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Ayesha Khurshid

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The likelihood of use of social power bases in school consultation:
A comparison of school psychologists
and school counselors

By
Ayesha Khurshid

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Faculty of
Mississippi State University
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in Educational Psychology
in the Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology

Mississippi State, Mississippi

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2014

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and school counselors

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The current study followed the methodology used by Erchul and colleagues (eg., Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001, Getty & Erchul, 2008) to assess and compare the likelihood of use of social power bases reported by school psychologists and school counselors. Furthermore, because the Interpersonal Power Inventory (consultant usage form; IPI-Form CT-U) was used for the first time with the school counselors, the factor structure of the instrument was also examined using Principal Component Analysis. 2 components, harsh and soft power, were identified which were similar to the harsh and soft power sources identified in the previous studies using IPI. Similar to previous research with school psychologists, the results of the current study also demonstrated that IPI-Form CT-U is an internally consistent measure that can be used to assess the likelihood of use of soft and harsh power bases in school counselors.

The current study emphasized the similarities and underscored the differences between the likelihood of use of social power bases among school counselors and school psychologists. Overall, both school psychologists and school counselors rated soft power bases higher than harsh power bases. Informational power, expert power, and legitimate

power of dependence were the three highest rated power bases by school psychologists and school counselors. In comparison to school psychologists, school counselors reported a higher likelihood of using soft power when consulting with a teacher. A comparison between the individual social power ratings by school psychologists and counselors revealed that school counselors rated expert power, legitimate power of dependence, and impersonal coercion higher in terms of their likelihood of use, as compared to the school psychologists. The differences in the ratings by school counselors and school psychologists may be explained in the light of the differences in their training, the nature of their role and their placement in school settings.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my husband, Naseer Khan, and my son, Numair Khan. I really appreciate all the support and encouragement that you provided, and the sacrifices that you made during my graduate school years.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Consultation is viewed as a time efficient and cost effective way of addressing the needs of school children by working with the adults in children's lives (Gutkin & Conoley, 1990). The purpose of the current investigation is to evaluate and compare the likelihood of use of social power bases by school psychologists and school counselors in school consultation based on their responses to the Interpersonal Power Inventory - Consultant Form - Usage (IPI-Form CT-U; Getty & Erchul, 2009, Wilson, Erchul, & Raven, 2008). In order to prepare the reader for the current study, a review of important literature related to school consultation and application of the social power/influence model to school consultation will be presented in the introductory and literature review sections of the manuscript. Statements of the problem, the purpose of the study and related research questions will be presented at the end of this chapter. Additionally, brief definitions of related terms will be provided. Finally, important implications and limitations to this study will be provided at the conclusion of the chapter.

Conceptual Framework for the Study

In recent years, consultation in schools has become a major role of school psychologists (Dougherty, 2005) and school counselors (Erford, 2007) in the delivery of professional services. School consultation is a process that involves the provision of

educational and psychological services by a specialist (i.e., consultant) to a staff member (i.e., consultee) to assist the consultee in effectively and collaboratively addressing the referral problems of a student or a group of students (i.e., client/clients; Erchul & Martens, 1997). In schools, the consultant may be a school psychologist or a school counselor and the teacher is often the consultee. Most often, the client in school consultation is a referred student or a group of students who are experiencing social, emotional, or behavioral concerns that are interfering with their learning or the learning of their peers. The consultant in most cases does not directly interact with the client (i.e., direct therapy or intervention), thus it is also called an indirect service delivery model. The goal of school consultation is two-fold: to assist the consultee in solving a work-related problem and at the same time providing him/her with the necessary tools to effectively address similar problems in the future in order to possibly prevent the problems from emerging again in similar circumstances (Gutkin & Curtis, 1999; Zins, Kratochwill, & Elliott, 1993). Thus, school consultation aims to provide both remedial and preventative services.

Models of school consultation differ widely based on the theoretical framework, perception of the school problems, approach in addressing the referral problems, conceptual goals, and specified roles of the school consultant (Gallessich, 1974; Sheridan, Richard, & Smoot, 2000). Some popular models of consultation include the Mental Health Consultation (MHC) model, Organizational Consultation (OC) model, and Behavioral Consultation (BC) model (Dougherty, 2005). These and other models used in school consultation will be discussed in detail in the literature review; however, a brief review will be provided here.

The MHC model developed by Caplan is based on the psychodynamic orientation, and is primarily concerned with addressing mental health issues (Erchul & Schulte, 1993). Caplan maintained that, although the focus of consultation is the work-related problem, the consultee's inner conflicts must be effectively addressed indirectly during consultation process as these conflicts may have an impact on the problem faced by the consultee (as cited in Dougherty, 2005). In contrast to the MHC model, the main goal of OC is to enhance the human and organizational capabilities of the client system. In OC, the client is always the organization or system as a whole and the goal is to modify organizational structure or processes that affect the organization (Dougherty, 2005). School psychologists and counselors often engage in systems-level consultation where the focus of consultation is not specifically on one individual, and the entire school system serves as the client. Alternatively, BC has its roots in behavior modification and behavior analysis techniques (Martens, 1993). Unique to the BC model is its reliance on an empirically-derived problem solving process (i.e., problem identification, problem analysis, plan implementation, and plan evaluation) that is used to guide consultation service delivery as well as evaluation of the effectiveness of consultant recommendations and consultee implementation of intervention strategies (Bergan & Kratochwill, 1990; Kratochwill, Elliott, & Busse, 1995). In relation, other models have been derived from the original BC model, including the Conjoint Behavioral Consultation model (Sheridan, Kratochwill, & Bergan, 1996) and Direct Behavioral Consultation model (Watson & Robinson, 1996).

Regardless of the model that is utilized by a consultant, several characteristics of the consultation process differentiate it from other helping professions (Caplan, 1970;

Conoley & Conoley, 1982; Dougherty, 2005, Gutkin & Curtis, 1999). Among all the characteristics, the triadic nature of consultation is one of the most significant characteristics (Erchul & Sheridan, 2008). By definition and conceptualization, consultation involves the consultant, the consultee, and the client system (Williams, 2000). The consultant does not work directly with the client, but rather guides the consultee who is then responsible for providing direct services to the client system. Another important characteristic of the consultation process is that the direct focus of consultation is on work-related rather than personal problems of the consultee (Dougherty, 2005; Erchul, & Sheridan, 2008). Consultation is considered to be a voluntary relationship in which the consultee may decide to accept or reject the advice, recommendations, and guidance of the consultant (Dougherty, 2005). In most consultation models, the consultant-consultee relationship is assumed to be non-hierarchical and collaborative in nature. Thus, the consultant and the consultee work together to resolve problems, however, the responsibility for carrying out an agreed-upon consultation plan resides mostly with the consultee (Dougherty, 2005). The unique characteristics of consultation have made it a preferred mode of service delivery for school professionals because it allows them to serve a larger population of students through the consultation process as opposed to delivering direct services to a limited number of referred students.

Although the roles of school psychologists and school counselors have become increasingly similar, school psychologists have historically and traditionally provided services to at-risk student populations and students with disabilities, whereas school counselors typically work with the entire school population (Fagan & Wise, 2000). In

fact, many school psychologists are limited with regard to the populations they serve based on the funding resources utilized to compensate them for their professional services (e.g., federal or state funds allocated for special education services). Some of the areas that school psychologists are more likely to be trained in comparison to school counselors include applied behavioral analysis, mental health screening and diagnosis, research methods and application of research to classroom practices, and specific disability areas (National Association of School Psychologists [NASP], n.d.). On the other hand, school counseling programs place less emphasis on working with students with disabilities (Fagan & Wise, 2000). Instead they typically focus on providing services to the general education population (e.g., preparation and implementation of school guidance curriculum, scheduling of classes, provision of counseling to regular education students; American School Counseling Association [ASCA], n.d.) that may allow them to spend more time with the teachers outside of a typical consultation situation regarding a student. Regardless of the differences, both fields stress the importance of consultation as an effective and time efficient mode of providing services to schools.

Due to the importance of consultation in schools, there is a strong need for research to guide the practice of school consultation. In relation, Erchul and Sheridan (2008) noted that the current state of school consultation research can be best described as “promising, but underdeveloped” (p. 3). Several factors may impact the effectiveness of consultation process, including orientation of the consultant and consultee, experience of the consultant and consultee, nature of the referral problem, setting of the referral problem, and systems level supports. However, one of the most important factors is the use of social power bases within school consultation (Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001;

Erchul, Raven, & Wilson, 2004). As such, the following sections will briefly discuss the importance of assessing social power bases in school consultation, provide a brief overview of Raven's (1992) typology of social power, and summarize the research assessing social power bases in school consultation.

Statement of the Problem

Effective consultation is the key to prevent and remediate school-based problems. Gutkin and Conoley (1990) contended that in order to help the students in schools, it is imperative to focus attention on the adults (e.g., teachers and parents) who have direct and frequent contact with children and adolescents on a daily basis. Because consultation involves interaction between the consultant and consultee, the consultation outcome or success is strongly influenced by the consultant's abilities to influence the professional behavior of the consultee (Conoley & Gutkin, 1986). Given the importance of social influence, recent empirical investigations have assessed social power and social influence in school consultation (e.g., Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001; Erchul et al., 2004).

In 1959, French and Raven proposed a model of interpersonal influences comprising five bases of social power. These social power bases included coercive power, reward power, legitimate power, expert power, and referent power (French & Raven, 1959). Informational power was later included in the model (Raven, 1965). The model was expanded, and differentiation within the six social power bases led to 14 power sources (Raven, 1992). Thus the expanded model included the following social power bases: positive expert, negative expert, positive referent, negative referent, impersonal reward, personal reward, impersonal coercion, personal coercion, direct information, indirect information, formal/legitimate position, legitimacy of reciprocity,

legitimacy of equity, and legitimacy of dependence. Table 1 provides a summary of the 14 social power bases from a school consultation perspective.

Table 1

Social Power Bases

Power Base	Definition
Impersonal Reward	Consultee does as the consultant says because s/he perceives that the consultant can provide a tangible reward.
Personal Reward	Consultee complies to gain consultant's personal approval.
Impersonal Coercion	Consultee complies because s/he perceives that the consultant has the power to tangibly punish her/him for noncompliance.
Personal Coercion	Consultee complies because s/he thinks that the agent will disapprove of or dislike her/him for not complying.
Formal Legitimate/Position	Consultee feels an obligation to do as the consultant suggests because the consultant enjoys a position of authority in the social system.
Legitimacy of Reciprocity	Consultant feels an obligation to comply because of what the consultant has done already to benefit the target.
Legitimacy of Equity	Consultee feels obligated to do as the consultant suggests due to an imbalance of expended effort and as a way of compensating for consultants previous hard work and possible inconvenience incurred.
Legitimacy of Dependence	Consultee feels obligated to comply because the consultee feels that the consultant needs the consultee's help to accomplish a certain action.

Table 1 (Continued)

Power Base	Definition
Positive Expert	Consultee does as told by the consultant because consultant is perceived to be an expert in his field.
Negative Expert	Consultee does the opposite of what the consultant recommends as the consultant is perceived to be thinking only of her/his own interest.
Positive Referent	Consultee does what the consultant recommends because s/he wants to be associated with the consultant.
Negative Referent	Consultee does the opposite of what the consultant recommends because the consultee does not want to be associated with the consultant.
Direct Information	Consultee complies because the information provided by the consultant makes logical sense.
Indirect Information	Consultee complies with the consultant requests because s/he has heard from other sources that recommendations by the consultant have been useful in similar situations.

Note: From “The Relationship Between Gender of Consultant and Social Power Perceptions within School Consultation” by W.P. Erchul, B.H. Raven, and K. E. Wilson, 2004, *School Psychology Review*, 33, p. 584. Copyright 2004 by National Association of School Psychologists, Bethesda, MD. Adapted with permission of the publisher.

The power bases have been further classified into hard/harsh (e.g., impersonal reward, impersonal coercion, personal coercion, legitimate power of reciprocity, legitimate power of equity) and soft (e.g., positive expert, personal reward, positive referent, legitimate dependence, direct information, legitimate position) power bases as applied to school consultation (Erchul, Raven & Ray, 2001). Soft power bases are subtle and non-coercive, whereas hard power bases are overt and coercive.

Based on the social power and influence model proposed by Raven (1992), Raven, Schwarzwald, and Koslowsky (1998) developed Interpersonal Power Inventory (IPI) to measure 11 out of the 14 power bases. Erchul, Raven, and Ray (2001) modified the Interpersonal Power Inventory and investigated school psychologists' perceptions of social power bases in consultation with teachers. The investigators found that school consultants perceived soft power bases, specifically direct informational power and expert power as most likely to result in teacher compliance (Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001). In another study, Erchul, Raven and Whichard (2001) reported similar results, and also concluded that school psychologists perceived soft power bases as more effective when consulting with teachers. Furthermore, they also evaluated teacher's perceptions and found that teachers also perceived soft power bases more effective than harsh power bases. The studies discussed thus far assessed school psychologists' and teachers' perception regarding effectiveness of social power bases in school consultation. In a more recent study, Wilson, Erchul and Raven (2008) examined the likelihood of use of social power during consultation with teachers as reported by the school psychologists using IPI-Form CT-U. Again, the authors found that school psychologists reported a higher likelihood of using soft power bases in comparison with harsh power bases. Specifically, school psychologists rated a higher likelihood of using direct informational, positive expert, and legitimate power of dependence as compared to the remaining power bases.

Overall, the studies assessing the perceptions of effectiveness and likelihood of the use of social power bases concluded that school psychologists preferred soft power bases during consultation with teachers (Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001; Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001; Wilson et al., 2008). However, the studies conducted so far included

school psychologists as school consultants. School counselors' perception regarding the effectiveness of social power bases and likelihood of using social influence has not been examined. An investigation of school counselors' likelihood of use of social power bases would serve as an important extension of current school consultation literature. In addition, evaluating similarities and differences in the likelihood of use of social power bases among school psychologists and school counselors would be important to researchers and practitioners interested in this literature base.

Statement of Purpose

Given the need to extend the current school consultation literature base (e.g., Erchul & Sheridian, 2007), the purpose of the present study is to explore the likelihood of the use of social powers by school psychologists and school counselors when consulting with teachers. Specifically, the current study aims to potentially replicate and extend the findings of Erchul and colleagues (Wilson et al, 2008) and to further apply the methodology developed by those authors to assess how school counselors approach consultation with teachers. Further, the research will explore if differences between school psychologists and school counselors exist in their likelihood of using social power bases. As noted earlier, consultation is an interpersonal process, and success of consultation depends on the consultant's ability to positively influence the consultee's professional behavior. As such, it is important to gain a complete understanding of the interpersonal processes that underlie consultation among these two groups of professional service providers. Overall, studying the manner in which consultants from different fields approach similar consultation situations will expand the scientific knowledge base and

will lead to more effective consulting practices in schools. The following research questions are proposed to address the purpose of the present study.

Research Questions

The current research will assess the likelihood of the use of soft and harsh power bases by school psychologists and school counselors. Previous research in the area of school psychology has indicated that school psychologists as consultants rate a higher likelihood of using soft power bases as compared to hard power bases. Because school counselors are increasingly involved in similar consultation situations with teachers, it would be interesting to explore if school counselors also indicate a higher likelihood of soft power bases use in teacher consultation. Previous research in the area of school psychology also concluded that within soft power bases, school psychologists reported a higher likelihood of using informational and positive expert power when consulting with teachers (e.g. Wilson et al., 2008). Although, the distinction between roles and functions of school psychologists and school counselors is sometimes difficult to make, differences in training standards may exist that can impact how professionals from the two fields approach consultation. Thus, the IPI-Form CT-U is utilized to evaluate the reported use of soft and harsh power bases by school psychologists and school counselors when provided with a consultation scenario. Including the validation of the factor structure of IPI-Form CT-U for the school counseling sample, the current research will attempt to answer the following questions:

Research Question 1: Do the school counselor data reveal a similar factor structure (i.e. soft-harsh dichotomy) as reported by previous studies?

Research Question 2: What is the likelihood of use of 11 power bases reported by school psychologists and school counselors?

Research Question 3: How do school psychologists and school counselors compare on their likelihood of using soft and hard/harsh power bases?

Research Question 4: Is there a difference in likelihood of use of the individual soft power strategies by type of school consultant (school psychologist vs. school counselor)?

Research Question 5: Is there a difference in likelihood of use of the individual hard/harsh power strategies by type of school consultant (school psychologist vs. school counselor)?

Significance of the Study and Summary

School psychologists and school counselors both consult with teachers in order to effectively address the referral concerns presented by students. To date, the use of social power bases by school counselors has not been examined. The current study will assess and compare the likelihood of use of social power bases by school counselors and school psychologists. Comparing the likelihood of using social power bases by school psychologists and school counselors will assist in understanding consultation practices by the professionals from the two fields and expand the current knowledge base within the school consultation literature. The following chapter will expand on the concepts presented in this chapter and provide a review of school consultation literature related to the perception and the likelihood of use of social power bases.

Definition of Terms

Client. In consultation process, a client is the person (or a group), regarding whom the consultee needs assistance. The consultant does not directly deal with the client but assists the consultee in dealing with the problem (Dougherty, 2005).

Consultant. A consultant is a human service professional with specialized knowledge, who directly assists another person (consultee) in solving a work-related problem involving a client (a person, group, or organization; Dougherty, 2005).

Consultation. Consultation is a type of helping relationship in which a human service professional (consultant) assists another person (consultee) with a work related or caretaking-related problem involving a client or a client system (Dougherty, 2005).

Consultee. A consultee is often a human service professional or a caretaker (e.g., a parent, teacher, or a supervisor), to whom the consultant provides assistance with a work-related or caretaking-related problem (Dougherty, 2005).

Hard power bases. Hard power bases included means of influencing the target, that are harsh, assertive and heavy-handed. (Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001; Shwarzwald, Koslowsky, & Ochana-Levin, 2004).

School counselor. School counselors are certified or licensed professionals who possess a master's degree or higher in school counseling. School counselors address the social, emotional, academic and career needs of the students by implementing a comprehensive school counseling programs (American Counseling Association, 2005).

School psychologist. School psychologists are certified or licensed professionals who are trained in both psychology and education. School psychology training involves knowledge of mental health and educational interventions, child development, learning,

behavior, motivation, curriculum and instruction, assessment, consultation, collaboration, school law, and systems (NASP, n.d.).

Social influence. Social influence is defined as a change in the belief, attitude, or behavior of the target of influence, which results from the action or presence of an influencing agent (Dougherty, 2005).

Social power. Social power is the potential for social influence. It is the ability of an individual (influencing agent or power figure) to bring about a change in the belief, attitude, or behavior of another individual (target of influence) using resources available to him/her (Dougherty, 2005; French & Raven, 1959).

