

January 2012

Deconstructing the "Power and Control Motive": Developing and Assessing the Measurability of Internal Power

Shelly Marie Wagers

University of South Florida, drwagers@gmail.com

Follow this and additional works at: <http://scholarcommons.usf.edu/etd>

 Part of the [American Studies Commons](#), [Criminology and Criminal Justice Commons](#), [Social Psychology Commons](#), and the [Women's Studies Commons](#)

Scholar Commons Citation

Wagers, Shelly Marie, "Deconstructing the "Power and Control Motive": Developing and Assessing the Measurability of Internal Power" (2012). *Graduate Theses and Dissertations*.
<http://scholarcommons.usf.edu/etd/4248>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate School at Scholar Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Graduate Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Scholar Commons. For more information, please contact scholarcommons@usf.edu.

Deconstructing the "Power and Control Motive":
Developing and Assessing the Measurability of Internal Power

by

Shelly M. Wagers

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctorate of Philosophy
Department of Criminology
College of Behavioral and Community Sciences
University of South Florida

Major Professor Christine Sellers Ph.D.
Shayne Jones Ph.D.
Wilson Palacios Ph.D.
Kim Lersch Ph.D.

Date of Approval
June 15, 2012

Keywords: domestic violence, scalability, coercive control, batterer's motive

Copyright © 2012 Shelly M. Wagers

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my family and friends who believed in me and supported me throughout my graduate school career. I am grateful to Stacey for the love and the solid foundation she has given me over the last two years. Thank you Stacey for believing in me, hanging in there during the rough times and supporting me till the end. I would like to thank my immediate family for always believing in me. I appreciate my mother's support and encouragement throughout this process, and her constant faith in me and my abilities. I am grateful for my Aunt Pam, whose excitement about my Ph.D. would always help to reenergize me when I needed it most. I want to thank my grandfather and grandmother who have always loved and supported me through all my adventures. I am thankful to my brother who is an excellent role model and whose own successes keep me striving to reach my goals. I am grateful to my Aunt Merry who never doubted I would finish.

I want to also thank several of my friends. I will always be eternally grateful for Lisa Landis Murphy. Lisa, your support, patience, and friendship provided me with a constant light of hope and encouragement in my most difficult times, thank you. To Christine Sellers who is both my mentor and a friend. Thank you for always believing in me, guiding me professionally and helping me to find my way. I also want to thank my fellow Scorpio Wilson Palacios for his enduring friendship and support. Wilson you

always gave me a place where I knew I was understood without having to speak. Lastly, I want to thank Mary, Coleen, and all my other friends who believed in me and kept faith even when I doubted myself.

I want to give a special thank you to my father Gary and the California Highway Patrol's 11-99 foundation. Although I wish my father was still here, I am grateful for his dedicated service to the California Highway Patrol. It was because of his dedicated service I had the opportunity to receive a scholarship from the 11-99 foundation. In a special way through the 11-99 foundation my father was able to contribute significantly to my graduate degree even after he was gone. I want to thank the 11-99 foundation for the generous financial scholarship's I received continuously for seven of my eight years of graduate school. Thanks to this foundation and my father I can start my new career without the burden of large financial debt. For this I will always be grateful.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to acknowledge and thank my committee chair and each of my committee members for their generous gift of time and their thoughtful and critical review of my work. I believe a key to a successful dissertation is the ability of the major professor and committee members to provide perceptive suggestions and encouragement, but to allow the Ph.D. student to pursue and develop their own theories and research. These were the qualities provided to me by my major professor and committee members. I want to acknowledge Dr. Christine Sellers, as my major professor of eight years and chair; she provided the principal guidance for this dissertation. Dr. Shayne Jones offered insightful recommendations, enhancing the methodology and analytic plan. Dr. Wilson Palacios provided support and critical thought throughout the evolution of this dissertation. Dr. Kim Lersch supplied support at a key moment, which allowed this dissertation to be completed in a timely manner. This combination provided me the support and critical review to truly excel and complete this project.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables	iii
List of Figures	v
Abstract	vi
Chapter One: Introduction of the Study	1
Chapter Two: Literature Review	10
Theoretical Explanations of Battering	12
The Feminist Perspective	14
The Family Conflict Perspective	21
The Psychological Perspective	25
Power in the Context of Battering	28
Defining and Conceptualizing Power	30
Types of Power and Domestic Violence	35
Summary	38
Chapter Three: Internal Power	39
Defining Internal Power	40
Conceptualizing Internal Power	41
Five Fundamental Components of Internal Power and Aspects of the Self	44
The Power Gained From Having a Strong and Positive Self- Concept	44
The Power Gained From an Individual's Intrinsic Sense of Self-Worth and Mattering in the World	46
The Power Gained From One's Sense of Agency and Competence	47
Having an Inner State Independent From Outside Forces: Autonomy	50
The Power Gained From Recognizing that Regardless of Others Behavior an Individual's Control Over Their Life and Outcomes Resides Within Them	53
Operationalizing Internal Power	56
Chapter Four: Research Design and Methodology	58
Participants and Recruitment	58
Sample Profile	59

