psych** to proceed with the study. Thank you very much for your assistance.

<http://www.psychdata.com/>

Jaime M. Fenton, MS  
261 Perkins Student Center  
University of Delaware  
Newark, DE 19716  
302-831-2141

Robert Slaney, Ph.D.  
327 CEDAR Bldg.  
Penn State University  
University Park, PA 16802  
814-865-6643

Appendix B: Pilot Study Informed Consent

**Informed Consent for Social Science Research  
The Pennsylvania State University**

Title of Project: Pilot Study: Interpersonal Strategies with Female Clients

Principal Investigator: Jaime M. Fenton, MS

261 Perkins Student Center, University of Delaware, Newark, DE 19716  
302-831-2141 (office phone)  
[jmf166@psu.edu](mailto:jmf166@psu.edu)

Dissertation Advisor: Robert Slaney, Ph.D.

327 Cedar Building, Penn State University, University Park, PA 16801  
814-865-8304 (office phone)  
[rslaney@psu.edu](mailto:rslaney@psu.edu)

1. Purpose of study: This study is intended to assess the interpersonal strategies used by psychologists with female clients in psychotherapy.
2. Procedures to be followed: This study involves filling out completing six brief questionnaires.
3. Discomforts and risks: There is little risk associated with participation in this study. Completing instruments related to your strategies with clients and exploring your values and beliefs could possibly lead to discomfort. If you experience any discomfort you may elect to discontinue the study. If you have any questions concerning this study please use the aforementioned contact information to speak with the principal investigator and dissertation advisor.
4. Benefits: Possible benefits may include insight and self-understanding regarding one's values, beliefs and work with clients.
5. Duration: The study should take no more than 30 minutes to complete.
6. Statement of confidentiality: Please be assured that your responses are confidential. No names, demographic information or contact information will be obtained to promote confidentiality. Code numbers will be used to identify participants and the data will be stored in a secure location. Your confidentiality will be kept to the degree permitted by the technology used. No guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties. The principal investigator and her advisor will have sole access to your responses. The Office for Research Protections and the Social Science Institutional Review Board may review records related to this project.
7. Right to ask questions: You may ask questions about this research or request a copy of the results of the study by contacting the principal investigator mentioned above. If you have any

questions regarding your rights as a research participant you may contact the Penn State University Office for Regulatory Compliance at 814-865-1775.

8. Voluntary participation: You do not have to participate in this study and you do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to answer. You may withdraw from the study at any point.

You must be 18 years of age or older to consent to participate in this study. Clicking on the continue icon at the bottom of the screen and completion of the study materials implies consent. Please print out a copy of this form for your records.

This informed consent was reviewed and approved by the Social Science Institutional Review Board (IRB #20312) at The Pennsylvania State University on 2/15/2005. It will expire on 2/13/2006. (J. Mathieu)

Appendix C: Pilot Study Feedback Questionnaire

**Please briefly take a moment to provide some feedback to this study. Your feedback will be incorporated into improving the study.**

1.) Please indicate the amount of time it took for you to complete this study, approximately:

\_\_\_\_\_

2.) Please briefly offer some feedback regarding the study including your reactions to the length of the study, the content of the surveys, and whether anything was confusing or frustrating.

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

**Thank you for your assistance.**

Appendix D: Final Study Research Recruitment Email

**Subject Header: Study looking for practicing psychologists, Enter drawing for Amazon.com prize**

Dear Psychologist,

We are writing to ask you to participate in a dissertation study examining psychologists' interpersonal strategies with clients. ***To participate in this study you must be a doctoral level psychologist who works with at least four clients in psychotherapy, in general, during one week. You must have completed your degree program and currently have your doctoral degree.*** Participants must also be working in the United States to be eligible. This study is being conducted by a doctoral candidate in counseling psychology named Jaime M. Fenton, who is the principal investigator, and Robert Slaney, who is the faculty advisor through Penn State University. This study has been reviewed and received for posting by the American Psychological Association Research Office.

The purpose of the study is to investigate the interpersonal strategies used with clients in psychotherapy and the variables that influence these strategies. Your participation will require 20 minutes to complete the study materials. You may elect to participate in a raffle for completing this study by providing a valid email address at the completion of the study. ***You could win one of ten \$20 gift certificates for the Internet website Amazon.com, approximately 1 in 30 chance of winning.*** The raffle will take place at the completion of this study and winners will be notified and provided with their gift via email. We do not expect you to experience any discomfort or risk as a result of participating in this study. Answering questions regarding your beliefs, values and strategies with clients however may stimulate some insight and self-knowledge. Please contact the principal investigator if you have any questions with the contact information found below.

If you are interested in participating in this study, please click on the following link which will lead you to website where the survey is located: <https://www.psychdata.com/surveys.asp?SID=8809>

If clicking on the above link does not take you immediately to the website, please paste the above link into your Internet browser. Please be assured that this is a secure website in which your responses will be kept safe and confidential. You must provide the survey number **8809** and password **psych** to proceed with the study. Thank you very much for your assistance.