Soft power bases. Soft power bases are the means of influence or resources available to the influencing agent that are positive, subtle and non-coercive (Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001).

Limitations of the Study

As noted by the authors of previous studies, the IPI-Form CT-U is a self report measure, and it is possible that the responses of the consultants may not be representative of the actual likelihood of use of social power (Getty & Erchul, 2009; Wilson et al., 2008). Moreover, the study assesses the likelihood of use reported by the consultants rather than actual use of social power bases, and thus the results will be interpreted with caution. Finally, the responses are limited to those professionals who agreed to participate in the study and may not be representative of practitioners who decided not to participate in the current research project.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The primary purpose of the current investigation is to evaluate whether differences exist in the reported likelihood of use of social power bases by school counselors and school psychologists on the IPI-Form CT-U when presented with a consultation scenario. Thus, the literature review is designed to provide the reader with a foundation for the present study. As such, the chapter will begin with a definition and discussion of the nature of consultation. This information will be followed by a discussion regarding consultation in the schools with focused attention placed on the types of consultation, models used and activities performed by school counselors and school psychologists. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of social power bases in school consultation and review of related research studies leading to a justification for the current study.

Definition and Nature of Consultation

Consultation is defined as a process that involves a human service professional (i.e., consultant) assisting a consultee with a work related problem involving a client or client system (Dougherty, 2005). Lippitt and Lippitt (1986) defined consultation as a “two-way interaction”, aiming at assisting “a person, group, organization, or a larger system in mobilizing internal and external resources to deal with problem confrontations

and change efforts” (p. 1). The roots of modern consultation practices can be traced back to the development of organizational development theory and practice (Parsons, 1996), and the early writings and practice of Caplan (1964, 1970) who introduced a formal consultation model known as Mental Health Consultation.

Certain features of consultation distinguish this professional service from other professional activities such as supervision, teaching, intervention, and psychotherapy (Erchul & Martens, 2006). As evident from the definition, consultation is triadic in nature. Consultation involves the consultant, the consultee (or consultees), and the client (or clients). The consultant has special knowledge and expertise in a particular field that the consultee might lack training and experience in, and thus is able to provide assistance to consultee regarding a problem with a client. It is important to remember that the target of consultation is a work related rather than a personal problem of a consultee. The consultant-consultee relationship is often seen as co-ordinate and nonhierarchical. Both parties contribute to the consultation process and work together towards better client outcomes. The consultee retains the professional responsibility for the client’s welfare and the consultant is not directly responsible for identified client outcomes.

Consultation encompasses a wide variety of practices and activities. Based on consultant functions and consultation focus, consultation can be classified into five dimensions; including the nature of the consult, problem and goal definitions, theory and assumptions, consultant skills, and modes of consultation (Parsons, 1996). These dimensions will be discussed briefly.

Dimension I: The Nature of the Consult

Consultation may be remedial or preventive (developmental) in nature. Remedial consultation includes request for assistance regarding an existing problem that is leading to ‘dysfunction’ and the consultee is unable to address it on his/her own. Developmental consultation refers to provision of preventive services. For example, consultation activities that focus on problem solving abilities and stress management skills are developmental in nature. Whereas remedial consultation is mostly initiated by a consultee, developmental consultation may often be initiated by the consultant (Parsons, 1996).

Dimension II: Problem and Goal Definition

Consultation may be classified in terms of how the problems and the goals are defined. Parsons (1996) discussed problems and goals in terms of their breadth and depth. A problem may involve a single individual or it may be broader involving a group or an entire system. Similarly, problems may involve a single issue or multiple issues. A problem may be identified as an obvious issue or may have hidden contributory factors. Depending on the nature of the problems being addressed, goals vary in breadth and depth as well. For example, a consultant’s goal may involve dealing with a change for an individual or the goal might be to bring a change in the entire system. Similarly, the consultant might approach a problem involving a single issue in a different manner, whereas the goal/goals set up to remediate or prevent complex or multiple problems might be different, involving the use of different resources and different consultation strategies (Parsons, 1996).

Dimension III: Theory and Assumption

The theoretical orientation of a consultant impacts his/her consultation practices. Models of school consultations vary considerably based on the theoretical framework, perception of the school problems, approach to dealing with the problems, their goals, and also in terms of the role of the school consultant (Gallessich, 1974; Sheridan, Richard, & Smoot, 2000). Some popular models of consultation include the MHC model, OC model, and BC model (Dougherty, 2005).

MHC formally emerged as a consultation model as a result of the efforts of Gerald Caplan, a psychiatrist in Israel, who was given the responsibility to work with immigrant youths in 1949. Caplan immediately realized that in order to meet the needs of 16,000 immigrant adolescents located at different institutions, a service delivery model was required that would focus on prevention and would allow a limited number of mental health care providers to meet the mental health care needs of the community (Caplan, Caplan & Erchul, 1994). Caplan later moved to the United States and with the help of his colleagues at Harvard Medical School continued his efforts to develop and define the MHC model (Caplan, et al., 1994).

Caplan (1995) defined MHC as the process of interaction between two professionals, the consultant and consultee, in regards to consultee's work related problem. The work-related problem mostly involves one or more clients served by the consultee and the consultant is regarded to have expertise in the identified problem area (Caplan, 1995). Another aspect of consultation, as defined by Caplan, is that the consultee is responsible for the client/clients outcome. Caplan's MHC model was influenced by a psychodynamic perspective and Caplan maintained that although the

focus of consultation is the work-related problem, the consultee's inner conflicts must be addressed indirectly during consultation process because they impact the problem faced by the consultee (Dougherty, 2005).

MHC is divided into four types. These include consultee-centered, client-centered, program-centered administrative, and consultee-centered administrative consultation (Caplan, 1995). In consultee-centered consultation, the consultant focuses on the consultee's professional shortcomings and the goal of the consultation is to assist the consultee in functioning effectively with the client, whereas in client-centered consultation, the consultant focuses on the client's problems, makes a diagnosis, and provides recommendations for treatment/intervention to the consultee (Mendoza, 1993). Program-centered administrative consultation results from requests by administration to help with administrative functions, plan development and implementation for organizations (Mendoza, 1993). In consultee-centered administrative consultation, the consultant is invited by any member of administration to facilitate them in solving program related administrative problems. However, the consultant does not participate in program development but rather he or she assists the consultee in learning problem solving skills (Mendoza, 1993).

OC can be traced back to the 1890s in industrial settings where the main focus of consultation was to improve manufacturing productivity (Dougherty, 2005). Later historical events, such as the Great Depression, World War I, and emerging group dynamic research, shaped the path for organizational consultation and introduced it into different organizational contexts including educational settings (Dougherty, 2005).

OC involves a professional (i.e., consultant) who works with an organization (i.e., client system) with the goals of managing change in an organization and increasing its effectiveness (Sinha, 1979). The main goal of organizational consultation is to enhance the human and organizational capabilities of the client system (Dougherty, 2005). The consultees are the people who provide direct services to the clients/client system and the organization is always the client/client system (Dougherty, 2005).

According to Gutkin and Curtis (1999), OC is based on the perspectives derived from various theories including force field analysis (Lewin, 1951), general systems theory (von Bertalanffy, 1968), and domain theory (Dappen & Gutkin, 1986). Four elements thought to be important components for successful organizational/systems consultation include mutual adaptation, involvement of all primary stakeholders, endorsement of change efforts by system administrators, and a coherent collaborative problem solving system (Gutkin & Curtis, 1999).

Schein (1987, 1988, 1999) described 3 different types of OC models: purchase of expertise model, doctor-patient model, and process model. In the purchase of expertise model, the consultee purchases the services of a consultant to solve a previously determined problem. In the doctor-patient model, the consultant's role is to both diagnose the problem and prescribe a set of solutions to deal with it. Unlike the purchase of expertise model where the consultant is restricted to use his expertise to solve a previously determined problem, the consultant also diagnoses and defines the problem in the doctor-patient model. The process model focuses on the process events, rather than content of the problems. It views consultation as a set of activities on the part of the

consultant which help the consultee to perceive, understand, and act upon process events which occur in the consultee's environment.

BC has its roots in behavior modification and behavior analysis techniques (Martens, 1993). In BC, problems are conceptualized with an emphasis on the role of environmental factors (e.g. environmental antecedents and consequences) and functional relations between the behavior and the environment (Witt, Gresham & Noell, 1996). The model proposed by Bergan and Kratochwill (1990) has served as the cornerstone for the development of BC. Bergan and Kratochwill described BC as an indirect service delivery model in which the consultant provides services to the consultee following a systematic problem solving approach. Bergan (1977) indicated that four steps are used in the problem-solving approach including problem identification, problem analysis, plan or treatment implementation, and treatment or plan evaluation.

The first stage, problem identification, includes defining the problem in behavioral terms, estimating the frequency, intensity and/or duration of the behavior, tentative identification of environmental conditions (antecedents and consequences) that may maintain the target behavior, and establishing a procedure to collect base line data (Erchul & Schulte, 2009; Kratochwill, Elliot, & Stroiber, 2002). Problem analysis involves an in depth analysis of the problem and designing an intervention based on the environmental conditions surrounding the problem behavior (Dougherty, 2005). A functional analysis may be conducted to confirm or disconfirm the function of the problem behavior (Feldman & Kratochwill, 2003; Parker, Skinner, & Booher, 2010). The third stage of problem-solving model involves implementation of the intervention plan. During this stage, the consultant provides assistance and training to the consultee in order

to implement the intervention with adequate levels of treatment integrity (Dougherty, 2005). The intervention plan is dynamic and data are monitored to determine if a change or revision in the plan is necessary. The last stage of BC, treatment evaluation, involves determining whether the treatment plan was effective. The consultant also discusses continuation, modification or termination of the plan during this stage (Bergan & Kratochwill, 1990; Erchul & Schulte, 2009). Two well known models of BC include the Conjoint Behavioral Consultation model (CBC) and the Direct Behavioral Consultation (DBC) model. For specific information regarding these models, please see research conducted by Sheridan, Kratochwill, and Bergan (1996) and Watson and Robinson (1996).

An emerging model of consultation is the Rational Emotive Behavioral Consultation (REBC) model. REBC focuses on negative emotions and irrational beliefs of the consultee (Bernard & Diguseppe, 2000). A major assumption is the consultee seeks the consultant's help because he or she is unable to deal with the client's problems or environmental issues due to intense negative emotions. Unless, the consultee's beliefs and emotions are directly addressed, the type of intervention proposed might not be effective. Consultative alliance is likened to therapeutic alliance, and emotional empathy, unconditional positive regard, and warmth are considered to be important factors in facilitating consultative relationship (Bernard & Diguseppe, 2000).

Dimension IV: Consultant Skills

Forms and functions of consultation may be categorized in terms of consultant skills (Parsons, 1996). Based on the skills employed during consultation, a consultant may be described as either a 'content' or a 'process' expert. A consultant may assume the

role of a content expert or technological expert when the problem is assumed to arise due to lack of specific knowledge and information. A content expert, then provides information, principles, or programs directly with the assumption that application of the information will remediate the immediate problem. On the other hand, a process consultant enters a consultation situation with the assumption that a problem may be a result of underlying processes that the consultee is unaware. Thus, the role of a process consultant is to increase the consultee's awareness of processes and patterns that might be causing or maintaining the problems. It is assumed that increased awareness of these processes help the consultee better deal with the problematic situation by bringing a change in self and making efforts to change the situation. A process consultant's role is that of a facilitator and coordinator, unlike the content consultant whose role closely resembles that of an expert problem solver (Parsons, 1996).

Dimension V: Modes of Consultation

Kurpuiš (1978) has described four modes of consultant behavior including the provisional mode, prescriptive mode, collaborative mode, and meditational mode. In provisional mode, the consultee initiates consultation. Although, the consultant provides specialized services, the consultee retains the control of consultation process in terms of making decisions. In other words, the consultant often works as a content expert providing specialized knowledge and the relationship ends when the consultee decides he or she has learned the requested information. In the prescriptive mode, the consultee initiates the consultation and the role of the consultant is that of a diagnostician who diagnoses the problem and provides a prescription for intervention. The consultant guides and controls the consultation process, but the responsibility of implementing the

intervention is assumed by the consultee. Collaboration in consultation is based on the assumption that both the consultant and the consultee possess specialized knowledge related to their specific fields and working in collaboration will increase accuracy of problem identification and efficacy of interventions selected. In collaborative mode, both the consultant and the consultee play active roles and their relationship is described as co-equal. The previously discussed consultation modes assume more of a reactive than proactive stance. Additionally, consultation is usually initiated by the consultee, and the consultant's role is to respond either as an expert or a collaborator. Alternatively, in mediational mode, the consultant takes a proactive stance by recognizing problems and initiating the consultation when the consultee may not have recognized a problem or felt the need to address it (Kurpui, 1978).

The previously described dimensions help in understanding the nature and characteristics of consultation activities. However, as indicated by Parsons (1996), consultation should be understood as a dynamic multidimensional process. Rarely would one find a consultation situation that would fit into one or another of these dimensions exclusively. Thus, consultation must be viewed as a multidimensional activity that moves along multiple continuums and allows for flexibility in form and focus. The following section discusses the history and nature of consultation as it is specifically practiced in schools by school psychologists and school counselors.

Consultation in Schools

Erchul and Martens (2002) defined school consultation as:

School consultation is a process for providing psychological and educational services in which a specialist (consultant) works cooperatively with a staff

member (consultee) to improve the learning and adjustment of a student (client) or group of students. During face-to-face interactions, the consultant helps the consultee through systematic problem solving, social influence, and professional support. In turn, the consultee helps the client(s) through selecting and implementing effective school-based interventions. In all cases, school consultation serves a remedial function and has the potential to serve a preventive function. (pp. 13-14)

In a typical school consultation situation, a referred student or a group of students are mostly the clients, while the teacher who initiates consultation regarding the client's problems is the consultee. However, consultation may also be initiated by the school administrators regarding implementation of programs affecting the entire school system or even a school district, leading towards an increase in organizational development consultation as an activity many school consultants engage in (Curtis & Stollar, 2002; Dougherty & Dougherty, 1991; Smaby, Harrison, & Nelson, 1995).

Changes in special education service delivery led to an increased need for professionals who were capable of consulting with school staff regarding educational and psychological needs of the students (Erchul & Martens, 2006). As a result, there has been a significant increase in the number of school psychologists and school counselors providing services to public schools since the congress passed the Education for All Handicapped Children Act in 1975 (PL 94-142; later re-named the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act [IDEA] in 1990; Humes & Hohenshill, 1987). This act led to the adoption of multidisciplinary team evaluation procedures and an increase in the number of children being provided a continuum of services in their least restrictive

environment (LRE). The LRE provision propagated the mainstreaming efforts in schools. Thus, these changes in the public education system broadened the scope of school professionals, such as school psychologists and counselors, to include consultation more often than it was utilized in the past. In the 1980s, the Regular Education Initiative also emphasized the need for support and consultation for regular education teachers (Friend, 1988; National Association of School Psychologists, 1993; 2000).

More recently, the reauthorization of IDEA, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA, 2004) permitted Response to Intervention (RtI) to be used as an alternative to the IQ/achievement discrepancy model for special education eligibility determination and also stressed on the importance of School Wide Positive Behavior Intervention and Supports (SW-PBIS or PBIS). Because RtI stresses that interventions should be implemented with integrity and monitored before a formal eligibility decision is made, the role of professionals with specialized knowledge in theory, research and the practice of RtI is important for helping school staff acquire the necessary skills to help with RtI implementation (Erchul & Sheridan, 2008; Knotek, 2007; for detailed description of RtI model refer to Fuchs & Fuchs, 2005). Similarly, implementation of SW-PBIS also highlights the need for consultants (e.g., school psychologists and school counselors) who can assist and support the school-based teams at various levels (e.g., primary, secondary, and tertiary; Erchul & Sheridan, 2008). For a detailed description of SW-PBIS, please refer to School-wide positive behavior support: Implementers' blueprint and self-assessment (Sugai et al., 2010).

Educators are faced with numerous issues related to student diversity (Aud et al., 2010), school violence, bullying, and drug abuse (Robers, Zhang, & Truman, 2010) on

one hand and high stakes testing, increased accountability (Carnoy, Elmore, & Siskin, 2003; Nichols & Berliner, 2007), and education budget cuts (Johnson, Oliff, & Koulish, 2008) on the other. During such times, professionals from a variety of disciplines can play an important role by employing consultation as a time efficient and cost effective way of addressing the needs of schools. Professionals from the disciplines of school psychology and school counseling often share the responsibilities of helping the students succeed in the educational environment. However, the distinction between their roles and responsibilities in a school setting is not always clear to the consumer (e.g., administrators, teaching staff, parents). Therefore, the following sections will discuss the specific roles and functions of each school-based professional.

School Psychologists as School Consultants

School psychologists have been providing educational and mental health services as consultants in schools since the 1920s (French, 1990). In recent years, consultation in schools has become a major role of school psychologists (Dougherty, 2005). As school psychologists are trained in mental health and educational interventions, child development, learning, behavior, motivation, curriculum and instruction, assessment, consultation, collaboration, school law, and systems (NASP, n.d.), they work with students, teachers, parents, and administrators in resolving issues that impact the school system and students' psychological (i.e., intellectual, social, emotional) and academic functioning, providing both direct and indirect services. Although school psychologists spend more time in traditional assessment, they have reported a desire to be more involved in consultation and view consultation as a valued activity (Stoiber & Vanderwood, 2008). NASP has also stressed the importance of consultation for school

psychologists. NASP graduate training standards outline consultation and collaboration as an important part of training for future school psychologists. The standards clearly indicate that school psychologists have knowledge and skills in various consultation models and practices and be able to effectively consult with parents, teachers and school administration (NASP, 2010). Also, the shortage of school psychologists has highlighted the importance of indirect services provision. NASP recommends the ratio of school psychologist to students to be 1:1000, but due to the shortage of professionals in the field, many states are unable to achieve the recommended ratio making consultation a more desired service delivery activity by professionals.

In a typical consultation situation, a school psychologist works with a teacher (consultee) to resolve work-related problems that involves a student or a group of students (client/clients). Thus, the school psychologist works indirectly with the student/students by working directly with the teacher (Fagan & Wise, 2000). The problems often observed in schools can be classified into two main categories: academic or emotional/behavioral skills problems. Since school psychologists are trained both in the areas of psychology and education, they can offer a great deal of assistance to teachers who are dealing with such issues. The school psychologist and teacher work together to solve the problem. However, the teacher is ultimately responsible for client outcomes and has the choice to accept or reject school psychologists' assistance and suggestions.