Measures	60
Self-Concept Clarity Scale.....	60
Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale	61
General Self-Efficacy Scale.....	62
Self-Determination Scale	63
Mastery	63
Relationship Behaviors	64
Socio-Demographic Characteristics.....	66
Procedures	66
Analytic Plan.....	67
Research Question 1	67
Research Question 2	71
 Chapter Five: Results	 73
Analyses of Hypotheses	73
Research Question 1	73
Hypotheses 1-10.....	74
Hypotheses 11-13.....	87
Summary of Results Question 1	90
Research Question 2	91
Hypotheses 14-16.....	92
Summary	98
 Chapter 6: Discussion	 99
General Overview of the Findings	101
Application of Internal Power to Domestic Violence Theory	105
Limitations	109
Suggestions for Future Research	109
Summary	112
 References	 114
 Appendices.....	 132
Appendix A: Self-Concept Clarity Scale.....	133
Appendix B: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale	134
Appendix C: General Self-Efficacy Scale.....	135
Appendix D: Self-Determination Scale	136
Appendix E: Mastery Scale.....	137
Appendix F: Psychological Abuse Perpetration	138
Appendix G: Physical Abuse Perpetration	139
Appendix H: Socio-Demographic Questions	140
Appendix I: Study Script.....	141

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1:	Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for the Twelve-Item Self-Concept Clarity Scale	76
Table 2:	Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for the Ten-Item Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale	77
Table 3:	Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for the Ten-Item General Self-Efficacy Scale	79
Table 4:	Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for the Ten-Item Self-Determination Scale	80
Table 5:	Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for the Ten-Item Mastery Scale	81
Table 6:	Summary of the Reliability Analysis and Principal Components Analysis for the Self-Concept Clarity Scale	84
Table 7:	Summary of the Reliability Analysis and Principal Components Analysis for the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale.....	85
Table 8:	Summary of the Reliability Analysis and Principal Components Analysis for the General Self-Efficacy Scale	86
Table 9:	Summary of the Reliability Analysis and Principal Components Analysis for the Self-Determination Scale	86
Table 10:	Summary of the Reliability Analysis and Principal Components Analysis for the Mastery Scale	87
Table 11:	Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for the Five Underlying Factors of Internal Power.....	88
Table 12:	Summary of the Reliability Analysis and Principal Components Analysis for the Internal Power Scale.....	89

Table 13: Descriptive Statistics for the Standardized Self-Concept Clarity Scale, Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, General Self-Efficacy Scale, Self-Determinations Scale, Mastery Scale, and Internal Power Scale.....	92
Table 14: Descriptive Statistics for the Psychological Abuse Scale, Physical Abuse Scale, and Total Abuse Scale.....	94
Table 15: Group Differences for Self-Concept Clarity, Self-Esteem, Self-Efficacy, Self-Determination, Mastery, and Internal Power Between Individuals Who Did and Did Not Report Using Psychological Abuse.....	95
Table 16: Group Differences for Self-Concept Clarity, Self-Esteem, Self-Efficacy, Self-Determination, Mastery, and Internal Power Between Individuals Who Did and Did Not Report Using Physical Abuse.....	95
Table 17: Group Differences for Self-Concept Clarity, Self-Esteem, Self-Efficacy, Self-Determination, Mastery, and Internal Power Between Individuals Who Did and Did Not Report Using Total Abuse.....	96
Table 18: Pearson Correlation Coefficient Scores of Self-Concept Clarity, Rosenberg Self-Esteem, General Self-Efficacy, Self-Determination, Mastery, and Internal Power for Three Measures of Abuse.....	97

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Original Power and Control Wheel.....	17
Figure 2: Lesbian/Gay Power and Control Wheel	19
Figure 3: Factor Structure: Internal Power.....	69

ABSTRACT

Despite the increased social recognition, law and policy changes within the criminal justice system, and the widespread use of court mandated batterer intervention programs (BIPs) domestic violence continues to be a persistent problem. The lack of significant decline in incidence rates along with a growing body of empirical evidence that indicates BIPs are, at best, only moderately effective raises serious concern. Effective policies and programs are based upon empirically tested theory. The assertion “the batterer’s motive is power and control” has become fundamental to almost all of our currently used and accepted mainstream theoretical explanations regarding domestic violence. However, the domestic violence literature has not yet advanced any specific conceptualizations of power as a construct, it has not produced a theoretical model of power that articulates why or how power specifically acts as a motive for a batterer, and it has never empirically tested this fundamental assertion.

The purpose of this research is to address this gap by focusing on the role of power in domestic violence theory and offer a more complete conceptualization and precise operationalization of power. The main goal of this study was to advance our current understanding of an individual’s sense of power and control as a motive for using coercive control tactics, such as psychological and physical abuse tactics against an intimate partner. Therefore, the primary objective of this study was to develop and assess

the measurability of the construct “internal power”. Specifically, it defined, conceptualized, and operationalized internal power. Then a Pearson’s product-moment correlation coefficient was examined and a principal components factor analysis was conducted to investigate the dimensionality and underlying factor structure of internal power. Findings indicated empirical support for the proposed measure of internal power, allowing its relationship to an individual’s use of psychological and physical abuse tactics to be empirically assessed. Results of a t-test and examination of a Pearson’s product-moment correlation coefficient indicated that internal power is inversely related to an individual’s use of psychological and physical abuse tactics. Findings indicate that both the measure for internal power and its potential relationship to an individual’s use of psychological and physical abuse tactics warrants further exploration and development.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION OF THE STUDY