Jaime M. Fenton, MS  
261 Perkins Student Center  
University of Delaware  
Newark, DE 19716  
302-831-2141

Robert Slaney, Ph.D.  
327 CEDAR Bldg.  
Penn State University  
University Park, PA 16802  
814-865-6643  
Penn State University IRB #20312

Appendix E: Final Study Informed Consent

**Informed Consent for Social Science Research  
The Pennsylvania State University**

Title of Project: Interpersonal Strategies with Female Clients

Principal Investigator: Jaime M. Fenton, MS  
261 Perkins Student Center, University of Delaware, Newark, DE 19716  
302-831-2141 (office phone)  
[jmf166@psu.edu](mailto:jmf166@psu.edu)

Dissertation Advisor: Robert Slaney, Ph.D.  
327 Cedar Building, Penn State University, University Park, PA 16802  
814-865-8304 (office phone)  
[rslaney@psu.edu](mailto:rslaney@psu.edu)

1. Purpose of study: This study is intended to assess the interpersonal strategies used by psychologists with female clients in psychotherapy.
2. Procedures to be followed: This study involves filling out a demographic questionnaire, and completing four questionnaires.
3. Discomforts and risks: There is little risk associated with participation in this study. Completing instruments related to your strategies with clients and exploring your values and beliefs could possibly lead to some mild discomfort. If you experience any discomfort you may elect to discontinue the study. If you have any questions concerning this study please use the aforementioned contact information to speak with the principal investigator and dissertation advisor.
4. Benefits: Possible benefits may include insight and self-understanding regarding one's values, beliefs and work with clients.
5. Compensation: If you choose you may be entered into a drawing with one of ten prizes of \$20 gift certificates to Amazon.com by providing your email address at the completion of the study.
6. Duration: The study should take no more than 20 minutes to complete.
7. Statement of Confidentiality: Please be assured that your responses are confidential. You may elect to provide your email address to participate in the drawing but this information will be stored in a separate location from your responses. Code numbers will be used to identify participants and the data will be stored in a secure location. Your confidentiality will be kept to the degree permitted by the technology used. No guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties. The principal investigator and her advisor will have sole access to your responses. The Office for

Research Protections and the Social Science Institutional Review Board may review records related to this project.

8. Right to ask questions: You may ask questions about this research or request a copy of the results of the study by contacting the principal investigator mentioned above. If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant you may contact the Penn State University Office for Regulatory Compliance at 814-865-1775.
9. Voluntary participation: You do not have to participate in this study and you do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to answer. You may withdraw from the study at any point.

**You must be 18 years of age or older to consent to participate in this study. Clicking on the continue icon at the bottom of the screen and completion of the study materials implies consent. Please print out a copy of this form for your records.**

This informed consent was reviewed and approved by the Social Science Institutional Review Board (IRB #20312 Doc. #1) at The Pennsylvania State University on 3/24/2005. It will expire on 2/13/2006. (J. Mathieu)

## Appendix F: Final Study Demographic Questionnaire

**Please put an X by each answer that best describes you. Only one answer per question is desired.**

**1.) Please indicate your sex:**

Female                       Transgender Female  
 Male                             Transgender Male

**2.) Please indicate your primary theoretical orientation. If you identify as eclectic or integrationalist, please circle the single approach that you are most informed by:**

Behavioral     Interpersonal  
 Cognitive Behavioral/REBT                       Psychoanalytic/Psychodynamic  
 Feminist     Systems  
 Humanistic/Existential                       Other, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

**3.) Please indicate your age**

\_\_\_\_\_

**4.) Please indicate your ethnic or racial background:**

African American or Black  
 Asian American or Pacific Islander  
 Bi-racial or Multi-racial  
 Caucasian or White  
 Hispanic/Latino or Latina/Mexican American  
 American Indian  
 Other, please specify \_\_\_\_\_

**5.) Please indicate your number of years in clinical or counseling practice:**

\_\_\_\_\_

**6.) Please indicate the number of clients you work with in a clinical practice during a regular week. This would be indicative of the number of clients that you see generally in one week:**

\_\_\_\_\_

**7.) Please indicate your degree and specialty area. For example: Ph.D. in Clinical Psychology.**

\_\_\_\_\_

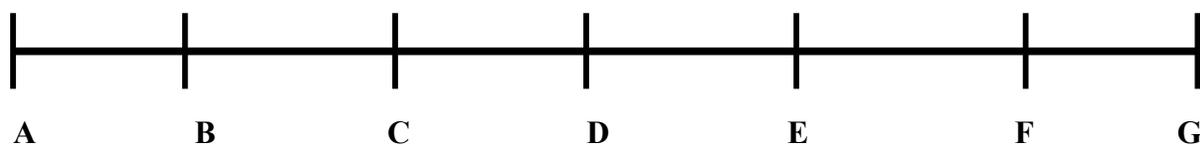
**8.) Please indicate the state and/or country in which you reside:**

\_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix G: Interpersonal Power Inventory (IPI)

Instructions: Often supervisors will ask subordinates to do their job somewhat differently. Sometimes subordinates resist doing so or do not follow the supervisor's directions exactly. Other times, they will do exactly as their supervisor requests. We are interested in those situations which lead subordinates to follow the requests of their supervisor.

Suppose you asked a typical subordinate to do his/her job somewhat differently and though initially reluctant, the subordinate did exactly as you asked. Below are a number of reasons why a subordinate might do so. Read each descriptive statement carefully, thinking of your subordinate and such a situation, how likely it would be that this would be the reason why the subordinate would comply. Mark the number that represents how likely he/she would comply for that particular reason. Use the following letters for your answer.



**Much more  
likely to  
comply**

**Would not  
affect her  
tendency  
to comply**

**Much less  
likely to  
comply**

- A. Much more likely to comply.**
- B. More likely to comply.**
- C. A bit more likely to comply.**
- D. Would not affect her tendency to comply.**
- E. A bit less likely to comply.**
- F. Less likely to comply.**
- G. Much less likely to comply.**

When I ask a subordinate to do something differently and the subordinate though initially reluctant does exactly what I ask, it is because:

- \_\_\_ 1. I can increase the pay level. (Impersonal Reward)
- \_\_\_ 2. A subordinate should do as a supervisor asks. (Legitimate Position)
- \_\_\_ 3. He/she feels that I know the best way to do this job. (Expert)
- \_\_\_ 4. Once I point it out, he/she can see why the change was necessary. (Information)
- \_\_\_ 5. My subordinate admires or respects me and does not wish to disagree. (Referent)
- \_\_\_ 6. I can give undesirable job assignments. (Impersonal Coercion)