Although not originally intended for schools, the previously discussed MHC model strongly influenced consultation research (Erchul & Sheridan, 2008) and consultation practice (Bramlett & Murphy, 1998) in the field of school psychology. As

behaviorism gained momentum in the field of psychology, school psychologists incorporated behavioral principles and techniques into their services. BC in schools became a popular and widely used mode of service delivery. Thus the consultation model by Bergan and Kratchowil (1990) served as the foundation for development of BC in the field of school psychology (Kratchowil, Sladeczek, & Plunge, 1995).

The forms of consultation most commonly used by school psychologists include MHC, BC, Crisis Consultation, and OC (Fagan & Wise, 2000). MHC, BC and OC have been previously discussed in this chapter. Crisis consultation involves indirectly dealing with a student who is going through a crisis. This model is based on an assumption that a student in crisis might be more comfortable in discussing the situation and accepting assistance from a familiar teacher rather than an unfamiliar school psychologist. Therefore, the school psychologist provides the teacher with necessary resources and discusses strategies that empower the teacher to assist the student (Fagan & Wise, 2000).

School Counselors as Consultants

School counselors provide a variety of services in schools. According to ASCA (2003), the primary goal of school counseling programs is to help students succeed through positive academic, career, social, and personal development. The roles and functions of today's school counselors include, but are not limited to, providing emotional, developmental, and behavioral services, academic guidance and support services, implementation of career development programs, school crisis intervention services, as well as providing preventive services to students, their families, and school personnel (ASCA, 2003). The expansion of school counselors' roles and functions as well as the inability of most school districts to maintain the ideal counselor-to-student

ratio has made it impossible for the counselors to individually reach all students.

However, through consultation, school counselors can indirectly assist more students by working with the teachers, parents, and school personnel who have direct and frequent contact with students (Erford, 2007).

School counselors have been providing consultation services in schools for many decades. During the early 20th Century, the emergence of the vocational guidance movement and the need to focus on quality and utility of existing educational processes strongly influenced the scope of the field of school counseling (Herr & Erford, 2007). During the 1920s and 1930s school counselors' roles expanded beyond vocational guidance and towards social, personal, and educational aspects of students' lives. In his landmark report about the practice of school counseling, Wrenn (1962) emphasized consultation with teachers, parents, and administrators as an important role of school counselors. Although, McGehearty (1968) believed that providing individual student counseling was an important part of the school counselor's job, he also emphasized the need for consultation. McGehearty indicated that with the use of their skills as consultants, a limited number of school counselors could influence a large number of students and simultaneously prevent future problems. During the 1970s, it became apparent that due to the high student-to-counselor ratio, it was impossible for the counselors to provide individual face to face private sessions with students (Brigman, Mullis, Webb, & White, 2005) and consultation became a widely accepted role of school counselors (Schmidt, 2003).

Professional counseling organizations and accrediting agencies have stressed the importance of consultation. The Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related

Educational Programs (CACREP, 2009) recommended that school counselors receive adequate training and possess the knowledge and skills to consult with teachers, parents, and administrators. The national model for school counseling programs by the ASCA also strongly emphasized the consultation role of school counselors for the promotion of academic, personal-social, and career success of the students (ASCA, 2003).

Although consultation and counseling are similar in terms of their focus on helping others (Brown, Pryzwansky, & Schulte, 1998), employing individual meetings or group education as interventions, and maintaining confidentiality, the two processes are very different with regard to service provision by professionals (Dollarhide & Saginak, 2008). Consultation is described as an indirect service, whereas counseling is a direct service provided by the counselor directly to the client (Meador & Rogers, 1979; Reschly, 1976). Counseling is dyadic in nature involving the counselor and the client (Erford, 2007) and focuses on the personal growth and adjustment of the client (Parsons, 1996). Consultation, on the other hand is conceptualized as triadic, involving the consultant, the consultee, and the client aiming at assisting the consultee regarding a work related problem (Dougherty, 2005).

The consultation models most commonly described in counseling literature are MC, BC, and OC (e.g. Parsons & Kahn, 2005). Another consultation model that has gained popularity in the counseling literature is the Adlerian model. The Adlerian Model of consultation is based on Individual Psychology and applies the assumptions and content of Adlerian personality theory to consultation. The Adlerian model stresses on the social meanings of behavior and emphasizes the need to belong (Dinkmeyer & Carlson, 2006; Kern & Mullis, 1993). It assumes that children exhibit problem behaviors

when they feel like they do not belong to a group and feel discouraged. Identification of the goal of children's behavior rather than the cause is the main objective of Adlerian model. The goal of consultation is to assist teachers in understanding the goals of clients' behavior using the theory of human behavior, and help them identify and create alternative goals for the student (Carlson, Dinkmeyer, & Johnson, 2008). The Adlerian model of consultation stresses encouragement and intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation while working with students, teachers, and parents (Brigman & Webb, 2008). Natural and logical consequences to behavior are encouraged (Carlson et al., 2008).

Comparison of School Psychology and School Counseling

As discussed earlier, consultation has emerged as an important role performed by both school psychologists and school counselors in recent years given changes in legislation, accreditation training standards, and service delivery ratios. Although a clear distinction between the consultant roles and responsibilities of school psychologists and school counselors is difficult to discern, differences between the professional identities, training, and traditional practices of the professionals from the two fields may influence how these professionals approach consultation. Additionally, studies have indicated differences regarding their roles and responsibilities as perceived by others (e.g., teachers and administrators; Abel & Burke, 1985; Gilman & Medway, 2007; Watkins, Crosby, & Pearson, 2001). School personnel perceptions about the services provided by school psychologists and school counselors may also impact the manner in which school psychologists and school counselors engage in consultation processes.

School psychology training includes a knowledge base drawn from several disciplines, including clinical psychology, educational psychology, and special education

as well as their applications to school settings (Cobb et al., 2004). In most states, school counseling training programs do not include training with special education populations (NASP, n.d.). The respective requirements of the credentialing bodies of school psychologists and school counselors differ in terms of number of graduate years and internship hours. In order to be credentialed as a school psychologist, a minimum of the equivalent of three years of graduate school training leading to a masters or educational specialist degree, including a minimum of 1200 hours of supervised internship is required, whereas the minimum requirement to be credentialed as a school counselor in most states includes a masters degree in school counseling (Lum, 2003) and a minimum of 600 hours of supervised internship (CACREP, 2009).

As compared to school counselors, school psychologists are more likely to be trained in behavioral analysis, mental health screening and diagnoses, conducting and applying research methods to classroom practices, and specific disability areas (NASP, n.d.). Historically, the identity of school psychologists has been linked to providing psycho-educational assessment for special education and school psychologists traditionally provided services to at-risk students and special education population (Fagan & Wise, 2000). In fact, still to this day, school psychologists are often expected to provide services to at-risk and special education population because they are compensated for their services by federal or state funding for special education. Additionally, there is a shortage of school psychologists and a high ratio of students to school psychologist often forces school psychologists to perform more assessment related activities in order to meet the federal, state and school district mandates regarding special education eligibility rather than provide other services (Reschly, 2000). Although, the

roles and responsibilities of school psychologists have evolved over the years to include providing a variety of services, including preventive and remediation services to the whole school population, teachers continue to perceive psycho-educational assessment as the primary activity performed by school psychologists (Gilman & Medway, 2007). School counselors, on the other hand, typically work with the whole school population and are less involved in servicing special education populations directly through assessment or intervention activities (Fagan & Wise, 2000).

School counseling programs are based on counseling theory, processes, and techniques as applied to school settings (Stone & Dahir, 2006). Counseling is the most significant component of the counselor's professional identity (Stone & Dahir, 2006). The school counselors' job is to assist with mild educational and developmental issues as well as to assist students in personal, social, emotional, and career development (Thompson & Rudolph, 2000). School counselors do not provide services for severe mental health problems and refer students to mental health professionals when long term therapeutic interventions are required (Thompson & Rudolph, 2000). Some of the roles and responsibilities that teachers perceive as being exclusively performed by school counselors include crisis intervention, individual and group counseling, in-service training, and preparation and delivery of the school guidance curriculum (Gilman & Medway, 2007).

Gilman and Medway (2007) assessed the perceptions of regular and special education teachers about the services provided by school psychologists and school counselors. Overall, both groups of teachers had limited knowledge of the roles and functions of school psychologists and reported lower satisfaction with the services

provided by school psychologists than those provided by school counselors. Special education teachers rated consultative services provided by both school counselors and school psychologists as equally helpful, whereas the regular education teachers rated school counselor consultations better than those provided by school psychologists. Compared to special education teachers, the regular education teachers reported less knowledge of the services provided by school psychologists and lower satisfaction with the school psychology services than school counseling services. Another important finding by Gilman and Medway was that the special education teachers reported frequently complying with the recommendations provided by the school psychologists in psychological reports, while the regular education teachers only reported occasional compliance. Gilman and Medway speculated that their results may have been influenced by the possibility that both groups of teachers had a limited contact with the school psychologists and thus the participants were not aware of the services that the school psychologists were trained to perform. School counselors are often based within the schools, whereas most school psychologists provide services to multiple schools, and therefore school psychologists may appear to be transient and may not be as frequently assessable or visible to the teachers as the counselors who are available within the school settings (Gilman & Medway, 2007). The placement of school counselors on school premises may also allow them to frequently come into contact with teachers outside a typical consultation situation regarding students.

In summary, school psychologists and school counselors are helping professionals who provide preventive and remedial services to students in schools. The accreditation and regulatory bodies of both professions have outlined the importance of providing

direct and indirect services (ASCA, 2003; NASP, n.d.). Despite, similar professional goals aimed at helping children succeed in school settings, differences exist between their histories, traditions, and training, as well as how their services are perceived by other school professionals. These differences may impact how their services are used and delivered. Although, consultation has been recognized as an important role performed by school psychologists and school counselors, a comparison between how school counselors and psychologists engage in the consultation process has not been empirically examined. In order to adequately prepare the reader for the comparison between school-based professionals, a review of social power bases in school consultation should be presented. Thus, the following section provides a discussion of consultation as an interpersonal process. Specifically, the social power/interaction model proposed by French and Raven (1959) is discussed, followed by a review of the research assessing the perception and likelihood of use of social power bases within school consultation.

Social Power Bases in School Consultation

Outcome research on consultation has documented that consultation is an effective way of dealing with school based educational and psychological problems (Busse, Kratochwill, & Elliott, 1995; Gresham & Noell, 1993; Sheridan, Welch, & Orme, 1996). Various factors impact the effectiveness of consultation process (Bramlett & Murphy, 1998). One important factor is social power and influence in school consultation (Erchul, Raven & Whichard, 2001). Since, consultation is an interpersonal process and the school consultants have the potential to impact the consultee, the success of consultation procedures warrants an understanding of social and interpersonal factors influencing consultation (Erchul et al., 2004).

Social influence is defined as a change in the target's behavior, attitudes, and/or beliefs as a result of interaction with the influencing agent; whereas social power is defined as the potential ability of the influencing agent to make use of available resources to bring about a change in the target (French & Raven, 1959; Raven, 2008). Thus, a consultant's ability to influence another person's attitudes, behaviors, or thinking may come from different sources. For example, when a consultant is trying to convince a consultee to adopt a certain strategy, he might provide the consultee with information related to the ease of use or the benefits of the suggested strategy, or the consultant may have the authority to provide the consultee with a reward for complying with the suggestion. In the first case, information is the source of power, whereas in the latter, the source of power is a reward. In both cases, the degree of influence will depend on the degree of source relevance to the consultee.

In 1959, French and Raven proposed a model of interpersonal influences comprising five bases of social power including coercive power, reward power, legitimate power, expert power, and referent power. Later, informational power was included as the sixth power base (Raven, 1965). The bases of powers were seen as either dependent or independent of social interaction between the target of influence and the influencing agent (Erchul & Raven, 1997), and may or may not require surveillance by the influencing agent in order to elicit compliance (French & Raven, 1959). More detail on the bases of social power and mechanisms of employment are provided in the subsequent sections.

Original Social Power Bases

In order to create a foundation for the reader, a brief description of the original power bases by French and Raven (1959; Raven, 1965) is provided here. In consultation models, the target of influence is the consultee (e.g. classroom teacher) and the consultant is the influencing agent (e.g., school counselor, school psychologist). The basis of *reward power* is the influencing agents' ability to reward the target of influence (French & Raven). Therefore, compliance from the target will be dependent on the probability of receiving a reward and thus is dependent on the interaction between the influencing agent and the target. Also, compliance in this form of power requires observation (i.e., evaluation of integrity) by the influencing agent (French & Raven, 1959). *Coercive power* stems from the target's perception that the influencing agent has the ability to punish him or her for noncompliance. The change resulting from coercive power is interaction dependent, and varies with the level of observability or surveillance of the target of influence's compliance (French & Raven, 1959). The third power base, *legitimate power* is based on the target of influence's perception that the influencing agent has a legitimate right to exert influence and the target is obliged to comply with his/her request. The bases of legitimate power may include personal characteristics (e.g., intelligence, age, experience, etc.), position in social structure and designation by a legitimizing agent (e.g., administrator). According to French and Raven, legitimate power is mostly highly dependent on the influencing agent but may become independent as influencing agent's request may become incorporated in the target's value system. Compliance to the requests of the influencing agent is not dependent on the level of surveillance. *Referent power* stems from the sense of similarity and/or feelings of

identification with the influencing agent. For example, the target of influence may perceive the influencing agent to have similar work experiences and values. Referent power may be dependent on or independent of interaction with the influencing agent but compliance is not dependent on the level of surveillance or observability by the influencing agent (French & Raven, 1959).

Expert power is based on the target's perception that the influencing agent possesses knowledge and expertise in the area. Like referent power, compliance is initially dependent on the influencing agent, but may become independent with passage of time (French & Raven, 1959). The sixth social power base later added by Raven (1965) is the informational power. *Informational power* is at work when the target of influence complies with the influencing agent's request because he or she perceives the agent's message as relevant to the situation at hand (Raven, 1965). Expert power is different from informational power in that it is based on the agent's expertise, whereas informational power is based on the target's perceived relevance of the message regardless whether the agent is viewed as an expert. Informational power is also different from other power bases as it is not viewed as socially dependent (French & Raven, 1959).

Expansion of Six Power Bases

Based on continuing research, the social power bases model (French & Raven, 1959; Raven 1965) was expanded and differentiation within the 6 social power bases led to 14 power sources (Raven, 1992). Each form of social power source will be discussed in subsequent paragraphs.

Forms of coercive and reward powers. Coercive and reward power are classified into impersonal and personal forms. Impersonal coercive and reward powers

simply refer to the original definitions of coercive and reward powers, that is, they are based on the perception that the consultant has the ability to punish or reward the consultee for non compliance and compliance respectively (Erchul & Raven, 1997). Personal coercive and reward powers involve personal disapproval or approval of the consultant by the consultee (Erchul & Raven, 1997; Raven, 1992, 2008).

Forms of legitimate power. Further differentiation of legitimate power has led to the identification of 4 power sources including formal legitimacy (position power), legitimacy of reciprocity, legitimacy of equity and legitimacy of dependence (Erchul & Raven, 1997, Raven, 1992). Legitimate position power is based on the perception that the consultant enjoys a position in the social system and by virtue of this position, the consultee is obliged to comply with his requests and suggestions. Legitimate power of reciprocity is a more subtle form of legitimate power. It is based on the perception that since the consultant has done his or her part to help the consultee, the consultee is now obliged to reciprocate by complying with the consultant's requests. Legitimate power of equity may be perceived in situations where the consultee has not complied with the consultant's request in the past, so in order to compensate for his/her past behavior and possible suffering of the consultant, the consultee is now obliged to follow the consultant's directions/requests (Erchul & Raven, 1997; Raven, 1992, 2008). Legitimacy of dependence is based on the perception that the consultant cannot institute a change and a change in the client or system is dependent upon the consultee's compliance. Because the influencing agent is viewed as powerless in instituting a change without consultee's help, this form of legitimate power is also called "power of the powerless" (Raven, 2008).

Forms of expert and referent powers. Expert power and referent power are further classified into positive and negative forms. Compliance in positive expert power is related to perceived expertise of the consultant in a particular area (Erchul & Raven, 1997; Raven, 1992). In other words, the consultee complies with the consultant's demands because the consultant is perceived to be an expert in the area. When the consultee does the opposite of what the consultant requests (i.e., noncompliance) because he or she believes that the consultant is thinking of his or her own interests, compliance is compromised because of negative expert power (Erchul et al., 2004). Positive referent power is based on the consultee's sense of similarity or identification and/or the desire to identify with the consultant. In other words, the consultee complies with the consultant because he or she wants to be associated with or identify with the consultant (Erchul et al., 2004). The negative referent form implies that the consultee does the opposite of what the consultant requests (i.e., active noncompliance) because he does not want to identify with or to be associated with the consultant. Martin (1978) contended that expert and referent powers are most relevant to school psychologists during school consultation.

Forms of informational power. Informational power is further differentiated into direct and indirect informational powers. Direct informational power is based on the perception that the information provided by the consultant makes logical sense. In other words, the consultee complies with the consultant requests because he or she thinks that the consultant's suggestions are acceptable given the current circumstances and related recommendations to address the referral concern. When the consultee complies because he/she has heard from other sources that the consultant's suggestions have worked well in similar situation, it is called indirect informational power (Raven, 1992).

Soft and Harsh Power Bases

The power bases have been further classified into hard and soft power bases as applied to school consultation (Erchul, Raven & Ray, 2001). Hard power bases tend to be overt, harsh and punitive (e.g., impersonal coercive power, personal coercion, legitimate equity, impersonal reward, etc.; Raven, Schwarzwald, & Koslowsky, 1998). For example, if a teacher complies with the consultant's request because he/she perceives that noncompliance may result in undesirable work assignments, this form of power is coercive and punitive. Harsh power bases, therefore, do not leave the target of influence much freedom to make a decision. As such, harsh power bases are socially dependent, i.e., the target relates the results of the influence directly to the action of the influencing agent (Raven, 2004).

On the other hand, the soft power bases tend to be subtle, positive and socially independent (e.g., positive expert, positive referent, direct informational, legitimate dependence; Raven, 2004; Raven et al., 1998). For example, a teacher may comply with the consultant's requests to implement a procedure because the consultant explains why the procedure is effective and how it is relevant to the problem. In this case, the teacher understands and accepts the reasons provided by the consultant. Therefore, informational influence brings about a cognitive change in the target. Soft power bases do not involve coercion and leave the target of influence with more freedom to make a decision than the harsh tactics (Raven, 2004).

Based on the social power bases, Raven (1992) proposed a model of interpersonal influence. The model presented here is described from the influencing agent's (i.e. the consultant's) perspective.

The Power/Interaction Model of Social Influence

The power/interaction model (Raven, 1992) involves the process of selecting, implementing, and evaluating the use of a social power base. The six main stages of the power/interaction model are: (a) the motivation to influence, (b) assessment of available power bases, (c) assessment of the costs of differing influence strategies, (d) preparing for the influence attempt, (e) choice of mode of influence, and (f) assessing the effects of influence.