For the past four decades, both researchers and activists have worked to prevent domestic violence. These efforts include, but are not limited to: a plethora of empirical research studies across multiple disciplines seeking to understand and explain the phenomenon of domestic violence; new civil laws, such as injunctions for protection; the criminalization of domestic violence; new police and prosecutorial procedures, such as preferred/mandatory arrest and victimless prosecution; the development of domestic violence centers and other support services for victims; and therapy programs for perpetrators, such as the widespread implementation of Batterer Intervention Programs (BIPs). The main goal behind all of these efforts and the ultimate aim for both mainstream domestic violence researchers and activists has been and continues to be the primary prevention of domestic violence.

The efforts listed above began to be widely implemented in communities across all 50 states beginning in the early to mid 1990s. It was hoped and anticipated that over time these efforts would significantly impact domestic violence incidence rates and reduce costs related to domestic violence. However, recent empirical findings indicate that there has not been any significant reduction in incidence rates or costs. For example, in the mid to late 1990s research showed that approximately 1 in 4 women and 1 in 13

men reported being “raped and/or physically assaulted by a current or former spouse, cohabitating partner, or date at some time in their lifetime” (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000, p.iii). Today, studies show that 1 in 3 women and 1 in 4 men in the United States report that they have experienced rape, physical violence, and/or stalking by an intimate partner, and nearly half of all women and men in the United States report that they have experienced psychological aggression by an intimate partner in their lifetime (CDC, 2010). In 2003 the Centers for Disease Control reported that domestic violence still affects more than 32 million Americans, and roughly 2 million people die each year as a result of injuries sustained during a domestic violence episode (Centers for Disease Control, 2003).

Research also shows that tremendous financial costs are still being incurred by society. It is estimated that each year domestic violence costs exceed 8.3 billion dollars in loss of productivity and direct medical expenses (Max et al., 2004). Research from the Centers for Disease Control indicates that employers lose between 3 billion and 5 billion dollars each year in lower productivity, higher turnover, absenteeism, safety, and health costs associated with domestic violence (CDC, 2003). In a given year, the United States loses over 1.7 million workdays and spends over 5.8 billion dollars in health-related costs due to domestic violence (CDC, 2003). Individuals with a history of domestic violence victimization and those currently experiencing it utilize health care at rates 20% higher than those with no history of domestic violence, resulting in an estimated 19.3 million dollars in excessive health care costs each year (Rivara et al., 2007). Families in which domestic violence occurs use six times more prescription drugs, visit doctors eight times more frequently, and visit emergency rooms six times more often than the general

population (Rivara et al., 2007). According to the Centers for Disease Control the result is an annual direct medical and mental health care cost of approximately 4.1 billion dollars a year (CDC, 2003).

These empirical findings demonstrate that despite the increased social recognition, law and policy changes within the criminal justice system, and the widespread use of mandated BIPs domestic violence is still a major issue that needs to be studied and addressed (Dobash & Dobash, 2003; Gelles, 2001; Straus, 2005; Saltzman, 2004; Starke, 2007; Tjaden & Thonnes, 2000; Websdale, 2010). The lack of significant decline in incidence rates along with the growing body of empirical evidence demonstrating the ineffectiveness of the majority of BIPs (see Babcock et al., 2004; Corvo et al., 2010 Dutton, 2003; Dutton & Corvo, 2007; Gondolf, 2002, 2007; for further discussion) raises serious concerns and has created uncertainty regarding how to move forward.

Most of the current policies and treatment programs in effect today are primarily the result of mainstream domestic violence theory. Mainstream theoretical conceptions regarding the etiology of domestic violence developed as a result of a convergence of two traditions: the advocacy movement arising from feminism and the social and behavioral research on domestic violence (Gordon, 2000). However, the advocacy movement, more commonly known as the battered women's movement, preceded the social scientific study of domestic violence (Dutton & Gondolf, 2000). Understanding this history is important because the feminist perspective and the battered women's movement have been and continue to be the dominant forces behind mainstream theories, current criminal

justice laws and policies, and the most widely employed treatment model among court-mandated BIPs.

The battered women's movement emerged from feminism's second wave¹. Its fundamental purpose is and has always been to empower women and keep them safe by transforming "wife abuse" into a publicly recognized and condemned issue (Starke, 2007). The focus of the battered women's movement was and continues to be almost exclusively on the most urgent and pragmatic issues of keeping victims safe by providing emergency shelter and support services to them and improving the responses of the police and justice system (Dobash & Dobash, 2011). Although the battered women's movement is primarily an advocacy movement which focuses on changing society's view and political policies, its feminist roots have also greatly influenced domestic violence theories and mainstream social scientific research. For example, prior to the battered women's movement the prevailing theoretical explanation for domestic violence centered on psychology and/or psychopathology (Laing, 2002), but during the battered women's movement feminists began to apply a sociopolitical framework to men's violence against women, which has now become the prevailing theoretical approach to explaining domestic violence.