7. I have done some good things for my subordinate and so he/she does this in return. (Legitimate Reciprocity)
8. The subordinate likes me and my approval is important to him/her. (Personal Reward)
9. It is clear that I really depend on my subordinate to do this for me. (Legitimate Dependence)
10. The subordinate does not want me to dislike him/her. (Personal Coercion)
11. By doing so, he/she can make up for some problems which he/she caused in the past. (Legitimate Equity)
12. For considerations that my subordinate has received, he/she feels obligated. (Legitimate Reciprocity)
13. I can make things unpleasant for the subordinate. (Impersonal Coercion)
14. It makes the subordinate feel better to know I like him/her. (Personal Reward)
15. My subordinate sees me as someone he/she can identify with. (Referent)
16. My subordinate realizes that unless he/she does so, my job will be more difficult. (Legitimate Dependence)
17. I have carefully explained the basis for the request. (Information)
18. It would be disturbing for my subordinate to know that I disapprove of him/her. (Personal Coercion)
19. He/she feels that I probably know more about this particular job. (Expert)
20. Supervisors are supposed to determine the work of the subordinate. (Legitimate Position)
21. Complying helps make up for things which he/she has not done so well previously. (Legitimate Equity)
22. I can provide special benefits. (Impersonal Reward)
23. I may be cold and distant if a subordinate does not do as I request. (Personal Coercion)
24. I have given good reasons for changing how the job is done. (Information)
25. He/she understands that I really need his/her help on this. (Legitimate Dependence)
26. He/she trusts me to give him/her the best direction. (Expert)
27. We are both part of the same work group and should see eye to eye on things. (Referent)

- \_\_\_ 28. Supervisors have a right to request that subordinates work in a particular way. (Legitimate Position)
- \_\_\_ 29. It makes my subordinate feel more valued when he/she does as I request. (Personal Reward)
- \_\_\_ 30. He/she has made some mistakes previously and therefore feels that she owes this to me. (Legitimate Equity)
- \_\_\_ 31. I can make being at work distasteful. (Impersonal Coercion)
- \_\_\_ 32. I have previously done some things which my subordinate had requested. (Legitimate Reciprocity)
- \_\_\_ 33. It makes the subordinates feel personally accepted when she does as I ask. (Personal Reward)
- \_\_\_ 34. The subordinate feels an obligation to do as the supervisor requests. (Legitimate Position)
- \_\_\_ 35. My subordinate looks up to me and generally models his/her work accordingly. (Referent)
- \_\_\_ 36. He/she has not always done exactly as I wished, so this time he/she felt obligated. (Legitimate Equity)
- \_\_\_ 37. I can increase getting a promotion. (Impersonal Reward)
- \_\_\_ 38. It is clearly that I probably have more technical knowledge on this matter. (Expert)
- \_\_\_ 39. My subordinate is concerned that I might give poor evaluations. (Impersonal Coercion)
- \_\_\_ 40. He/she realizes that a supervisor needs the assistance and cooperation of subordinates. (Legitimate Dependence)
- \_\_\_ 41. My subordinate expects to get some favorable consideration for doing as requested. (Impersonal Reward)
- \_\_\_ 42. My subordinate understands why the recommended change is for the better. (Information)
- \_\_\_ 43. I have let my subordinate have his/her way earlier, so he/she felt obligated to comply. (Legitimate Reciprocity)
- \_\_\_ 44. The subordinate would be upset if he/she were on the bad side of me. (Personal Coercion)

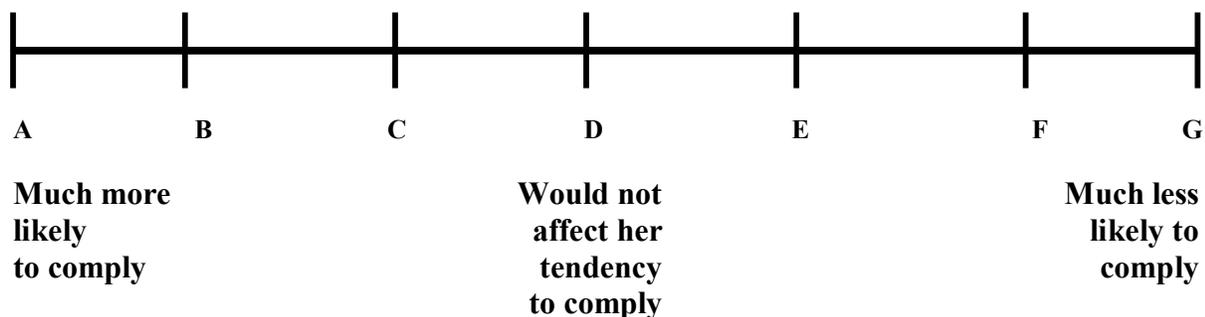
\* The scales are denoted at the end of each item for the reader.

## Appendix H: Interpersonal Power Inventory-Psychologist Version (Pilot Study; IPI-P)

**Instructions:** Psychologists may suggest that clients do something differently, within session or outside of it, and clients may be initially reluctant to change. In such cases, clients tend to resist making the changes or following their therapists' suggestions. We are interested in understanding when clients are more likely to do what a psychologist asks.

Think about a current female psychotherapy client or one that you have worked with recently. Recall a time with this client when the client was initially resistant to follow your suggestions. For example, this resistance may have been related to her initiating a behavior or simply exploring an area in session. Please note that you will be asked to briefly describe this female client.