This first phase of the power/interaction model involves assessment of the reasons to influence. The motivation to influence could include attaining extrinsic reinforcers or achieving interpersonal goals including desire for status or it may include the requirements of a role possessed by the influencing agent. The next phase involves assessment of the power bases that might be available and will be effective in a particular situation. During the third phase, the influencing agent also may analyze the costs and benefits of each influencing strategy not only in terms of their effectiveness but also in terms of other factors including time, effort, energy, secondary gains and losses, and personal values of both the influencing agent and the target of influence. Next, the influencing agent prepares for the influence attempt by setting the stage or scene, evaluating use of one or more of the power bases, and using other strategies to lower the possibility of resistance from the target. The next phase involves the influence attempt where the influencing agent (consultant) chooses to employ one or more power base and methods for influencing the consultee during interactions. During the last phase of the power/interaction model, the consultant assesses whether the influence attempt was successful and the outcome was desirable. The negative and positive effects are analyzed

in attempts to address any possible problems and guide future influencing attempts. The following section is designed to review the development of an instrument designed to evaluate the perceived effectiveness and usage of different power bases by school-based professionals during the consultation relationship (i.e., Interpersonal Power Inventory) and related research with this instrument.

Development of Interpersonal Power Inventory and Application of Social Power to School Consultation Research

Several instruments have been developed to study the original social power bases outlined by French and Raven (1959). However, these instruments had psychometric limitations (as discussed in Erchul, Grissom, & Getty, 2008). Some of these measures failed to operationally define French and Raven's power bases, or represented a social power base using a single item. Psychometric limitations of the available instruments, as well as a need to assess the expanded set of power bases (Raven, 1992) led to development of a new instrument. Based on the social power bases model, Raven et al. (1998) developed the Interpersonal Power Inventory (IPI) and evaluated the instrument across two studies. Eleven out of 14 possible power sources were included in this inventory. Negative expert power, negative referent power, and indirect informational power were excluded since these power sources were difficult to operationalize and measure. The IPI included two forms (e.g., supervisor and subordinate forms). Raven et al. (1998) conducted two studies to establish the reliability and validity of the instrument.

In the first study, the respondents read a hypothetical scenario involving a supervisor-subordinate interaction and were then asked to think about a similar situation that they had experienced in the past. Three hundred and seventeen students participated

in Study 1. The students were asked to respond as either supervisor or subordinate and rate 44 statements (4 items representing each of the 11 power bases) using a Likert-type scale (1= definitely not a reason for complying, and 7= definitely a reason for complying) and to indicate the extent to which the supervisor's use of a particular power base may have led to subordinate's compliance. The internal consistency of the instrument was found to be "moderate to good" after one item with the lowest correlation in each social power base category was dropped leading to 33 items in total (i.e., 3 items representing each of the 11 power bases). Principal component analysis (PCA) of the 33 items revealed 7 factors. These factors were labeled: impersonal sanctions (combining impersonal reward and impersonal coercion), credibility (expert and information), legitimate equity (legitimate equity and legitimate reciprocity), reference, personal sanctions (combining personal reward and personal coercion), legitimate position and legitimate dependence (Raven et al., 1998). Factor analysis of the mean scores of 11 power bases revealed two source factors, harsh and soft power bases. The harsh bases included legitimate power of reciprocity, impersonal coercive power, legitimate power of equity, impersonal reward power, personal coercive power, and legitimate power of position, whereas the soft bases included expert power, referent power, informational power, legitimate power of dependence, and personal reward power (Raven et al., 1998).

In the second study, 101 hospital workers in Israel responded to the IPI (subordinate form) consisting of 33 items and the short version of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ; Arvey, Bouchard, Siegal, & Abraham, 1989). The inter-correlation between the items within each power base was calculated. Results were similar to the original study (Study 1). Factor analysis on the 11 power bases revealed two factors,

harsh and soft power bases. Overall, the results of the analyses were similar to that of study 1 with the exception that in Israeli sample, legitimate power of position was included in the soft power bases and personal reward was included in the harsh power bases. Raven et al. (1998) noted that although legitimate power of position was included in hard power bases in the American student sample, legitimate power of position had characteristics of both harsh and soft bases as the factor loadings on soft and harsh bases were quite similar (.35 vs. .34). Analyses conducted to examine the relationship between likelihood of compliance and job satisfaction in the Israeli workers showed that greater compliance to soft bases was related to higher degree of job satisfaction, whereas compliance to harsh bases was not related to job satisfaction. Additionally, in both studies, higher likelihood of compliance was reported to be related to certain power bases (information, legitimate position, and expertise), whereas other power bases (legitimate reciprocity, equity, and impersonal coercion) were perceived to be less persuasive in gaining compliance (Raven et al., 1998).

Discussing the results of the two studies, Raven et al. (1998) suggested that the wording of the questionnaire included a hypothetical situation where supervisee complied to the supervisor's requests, and the respondents were asked to rate the items (related to different power bases) based on what they perceived to be the likely reasons for supervisee compliance; however, it did not include questions related to longevity of change, importance of surveillance, attribution of internal versus external causality of change, etc. and the authors predicted the possibility that the factor structure could differ if these factors were taken into account. Raven and colleagues also suggested that the results of the two studies should be interpreted keeping a supervisor-supervisee

relationship in mind as the questionnaire was worded for specific situation (Raven et al., 1998).

The original IPI was modified by Erchul, Raven, and Ray (2001) and the modified IPI - Form CT (Interpersonal Power Inventory – Consultant Form) was used to study the perception of social power bases in school consultation. The directions for completing the IPI-Form CT Form included asking the school psychologists to think about a time when they were consulting with a teacher who was initially resistant to the consultant's suggestions. Consultants were then provided with statements (assessing the power bases) and were asked to rate each statement based on their perceptions whether the considerations might have influenced the teacher's decision to comply with the consultants requests (Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001). The IPI-Form CT was found to be reliable and valid based on the preliminary data collected (Erchul, Raven & Ray, 2001). Intercorrelations among the items within each power base indicated adequate internal consistency when one item with the lowest correlation was dropped. Principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation yielded a 4-factor solution indicating that social power bases in school psychologist-teacher consulting relationship may be summarized by the following factors:

1. Position power (combining legitimate equity, legitimate position, personal coercion)
2. Impersonal sanction (combining impersonal rewards and impersonal coercion)
3. Personal power (combining personal reward, referent, legitimate dependence and legitimate reciprocity), and

4. Credibility (combining informational and expert).

A two factor solution was specified for the second PCA with varimax rotation. The following harsh-soft distinction emerged: a. Factor I (harsh bases) included impersonal coercion, impersonal reward, legitimate equity, personal coercion and legitimate reciprocity); and b. Factor II (soft bases) included legitimate dependence, informational, referent, personal reward, expert, legitimate position. Investigation of the school psychologist's perceptions of social power bases in consultation with teachers using the IPI-Form CT indicated that school psychologists perceive soft power bases as being more effective when consulting with initially reluctant teachers. Specifically, they found that school consultants perceived direct informational power and expert power, two soft bases as most likely to result in teacher compliance. Erchul, Raven, and Ray (2001) contended that their results were not surprising because the role of school psychologists as consultants includes empowering the teachers by providing them specific information and strategies that the teacher can use to resolve student problems at hand as well as prevent and deal with similar future problems. Some of the limitations of the study noted by Erchul, Raven and Ray included lack of generalizability of their findings because the respondents belonged to a single state and the return rate of the responses was low (31.9%). Erchul and colleagues also suggested that the study was based on participants' perceptions, which might be different from the actual use of social power bases in consultation. Additionally, the questionnaire presented a hypothetical scenario in which the consultee teacher was initially reluctant, and the authors noted that the power dynamics may be different when consulting with a willing, enthusiastic teacher. The researchers only evaluated school psychologists' perceptions and did not include

teacher's perceptions of their reasons for compliance. Erchul and colleagues suggested that future research addressing these limitations should include national sample of both teachers and school psychologists, and future research should attempt to link the social power base endorsements of consultants to actual outcomes in consultation (Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001).

Erchul, Raven, and Whichard (2001) examined both teachers' and consultants' perceptions regarding effectiveness of social power bases. The authors followed the same methodology as Erchul, Raven, and Ray (2001) with the following exceptions. All 44 items were retained as they were found to "hang" together in the analysis conducted on the current data set. The IPI-Form CT was also modified for administration to the teachers. The new form for the teachers, IPI-Form CE (consultee) demonstrated adequate reliability (coefficient alphas for components ranged from .82 to .92; Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001). Erchul and colleagues found that both teachers and school psychologists perceived soft power bases (positive expert, positive referent, direct informational, legitimate dependence, and personal reward) as being more effective than harsh bases (legitimate reciprocity, impersonal coercive, legitimate equity, impersonal reward, personal coercive, and legitimate position). Specifically expert power and informational power were reported to be most likely to result in teacher compliance by both teachers and school psychologists. Additionally, effect size analyses showed that school psychologists viewed impersonal and personal rewards as being more effective than did the teachers. Teachers on the other hand, rated legitimate position, informational and legitimate dependence power as more effective than did the school psychologists (Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001). Erchul and colleagues noted that although

informational, legitimate position, and legitimate dependence may be considered important by school psychologists, certain limitations in their use during consultation may have resulted in lower ratings of these power bases in comparison to teacher ratings. For example, successful use of informational power is only possible if the consultant is aware of what specific information is required by the consultee. Two limitations of this study were noted by the authors. The study used a self-report measure and the possibility that the participants' responses might have been biased and not true reflections of actual use of social power in consultation was noted by the authors. Second, the study reported concern regarding the teachers sample being small and possibly unrepresentative due to a low response rate, and inclusion of data from teachers who did not belong to the American Federation of Teachers and the National Education Association.

In order to examine whether female consultants approach consultation differently than male consultants, Erchul et al. (2004) examined the school psychologists' perceived effectiveness of 11 social power bases using the IPI-Form CT. The study was designed to evaluate influence of gender of the consultant and whether there were any differences in perceived effectiveness of social power bases between male and female school psychologists (i.e., consultants). The result of their study indicated that both male and females school psychologists viewed soft power bases as more effective in teacher consultation. Gender comparison revealed that females viewed soft power bases as more effective than males did when soft and hard power bases were grouped into two separate categories. This result was consistent with other research findings documenting that females are more likely than males to use indirect and collaborative techniques (Barry & Watson, 1996; Offermann & Schrier, 1985; Timmerman, 2002), and prefer to use rational

tactics (Harper & Hirokawa, 1988). Interestingly, the female consultants participating in the study were also found to perceive hard bases as more effective when compared to their male counterparts. However, when individual power bases were compared, no significant differences were found (Erchul et al., 2004). Erchul and colleagues (2004) suggested that it is important to exercise caution in interpreting the results. Although, the difference in reported effectiveness of hard power bases between male and female school psychologist was significant, the effect size was small ($ES = .42$). Erchul and colleagues stressed the importance of replicating the study before drawing specific conclusions from the results. Additionally, it is important to note that the respondents rated the effectiveness of the power bases as perceived by them, not the actual use.

The studies reviewed so far have evaluated perceived effectiveness of social power bases in school consultation. A recent study by Wilson, Erchul and Raven (2008) investigated the likelihood of use of social power bases. For the purpose of the current study, the IPI-Form CT was modified so that the participants were asked to rate the *likelihood of use* of the power bases rather than their *perceived effectiveness*. The directions to the new IPI-Form CT-U were as follows:

School psychologists, as consultants, may ask teachers to do their jobs somewhat differently and teachers may be initially reluctant to change. In such cases, teachers tend either to resist making the changes or to do as requested. We are interested in understanding the factors that a school psychologist considers when working with an initially reluctant teacher. Think about a specific instance when you were consulting with a particular teacher about a classroom problem and the teacher was initially reluctant to follow your suggestions or comply with your

requests. Asking this teacher to collect baseline data on a student's behavior or to start an intervention plan on a particular day are two examples of these types of situations. On the pages that follow, please indicate how likely you would be to use the factor described in each of the 33 items when deciding how you might try to influence this teacher (Wilson et al., 2008; p. 110)

School psychologists were asked to respond to IPI-Form CT-U that was reduced to 33 items (i.e., 3 items per power base). Specifically, the respondents were asked to rate how likely they would be to use a particular power base when consulting with a teacher. PCA with varimax rotation was conducted and two factors accounted for the majority of the variance. The two factors were harsh power bases (consisting of impersonal reward, personal reward power, impersonal coercion, personal coercion, legitimate equity, and legitimate reciprocity) and soft power bases (consisting of positive expert, positive referent, legitimate dependence, direct informational and legitimate position power). The slight difference in factor structure from what was reported in the Erchul, Raven, and Whichard study (2001) was explained in terms of the modification of the IPI-Form CT that now required the respondents to report likelihood of use of social power bases rather than their perceived effectiveness. Wilson and colleagues (2008) reported that the school psychologists indicated a higher likelihood of using soft power bases than harsh power bases. Additionally, school psychologists reported that they were more likely to use direct informational power (than the remaining ten power strategies) and positive expert power (than the remaining nine power strategies; Wilson et al., 2008). Previous studies by Erchul, Raven, and Whichard (2001), and Erchul, Raven, and Ray (2001) also found that the school psychologists rated direct informational and positive expert power as the two

most effective power bases in school consultation. After informational and positive expert powers, the likelihood of use of legitimate dependence and positive referent power were ranked higher than the remaining seven power bases (Wilson et al, 2008). Wilson et al. (2008) did not find gender differences in likelihood of use of social powers by school psychologists. Both male and female school psychologists rated a higher likelihood of using soft power bases in comparison with hard power bases.

Using the IPI-Form CT-U, Getty and Erchul (2009) evaluated gender differences in the likelihood of use of social power bases. Specifically, the authors compared female consultant/female teacher and male consultant/female teacher dyads. It was hypothesized that for the female consultant and female teacher dyad, the mean ratings for referent power base would be higher than the mean ratings for the other four soft power bases combined and for the male consultant and female teacher dyad, mean ratings for expert power would be higher than the combined mean ratings for the remaining four soft power bases. Results of a repeated measures ANOVA showed that the first hypothesis was not supported; female consultants did not report higher likelihood of using referent power when consulting with female teachers. In fact, the opposite was found to be true. Female consultants rated likelihood of using other soft power bases (based on combined mean of the rest of the four soft bases) as higher in comparison to likelihood of using referent power. The second hypothesis was supported by the study; male consultants rated the use of expert power more likely in comparison to the other four soft bases combined. Getty and Erchul explained this finding in the light of research examining communication style and attribution of power in men and women. Studies have revealed that men tend to be perceived as more assertive and unemotional during their interactions with others (Eagly,

1987, as cited in Getty & Erchul, 2009), and expert power is attributed more to men than to women (Offermann & Schrier, 1985). Discussing the limitations of the study, Getty and Erchul noted that their study did not compare the consultants' likelihood of social power bases use with male versus female teachers and it would be helpful to further explore likelihood of use of social power bases in female consultant/male teacher dyad. As identified in the previous studies, this study also used a self-report measure and it is possible that the respondents did not provide accurate reports. Additionally, the study investigated likelihood of use rather than actual use of social power bases and although the consultants believed that they were more likely to use certain power bases, their actual practice might be different.

The research conducted in this area indicates an increasing interest and awareness regarding social power bases within school consultations. Specifically, there is an increased emphasis on studying perceived effectiveness (Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001; Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001; Erchul, et al., 2004) and likelihood of use of social power bases in school consultation (Getty & Erchul, 2009; Wilson et al., 2008). However, current research conducted in the area of school consultation has focused only on using school psychologists as consultants. As discussed previously, school counselors also frequently provide school consultation services to the teachers. Although a few studies have evaluated the use of social power bases in counseling relationships (eg. counselor-client relationship; Guinnie & Tracy, 1994), no discoverable published research has addressed the use of social power bases by school counselors in consultation with teachers. Guinnie and Tracy (1994) used Power Base Assessment (PBA), a 12-item scale, to assess the power base preferences of 43 counseling students enrolled in a

counseling program at a Midwestern university. The students' were presented with two client scenarios and their preferences for using three power bases (expert, legitimate power, and referent power) were assessed. The results of the study indicated that the counseling students rated legitimate power higher than referent power, and referent power higher than expert power regardless of the client problem. The researchers in this study used an instrument measuring only three of the power bases originally proposed by French and Raven (1959; Raven, 1992). Anderson (2008) used IPI to assess the relationship of soft and harsh power bases with therapeutic alliance and outcomes. Anderson concluded that soft power bases were found to predict a positive working alliance during counselor-client interaction, whereas the use of harsh power predicted negative working alliance. Direct informational power was ranked the highest, followed by positive expert and referent powers respectively. Anderson's dissertation focused on counselor-client interactions, and how counselors' use of social influence explains the working alliance between the counselor and the client. However, as discussed earlier, counselor-client relationship is different from a consultant-consultee relationship. Investigating the likelihood of use of social power bases by school counselors during consultation with teachers will add to the literature regarding relational processes used by consultants in schools.

The purpose of the current research is to investigate whether there are any differences between school psychologists' and school counselors' reports regarding their likelihood of using social power bases in school consultation, and whether the consultants from the two different fields draw upon different social power bases while consulting with teachers regarding similar school-based problems. The methodology proposed to

address this overall purpose and the related research questions is presented in the subsequent chapter.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

The current chapter is designed to provide the reader with an overview of the methodology used by the present study to effectively address the proposed research questions. As such, this chapter will provide information related to the participants, instrumentation, materials and procedures used in this study.

Participants

School Counselors

A random listing of names and addresses of 1000 School Counselors was obtained from ASCA. Approval for the study was obtained from the IRB at Mississippi State University (MSU) prior to initiation.