From the feminist perspective, domestic violence is deeply embedded in societal structures. For example, Dobash and Dobash (1979) stated that "men who assault their wives are actually living up to cultural prescriptions that are cherished in Western societies – aggressiveness, male dominance and female subordination – and they are using physical force as a means to enforce that dominance" (p.24). Therefore, feminists argue that theories of domestic violence should place primacy on the power imbalance

between the sexes as being a root cause of domestic violence and other forms of violence against women (Bograd, 1988; Dobash & Dobash, 1979; Yllo, 2005).

The feminist perspective and the battered women's movement led to the development and widespread implementation of the Duluth Domestic Abuse Intervention Project (DAIP). The DAIP originated in the city of Duluth, Minnesota after a particularly brutal "domestic homicide" occurred in 1980, which made the community receptive and willing to experiment with new policies and practices designed to confront men's violence against women (Pence & Paymer 1985). After critically examining the flaws with current practices a small group of researchers and advocates were able to get nine city, county, and private social service agencies in Duluth, Minnesota to adopt and commit to new policies and procedures designed to coordinate their interventions in domestic violence cases. The result of this overhaul was a project that argued for practices that would hold the offender accountable and place the responsibility of intervention on the community, not the individual being abused (Pence & Paymar, 1993).

The focus and primary goals of the DAIP were to protect victims from continued acts of violence by combining legal sanctions, nonviolent classes, and when necessary, incarceration of the abuser. However, the new policies and procedures being implemented as part of the DAIP, such as mandatory arrest, led to an exponential increase of domestic abuse offenders in the justice system. The courts and the founders of the DAIP concluded that it was impractical to incarcerate these "first-time" misdemeanor offenders without providing them an opportunity to rehabilitate themselves (Paymer & Barnes, 2007). Therefore, the founders of the DAIP sought to develop an

educational curriculum that counselors could use in court mandated domestic violence offender groups (Pence and Paymar, 1993).

What emerged from the DAIP were two distinct and important components. The first component was the development of a multi-disciplinary program designed to address the issue of domestic violence in a community, which today is commonly referred to as a “coordinated community response”. The second component was an educational curriculum that began to theorize and conceptualize domestic violence, which could be used in BIPs. Today the DAIP intervention model is commonly referred to as the Duluth Model and its educational curriculum for working with batterers has become the foundation of most BIPs and the framework for most mainstream domestic violence theories.

The Duluth curriculum originated from interviews with battered women attending educational classes offered by a battered women’s shelter. The purpose behind these interviews was to develop a framework that could describe the behaviors of men who physically and emotionally abused their wives (Pence & Paymar, 1985). Based upon the information learned from these interviews Pence and Paymar (1993) conceptualized domestic violence as “a pattern of physical, psychological, and sexual abuse; coercion, and violence with the intent to dominate and control” (p.2). They further stated that “violence is used to control people’s behavior... the intention of the batterer is to gain power and control over their intimate partner’s actions, thoughts, and feelings” (p.2).

The Duluth Model and its conceptualization of domestic violence are significant for two reasons. First, the Duluth Model established the concept that domestic violence involves “battering”, which is an individual’s ongoing patterned use of a variety of

emotional and physical abuse tactics towards their intimate partner. Second, the Duluth Model's assertion that a batterer's motive is power and control has become the most widely used and accepted explanation for an individual battering their intimate partner. This widespread acceptance is illustrated by the most commonly used definitions of domestic violence. For example, the United States Department of Justice defines domestic violence as "a pattern of abusive behavior in any relationship that is used by one partner to gain or maintain power and control over another intimate partner." (United States Department of Justice, 2012).

The Duluth Model's curriculum is based on the theory that "violence is used to control people's behavior" (Pence and Paymar, 1993, p. 1). The central focus of the Duluth Model is exploring the power relationships and the effects of controlling and violent behavior on an intimate partner. For example, the most well known and utilized symbol in domestic violence educational programs and BIPs is the Power and Control Wheel, which is a visual picture that articulates the underpinning of the Duluth curriculum. The wheel places power and control at its core, has eight spokes that emanate from it, and violence is the outer ring that holds everything together. The purpose of the wheel is to show the batterer's sources of power, such as gender (e.g., male entitlement or finances) and the variety of abusive power tactics, such as verbal threats and emotional abuse (e.g., isolation), which batterers use to exercise dominance "over" their intimate partner (Pence and Paymar, 1985). Therefore, the Power and Control Wheel demonstrates how an abuser uses "power" to assert "control" and dominance over their intimate partner.

Today, mainstream domestic violence theories are based upon the Duluth Model's curriculum and argue that a batterer's motive or reason for using coercion and violence is rooted in their need for power and to have dominance over their intimate partner (Pence, 1999). This suggests that a batterer has a need for a sense of power or is striving for power, which in essence is a power motive. However, mainstream theories and the Duluth curriculum also argue that the batterer is both in possession of most or all of the social power in the relationship. It seems paradoxical that if by sociopolitical and cultural standards the batterer possesses all the power in the relationship, which means they must be powerful, they would still have a need to exert control and dominance, which symbolizes feelings of powerlessness.