On the following pages there are a number of considerations that a therapist might use to influence a female client's decision to do as suggested. Read each statement carefully and decide how likely it would be that for each of these considerations the client would tend to comply or not to comply. Use the following scale in estimating how you believe the client would react:



**H. Much more likely to comply.**

**I. More likely to comply.**

**J. A bit more likely to comply.**

**K. Would not affect her tendency to comply.**

**L. A bit less likely to comply.**

**M. Less likely to comply.**

**N. Much less likely to comply.**

Remember that you are indicating the likelihood that the client would or would not tend to comply given these specific circumstances. Thank you for your cooperation.

The client has realized:

1. If she complies, I may be more inclined to negotiate fees. \*(Impersonal Reward)
2. After all, I am the therapist and she should follow my direction. (Legitimate Position)
3. She probably feels that I know the best way to handle the situation. (Expert)

- \_\_\_ 4. Once I point it out, she can see why the change is necessary. (Information)
- \_\_\_ 5. She admires or respects me and does not wish to disagree. (Referent)
- \_\_\_ 6. If she does not comply, I may be reluctant to schedule future sessions. (Impersonal Coercion)
- \_\_\_ 7. I have helped her in past sessions so she should follow my suggestions. (Legitimate Reciprocity)
- \_\_\_ 8. She likes me and my approval is important to her. (Personal Reward)
- \_\_\_ 9. My ability to help her in therapy really depends on her following my suggestions. (Legitimate Dependence)
- \_\_\_ 10. She does not want me to dislike her. (Personal Coercion)
- \_\_\_ 11. By doing so, she can make up for being difficult in sessions in the past. (Legitimate Equity)
- \_\_\_ 12. I have shown her kindness in the past so she should feel obliged to comply. (Legitimate Reciprocity)
- \_\_\_ 13. Her resistance may lead me to less accommodating of her availability in scheduling sessions. (Impersonal Coercion)
- \_\_\_ 14. It makes the client feel better to know I like her. (Personal Reward)
- \_\_\_ 15. She sees me as someone she can identify with. (Referent)
- \_\_\_ 16. She knows that unless she does so, my work with her will be more difficult. (Legitimate Dependence)
- \_\_\_ 17. I have carefully explained the basis for this request. (Information)
- \_\_\_ 18. It would be distressing for the client to know that I disapprove of her. (Personal Coercion)
- \_\_\_ 19. She believes that I probably know more about her issue. (Expert)
- \_\_\_ 20. It is my job to help her to improve and understand this situation. (Legitimate Position)
- \_\_\_ 21. Her resistance has been frustrating for me so she should comply now. (Legitimate Equity)
- \_\_\_ 22. I may be willing to spend extra time talking about this issue in session if she is agreeable. (Impersonal Reward)
- \_\_\_ 23. A negative evaluation of her by her therapist would be upsetting. (Personal Coercion)
- \_\_\_ 24. I gave the client good reasons for changing how she handles the situation. (Information)

- \_\_\_ 25. She understands that my ability to help her requires her cooperation on this. (Legitimate Dependence)
- \_\_\_ 26. She trusts me to give her the best direction. (Expert)
- \_\_\_ 27. We are working together in collaboration and should see eye to eye on things. (Referent)
- \_\_\_ 28. I have the right to suggest that she handle the situation in a particular way. (Legitimate Position)
- \_\_\_ 29. It makes the client feel more valued when she does as requested. (Personal Reward)
- \_\_\_ 30. She has been resistant in therapy before and therefore feels that she owes this to me. (Legitimate Equity)
- \_\_\_ 31. If she does not cease being resistant, I may be less considerate in my fee schedule. (Impersonal Coercion)
- \_\_\_ 32. I have been supportive and encouraging before therefore she should comply. (Legitimate Reciprocity)
- \_\_\_ 33. It makes her feel accepted when she does as suggested. (Personal Reward)
- \_\_\_ 34. As the client, she should follow my suggestions. (Legitimate Position)
- \_\_\_ 35. She looks up to me and generally models her behavior accordingly. (Referent)
- \_\_\_ 36. She has been challenging in the past so this time she should follow my suggestions. (Legitimate Equity)
- \_\_\_ 37. I will be more willing to schedule extra sessions if she is not resistant. (Impersonal Reward)
- \_\_\_ 38. I probably have more knowledge about such a problem. (Expert)
- \_\_\_ 39. If she does not comply, I may choose not see her if she is late for sessions in the future. (Impersonal Coercion)
- \_\_\_ 40. She understands that a therapist needs some level of collaboration from clients. (Legitimate Dependence)
- \_\_\_ 41. I may advocate for her with her insurance company if she is agreeable with me. (Impersonal Reward)
- \_\_\_ 42. She understands why the recommended change is for the better. (Information)
- \_\_\_ 43. In the past I have been patient and understanding of her resistance. (Legitimate Reciprocity)

\_\_\_ 44. She would be upset knowing that I disapproved of her. (Personal Coercion)

Please use these questions to describe the female client you were thinking of:

a.) What ethnic group describes your female client? \_\_\_\_\_

b.) What is her approximate age? \_\_\_\_\_

c.) What is the client's primary presenting problem? \_\_\_\_\_

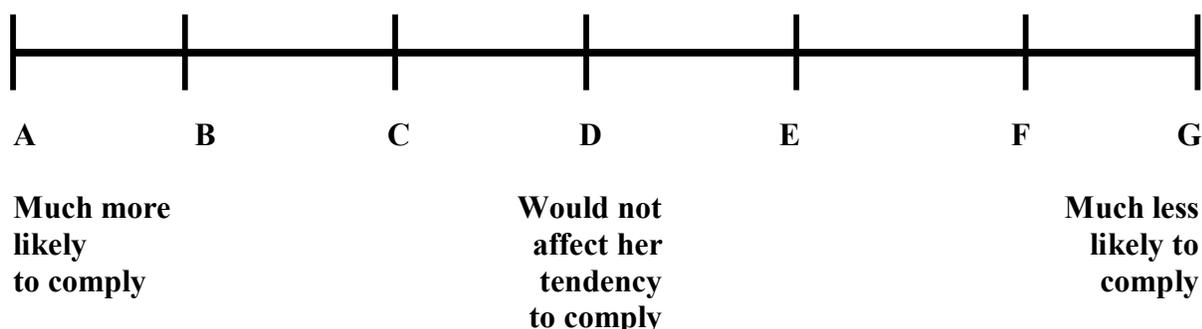
\* The scales are denoted at the end of each item for the reader.