There were 226 usable questionnaire packets returned out of the 1000 packets mailed to randomly selected School Counselors, resulting in a response rate of 22.6%. There were 198 respondents who identified themselves as females (87.6%) and 28 identified themselves as males (12.4%). School counselors had an average age of 42.3 years ($SD = 10.42$, age range: 25 - 66 years). The majority of the school counselors identified themselves as Caucasians (87.6%), while 7.5% identified themselves as African Americans, 3.5% as Hispanic, and 0.4% ($n = 1$) as "Other". Two participants (0.9%) did not specify their ethnicity. Ninety-four participants (43.7%) reported taking

formal courses in consultation as part of their graduate training, 117 reported taking no formal courses (54.4%) and 4 participants did not provide a response (1.8%). The average years of counseling experience reported by the respondents was 9.01 years ($SD = 6.34$, range: 1 - 36 years). Regarding the nature of their jobs, a majority of the participants indicated that they were hired by school districts as school counselors ($n = 197$, 87.2 %). Thirty-seven participants were Nationally Certified School Counselors (NCSC; 16.4%), 125 were Licensed School Counselors (LSC; 57.1%), and 17 were both NCSC and LSC (7.5%). Eleven participants had “Other” certification (State Certification, 4.9%) and 32 participants did not identify their certification status (14.2%). Regarding the level of education, the majority of participants (89.8 %) had a Master’s degree (MA, MS, or MEd) or a Specialist’s Degree, 8.0% had a Doctorate Degree, and 0.4% ($n = 1$) had a Bachelor’s Degree. Four participants failed to report their educational background (1.8%). There were 108 participants who reported that the consultation situation that they thought about while responding to the questionnaire involved a student with behavior problem (50.4%), 63 reported that it involved a student with academic problem (29.6%), 34 reported that it involved a student with both behavior and academic problems (15%), and only 1 participant reported that the consultation situation was related to another problem (0.5%; e.g. teacher related issue). Ten participants did not report the type of consultation situation that they were thinking of while responding to the questionnaire (4.4%).

Regarding the teachers, the respondents thought of when they completed the IPI Form CT-U, a majority was reported to be Caucasian ($n = 190$, 84.1%), 18 were African American (8 %), 5 were Hispanic (2.2%), 2 were Asian/Pacific Islander (0.9%) and 4

were reported to be of “mixed” ancestry or “other race” (1.8%). Seven respondents did not report the ethnicity of the teacher (3.1%). Mean age of the teachers was reported to be 42.20 ($SD = 9.51$, age range: 24 - 65 years). The majority of the teachers were reported to be females (85.4%), whereas only 11.5% were reported to be males and 7 respondents failed to report the gender of the teacher (3.1%).

School Psychologists

Because I was unable to obtain a listing of School Psychologists from the NASP, permission to use the archival data that was originally collected for and used in the research conducted by Getty and Erchul (2009) and Wilson et al. (2008) was obtained from Dr. Getty. The database consisted of 355 School Psychologists who responded to IPI-Form CT- U from a list of 1000 School Psychologists that was obtained from NASP by Getty and colleagues.

There were 101 participants (28.5%) who identified themselves as male, whereas 251 (70.7%) were female. Three participants did not identify their gender (0.8%). A majority of the respondents were Caucasian (93.5%), while 5 were African American (1.4%), and 7 were Hispanic (2%). There were 232 participants (65.4%) who reported that they had formal training in consultation, whereas 120 did not (33.8%). Three participants did not provide this information (1.7% missing data). There were 253 participants (71.3%) who reported having a Masters (MA, MS, MEd) or Specialist’s Degree, 25.9% had PhD or EdD, and six participants reported having a Bachelor’s degree (1.7%). Four respondents did not provide information regarding their educational background (1.1%). Mean age of the teachers was reported to be 40.2 years ($SD = 9.53$, age range: 23 - 65 years) and majority of the teachers were reported to be female ($n =$

335, 94.4%). Table 2 provides the demographic information (gender and ethnicity) for school counselors and school psychologists.

Table 2

Demographic Information for School Consultants

	School Counselors		School Psychologist	
	%	n	%	n
Gender				
Male	12.4	28	28.5	101
Female	87.6	198	70.7	251
No response	---	---	0.8	3
Ethnicity				
Caucasian	87.6	198	93.5	332
African American	7.5	17	1.4	5
Hispanic	3.5	8	2.0	7
Asian/Pacific Islander	---	---	.3	1
Other/Multiethnic	.4	1	1.1	4
No response	.9	2	1.7	6

Instrumentation

The IPI-Form CT-U; Getty & Erchul, 2009; Wilson et al., 2008) was used in the present study. As discussed in the literature review, the Interpersonal Power Inventory (IPI) was originally developed by Raven et al. (1998) to study social power bases in supervisor/supervisee relationship. Eleven of the 14 power bases described by Raven (1992) were included in the instrument. These power bases were impersonal reward, personal reward, personal coercion, impersonal coercion, expert power, informational power, legitimate equity, legitimate reciprocity, legitimate position, legitimate dependence and reference power. Raven and colleagues (1998) examined the internal consistency of the IPI across two cultures and found remarkably similar results. Coefficient alphas for the individual factors ranged from .67 to .86 for the U.S. sample and .63 to .88 for the Israeli sample. Results of factor analyses revealed that two-factor solutions (soft/harsh dichotomy) accounted for 60% and 59% variance in the IPI for U.S. and Israeli samples respectively.

The IPI was later modified by Erchul, Raven, and Ray (2001) to study school psychologists' perception of social power bases in consultation with teachers. The modified instruments, IPI-Form CT and IPI-Form CE were found to be reliable when used with school psychologists (Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001) and teachers (Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001). Coefficient Alphas reported by Erchul, Raven and Ray for the two factors (harsh & soft) were .80 and .86 and the two factors accounted for approximately 47% of the variance. Further modification of the IPI included changes in the instructions to assess the *likelihood of using* social power bases (Getty & Erchul, 2009; Wilson et al., 2008). Similar to previous studies (e.g., Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001;

Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001; Raven et al., 1998), two factors (soft and harsh power bases) emerged as a result of Principal Component Analysis conducted on the means scores of the 11 power bases. The two factors accounted for approximately 61% of the variance and the coefficient alpha for each factor was .89, which indicated reasonably high reliability (Wilson et al., 2008).

The validity of the IPI has been demonstrated through the replication of the harsh/soft distinction among the power bases across different studies exploring several types of relationships, e.g., Supervisor/subordinate (Raven et al., 1998), police captain/police officer (Schwarzwald, Koslowsky, & Agassi, 1998), and school psychologists/teachers (Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001; Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001; Getty, & Erchul, 2009; Wilson et al., 2008), as well as across different cultures (Raven et al., 1998). Furthermore, Raven and colleagues (1998) also demonstrated that there is a high correlation between soft power bases and job satisfaction, thus providing further evidence for the construct validity of IPI.

The IPI – Form CT-U consists of 33 items that examine the *likelihood of use* of “soft” and “harsh” power strategies in consultant-consultee relationship. The items are divided into 11 categories (3 items per category) based on social power bases, including impersonal reward, impersonal coercion, positive expert, positive referent, direct information, formal legitimacy, legitimacy of dependence, legitimacy of reciprocity, legitimacy of equity, personal reward, and personal coercion. When the IPI-Form CT-U is administered, participants are asked to think of a consultation experience with a teacher who is initially resistant in complying with the requests made of her/him. The respondents are then asked to rate how likely they would be to use each item on a 7-point

Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 7 (1 = very unlikely to use; 7 = extremely likely to use) when attempting to influence the teacher. For the purpose of current study, the directions will be slightly modified to include school counselors. Based on guidance from Wilson et al., (2008), and Getty and Erchul (2009), the modified directions of IPI-Form CT-U were as follows:

School counselors, as consultants, may ask teachers to do their jobs somewhat differently and teachers may be initially reluctant to change. In such cases, teachers tend either to resist making the changes or to do as requested. We are interested in understanding the factors that a school counselor considers when working with an initially reluctant teacher. Think about a specific instance when you were consulting with a particular teacher about a classroom problem and the teacher was initially reluctant to follow your suggestions or comply with your requests. Asking this teacher to collect baseline data on a student's behavior or to start an intervention plan on a particular day are two examples of these types of situations. On the pages that follow, please indicate how likely you would be to use the factor described in each of the 33 items when deciding how you might try to influence this teacher (See Appendix B).

Material and Procedure

Questionnaire packets were compiled and mailed to prospective participants with preaddressed postage paid return envelopes. Participants were free to complete the surveys at their own discretion. Participants were requested to return the completed surveys via US postal mail in the envelopes provided in the questionnaire packet. The packets included a cover letter (Appendix A), the IPI-Form CT-U (Appendix B), and a

demographic questionnaire (Appendix C). The cover letter described the intent of the study. A reminder letter (Appendix D) was sent two weeks after the initial mailing in an attempt to increase questionnaire response rate. Once the data were collected, the responses on IPI – Form CT were scored with the assistance of a scoring sheet (Appendix E).

Data Analyses

In order to address Research Question 1 (Do the school counselor data reveal a similar factor structure (i.e. soft-harsh dichotomy) as reported by previous studies?), two Principal Component Analyses (PCAs) with Varimax rotation were conducted. The first PCA was exploratory in nature and therefore explored the factor structure of IPI-Form CT-U when used with school counselors. Because the previous studies conducted with school psychologists (Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001; Wilson et al., 2008) revealed a two factor solution (soft and harsh), the second PCA was conducted with two factors specified so that a comparison of the composition of these factors with the two factors revealed by the current study was possible.

Descriptive information was used to address Research Question 2 (What is the likelihood of use of 11 power bases reported by school psychologists and school counselors?). Follow up tests were conducted to compare the differences between the three highest rated power bases. A mixed design with one between group factor (type of consultant) and one within group factor (types of power bases) was used for the Research Question 3 (How do school psychologists and school counselors compare on their likelihood of using soft and hard/harsh power bases?). A comparison between school psychologists and school counselors regarding their likelihoods of using individual soft

power strategies (5) and hard/harsh power strategies (6) was assessed using two between group designs (2 x 5: Type of consultant x type of soft power strategies, and 2 x 6: Type of consultant x type of harsh power strategies) to address Research Question 4 (Is there a difference in likelihood of use of the individual soft power bases by type of school consultant?) and Research Question 5 (Is there a difference in likelihood of use of the individual hard/harsh power bases by type of school consultant?) respectively.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The current chapter presents the data analyses procedures and results for the research questions presented earlier. Data analyses include analyses of the overall factor structure of the IPI-Form CT-U for the school counselors sample. The means and standard deviations of the individual power bases and the soft/harsh power bases are calculated and the results of the inferential statistics that address the research questions are presented. Predictive Analytics SoftWare Statistics - 18 (PASW Statistics 18) was used to analyze the data.

Pre-analysis Screening

Each variable was screened for missing data, normality, and univariate and multivariate outliers for the two groups, that is, school counselors, and school psychologists. A small number of missing values were identified (school counselors, $n = 7$; school psychologists, $n = 6$), which appeared to be scattered randomly. Group means were calculated based on the available data and used to replace the missing values as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996).

Univariate outliers were identified by converting the data to z-scores and any z value greater than +4.00 and less than - 4.00 was considered an outlier (Stevens, 1992). Multivariate outliers were identified using Mahalanobis Distance with $p < .001$. The

outliers were further investigated and it was determined that the outliers were not due an error in data entry or due to instrumentation error. The outliers did not appear to have different demographics than the rest of the sample. Two sets of analyses, one with the outlying cases included (school counselors $N = 226$, school psychologists $N = 355$), and one after the cases had been deleted (school counselors, $N = 216$; school psychologists, $N = 334$) were conducted. Results of the two sets of analyses were similar; therefore, it was decided to use the data set including the outliers as the unusual values appeared legitimate.

The data were screened for normality using the measures of skewness, kurtosis, and Q-Q plots. Readers are referred to Appendix F for more information regarding normality, skew and kurtosis of the distributions of individual social power strategies and soft and harsh power bases for school counselors and school psychologists. Justification for the use of parametric analyses is also provided in Appendix F.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: Do the school counselor data reveal a similar factorstructure (i.e. soft-harsh dichotomy) as reported by previous studies?

PCA is a statistical procedure used to identify subsets of variables, or to reduce numerous variables down to a smaller set of dimensions, called components. Two PCAs with Varimax rotation were conducted on responses of the school counselors to the IPI-Form CT-U. The first PCA was exploratory in nature and the second PCA was a forced two-factor solution to examine the soft/harsh power base dichotomy. The results of the two analyses were identical, and thus are discussed together.

The overall Kaiser-Meyer-Okin (KMO; Kaiser, 1970, 1974) measure was 0.86, above the recommended value of 0.60 and could be classified as 'meritorious' (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). KMO statistics is a measure of sampling adequacy that predicts if the data are appropriate for factor analysis (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was also statistically significant ($p < .001$) indicating that the data was likely factorizable. The analyses produced two factors with Eigenvalues greater than 1.0. Visual inspection of the scree plot indicated that two components should be retained (Cattell, 1996). The two factors accounted for 65.68% of the total variance. Component 1 (harsh power) accounted for 47% of the total variance, and component 2 (soft power) accounted for nearly 19% of the variance. Both components included only positive loadings. Table 3 presents the factor loadings and communalities for the two factors, labeled *harsh power* (including personal coercion, legitimate power of equity, impersonal reward, impersonal coercion, legitimate reciprocity, and personal reward powers) and *soft power* (including direct informational, positive expert, legitimate dependence, positive referent, and legitimate position).

The factor loadings of the two components were above .60 in absolute value (i.e. $|\cdot 60|$). According to Stevens (1992), if components have four or more loadings above $|\cdot 60|$, they are considered reliable regardless of the size of the sample. The internal consistency of the two factors was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. Both, harsh power ($\alpha = .91$) and soft power ($\alpha = .80$) components had a high internal consistency.

Please see Appendices G and H for the scree plot and the intercorrelation matrix.

Table 3

Factor Loadings for the Likelihood of Use of the Power Bases for School Counselors

Factor	Power Base Content	Factor 1 Loadings	Factor 2 Loadings	Communalities
Harsh	Personal Coercion	.839	.149	.726
	Legitimate Power of Equity	.837	.221	.749
	Impersonal Reward	.823	.051	.679
	Impersonal Coercion	.812	-.059	.663
	Legitimate Reciprocity	.777	.256	.668
	Personal Reward	.766	.371	.724
Soft	Direct Informational	-.229	.803	.692
	Positive Expert	.146	.757	.594
	Legitimate Dependence	.155	.729	.555
	Positive Referent	.421	.682	.642
	Legitimate Position	.396	.613	.533

Research Question 2: What is the likelihood of use of the 11 power bases reported by school psychologists and school counselors?

Descriptive statistics were calculated (means, standard deviations) for the 11 individual power strategies. Data contained in Table 4 form the primary basis for answering the research question. It shows the means and standard deviations of the 11 individual power strategies.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations of the Likelihood of Use of the 11 Power Bases

Social Power Bases	School Counselors (n = 226)		School Psychologists (n = 355)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Direct informational	5.57	.96	5.53	1.03
Positive expert	4.67	1.23	4.32	1.29
Legitimate dependence	4.43	1.08	4.04	1.17
Positive referent	3.94	1.20	3.89	1.28
Legitimate position	2.81	1.21	2.70	1.24
Personal reward	2.45	1.32	2.68	1.39
Legitimate reciprocity	2.07	1.16	2.04	1.15
Legitimate equity	1.77	1.11	1.62	0.87
Personal coercion	1.73	.98	1.73	0.94
Impersonal reward	1.39	.84	1.32	0.74
Impersonal coercion	1.25	.69	1.13	0.50

Note. The scale ranges from 1–7, with higher numbers indicating an increased likelihood of using a particular power base.

An inspection of the means reveals that the soft power bases (informational power, positive expert power, legitimate power of dependence, referent power and position power) are ranked higher than the harsh power bases (personal reward, impersonal reward, personal coercion, impersonal coercion, legitimate power of equity, and legitimate power of reciprocity). However, only three soft power strategies had mean ratings greater than 4, meaning that only those power strategies were likely to be used by

the consultants. Based on the Likert-type scale used for rating in this research, a rating of 4 referred to neither likely nor unlikely to use, where as ratings higher than 4 depicted various degrees of likelihood of use. Direct informational (School counselors, $M = 5.57$, $SD = .96$; School psychologists, $M = 5.53$, $SD = 1.03$), positive expert (School counselors, $M = 4.67$, $SD = 1.23$; School psychologists, $M = 4.32$, $SD = 1.29$), and legitimate power of dependence (School counselors, $M = 5.43$, $SD = 1.08$; School psychologists, $M = 4.04$, $SD = 1.17$) were the 3 top-rated power bases reported by the school counselors and school psychologists (*Mean Ratings* > 4). Additional analyses were conducted to see if there were statistically significant differences within the 3 highest- rated power strategies.

A repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with a traditional alpha level of .05 to determine whether there were statistically significant differences in school counselors' likelihood of use of information power, expert power and legitimate power of dependence. The assumption of sphericity was violated, as assessed by Mauchly's Test of Sphericity, $\chi^2(2) = 20.66$, $p < .001$. Therefore, a Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied ($\epsilon = 0.919$). There was a statistically significant difference between the ratings of the three soft power bases, $F(1.84, 163.39) = 121.28$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .35$. Post-hoc analysis with a Bonferroni adjustment revealed that school counselors rated information power significantly higher than expert power, and expert power significantly higher than legitimate power of dependence. The post-hoc comparisons for the three power bases for school counselors are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Pairwise Comparisons for Top Rated Power Strategies by School Counselors

Comparison		Mean Difference	Standard Error	CI 95%
1. Direct Informational	2. Positive Expert	0.90*	.08	0.72 - 1.09
	3. Legitimate Dependence	1.14*	.07	0.98 - 1.30
2. Positive Expert	3. Legitimate Dependence	0.24*	.09	0.03 - 0.44

Note. * Mean difference significant at $p < .05$

A repeated measure ANOVA revealed similar results for the ratings of school psychologists. Mauchly's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity was violated, $\chi^2(2) = 47.78, p = .001$. However, the Greenhouse Geisser Epsilon ($\epsilon = .89$) and the Huynh-Feldt Epsilon ($\epsilon = .89$) measures were > 0.75 , indicating that Greenhouse-Geisser correction would be appropriate. The results revealed a statistically significant difference between school psychologists' ratings of the five soft power bases, $F(1.77, 628.44) = 261.58, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .43$. Post-hoc analyses with Bonferroni adjustment revealed that school psychologists' ratings for informational power were significantly higher than their ratings for expert power and legitimate power of dependence. School psychologists' ratings for expert power were significantly higher than the ratings for legitimate power of dependence. The post-hoc comparisons for the three top rated power strategies by school psychologists are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Pairwise Comparisons for Top Rated Power Strategies by School Psychologists

Comparison		Mean Difference	Standard Error	CI 95%
1. Direct Informational	2. Positive Expert	1.21*	.06	1.06 - 1.36
	3. Legitimate Dependence	1.49*	.06	1.33 - 1.65
2. Positive Expert	3. Legitimate Dependence	0.28*	.08	0.09 - 0.48

Note. *Mean difference significant at $p < .05$

Overall, the results of the comparison between the three highest rated power bases were identical for school counselors and school psychologists. Both, school counselors and school psychologists rated direct informational power significantly higher than expert power, and expert power significantly higher than legitimate power of dependence.

Research Question 3: How do school psychologists and school counselors compare on their likelihood of using soft and hard/harsh power bases?