Given the widespread acceptance of the batterer's "power and control motive" and its fundamental role in the theoretical understanding of battering behavior, one would think that the concept of "power" is well defined, conceptualized, and operationalized in the domestic violence literature. However, this is not the case. Mainstream feminist theories fail to fully conceptualize power, limiting their understanding of domestic violence to a sociopolitical view. Feminist researchers also tend to ignore literature from other areas, such as the family conflict perspective and the psychological perspective, which could expand upon both the conceptualization of power and domestic violence theory. As a result, the domestic violence literature has yet to advance either a specified conceptualization of the construct "power" or any theories of power that can explain either the root cause or how power acts as a motive for an individual batterer. The overall purpose of this study is to address this gap by focusing on the role of power in

domestic violence and offer a more complete conceptualization and precise operationalization of power.

Chapter two will briefly review the pertinent domestic violence literature regarding theories and empirical findings on an individual's motive for battering an intimate partner. This chapter will also review the social psychological literature pertaining to the concept of power, which identifies two types of power: social and internal. To date, the concept of social power has been developed and examined in the domestic violence literature, but little to no attention has been given in this literature to one's internal sense of power. In the third chapter, this paper will present a definition, conceptualization, and operationalization of the construct internal power. Then the fourth chapter will present the methodology used to explore the scalability of the internal power construct. The fifth chapter will present the analytic results. The sixth chapter will discuss the results as they pertain to the measurability of the internal power construct and the potential application of internal power regarding domestic violence theory, research, and batterer intervention programs.

1. There are three waves of feminism. The first wave was during the late 19th century and early 20th century. This wave is known as being part of the women's suffrage movement, and women's property rights were the focus. The second wave of feminism began in the 1960's and lasted until the 1980's. The focus of the second was on women's culture and political inequalities. The third wave began in the early 1990's to address the failure of the second wave (Pleck, 2004).

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The previous chapter argued that despite the wealth of knowledge that has accumulated over the past 40 years from empirical research, domestic violence continues to be a persistent problem. Currently, there is little evidence to support that the incidence rate of domestic violence has significantly declined, and the effectiveness of new policies and BIPs are being questioned (Babcock et al., 2004; CDC, 2010; Gondolf, 2007; Stark, 2007). The lack of reduction in incidence rates and the mounting evidence that BIPs are at best only moderately effective demonstrates that there are still significant and crucial gaps to our theoretical understanding of this phenomenon.

In order to reduce incidence rates of domestic violence and reduce its costs to society, both prevention and intervention programs are important. Prevention involves raising awareness and increasing society's general understanding of domestic violence. Prevention efforts, such as criminalizing domestic violence, can help to change the socio-political culture by making acts of domestic violence intolerable rather than acceptable behavior. However, they do not treat the root causes at the individual level. On the other hand, intervention programs should be designed to treat the domestic violence offender, but effective treatment requires understanding the root causes that underpin the

individual's motivation(s) for engaging in battering behaviors toward their intimate partner.

The focus of the battered women's movement, which has also become the foundation for mainstream domestic violence theories, is to demonstrate concern for victims of domestic violence, with limited interest in understanding and helping the abuser. This philosophy and approach to domestic violence is prevalent in mainstream prevention and intervention programs. A good example of how this philosophy has been implemented is the explanation offered by the Minnesota Coalition for Battered Women regarding the purpose of batterer treatment programs:

“The primary goal of a batterers program is to eliminate physical, sexual, and emotional abuse. The focus is on the victim's safety and well-being. The following are key elements of a successful abusive behavior treatment program: 1. The batterer is held completely responsible for the violence and for changing his behavior to end it; 2. The focus is not on treating individual psychopathology, but on teaching how to choose to develop non-violent behaviors, emotions, and attitudes; 3. The abuser learns about the social systems and norms that have given him tacit approval for battering.” (Minnesota Coalition for Battered Women, 2012)

Few social problems are adequately explained by a single cause or addressed by a one-size-fits-all solution. Although feminist theories have contributed significantly to our understanding of domestic violence, activists and researchers are becoming more cognizant that in order to truly impact incidence rates and reduce costs it is necessary to increase the effectiveness of intervention programs. There is a growing awareness that

there are explanatory factors beyond the sociopolitical ideas of power and patriarchy and that in order to increase effectiveness of policies and programs, there is a need to expand beyond the traditional mainstream feminist theoretical model (McPhail et al., 2007). A critical piece to this expansion is gaining a better understanding of the etiology of the domestic violence offender's battering behaviors, which requires a shift in focus from macro level explanations of domestic violence to micro level explanations of battering. In order to systematically expand upon domestic violence theory it is important to: first, focus on a central fundamental concept in current theory and practice; second, review and understand the empirical knowledge that has already been gained regarding that concept; and third, build upon the prior knowledge step by step.

The focus of this study is to further our theoretical understanding concerning the etiology of the domestic violence offender's "power and control motive" and its relationship to violence against one's intimate partner. Therefore, this chapter will begin by first reviewing the pertinent domestic violence literature regarding theoretical explanations of battering in the context of the offender's power and control motive. Next, it will discuss power within the context of battering. Then it will review the literature from social psychology to define and conceptualize power. Lastly, it will discuss the types of power and their relationship to domestic violence.