## Appendix I: Interpersonal Power Inventory-Psychologist Version (Final Study; IPI-P)

**Instructions:** Psychologists may suggest that clients do something differently, within session or outside of it, and clients may be initially reluctant to change. In such cases, clients may resist making the changes or following their therapists' suggestions. For example, this resistance may be related to initiating a behavior or exploring an area in session. We are interested in understanding what considerations you believe influence clients to follow what a psychologist suggests.

Think about a current female psychotherapy client or one that you have worked with recently. Recall a time with this client when she was initially resistant to follow your suggestions. Please note that you will be asked to briefly describe this female client at the conclusion of the instrument.

Read the following statements carefully and indicate the likelihood that you believe each consideration would influence whether the female client would follow your suggestions. Use the following scale in estimating how you believe the client would react:



- O. Much more likely to comply.**
- P. More likely to comply.**
- Q. A bit more likely to comply.**
- R. Would not affect her tendency to comply.**
- S. A bit less likely to comply.**
- T. Less likely to comply.**
- U. Much less likely to comply.**

The client realizes:

- \_\_\_ 1. If she complies, I may be more inclined to negotiate fees.
- \_\_\_ 2. After all, I am the therapist and she should follow my direction.
- \_\_\_ 3. She probably feels that I know the best way to handle the situation.
- \_\_\_ 4. Once I point it out, she can see why the change is necessary.
- \_\_\_ 5. She admires or respects me and does not wish to disagree.

- 6. If she does not comply, I may be reluctant to schedule future sessions.
- 7. I have helped her in past sessions so she should follow my suggestions.
- 8. She likes me and my approval is important to her
- 9. My ability to help her in therapy really depends on her following my suggestions.
- 10. She does not want me to dislike her.
- 11. By doing so, she can make up for being difficult in sessions in the past.
- 12. I have shown her kindness in the past so she should feel obliged to comply.
- 13. Her resistance may lead me to be less accommodating of her availability in scheduling sessions.
- 14. It makes the client feel better to know I like her.
- 15. She sees me as someone she can identify with.
- 16. She knows that unless she does so, my work with her will be more difficult.
- 17. I have carefully explained the basis for this request.
- 18. It would be distressing for the client to know that I disapprove of her.
- 19. She believes that I probably know more about her issue.
- 20. It is my job to help her to improve and understand this situation.
- 21. Her resistance has been frustrating for me so she should comply now.
- 22. I may be willing to spend extra time talking about this issue in session if she is agreeable.
- 23. A negative evaluation of her by her therapist would be upsetting.
- 24. I gave the client good reasons for changing how she handles the situation.
- 25. She understands that my ability to help her requires her cooperation on this.
- 26. She trusts me to give her the best direction.
- 27. We are working together in collaboration and should see eye to eye on things.
- 28. I have the right to suggest that she handle the situation in a particular way.
- 29. It makes the client feel more valued when she does as requested.

- \_\_\_ 30. She has been resistant in therapy before and therefore feels that she owes this to me.
- \_\_\_ 31. If she does not cease being resistant, I may be less considerate in my fee schedule.
- \_\_\_ 32. I have been supportive and encouraging before therefore she should comply.
- \_\_\_ 33. It makes her feel accepted when she does as suggested.
- \_\_\_ 34. As the client, she should follow my suggestions.
- \_\_\_ 35. She looks up to me and generally models her behavior accordingly.
- \_\_\_ 36. She has been challenging in the past so this time she should follow my suggestions.
- \_\_\_ 37. I will be more willing to schedule extra sessions if she is not resistant.
- \_\_\_ 38. I probably have more knowledge about such a problem.
- \_\_\_ 39. If she does not comply, I may choose not see her if she is late for sessions in the future.
- \_\_\_ 40. She understands that a therapist needs some level of collaboration from clients.
- \_\_\_ 41. I may advocate for her with her insurance company if she is agreeable with me.
- \_\_\_ 42. She understands why the recommended change is for the better.
- \_\_\_ 43. In the past I have been patient and understanding of her resistance.
- \_\_\_ 44. She would be upset knowing that I disapproved of her.

Please use these questions to describe the female client you were thinking of:

- d.) What ethnic group describes your female client? \_\_\_\_\_
- e.) What is her approximate age? \_\_\_\_\_
- f.) What is the client's primary presenting problem? \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix J: Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (EPAQ)

The items below inquire about what kind of person you think you are. Each item consists of pairs of characteristics, with the letters A-E in between. For example:

Not at all artistic      A   B   C   D   E      Very artistic

Each pair describes contradictory characteristics-that is, you cannot be both at the same time, such as very artistic and not at all artistic.

The letters form a scale between extremes. You are to choose a letter which describes where *you* fall on the scale. For example, if you think you have no artistic ability, you would choose A, if you think you are pretty good, you might choose D. If you are only medium, you might choose C and so forth.