Following Erchul and colleague's methodology (Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001; Getty & Erchul, 2009; Wilson et al., 2008) soft power base and hard/harsh power base measures were obtained by calculating the mean ratings for the five soft power categories and the six harsh categories identified in the principal component analysis (Table 3). The soft power measure included direct informational, positive expert, legitimate dependence, positive referent, and legitimate position power. The harsh power measure included

personal coercion, legitimate power of equity, impersonal reward, impersonal coercion, legitimate reciprocity and personal reward powers.

A 2 X 2 one-between-one-within subjects Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on participants' ratings was conducted with consultant type (school psychologist, school counselor) as the between subjects factor and power base type (soft, hard/harsh) as the within subjects factor. A traditional alpha level of .05 was used to judge significance. The main effect for the consultant type was not significant, $p = 0.08$. The results showed a significant main effect for power base type, $F(1, 579) = 4894.68, p < 0.001$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.89$. The consultants, school counselors and school psychologists, did not differ in regards to their overall power ratings. Soft power was rated higher than harsh power. There was a significant consultant X power base interaction, $F(1, 579) = 5.34, p < 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$. T-tests were used as follow up tests, and they were each conducted at an alpha level of 0.025 (0.05/2) to ensure that the alpha of the 2 tests combined does not exceed 0.05. The results of the simple effects tests indicated that school counselors' soft power ratings ($M = 4.28, SD = 0.85$) were significantly higher than school psychologists' soft power ratings ($M = 4.09, SD = 0.88$), $t(579) = 2.54, p < 0.025, d = 0.21$. There was not a significant difference between school counselors' ($M = 1.78, SD = 0.85$) and school psychologists' ($M = 1.75, SD = 0.74$) harsh power ratings, $t(579) = 0.42, p > 0.025$.

Paired sample T-tests were also conducted to examine the difference between soft and harsh power for each consultant separately. School counselors rated soft power significantly higher than harsh power, $t(225) = 42.51, p < 0.001, d = 2.81$. Similar results were obtained for school psychologists, $t(354) = 57.68, p < 0.001, d = 3.04$. Means and

standard deviations for school psychologists' and counselors' soft and harsh power ratings are reported in Table 7.

Table 7

Mean and Standard Deviations for School Psychologists' and Counselors' Ratings of Likelihood of Use of Soft and Harsh Power

	School Counselors (n=226)		School Psychologists (n=355)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Soft	4.28	0.85	4.09	0.88
Harsh	1.78	0.85	1.75	0.74

Research Question 4: Is there a difference in likelihood of use of the individual soft power strategies by type of school consultant (i.e. school psychologist vs. school counselor)?

In order to determine if there were any differences in the likelihood of use of the five individual soft power bases by type of school consultant, a MANOVA was conducted with the type of consultant as the independent variable and the participants' ratings on the 5 soft power bases (informational power, expert power, reference power, legitimate power of position, and legitimate power of dependence) as the dependent variables. MANOVA results revealed significant differences among the consultants based on the dependent variables, *Wilks' A* = 0.942, $F(5, 575) = 7.143$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .06$. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted on each dependent variable as a

follow-up test to MANOVA using an adjusted alpha level of .01 (.05/5) to control for Type 1 error. Differences in consultants' ratings were significant for expert power, $F(1, 579) = 10.21, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.02$ and legitimate power of dependency, $F(1, 579) = 21.239, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.03$. School counselors reported a higher likelihood of using expert power ($M = 4.67, SD = 1.23$) as compared to school psychologists ($M = 4.32, SD = 1.29$). Similarly, school counselors also rated a higher likelihood of use of legitimate power of dependency ($M = 4.43, SD = 1.09$) as compared to school psychologists ($M = 4.03, SD = 1.17$). There was no significant difference between the school counselors and school psychologists' ratings of informational ($p = .627$), referent ($p = .659$), and position powers ($p = .279$).

Research Question 5: Is there a difference in the likelihood of use of the individual hard/harsh power bases by type of school consultant (i.e. school psychologist vs. school counselor)?

Another MANOVA with the six hard/harsh power bases ratings as dependent variables was conducted to see if school psychologists and school counselors report any differences in their likelihood of using the individual hard power bases (personal reward, impersonal reward, personal coercion, impersonal coercion, legitimate power of reciprocity, and legitimate power of equity). Since the Box's test was significant at $p < .001$, Pillai's Trace was utilized when interpreting the MANOVA results (Mertler & Vannatta, 2001). The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the ratings of school counselors and school psychologists on the likelihood of use of the six individual harsh power bases, $Pillai's Trace = .039, F(6, 574) = 3.91, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$. Follow-up ANOVA conducted on each dependent variable with adjusted alpha level of 0.0083 (.05/6) revealed a significant difference between school counselors'

ratings ($M = 1.27, SD = .98$) and school psychologists' ratings ($M = 1.13, SD = .95$) of likelihood of use of impersonal coercion power, $F(1, 579) = 7.05, p = 0.008$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$. Differences between school counselors' and school psychologists' ratings of the other five harsh power bases were not significant.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current study was to examine the factor structure of the IPI-Form CT-U when used with school counselors and to explore the differences between the reported likelihood of use of social power bases among school counselors and school psychologists. The results of the present study are discussed in this chapter. Findings pertaining to the Principal Components Factor Analysis will be considered first (Research Question 1), followed by a comparison of likelihood of use of soft and harsh power bases and the individual power strategies within the two power bases between the school counselors and school psychologists (Research Questions 2 - 5). The chapter will conclude with a consideration of the limitations of the study, and directions for future research.

Validation of the Factor Structure of the IPI-CT-U in School Counselors

A Principal Component Analysis conducted on the school counselors' responses to the IPI-Form CT-U revealed a two-factor solution. These results were similar to the soft/harsh dichotomy reported by other studies using the IPI (e.g., Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001; Raven et al., 1998). Specifically, the analysis identified personal coercion, legitimate power of equity, impersonal reward, impersonal coercion, legitimate reciprocity, and personal reward as harsh power bases. In addition, direct informational

power, positive expert power, legitimate dependence, positive referent, and legitimate position were identified as the soft power bases.

Research by Erchul, Raven, and Ray (2001) and by Erchul, Raven, and Whichard (2001) resulted in similar classifications of harsh and soft power bases, with the exception that personal reward power was identified as a soft power base rather than a harsh power base. The previous studies examined the perceptions of effectiveness of social power bases in school psychologists (Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001; Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001). However, Wilson et al., (2008), and Getty and Erchul (2009) modified the IPI- Form CT to examine the likelihood of use of social power bases and reported identical groupings for the soft and harsh power bases as those found by the current research. The minor differences between the earlier studies (e.g., Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001; Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001) and the later research by Getty and Erchul (2009) may be due to modifications in the IPI form. The IPI form used by Getty and Erchul, and used in the current research, examined the *likelihood of using the power bases* rather than the *perceived effectiveness of power bases* (Getty & Erchul, 2009; Wilson et al., 2008).

Similar soft/harsh dichotomies across multiple studies in different fields indicated that the distinction is meaningful (e.g., Raven et al., 1998; Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001; Koslowsky, Shwarzwald, & Ashuri, 2001). In addition, the current study confirmed that the IPI-Form CT-U is a reliable and valid instrument that can be used with school counselors to assess their likelihood of use of social power bases when consulting with teachers.

Likelihood of Use of Soft and Harsh Power Bases by School Consultants

A comparison of school psychologists' and school counselors' ratings for the soft and harsh power bases indicated that both school psychologists and school counselors rated soft power bases higher than harsh power bases. Previous studies have reported similar findings. Soft power bases were perceived as more effective by school psychologists (Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001), students (Elias, 2007), teachers (Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001), nurses (Koslowsky et al., 2001) and supervisors (Raven et al., 1998). Soft power bases are non-coercive, and involve cooperative persuasion strategies that are not too overt or strong. Soft power bases are indirect and subtle, providing more freedom to the consultee to accept or reject the suggestions of the consultant. On the other hand, harsh power bases are direct, strong and often coercive. For example, in a consultation situation where a teacher is having problems managing a child's behavior, the teacher agrees to implement an intervention recommended by the consultant because she perceives that the consultant is an expert who possesses special training in behavior management (expert power) and the information provided by the consultant is relevant to the current problem (information power). This kind of potential to influence is subtle and does not involve a direct use of power by the consultant. On the other hand, if a teacher in a similar consultation situation complies to the consultant because she perceives that the consultant will be upset with her if she does not comply and may not want to help the teacher in the future (personal coercion) or the consultant has the power to put in a good word for the teacher to the administration (impersonal reward), the interaction may be seen as direct and coercive.

Previous research assessing the use of social power bases in supervisor-supervisee relationships revealed that soft power bases were viewed more likely to result in supervisee compliance and higher degrees of job satisfaction were associated with compliance to soft power bases (Raven et al., 1998). In a study by Erchul, Raven, and Ray (2001), school psychology consultants perceived soft power bases to be more effective in leading to greater consultee compliance than harsh bases. Erchul, Raven, and Whichard (2001) reported similar findings. Both school psychologist (consultants) and teachers (consultees) perceived soft power bases to be more effective in teacher compliance than harsh bases. Given that soft power bases are seen as more effective in gaining consultee's compliance, it is comprehensible that consultants would be more likely to use soft power bases when dealing with a consultee who is initially resistant in complying with their requests.

Although both types of consultants reported a higher likelihood of using soft power bases than harsh power bases, school counselors' soft power ratings were higher than the soft power ratings by the school psychologists. Put differently, school counselors rated soft power higher than school psychologists, but both were more likely to use soft power bases rather than harsh. The difference may be an expression of a general difference in the pedagogical philosophies of school psychology and school counseling training programs. Counseling programs may place a stronger emphasis on counseling skills, such as empathy, warmth, positive regard, etc., than school psychology programs resulting in an increased likelihood of using covert or non-coercive power strategies (soft power) by school counselors to influence teachers.

Wilson et al. (2008) argued that school psychologists may report a higher likelihood of using soft power strategies due to their desire to maintain a positive working relationship with the teachers. Harsh power bases appear heavy-handed and coercive and may lead to resistance and resentment on the part of the teachers (Erchul & Raven, 1997). This might also be true for school counselors. School counselors work with the teachers on a daily basis. Even outside a consultation relationship regarding a student or students, school counselors are involved in other school activities such as mentoring, career guidance, and after-school programs. It may be possible that school counselors indicate a higher likelihood of use of soft power bases than school psychologists because there are more opportunities for the school counselor to collaborate with teachers in comparison to the school psychologists, who probably interact with the teachers primarily when there has been a case referral. Because school counselors interact with the teachers more often and work with teachers outside of consultation situations as well, they might develop a stronger collaborative relationship with the teachers that the school psychologists do not get the opportunity to develop.

Likelihood of Use of 11 Individual Social Power Bases by School Consultants

Information power, a soft power base, was rated by both school counselors and school psychologists as the power strategy they would most likely use during consultation with a teacher who initially resists complying with their requests. Positive expert and legitimate dependence were rated second and third, respectively, in terms of their likelihood of use by the consultants. Informational power strategy involves provision of information by the consultant that the consultee views as relevant to the problem. The information provided by the consultant makes logical sense (Erchul &

Raven, 1997; Raven, 1993). As discussed earlier in the literature review, informational power strategy typically results in a more permanent change, and it does not require surveillance. Thus, informational power strategy is more advantageous than other power strategies, because it promotes change without a lot of follow up work. Unlike expert power strategy that relies on the consultant being perceived as an expert, informational power strategy may be better received because it appeals to the logic of the consultee through the information provided rather than an impression of the consultant's competence (Erchul & Raven, 1997). For example, the teacher may see school psychologists and school counselors as experts and comply with their recommendations simply because they are coming from the expert and are the best thing to do. In this case the teacher may not really understand the logic behind those recommendations or why those recommendations are best. On the other hand, if the information provided by the consultant makes sense to the teacher, and the teacher understands why it is the best approach, the teacher is more likely to internalize the approach. Thus, the teacher would accept the recommendations for the current situation and be more likely to implement a similar approach in the future for similar situations, even in the absence of the consultant. Although, informational power may require more time to explain and may also depend on the teacher's level of understanding, it is more permanent and can be an effective way of dealing with teacher resistance (Raven, 1965). Because the teacher understands the logic, he or she accepts those reasons and changes his/her behavior accordingly. Information influence, then, brings about a cognitive change in and acceptance by the target. It is thus called "socially independent change" in that the target now continues the changed

behavior without necessarily referring to or even remembering, the consultant as the agent of change (Raven, 2004).

Previous studies have also concluded that information power is rated highly, not only by school psychologist consultants, but also by teachers, supervisors etc. (Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001; Raven et al., 1998). It is possible that school counselors and school psychologists report a preference for informational power and see it as more persuasive, because they believe it has a better chance of causing both behavioral changes and cognitive changes in the consultee. The use of informational power in schools, therefore, will not only equip the teacher to deal with the problem at hand, but it also prepares him/her to resolve similar problems in the future. Thus, it is not surprising that information power is rated higher by the consultants, as it serves both remedial and preventative functions.

Expert power is the second highest rated power strategy by both school counselors and school psychologists. An expert is someone who has education and experience in a particular field. Regardless of the credentials or information provided, expert power depends on the consultee accepting the consultant as an expert. School psychologists and school counselors are experts in their respective fields and are trained to handle school-related problems faced by students. Therefore, it is possible that consultants from both fields see their expertise as playing an important role in teacher compliance.

Legitimate power of dependence, the third highest rated power strategy by the consultants, is based on the perception of responsibility - a sense of obligation to help others who depend on us (Raven, 2004). In school consultation, legitimate power of

dependence is evident when a teacher complies with the consultant's request because the teacher believes that the consultant needs his/her help, and unless the teacher helps the consultant, the job cannot be done. For example, a teacher may think that unless he/she collaborates with the consultant and implements the behavior plan for the student, the consultant will not succeed in implementing the plan on his/her own and help the student. As discussed earlier, ultimately the responsibility of consultation outcomes depends on the consultee. The consultants' job is to assist the consultee, and the final decision whether to implement the plan suggested by the consultant is made by the consultee. Legitimate power of dependence may be rated high by the consultants because they understand that they depend on the teachers for implementation of their recommendations. In other words, the consultants understand that consultation is a collaborative process and their job will be easier if the teacher realizes that they rely on the teachers to implement the intervention for the client.

A comparison of school counselors' and school psychologists' likelihood of use of the five soft power bases revealed that school counselors reported a higher likelihood of using expert power and legitimate power of dependency than school psychologists. Interestingly, Gilman and Medway (2007) found that regular education teachers reported more awareness regarding the roles and functions of school counselors than school psychologists. They proposed that teachers may have the opportunity to observe school counselors more frequently than school psychologists because most school psychologists serve multiple schools, whereas school counselors are often based in one school setting. As discussed earlier, school counselors also generally have more opportunities to interact with and collaborate with the teachers outside a consultation setting than school

psychologists. As such, school counselors may believe that teachers have a thorough understanding about the knowledge and expertise possessed by school counselors. It is possible that because school counselors have more frequent contact with the teachers, they may feel that the teachers are more likely to accept their role as an expert due to this close relationship between teachers and school counselors. In addition, because school counselors have more opportunities to observe the consultation outcomes due to being in the school setting, it may be possible that school counselors place more importance on the role that teachers play in consultation outcomes and may realize that the consultees view them (the consultants) as dependent on the teachers to implement the change they are requesting. Therefore, school counselors may rate the legitimate power of dependence higher than the school psychologists.

A comparison of school psychologists' and school counselors' harsh power strategies indicated that consultants from both fields rated impersonal coercion as the power base they were least likely to use during consultation, but school counselors ratings were higher for impersonal coercion than school psychologists. Impersonal coercion power is in use when the consultee complies to the consultant's requests because the consultee believes that the consultant has the power to punish him/her. Interpersonal coercive power may be available more often in supervisor-supervisee relationships, but school psychologists and counselors do not typically have this power, and thus it is not surprising that it is rated at the bottom by both. However, school counselors' ratings are slightly higher than school psychologists which could again be due to proximity factor. Because school counselors maintain a constant presence in a school, they have more opportunities for surveillance and follow-up on the consultative

process. They may also have other duties or responsibilities in the school system, such as scheduling classes or setting up meetings, which may promote an appearance of authority during interactions with the teachers. While interpreting the results of research questions 4 and 5, it is important to note that although there was statistically significant differences between the school counselors' and school psychologists' ratings on 3 of the 11 individual power bases, the effect sizes calculated to examine the practical significance of these findings were small.

Limitations of the Study and Future Research Directions

As noted by the authors of previous studies, the IPI-Form CT-U is a self report measure, and it is possible that the responses of the consultants may not be representative of the actual likelihood of use of social power (Getty & Erchul, 2009; Wilson et al., 2008). The present study assessed the likelihood of use rather than actual use of social power bases and thus the results of the study need to be interpreted with caution. The ratings by school psychologists and school counselors regarding the likelihood of use of social power bases may be different from their actual use of these power bases in a real life consultation situation. Future studies could explore direct methods to study interaction between the consultant and the teachers during a consultation session.

The current study did not examine gender differences in the ratings of soft and harsh power bases by school counselors as the number of male school counselors responding to IPI-Form CT-U was small ($n = 28$). Although, Wilson et al. (2008) did not find an impact of gender on the school psychologists' ratings of soft and harsh power bases, gender differences in their likelihood of using soft and harsh bases in school counselors has not been examined. Therefore, future studies should look at whether male

and female school counselors differ regarding their ratings of soft and harsh power bases during school consultation. Future studies should also examine how the gender of teacher consultees influences the likelihood of use of social power bases reported by school counselor consultants.

The current study used the school psychologists' data that was used by Wilson et al. (2008), and Getty and Erchul (2009) to compare school psychologists' responses with school counselors. Therefore, the school psychologist data was collected earlier than the school counselor data. It may be possible that school psychologists' attitudes have changed since the initial data was collected. For example, the IDEA (2004) stressed the provision of early intervention services to all children who are at risk of school failure and allowed alternative means, such as the RtI model, to identify children with Learning Disabilities (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2006). Adoption of RtI has brought a shift in the roles and responsibilities of school psychologists, including changes in the practice of school consultation (Erchul & Martens, 2010). Therefore, it is possible that school psychologists' attitudes and beliefs regarding use of soft and harsh bases during consultation may have changed in the recent years. Unfortunately, more recent school psychologist data could not be collected because the NASP did not allow access to their members for this study. Also, the low response rate of the school counselors might be considered a limitation of the current study.