Theoretical Explanations of Battering

Scholars have been theorizing and conducting empirical research to scientifically study and attempt to identify the etiology of domestic violence for more than 40 years. Researchers and theoreticians have examined domestic violence at the intra-individual level, the sociological level, and the sociopolitical level, with the individual, family

system, and society at the center of such inquiry (Laing, 2002). As a result, a wide variety of domestic violence theories have originated from a multitude of disciplines, such as women's studies, sociology, criminology, marriage and family studies, and psychology.

Across the plethora of disciplines that study domestic violence there are three primary perspectives or theoretical orientations that influence and guide both theories and empirical research: the feminist perspective, the family conflict perspective, and the psychological perspective. Although each perspective uses a different lens to develop their explanations, there appears to be agreement across perspectives that power and control are “central constructs” to understanding the cause of domestic violence (Cascardi & Vivian, 1995; Dobash & Dobash, 1979; Malik & Lindahl, 1998; Straus & Gelles, 1990; Yllo, 2005). However, a common weakness is their failure to define and differentiate these two constructs. In order to develop and empirically test theory, social scientists need to utilize clear definitions, conceptualizations, and operationalizations of key constructs. Both power and control are difficult to define, and their edges tend to blur together in common use, but they are conceptually and empirically different (Overbeck & Park, 2001). In very general terms, these constructs are distinguished as “power” being a capacity or potential to influence and “control” as being the means to produce an action or change in another person's behavior (Copeland, 1994; French & Raven, 1959). Therefore, power is the possession of resources and the capacity to influence, while control is the actual use of the resources. (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1962; Molm, 1981; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Put another way, control is the behavior that is directed at getting another person to do something that one wants them to do (Stets, 1993,

1995). In the case of domestic violence these control behaviors are coercion and violence. The focus of this paper is on understanding the batterer's "motive" for using coercive and violent behaviors (forms of control) towards their intimate partner. Therefore, this review of theoretical explanations will concentrate on the construct of "power" in the context of an individual batterer's motive.

The Feminist Perspective

Feminist theories have consistently argued and shown the validity of power as an important variable in understanding domestic violence (Paymar & Barnes, 2007). Understanding the feminist perspective on an offender's power and control motive is important, because feminist theories are the most prominent in the mainstream domestic violence literature and they are the foundation of the most widely used treatment model among BIPs. However, mainstream feminist theories of domestic violence emerged from both feminism and the political activism of the battered women's movement.

Feminist theories of domestic violence are based upon the feminist tenets that (a) gender is a principal division among members in society, (b) theory should uncover the social sources of gender oppression and inequality, and (c) the patriarchal structures of societies are one of the sources of such oppression (Turner, 1998). Feminist researchers argue that domestic violence is one type of oppression that requires its own theoretical explanation. Therefore, the feminist perspective explains domestic violence from a broad sociopolitical social level, focusing on the concept of patriarchy and the societal institutions that help to maintain patriarchy (Dobash & Dobash, 1979). Feminist scholars argue that domestic violence can be explained by answering the general question "Why

do men beat their wives?" instead of asking, "Why did this individual beat his wife?" (Bograd, 1988).

Feminist theories conceptualize domestic violence as a pattern that can only be understood by examining the social context, which includes the structure of relationships in a patriarchal society and the imbalance of power and control (Jasinski, 2001).

Patriarchy is typically defined as a system of social and cultural arrangements that privilege males, where men as a group dominate women as a group (Hunnicut, 2009).

Violence forms an integral aspect of male dominance, since the systems of power and authority are ultimately based on the threat or use of force (Dobash & Dobash, 1988).

Therefore, feminists argue that violence grows out of the inequality within marriages and reinforces male dominance and female subordination within the home and outside it, making domestic violence part of male power and control (Yllo, 2005).

The feminist conceptualization that domestic violence is motivated by “power and control” grew inductively out of the day-to-day work of battered women and activists, who struggled to make sense of the victimization they saw. As the shelter movement grew and survivors and activists joined together to discuss their experiences a clearer picture of what domestic violence is emerged (Yllo, 2005). For example, some of the early research that is still applicable today as a basis for understanding the dynamics and patterns that occur within the violent relationship are Lenore Walker’s explanation of the “cycle of violence” (1979) and Angela Browne’s findings that were presented in her book *When Battered Women Kill* (1987). However, the most influential feminist model of power and control is the educational curriculum that emerged from the Domestic Abuse Intervention Project, which is commonly known as the Duluth Model. The Duluth

Model's educational curriculum provides a concise framework for seeing the interconnections between violence and other forms of coercive and controlling behaviors, and it also identifies these behaviors as being tactics of power, which is deeply gendered. For example, Yllo (2005) argued that "when the control tactics are examined in detail through research based on extensive interviews with battered women and batterers, the close up picture of domestic violence that develops is one of domination" (p. 22).

At the core of the Duluth Model are feminist insights and practices. The Duluth Model's educational curriculum grew out of the shelter movement and it is based on the knowledge and insights gained from working with battered women. The Duluth curriculum conceptualizes domestic violence as "a pattern of physical, psychological, and sexual abuse; coercion, and violence with the intent to dominate and control" (Pence & Paymer, 1993, p.2). Pence and Paymar (1993) stated that "violence is used to control people's behavior... the intention of the batterer is to gain control over their partner's actions, thoughts, and feelings" (Pence & Paymar, 1993, p.2). The Duluth "Power and Control" curriculum is significant because it established the concept that domestic violence involved "battering", which is an ongoing pattern of violence that incorporates the use of a variety of emotional, verbal, and physical abuse tactics motivated by the need to control another person. Pence and Paymer (1993) presented their definition and conceptualization of battering in a visual picture called the "Power and Control Wheel" (see Figure 1).