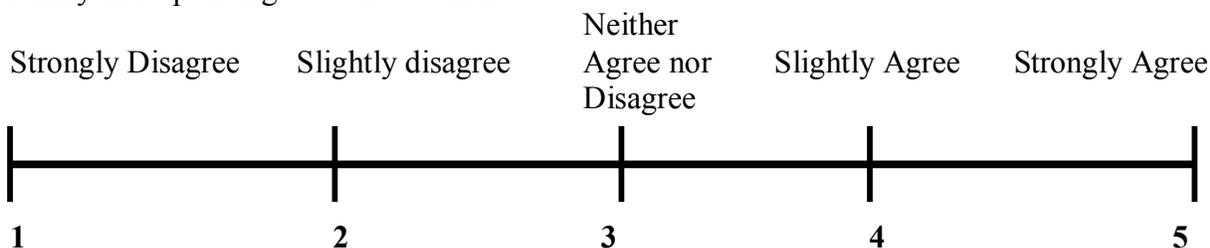
- |       |     |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                     |
|-------|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------------------------|
| _____ | 1.  | Not at all aggressive                     | A | B | C | D | E | Very aggressive                     |
| _____ | 2.  | Very whiny                                | A | B | C | D | E | Not at all whiny                    |
| _____ | 3.  | Not at all independent                    | A | B | C | D | E | Very independent                    |
| _____ | 4.  | Not at all arrogant                       | A | B | C | D | E | Very arrogant                       |
| _____ | 5.  | Not at all emotional                      | A | B | C | D | E | Very emotional                      |
| _____ | 6.  | Very submissive                           | A | B | C | D | E | Very dominant                       |
| _____ | 7.  | Very boastful                             | A | B | C | D | E | Not at all boastful                 |
| _____ | 8.  | Not at all excitable<br>in a major crisis | A | B | C | D | E | Very excitable in<br>a major crisis |
| _____ | 9.  | Very passive                              | A | B | C | D | E | Very active                         |
| _____ | 10. | Not at all egotistical                    | A | B | C | D | E | Very egotistical                    |
| _____ | 11. | Not at all able to devote                 | A | B | C | D | E | Able to devote self                 |
| _____ | 12. | Not at all spineless                      | A | B | C | D | E | Very spineless                      |
| _____ | 13. | Very rough                                | A | B | C | D | E | Very gentle                         |

_____	14.	Not at all complaining	A	B	C	D	E	Very complaining
_____	15.	Not at all helpful to others	A	B	C	D	E	Very helpful to others
_____	16.	Not at all competitive	A	B	C	D	E	Very competitive
_____	17.	Subordinates oneself to others	A	B	C	D	E	Never subordinates oneself to others
_____	18.	Very home oriented	A	B	C	D	E	Very worldly
_____	19.	Very greedy	A	B	C	D	E	Not at all greedy
_____	20.	Not at all kind	A	B	C	D	E	Very kind
_____	21.	Indifferent to others' approval	A	B	C	D	E	Highly needful of others' approval
_____	22.	Very dictatorial	A	B	C	D	E	Not at all dictatorial
_____	23.	Feelings not easily hurt	A	B	C	D	E	Feelings easily hurt
_____	24.	Doesn't nag	A	B	C	D	E	Nags a lot
_____	25.	Not at all aware of feelings	A	B	C	D	E	Very aware of feelings of others
_____	26.	Can make decisions easily	A	B	C	D	E	Has difficulty making decisions
_____	27.	Very fussy	A	B	C	D	E	Not at all fussy
_____	28.	Give up very easily	A	B	C	D	E	Never gives up easily
_____	29.	Very cynical	A	B	C	D	E	Not at all cynical

_____	30.	Never cries	A	B	C	D	E	Cries very easily
_____	31.	Not at all self-confident	A	B	C	D	E	Very self-confident
_____	32.	Does not look out only for self; principled	A	B	C	D	E	Looks out only for self; unprincipled
_____	33.	Feels very inferior	A	B	C	D	E	Feels very superior
_____	34.	Not at all hostile	A	B	C	D	E	Very hostile
_____	35.	Not at all understanding of others	A	B	C	D	E	Very understanding of others
_____	36.	Very cold in relations with others	A	B	C	D	E	Very warm in relations with others
_____	37.	Very servile	A	B	C	D	E	Not at all servile
_____	38.	Very little need for security	A	B	C	D	E	Very strong need for security
_____	39.	Not at all gullible	A	B	C	D	E	Very gullible
_____	40.	Goes to pieces under pressure	A	B	C	D	E	Stands up well under pressure

## Appendix K: Unmitigated Communion (UC)

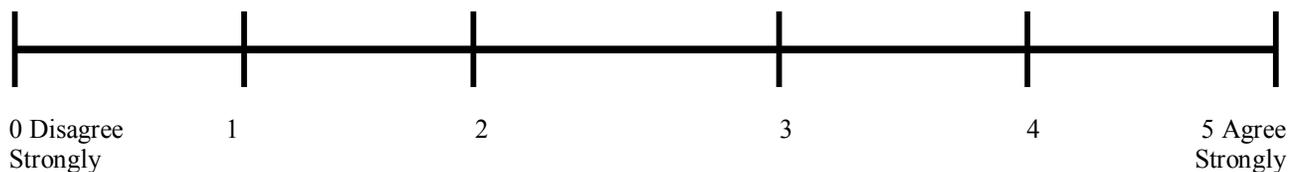
Instructions: Using the scale below, place a number in the blank beside each statement that indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree. Think of the people close to you—friends or family—in responding to each statement.



- \_\_\_ 1. I always place the needs of others above my own.
- \_\_\_ 2. I never find myself getting overly involved in others' problems.
- \_\_\_ 3. For me to be happy, I need others to be happy.
- \_\_\_ 4. I worry about how other people get along without me when I am not there.
- \_\_\_ 5. I have no trouble getting to sleep at night when other people are upset.
- \_\_\_ 6. It is impossible for me to satisfy my own needs when they interfere with the needs of others.
- \_\_\_ 7. I can't say no when someone asks me for help.
- \_\_\_ 8. Even when exhausted, I will always help other people.
- \_\_\_ 9. I often worry about others' problems.