Pre-analyses screening revealed that a majority of the dependent variables in this study were not normally distributed. Use of parametric tests with non-normal distributions can lead to a higher probability of Type 1 error, especially when the sample size is small. Although, the sample size of this study was adequate, it was still decided to

conduct non-parametric statistical analyses as well (Appendix F). Non-parametric tests are also known as ‘assumption-free’ tests. They overcome the problem of the shape of the distribution of scores by ranking the data. Analysis is then carried on the rank, rather than the actual data. By ranking, non-parametric techniques overcome the problems of outliers, skewness and kurtosis (Field, 2013). Similar results were yielded by both types of analyses (parametric and non-parametric), making a strong case for validity of the results of the current investigation.

As discussed in the literature review, theoretical orientation of the consultant is an important dimension of consultation. Future studies could examine whether the consultants’ theoretical orientation has an impact on the likelihood of use of social power bases. As consultation often involves more than one session, it is also possible that consultants may have a higher likelihood of use of certain power bases during the initial phase of consultation, as compared to a later time during consultation. Therefore, it would be interesting to examine the likelihood of use of social power during different stages of consultation. Also, presenting different consultation scenarios to the consultants may shed light on whether likelihood of use of power base is influenced by the type of consultation situation.

Conclusion

Consultation is an important role of school psychologists and school counselors. A better understanding of the process underlying consultation is important for the professional from both fields. In order to develop an understanding of the relational processes involved in consultation, Raven’s (1992, 1993) Power/Interaction Model of Interpersonal Influence has been widely used in social and organizational psychology

research and has been applied to the field of school consultation by Erchul and colleagues (Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001; Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001; Wilson et al., 2008).

Using the methodology of Erchul and colleagues, the current study was the first to examine the likelihood of use of social power bases in school counselors using the Interpersonal Power Inventory. The results indicated that the soft/harsh dichotomy as reported by previous studies in the fields of social/organizational psychology (e.g. Raven et al., 1998) and school psychology (Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001; Erchul, Raven, & Whichard, 2001; Wilson et al., 2008) is applicable to the field of school counseling as well, and should continue to guide future research assessing interpersonal influences in school consultation involving school counselors. The current study highlighted the similarities and differences between the likelihood of use of social power bases among school counselors and school psychologists. The current study replicated and expanded the findings of the previous studies. Soft power bases were identified as more likely to be used when consulting with teachers by both school psychologists and counselors in this study. However, school counselors' ratings for the likelihood of use of soft power were higher than school psychologists. When the ratings for individual power strategies were compared, school counselors reported a higher likelihood of using expert power, legitimate power of dependence, and impersonal coercion in comparison to school psychologists. These differences in the ratings by school counselors and school psychologists are explained in the light of the differences in their training, the nature of their role and their placement in school settings.

The current study also highlights the importance of social power bases in the school counseling field as school counselors are increasingly involved in providing

consultation services to the teachers in school. With the ASCA's focus on school counselor as a leader within school, these findings are specifically important for the new graduates and practitioners who will likely be consulting with teachers regarding numerous student and school concerns. Understanding the consultation relationship is paramount for these new school counselors so that they may effectively provide consultation services as needed.

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APPENDIX A
COVER LETTER

Dear Colleague,

I am a graduate student in the Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology at Mississippi State University. For my dissertation, I am conducting research that analyzes factors that might influence school consultation. As such, you are being asked to participate in a study regarding consultants' likelihood of use of social power bases in consultation with teachers. This project has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research, which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will complete Interpersonal Power Inventory - Form CT-U and a demographic sheet including a short self-report questionnaire. After you have answered the items on the Interpersonal Inventory and the demographic sheet, you are asked to mail it back to us. A postage-paid envelope has been provided for this purpose.

Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary and will remain completely confidential. Only the principal investigators will have access to these files. You are free to withdraw your consent to participate any time. Completing and mailing the Interpersonal Power Inventory Form CT-U and Demographic sheet back in the postage-paid envelope indicates your consent to participate. Regardless of whether you choose to participate, please let me know via email if you would like a summary of my findings.

If you have questions or concerns, please feel free to contact Dr. Carmen Reisener at (662) 325-5461. If you have additional questions regarding your rights as a human participant in this research, you may contact the Mississippi State Regulatory Compliance Office at (662) 325-3994. Thank you in advance for your time and effort!

Sincerely,

Ayesha Khurshid
Graduate Student
Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology
Mississippi State University
Email: ak94@msstate.edu

APPENDIX B
IPI-FORM CT-U

Interpersonal Inventory

Form CT-U

INSTRUCTIONS: School counselors, as consultant, may ask teachers to do their jobs somewhat differently and teachers may be initially reluctant to change. In such cases, teachers tend either to resist making the changes or to do as requested. We are interested in understanding the factors that a school counselor considers when working with an initially resistant teacher.

Think about a specific instance when you were consulting with a particular teacher about a classroom problem and the teacher was initially reluctant to follow your suggestions or comply with your requests. Asking this teacher to collect baseline data on a student's behavior or to start an intervention plan on a particular day are two examples of these types of situations.

On the pages that follow, please indicate how likely you would be to use the factor described in each of the 33 items when deciding how you might try to influence this teacher. Use this scale for items 1-33:

- 1. Extremely unlikely to use**
- 2. Very unlikely to use**
- 3. Somewhat unlikely to use**
- 4. Neither likely nor unlikely to use**
- 5. Somewhat likely to use**
- 6. Very likely to use**
- 7. Extremely likely to use**

To increase the readability, this questionnaire assumes that the teacher is female. Of course, the specific teacher you are recalling could be either male or female.

Thank you for your cooperation.

REMINDER: You have asked a teacher to do her job somewhat differently and she is initially reluctant to change. Using the following scale, indicate how likely you would be to use this factor in trying to influence this teacher during consultation.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Extremely unlikely to use	Very unlikely to use	Somewhat unlikely to use	Neither likely nor unlikely to use	Somewhat likely to use	Very likely to use	Extremely likely to use

Please circle the appropriate number to the right of each item.

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. A good evaluation from me could lead to an increase in her pay or other benefits. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. She feels I know the best way to handle the situation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. I can give her undesirable job assignments. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. She does not want me to dislike her. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. By complying, she can make up for some difficulties she may have caused me in the past. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. She feels obliged to comply because of past favors she has received from me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. It makes her feel better to know that I like her. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8. She sees me as someone she can identify with. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9. She knows my job will be more difficult if she does not comply. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10. She knows I have a strong basis for this request. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11. It is disturbing for her to know that I disapprove of her. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

REMINDER: You have asked a teacher to do her job somewhat differently and she is initially reluctant to change. Using the following scale, indicate how likely you would be to use this factor in trying to influence this teacher during consultation.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Extremely unlikely to use	Very unlikely to use	Somewhat unlikely to use	Neither likely nor unlikely to use	Somewhat likely to use	Very likely to use	Extremely likely to use

Please circle the appropriate number to the right of each item.

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 12. She feels I know more about this particular situation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13. She understands it is my job to tell her how to handle this situation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14. By complying, she can make up for things she has not done so well previously. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15. I can help her receive special benefits. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16. I can give her good reasons for changing how she handles the situation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 17. She understands that I really need her cooperation on this. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 18. We are both part of the same work group and should see eye to eye on things. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 19. I have the right to request that she handle the situation in a particular way. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 20. I make her feel more valued if she does as I request. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 21. She has made some mistakes and therefore feels that she owes this to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 22. I can make it more difficult for her to get a promotion. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

REMINDER: You have asked a teacher to do her job somewhat differently and she is initially reluctant to change. Using the following scale, indicate how likely you would be to use this factor in trying to influence this teacher during consultation.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
	Extremely unlikely to use	Very unlikely to use	Somewhat unlikely to use	Neither likely nor unlikely to use	Somewhat likely to use	Very likely to use	Extremely likely to use				
23. I can help her get a promotion.					1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I have done some nice things she requested in the past					1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. It makes her feel personally accepted if she does as I ask.					1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. As a teacher, she has an obligation to do as I say.					1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. She looks up to me and generally models her behavior accordingly.					1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. She feels that I have more knowledge about this than she does.					1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I can make it more difficult for her to get a pay increase.					1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I need assistance and cooperation from her.					1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. She now understands why the recommended change is for the better.					1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. Because I let her have her way earlier, she now feels obliged to comply.					1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. She would be upset knowing that she was on my bad side.					1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX C
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographic Questionnaire

Thank you for participating in this study. To help us understand your responses more completely, we ask that you provide us with some additional information.

1. What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

2. How old are you? _____

3. Please briefly describe for us the type of consultation situation that you were thinking of responding to this questionnaire:

Was the consultation related to a student's

- a. behavioral problem b. academic problem**

4. What is the gender of the teacher you thought about in completing the questionnaire?

- Male
- Female

5. To which ethnic group does he/she belong?

- Caucasian
- African American
- Hispanic
- Asian/Pacific Islander
- Other _____

6. What is his/her approximate age? _____

7. What is your highest earned degree?

- MS
- EdS
- PhD

8. To what ethnic group do you belong?

- Caucasian
- African American
- Hispanic
- Asian/Pacific Islander
- Other _____

9. As part of your graduate training, did you take any formal courses in consultation?

- Yes
- No

If yes, please specify: _____

10. How many years have you been a school counselor? _____ years

11. What is the primary nature of your current job?

- a. Private Practice or Professional Consultant not employed by the school system
- b. Academia (e.g., tenure track faculty member, instructor)
- c. Academia and Private Practice
- d. Hired by a school district as a school counselor
- e. Retired

Other, Please specify: _____

12. Are you currently providing consultation services in schools?

- Yes
- No

13. a. How many years of experience do you have as a school consultant?

- 1. 1 to 3 years
- 2. 4 to 6 years
- 3. 7 to 9 years
- 4. > 10 years

b. Approximately how many consultation cases on average per year have you served as a consultant? (If you are not currently consulting in schools, you may mention average number of cases per year that you have provided consultation services for as a consultant in the past)

- ___ 1-5 cases
- ___ 6-10 cases
- ___ 11-15 cases
- ___ More than 15 cases

14. Are you a

- _____ Nationally Certified School Counselor
- _____ Licensed School Counselor
- _____ Other (e.g., State certification)

APPENDIX D
REMINDER LETTER

Dear School Counselor,

My name is Ayesha Khurshid and I am a doctoral candidate, majoring in School Psychology. For my dissertation, I am conducting a research that analyzes factors that might influence school consultation. Recently, I mailed you a packet requesting you to complete the forms in the packet and mail them back to me in the self addressed envelope enclosed in the packet. If you have already completed your survey, thank you and please excuse this reminder. This letter and your survey undoubtedly crossed in the mail. If you have not yet had a chance to respond, I would be most appreciative if you would take time out of your busy schedule to complete the survey and return it to us. However, your participation is completely voluntary and you may respond to the questionnaires at your convenience. As a school counselor, your views are critical to the success of our study. This study will help us in understanding school counselors' approach to school consultation. We also wish to remind you that all information gathered will be confidential and at no time will names or other identifying information be connected to the actual data. I hope you will take the time to complete the questionnaire. If you have any questions regarding this project, you can email me at: ak94@msstate.edu

Thank you in advance for your participation in this project.

Ayesha Khurshid
Graduate Student
Department of Counseling
& Educational Psychology.
Mississippi State University

APPENDIX E
SCORING SHEET

SCORING SHEET FOR IPI FORM CT-U

<u>SOCIAL POWER BASES</u>	<u>ITEMS</u>
EXPERT	2, 12, 28
REFERENCE	8, 18, 27
LEGITIMATE DEPENDENCE	9, 17, 30
INFORMATION	10, 16, 31
POSITION	13, 19, 26
IMPERSONAL REWARD	1, 15, 23
PERSONAL REWARD	7, 20, 25
IMPERSONAL COERCION	3, 22, 29
PERSONAL COERCION	4, 11, 33
LEGITIMATE POWER OF RECIPROCITY	6, 24, 32
LEGITIMATE POWER OF EQUITY	5, 14, 21

APPENDIX F
DATA SCREENING & NORMALITY

The measures of Skewness and Kurtosis were used to assess normality. Skewness can be used to measure departure from symmetry, whereas kurtosis is used to measure the thickness of the tails of the distribution (Khan & Rayner, 2003).

Table F1

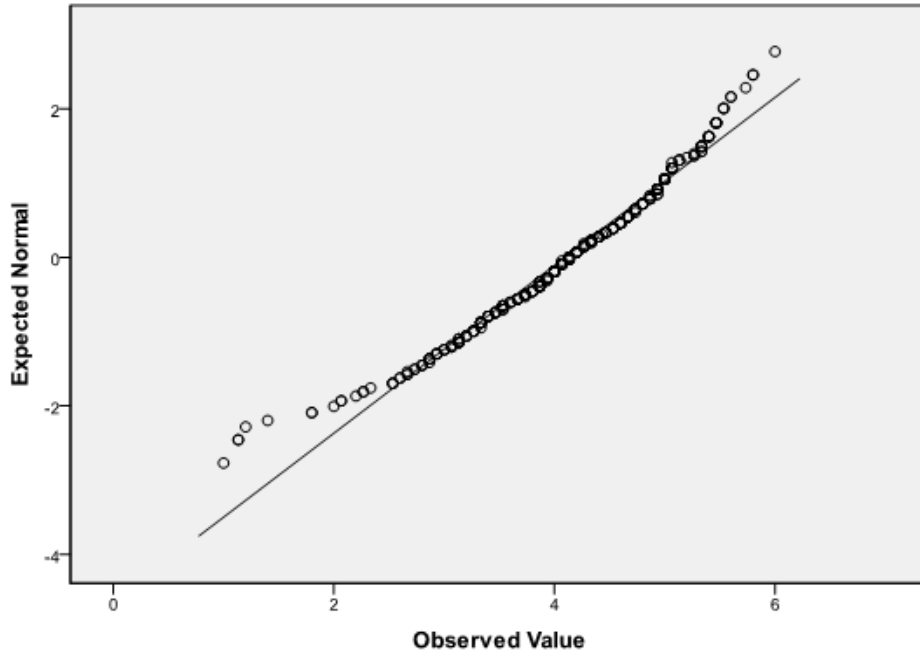
Skewness and Kurtosis Coefficients for Social Power Bases

Social Power	School Counselors (n = 226)		School Psychologists (n = 355)	
	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness	Kurtosis
Direct Informational	-.886	1.056	-1.633	4.119
Positive expert	-.822	.425	-.695	-.088
Legitimate dependence	-.547	.557	-.528	.037
Positive referent	-.337	-.112	-.424	-.407
Legitimate position	.274	-.751	.355	-.686
Personal reward	.635	-.650	.312	-1.109
Legitimate reciprocity	.999	.107	1.076	.382
Legitimate equity	1.629	1.898	1.506	1.488
Personal coercion	1.497	1.669	1.449	1.679
Impersonal reward	2.840	9.365	3.369	14.381
Impersonal coercion	3.738	16.976	5.842	43.966
Soft	-.361	-.141	-.649	.648
Harsh	1.487	2.098	1.314	1.954

Normal distributions produce a skewness and kurtosis statistics close to 0 (Mertler & Vannatta, 2001). Table F1 shows that moderate to severe skew and kurtosis were associated with most measures. The histograms of the variables similarly indicated non-normal distributions for most variables. According to DeCarlo (1997), skew and kurtosis tend to impact parametric statistical procedures in different ways. Excessive kurtosis biases procedures based on variances and covariances, whereas excessive skew biases tests on means (DeCarlo, 1997). Q-Q Plots were also used to assess if the soft and harsh power variables are distributed normally. See Figures 1 and 2 for Q-Q Plots for soft and harsh power bases ratings by school counselors and school psychologists.

Overall, pre-analyses data screening revealed non-normal distributions for majority of the dependent variables. Parametric tests assume that the data fit the normal distribution. If data is analyzed using parametric tests that assume a normal distribution and the measurement variable is not normally distributed, it increases the chance of a false positive result. Logarithmic transformation (Log_{10}) was attempted due to strong positive skew in some of the dependent variables (e.g., impersonal reward and impersonal coercion) but it was not successful in normalizing the distributions because of moderate to severe skewness observed in some variables (skewness > 3). Also, because not all variables were skewed and some were negatively skewed (e.g., expert power), transformation led to an increase in negative skewness for these variables. Therefore, it was decided not to transform the data, and use both parametric and non-parametric analyses.