Space Intentionally Left Blank



DOMESTIC ABUSE INTERVENTION PROJECT
202 East Superior Street
Duluth, Minnesota 55802
218-722-2781
www.duluth-model.org

Figure 1. Original Power and Control Wheel

*From: "A Guide for Conducting Domestic Violence Assessments" by Domestic Abuse Intervention Project, 2002, appendix C-1. Copyright 2002 by Domestic Abuse Intervention Project. Reprinted with permission of the editors

The Power and Control Wheel places power and control at its core with eight spokes emanating from it and physical violence as the outer wheel holding everything together. According to the most common explanation of the wheel, each spoke represents a tool or type of an external social power resource the batterer can use to exercise their dominance over their intimate partner, with dominance being a behavior that has the acquisition of power and control as its objective. The exact behaviors of each individual batterer and how they fit into each of the eight areas will vary based upon which external or social power resources they possess and to what degree they possess them relative to the resources their intimate partner possesses. This is illustrated by the fact that the spoke labeled “using male privilege” in the original wheel is changed and titled as simply “using privilege” in the gay and lesbian wheel (see Figure 2). The gay and lesbian wheel also adds external socialized homophobia to the outer ring beyond the ring of physical violence, replacing gender with sexual preference as the overriding external power resource that the offender can use to exert dominance over their intimate partner.

The Power and Control Wheel and Duluth curriculum are commonly used by both advocates and researchers to assert that a batterer’s motive for being violent is to get power and control (Pence, 1999). However, this fundamental component to feminist theories of domestic violence has never been empirically tested. This is significant because the Duluth Model’s power and control curriculum is the most widely used and implemented program model among court-mandated BIPs (Gondolf, 2007; Paymar & Barnes, 2007). Currently 45 states have implemented standards for BIPs, with these standards or guidelines codified and distributed by government domestic violence