## Appendix L: Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)

Below is a series of statements concerning men and women and their relationships in contemporary society. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement using the following scale: 0=disagree strongly to 5=agree strongly.



- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. No matter how accomplished he is, a man is not truly complete as a person unless he has the love of a woman.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Many women are actually seeking special favors, such as hiring policies that favor them over men under the guise of asking for “equality”.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. In a disaster, women ought not necessarily to be rescued before men.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. Women are too easily offended.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. People are often truly happy in life without being romantically involved with a member of the other sex.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. Feminists are not seeking for women to have more power than men.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. Many women have a quality of purity that few men possess.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. Women should be cherished and protected by men.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. Women seek to gain power by gaining control over men.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. Every man ought to have a woman that he adores.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. Men are complete without women.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. Women exaggerate problems they have at work.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. Once a woman gets a man to commit, she usually tries to put him on a short leash.

- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. When women lose to men in fair competition, they typically complain about being discriminated against.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. A good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. There are actually very few women who get a kick out of teasing men by seeming sexually available and then refusing male advances.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19. Women, compared to men, seem to have a superior moral sensibility.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20. Men should be willing to sacrifice their own well-being in order to provide financially for the women in their lives.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 21. Feminist are making entirely reasonable demands of men.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 22. Women, as compared to men, tend to have a more refined sense of culture and good taste.

## Appendix M: Schwartz Value Survey (SVS)

In this questionnaire you are to ask yourself: "What values are important to ME as guiding principles in MY life, and what values are less important to me?" There are two lists of values on the following pages. These values come from different cultures. In the parentheses following each value is an explanation that may help you to understand its meaning.

Your task is to rate how important each value is for you as a guiding principle in your life. Use the rating scale below:

0--means the value is not at all important, it is not relevant as a guiding principle for you.

3--means the value is important.

6--means the value is very important.

The higher the number (0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6), the more important the value is as a guiding principle in YOUR life.

-1 is for rating any values opposed to the principles that guide you.

7 is for rating a value of supreme importance as a guiding principle in your life; *ordinarily there are no more than two such values.*

In the space before each value, write the number (-1,0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7) that indicates the importance of that value for you, personally. Try to distinguish as much as possible between the values by using all the numbers. You will, of course, need to use numbers more than once.

AS A GUIDING PRINCIPLE IN MY LIFE, this value is:

<b>opposed to my values</b>	<b>not important</b>	<b>important</b>	<b>very important</b>	<b>of supreme importance</b>
-1	0    1	2    3    4	5    6	7
_____ 1.	EQUALITY (equal opportunity for all)			
_____ 2.	INNER HARMONY (at peace with myself)			
_____ 3.	SOCIAL POWER (control over others, dominance)			
_____ 4.	PLEASURE (gratification of desires)			
_____ 5.	FREEDOM (freedom of action and thought)			
_____ 6.	A SPIRITUAL LIFE (emphasis on spiritual not material matters)			
_____ 7.	SENSE OF BELONGING (feeling that others care about me)			
_____ 8.	SOCIAL ORDER (stability of society)			
_____ 9.	AN EXCITING LIFE (stimulating experience)			
_____ 10.	MEANING IN LIFE (a purpose in life)			

- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. POLITENESS (courtesy, good manners)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. WEALTH (material possessions, money)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. NATIONAL SECURITY (protection of my nation from enemies)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. SELF-RESPECT (belief in one's own worth)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. RECIPROCATION OF FAVORS (avoidance of indebtedness)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. CREATIVITY (uniqueness, imagination)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. A WORLD AT PEACE (free of war and conflict)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. RESPECT FOR TRADITION (preservation of time-honored customs)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19. MATURE LOVE (deep emotional and spiritual intimacy)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20. SELF-DISCIPLINE (self-restraint, resistance to temptation)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 21. DEATCHMENT (from worldly concerns)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 22. FAMILY SECURITY (safety for loved ones)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 23. SOCIAL RECOGNITION (respect, approval by others)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 24. UNITY WITH NATURE (fitting into nature)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 25. A VARIED LIFE (filled with challenge, novelty and change)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 26. WISDOM (a mature understanding of life)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 27. AUTHORITY (the right to lead or command)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 28. TRUE FRIENDSHIP (close, supportive friends)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 29. A WORLD OF BEAUTY (beauty of nature and the arts)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 30. SOCIAL JUSTICE (correcting injustice, care for the weak)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 31. INDEPENDENT (self-reliant, self-sufficient)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 32. MODERATE (avoiding extremes of feeling and action)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 33. LOYAL (faithful to my friends, group)

- \_\_\_\_\_ 34. AMBITIOUS (hard working, aspiring)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 35. BROAD-MINDED (tolerant of different ideas and beliefs)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 36. HUMBLE (modest, self-effacing)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 37. DARING (seeking adventure, risks)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 38. PROTECTING THE ENVIRONMENT (preserving nature)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 39. INFLUENTIAL (having an impact on people and events)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 40. HONORING OF PARENTS AND ELDERS (showing respect)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 41. CHOOSING OWN GOALS (selecting own purposes)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 42. HEALTHY (not being sick physically or mentally)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 43. CAPABLE (competent, effective, efficient)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 44. ACCEPTING MY PORTION IN LIFE (submitting to life's circumstances)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 45. HONEST (genuine, sincere)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 46. PRESERVING MY PUBLIC IMAGE (protecting my "face")
- \_\_\_\_\_ 47. OBEDIENT (dutiful, meeting obligations)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 48. INTELLIGENT (logical, thinking)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 49. HELPFUL (working on the welfare of others)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 50. ENJOYING LIFE (enjoying food, sex, leisure, etc.)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 51. DEVOUT (holding to religious faith and beliefs)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 52. RESPONSIBLE (dependable, reliable)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 53. CURIOUS (interested in everything, exploring)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 54. FORGIVING (willing to pardon others)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 55. SUCCESSFUL (achieving goals)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 56. CLEAN (neat, tidy)