Normal Q-Q Plot of Soft Power
School Psychologists



Normal Q-Q Plot of Soft Power
School Counselors

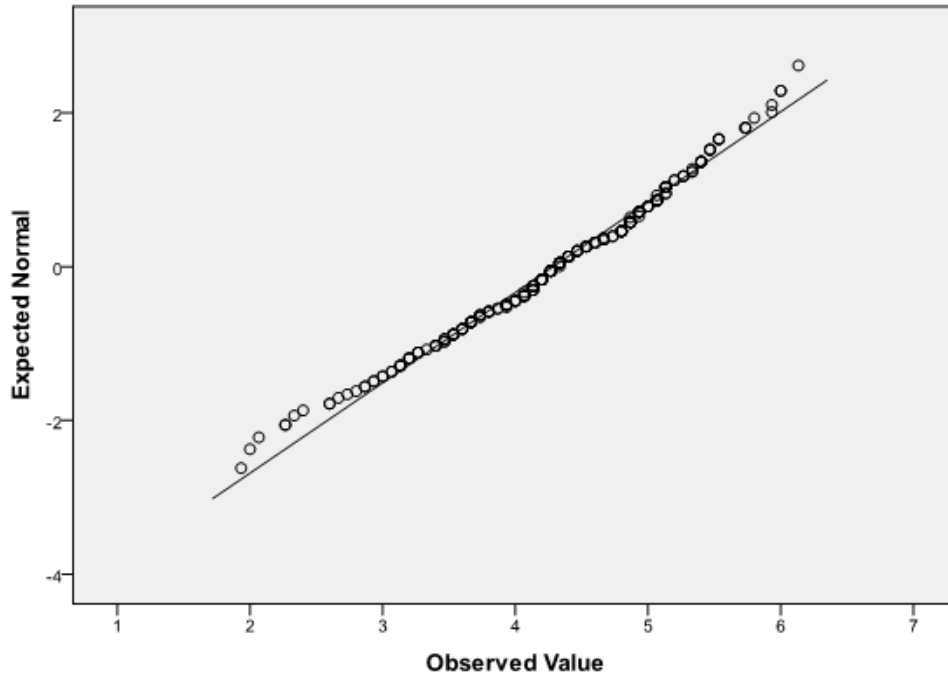
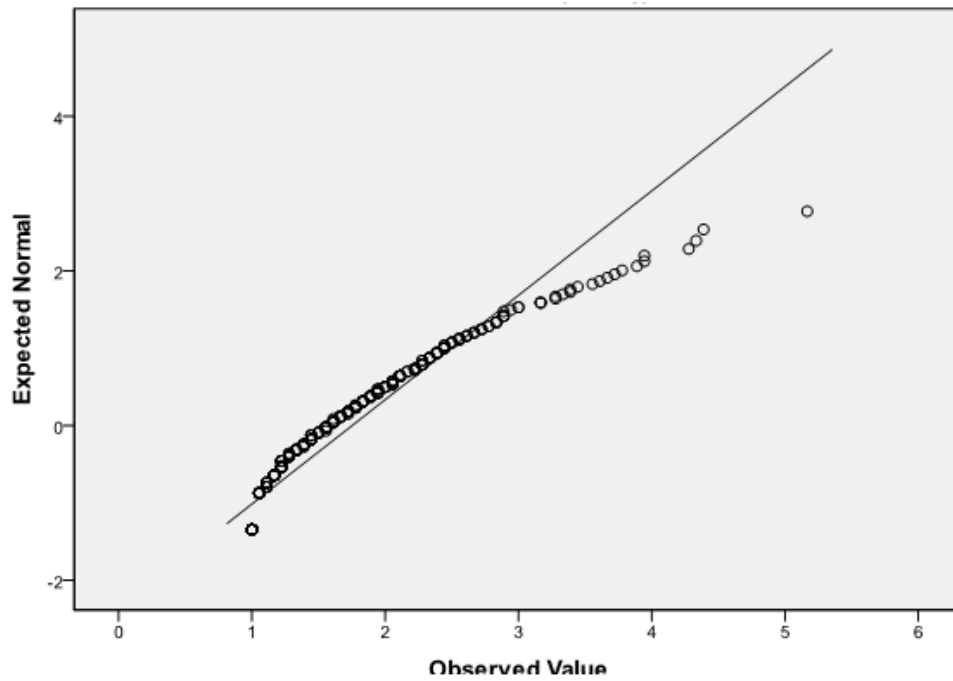


Figure F1. Q-Q Plots for Soft Power Bases

Normal Q-Q Plot of Harsh Power
School Psychologists



Normal Q-Q Plot of Harsh Power
School Counselors

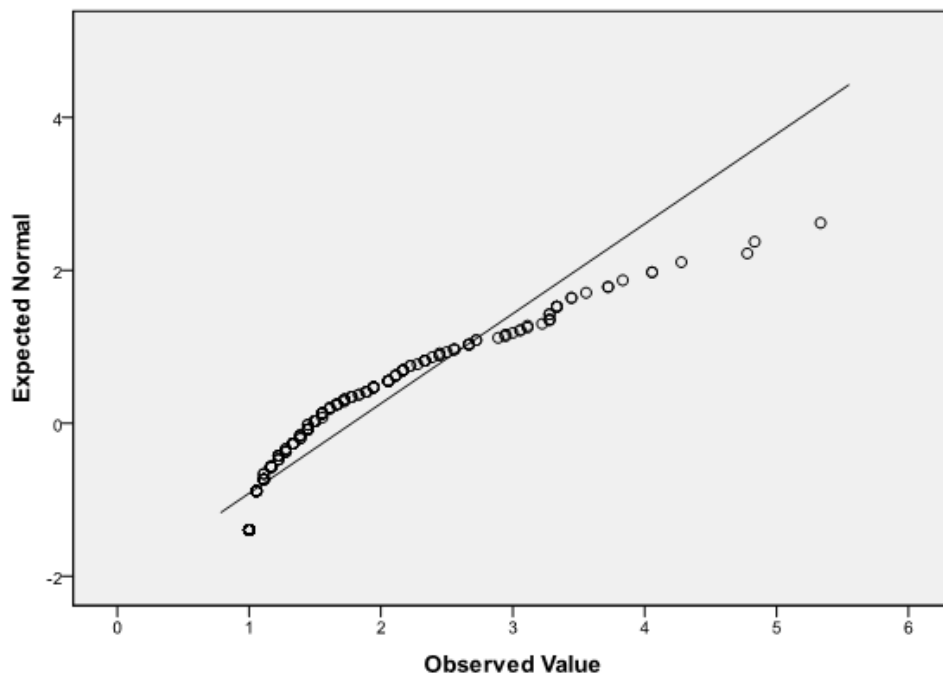


Figure F2. Q-Q Plots for Harsh Power Bases

Parametric tests addressing the research questions are presented in the results section of this dissertation. The first reason parametric tests were used is that previous studies conducted with similarly distributed data used parametric statistics. The present study is a replication and extension of the research conducted by Dr. Erchul and colleagues (e.g., Erchul, Raven, & Ray, 2001; Wilson et al., 2008) and it was decided to employ similar analytical techniques so that the comparison between the current and previous studies was possible.

The second reason parametric tests were used is that there is a lot of confusion regarding “assumption of normality” in the literature (Field, 2013). According to Field (2013), the sampling distribution of what’s being tested, rather than your data, must be normal and based on the central limit theorem, there are a many situations in which we can assume normality regardless of the shape of our sample data. The central limit theorem states that if we have large samples, the sampling distribution of what’s being tested will be normal. “Therefore, the shape of our data shouldn’t affect significance tests provided our sample is large enough” (Field, 2013, pg. 172). Since the sample size for the current study is fairly large (School Counselors, $n = 226$; School Psychologists, $n = 355$), use of ANOVA and MANOVA can be justified. Also, ANOVA and MANOVA are considered robust to moderate violations of normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Several simulation studies with different types of distribution have concluded that certain parametric tests (e.g., ANOVA) are not sensitive to the probability of false positive results when the assumption of normality is violated (Glass, Peckham, & Sanders, 1972, Harwell, Rubinstein, Hayes, & Olds, 1992, Lix, Keselman, & Keselman, 1996).

Non parametric tests were also conducted due to concerns about the skewed distribution to address the research questions (2-5). Nonparametric tests are sometimes called “assumption free” tests because they do not rely on assumptions about the shape or parameters of the population distribution. Nonparametric tests overcome the problem of the shape of the distribution by ranking the data. The analysis is then conducted on the ranks rather than the actual data (Field, 2013). Nonparametric tests are also recommended when data is collected using ordinal measurement scale (Nanna & Sawilowsky, 1998). The current research used a Likert scale that is classified as an ordinal scale. Therefore, it was decided to conduct appropriate nonparametric equivalent tests.

However, when nonparametric tests were conducted due to concerns regarding violation of normality assumption and use of ordinal scale, results were similar to parametric tests. Therefore, it was decided to include the results of parametric analyses in the results section of this dissertation to address the research questions. The non parametric analyses addressing research questions 2 to 5 are presented here.

Non-Parametric Statistics

Research Question 2: What is the likelihood of use of the 11 power bases reported by school psychologists and school counselors?

Data contained in Table 7 form the primary basis for answering the research question. It shows the *mean ranks* of the 11 individual power strategies. Mean ranks were calculated by ranking the data for each participant. For example, for participant 1, a rank of 1 was given to the variable (power strategy) with the lowest score, the next highest was given a rank of 2 and so on. A mean rank score for each power strategy was then calculated.

Table F2

Mean Ranks of Likelihood of Use of the 11 Individual Power Bases

Social Power Bases	School Counselors (n = 226)	School Psychologists (n = 355)
	Mean Rank	Mean Rank
Direct informational	10.46	10.63
Positive expert	9.25	8.94
Legitimate dependence	8.80	8.56
Positive referent	8.24	8.36
Legitimate position	6.18	6.15
Personal reward	5.52	5.98
Legitimate reciprocity	4.57	4.64
Legitimate equity	3.79	3.61
Personal coercion	3.78	3.85
Impersonal reward	2.85	2.85
Impersonal coercion	2.55	2.43

An inspection of the mean ranks reveals that the soft power bases (Informational power, positive expert power, legitimate power of dependence, referent power and position power) had higher rankings than the harsh power bases (Personal reward, impersonal reward, personal coercion, impersonal coercion, legitimate power of equity, legitimate power of reciprocity) for both, school counselors and school psychologists.

Informational power, expert power and legitimate power of dependence are the three highest ranked power bases. In order to see if these three top ranked power bases

differed significantly from each other, Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used. Wilcoxon signed-rank test is used when there are two sets of scores to compare and these scores come from the same participants. It is a non-parametric test used when paired-samples t-test may not be appropriate due to violation of assumptions of parametric tests (Field, 2013). The Wilcoxon signed-rank test calculates the differences between scores in the two variables that are being compared and ranks these differences. If the difference is positive, a positive sign is assigned to the rank and if it is negative, a negative sign is assigned to the rank. For school counselors, informational power ($Mdn = 5.67$) was rated significantly higher than expert power ($Mdn = 5.00$), $z = 9.88$, $p = .001$, $r = .46$, and legitimate power of dependence ($Mdn = 4.33$), $z = 11.43$, $p = .001$, $r = .54$. Expert power was rated higher than legitimate power of dependence by school counselors, $z = 3.03$, $p = .002$, $r = .14$. Similar results were obtained for school psychologists. School psychologists rated informational power ($Mdn = 5.67$) higher than expert power ($Mdn = 4.67$), $z = 14.22$, $p = .001$, $r = .53$, and legitimate power of dependence, $z = 14.89$, $p = .001$, $r = .56$. Expert power was rated higher than legitimate power of dependence, $z = 3.42$, $p = .001$, $r = .13$.

Research Question 3: How do school psychologists and school counselors compare on their likelihood of using soft and hard/harsh power bases?

In order to assess whether consultants (school counselors & school psychologists) report a higher likelihood of using soft power compared to harsh power when working with an initially reluctant teacher, a Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was used. For school counselors, ratings for the likelihood of use of soft power were significantly higher ($Mdn = 4.30$) than harsh power ($Mdn = 1.50$), $z = -13.01$, $p < .001$, $r = 0.62$. Results indicated

similar differences in soft and harsh power ratings by school psychologists, $z = -16.303$, $p = .001$, $r = .61$. The likelihood of using soft power ($Mdn = 4.13$) was rated higher than harsh power ($Mdn = 1.56$) by the school psychologists.

A comparison of school counselors' and school psychologists' social power rankings for soft and harsh power components was assessed using Kruskal-Wallis Tests. The Kruskal-Wallis test is the non-parametric alternative to the one-way ANOVA. It is used to determine differences between independent (unrelated) groups when the data violates any assumption for parametric testing. The results of Kruskal-Wallis test showed that the difference between school counselors' and school psychologists' ratings for soft power was significant, $H(1) = 5.739$, $p = 0.017$, $r = .24$. School counselors ($Mdn = 4.30$; $Mean\ rank = 277.71$) rated soft power higher than school psychologists ($Mdn = 4.13$; $Mean\ rank = 311.87$).

No significant difference was found between the two groups for their harsh power ratings $H(1) = 0.10$, $p = 0.75$, $r = .004$.

Research Questions 4 & 5: Is there a difference in likelihood of use of the individual soft power strategies by type of school consultant (school psychologist vs. school counselor)? Is there a difference in the likelihood of use of the individual hard/harsh power strategies by type of school consultant?

Differences between school counselors and psychologists' ratings of the 5 individual power strategies included in the soft power category were explored. Kruskal-Wallis tests with adjusted p-values (0.05/5) showed significant differences between the school counselors' and school psychologists' ratings for Expert power, $H(1) = 10.54$, $p = 0.001$, $r = .44$, and legitimate power of dependence, $H(1) = 14.45$, $p = 0.001$, $r = .60$.

Although, non-parametric tests do not require the assumption of normality, Kruskal-Wallis assumes that the shapes of the distributions are similar. Distributions of the ratings for school counselors and school psychologists did not appear similar, as assessed by visual inspection, therefore, mean ranks instead of medians are reported. Expert power ratings by school counselors (*Mean rank* = 319.21) were higher than the ratings provided by school psychologists (*Mean rank* = 273.04). Similarly, school counselors (*Mean rank* = 324.02) rated legitimate power of dependence higher than school psychologists (*Mean rank* = 269.98).

A comparison of school counselors' and school psychologists' ratings on the likelihood of 6 individual power strategies comprising the harsh power component revealed that there was a significant difference between school counselors and school psychologists in their ratings for Impersonal coercion, $H(1) = -3.23, p = 0.001, r = 0.134$. Higher ratings for likelihood of use of Impersonal coercion were provided by school counselors (*Mean rank* = 308.96) as compared to impersonal coercion ratings provided by school psychologists (*Mean rank* = 279.56).

APPENDIX G
SCREE PLOT

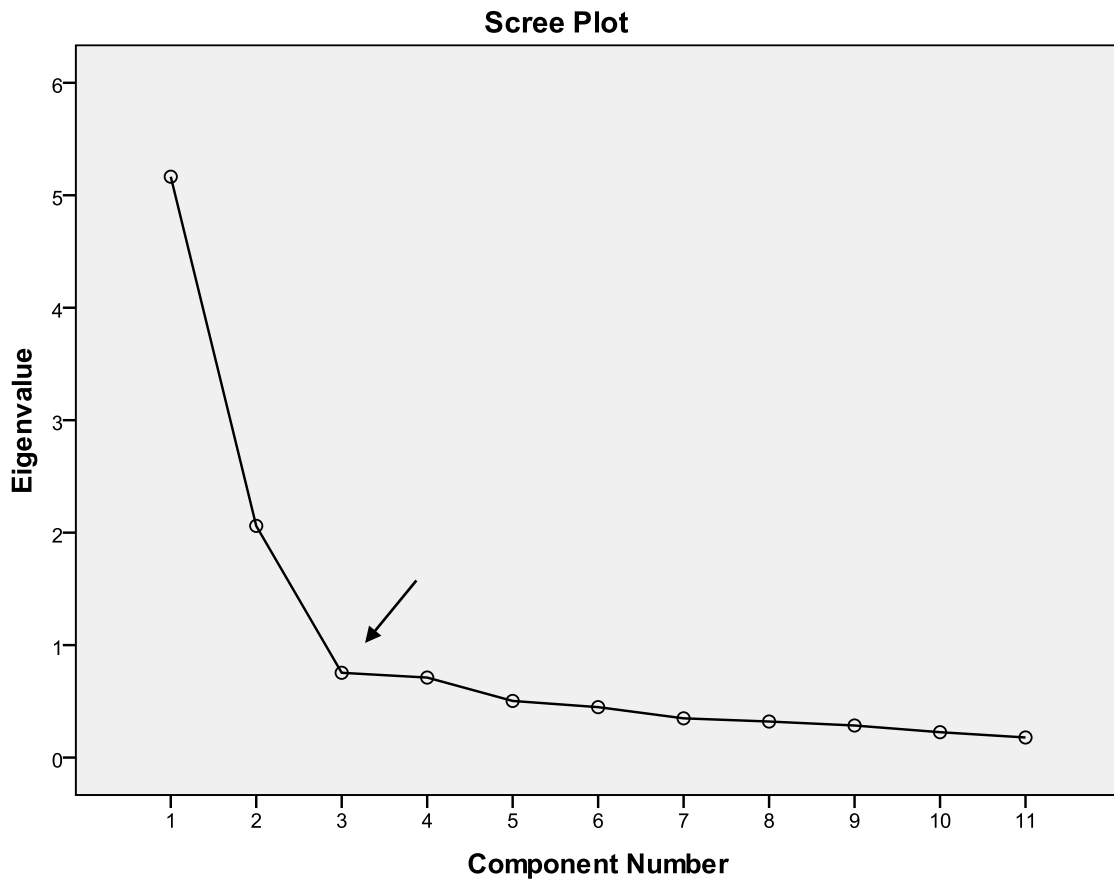


Figure G1. Scree Plot

The scree test is a graphical method used to determine the number of components to be retained. A scree plot graphs eigenvalues against the component numbers. (Mertler & Vannatta, 2001). The scree plot shows that only two components are above the eigenvalue of 1, therefore two components within the sharp descent are retained. The plot levels off after component #3.

APPENDIX H
INTERCORRELATION MATRIX

Table H1

Correlation between 11 Individual Power Bases Ratings by School Counselors

Correlation Matrix

	Expert power	Reward power	Reference power	Informational Power	Position Power	Impersonal Reward	Impersonal Coercion	Personal Coercion	Legitimate power of Equity	Legitimate Dependence	Legitimate power of Reciprocity
Expert power	1.000	.322	.538	.470	.522	.213	.117	.233	.285	.389	.235
Reward power	.322	1.000	.577	.114	.512	.549	.470	.699	.689	.350	.716
Reference power	.538	.577	1.000	.332	.486	.335	.244	.421	.477	.485	.511
Informational Power	.470	.114	.332	1.000	.297	-.061	-.127	-.036	.007	.523	.058
Position Power	.522	.512	.486	.297	1.000	.316	.307	.391	.438	.396	.377
Impersonal Reward	.213	.549	.335	-.061	.316	1.000	.794	.600	.562	.222	.551
Impersonal Coercion	.117	.470	.244	-.127	.307	.784	1.000	.593	.560	.144	.459
Personal Coercion	.233	.699	.421	-.036	.391	.600	.593	1.000	.712	.235	.647
Legitimate power of Equity	.285	.689	.477	.007	.438	.562	.560	.712	1.000	.289	.724
Legitimate Dependence	.389	.350	.485	.523	.396	.222	.144	.235	.289	1.000	.287
Legitimate power of Reciprocity	.235	.716	.511	.058	.377	.551	.459	.647	.724	.287	1.000

APPENDIX I
IRB APPROVAL



MISSISSIPPI STATE
UNIVERSITYTM

April 10, 2012

Ayesha Khurshid
128 Hunington Dr.
Columbus, MS 39705

RE: IRB Study #12-069: The Likelihood of Use of Social Power Bases in School Consultation:
A Comparison of School Psychologists and School Counselors

Dear Ms. Khurshid:

This email serves as official documentation that the above referenced project was reviewed and approved via administrative review on 4/10/2012 in accordance with 45 CFR 46.101(b)(1). Continuing review is not necessary for this project. However, any modification to the project must be reviewed and approved by the IRB prior to implementation. Any failure to adhere to the approved protocol could result in suspension or termination of your project. The IRB reserves the right, at anytime during the project period, to observe you and the additional researchers on this project.

Please note that the MSU IRB is in the process of seeking accreditation for our human subjects protection program. As a result of these efforts, you will likely notice many changes in the IRB's policies and procedures in the coming months. These changes will be posted online at <http://www.orc.msstate.edu/human/aahrpp.php>.

Please refer to your IRB number (#12-069) when contacting our office regarding this application.

Thank you for your cooperation and good luck to you in conducting this research project. If you have questions or concerns, please contact Christine Williams at cwilliams@research.msstate.edu or call 662-325-5220. In addition, we would greatly appreciate your feedback on the IRB approval process. Please take a few minutes to complete our survey at <http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/YZC7QQD>.

Sincerely,

Nicole Morse
Assistant Compliance Administrator

cc: Carmen Reisener (Advisor)
Kimberly Hall (Advisor)

Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects • P.O. Box 6223 • Mississippi State, MS 39762 • (662) 325-3294