## Appendix N: Listserves contacted with research request (non-exhaustive)

Aamr-psych@listserv.nodak.edu  
 Abpsi-dc@yahoogroups.com  
 Accta@lists.apa.org  
 Apa-trauma@yahoogroups.com  
 Awp-woc@pete.uri.edu  
 Azpalist@lists.apa.org  
 Bospsy-j@yahoogroups.com  
 City\_psychologists@yahoogroups.com  
 C-psych@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
 Clinical\_neurofeedback\_exchange@yahoogroups.com  
 Clinicalpsychologists@groups.msn.com  
 Clinical-psychologists@listserv.nodak.edu  
 Clinicalpsychologists@yahoogroups.com  
 Christianpsychologists@yahoogroups.com  
 Counselors@yahoogroups.com  
 Crit\_psych\_net@egroups.com  
 Dcopmod@yahoogroups.com  
 Diversegrad-l@listserv.american.edu  
 Division17@lists.apa.org  
 Division17cc@lists.apa.org  
 Division43@lists.apa.org  
 Division45@lists.apa.org  
 Division51@lists.apa.org  
 Eppp\_prep@yahoogroups.com  
 Espt@yahoogroups.com  
 Ethniccounselors@yahoogroups.com  
 Expsych@yahoogroups.com  
 Fempsychmom@yahoogroups.com  
 Fortbendpsychassn@yahoogroups.com  
 Freud-study@yahoogroups.com  
 Future\_psychologists@yahoogroups.com  
 Gpa@gapsychology.org  
 Humanisticpresence@yahoogroups.com  
 Lampe@yahoogroups.com  
 Jewishpsych@yahoogroups.com  
 Jung\_group@yahoogroups.com  
 Jung-l@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
 Kypsych@lsv.uky.edu  
 Logotherapytoday@yahoogroups.com  
 Newtherapistresources@yahoogroups.com  
 Newlyqualified@groups.msn.com  
 Newpsychlist@yahoogroups.com  
 Nlpa\_l@sfsu.edu  
 Ohioprescribingpsychologists@yahoogroups.com

Oregon\_psychologists\_discussion\_group@yahoogroups.com  
Orthodox-psychotherapy@yahoogroups.com  
Powr-l@pete.uri.edu  
Psychat@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
Psych-ci@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
Psyhx@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
Psychoan@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
Psypov@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
Psy-fl@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
Psyforum@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
Psy-med@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
Psy-ma@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
Psy-nh@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
Psy-nj@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
Psy-usa@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
Psy-wi@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
Psychiatristliterature@yahoogroups.com  
Psychologists@egroups.com  
Psychologists@yahoogroups.com  
Psychologistsforanimals@yahoogroups.com  
Psychologists\_zone@yahoogroups.com  
Therapeer-network@yahoogroups.com  
Sdpsych@maelstrom.stjohns.edu  
Sf\_psychologists@yahoogroups.com  
Valuepsychlist@yahoogroups.com

**VITA**  
Jaime M. Fenton

**EDUCATION**

Doctor of Philosophy, Counseling Psychology *December 2005*  
    Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA (APA-Accredited)  
Master of Science, Counseling *May 2001*  
    Georgia State University, Atlanta, Georgia (CACREP-Accredited)  
Bachelor of Arts, Psychology *May 1998*  
    Penn State University, University Park, Pennsylvania

**CLINICAL EXPERIENCE**

Post-Doctoral Fellowship  
    Center for Counseling and Student Development, University of Delaware (8/05-present)  
Pre-Doctoral Internship  
    Center for Counseling and Student Development, University of Delaware (8/04 - 8/05)  
Outpatient Drug and Alcohol Counselor  
    Pyramid Healthcare, State College, Pennsylvania (8/03-6/04)

**DOCTORAL AND MASTER'S PRACTICA**

Counseling and Psychological Services (CAPS), Penn State (6/02-5/04)  
MBNA Career Services Center, Penn State (1/02-5/02)  
CEDAR Clinic, Penn State (8/01-5/02)  
Counseling Center, Georgia Institute of Technology (8/00-5/01)

**TEACHING EXPERIENCE**

*Fundamentals of the Helping Relationship*, West Chester University, Counseling and  
    Educational Psychology Department (9/05-present)  
*Foundations of Guidance and Counseling Processes*, Penn State University World  
    Campus (5/02-present)

**GROUP FACILITATION EXPERIENCE**

*M.Ed. Graduate Training Process Group*, Center for Counseling and Student Development,  
    University of Delaware (2/05 - 5/05)  
*Body Image Concerns Group*, Center for Counseling and Student Development, University of  
    Delaware (8/04 - 5/05)  
*Depression Group*, Counseling and Psychological Services, Penn State (8/03-5/04)  
*Undergraduate Women's Process Group*, Counseling and Psychological Services, Penn State  
    (8/03-5/04)  
*Career Decision-Making Group*, MBNA Career Services, Penn State (1/02-4/02)  
*Undergraduate Process Group*, Counseling Center, Georgia Institute of Technology (8/00-5/01)

**PUBLICATIONS**

Matthews, C., Lorah, P., & Fenton, J. (2005). Addiction treatment experiences of GLB  
    clients: A qualitative study: Manuscript under review.  
Matthews, C., Lorah, P., & Fenton, J. (In Press). Toward a grounded theory of lesbians'  
    recovery from addiction, *Journal of Lesbian Studies*.