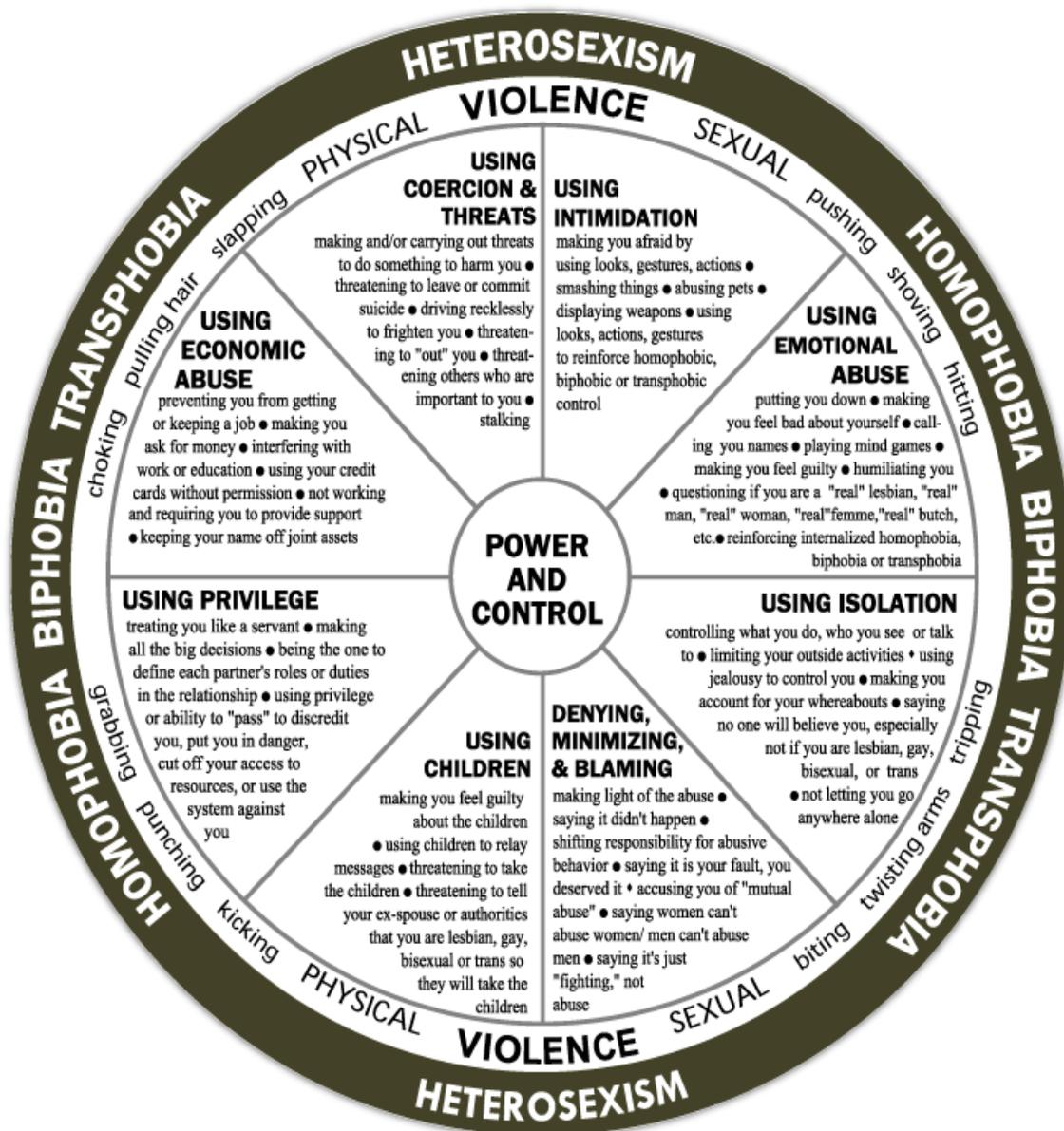


Figure 2. Lesbian/Gay Power and Control Wheel

*Produced and distributed by National Center on Domestic and Sexual Violence, Austin TX. Reprinted with permission.

“certifying” agencies that determine which approaches for batterer “treatment” are permitted (NIJ, 1998). In a meta-analytic review Babcock et al. (2004) found that the Duluth Model is the “unchallenged treatment of choice for most of these communities” (p.1026) and where the Duluth Model was not mandated or implemented in its pure form, it still substantially influenced other treatment approaches (Corvo et al., 2010). However, researchers as well as BIP service providers and advocates working with victims of domestic violence are becoming skeptical about the effectiveness of BIPs (Hanson, 2010). A review of the empirical literature shows that BIPs have little to no effect on re-abuse (Sheehan et al., 2012). For example, quasi-experimental studies have found that BIPs only moderately reduce recidivism rates in those who complete the program, (Gondolf, 2000, Eckhardt et al., 2006), with randomized controlled trials and meta-analytic studies indicating no difference in recidivism rates (Babcock et al., 2004; Felder & Wilson, 2005). In 2002, Sally Hillsman, then Deputy Director of the National Institute of Justice, summed up the research on batterer programs as indicating “a possibility that there may be no difference between the control and experimental groups”. She further concluded that the findings indicate that “the more rigorous the design, the more likely we are to get a null effect” (Hillsman, 2002, p.1).

Although theoretical perspectives such as those utilized in the Duluth model have been instrumental in developing domestic violence theories and BIPs, it does not mean their limitations regarding understanding an individual batterer’s “power motive” should not be challenged. A decade ago Ellen Pence (1999) wrote “we have developed some of our own truisms that reduce complex social relationships to slogans. The original power and control wheel effectively argued that when he is violent he gets power and he gets

control. However early on this mantra changed to the message, he is violent in order to get control or power” (p. 28-29). Pence highlights the difference between a theory that states power is an outcome of being violent versus one that states the “motive” or reason an individual is violent is to gain or maintain power. The latter argument suggests that at the individual level a batterer is lacking power and has a need for a sense of power or is striving for power, which in essence is a power motive.

The Family Conflict Perspective

For more than 30 years researchers from the family conflict perspective have been challenging the limitations of the feminist perspective’s emphasis on the sociopolitical argument of patriarchy as a theoretical explanation for battering. The family conflict perspective is also known as the family violence perspective, and it takes a sociological approach to understanding domestic violence. The family violence perspective grew out of the work done by family conflict scholars. Family conflict scholars argue that three factors produce family violence: (1) the unique structure of the family, such as being prone to constant change and stress; (2) social acceptance of violence as a means of resolving conflict; and (3) the important role that corporal punishment of children plays in the social acceptance of violence (Kurz, 1993). Therefore, family conflict researchers believe that domestic violence is a common occurrence that happens within the family by both spouses, rather than an issue of violence against women (Jasinski, 2001).

The family conflict perspective asks about the structure of the family and explores how it contributes to violence in the family and among intimate partners. These scholars examine the ways in which people within a family struggle for power (Robertson & Murachver, 2011). They argue that family conflicts arise from disagreements and

competition for power resources within the familial relationship. However, they conceptualize that the resources that form the foundation for the most powerful competitions are social resources, such as wealth and status. Therefore, power sources that can lead to conflicts in families are things like money (Robertson & Murachver, 2011).

Although family conflict theories focus on a meso level of analysis, they do not place a primacy on patriarchy and sexism as being the root cause of domestic violence. Instead, family conflict theorists argue that the unique structure of the family contributes to its nature as a “violent prone” institution (Gelles, 1993). Family conflict scholars believe that violence between intimate partners is one type of family violence that can be explained by answering the general question: What is it about the structure of the family in a particular society that encourages or contributes to family violence? (Eigenberg, 2001). Therefore, family conflict scholars advocate for changing these structural factors within the family that create these power struggles, rather than altering the individuals (Straus et al., 1980).

Domestic violence theories from this perspective are generally traced back to the efforts of Straus (1971) and Gelles (1974), whose primary interest was to study the variety of family conflict issues and how these conflicts are resolved (Johnson, 1995). In the early 1970’s, Straus and Gelles began working together with the primary theoretical focus of examining commonalities among forms of family violence (Yllo, 1988; Straus, 1979). Straus and Gelles (1990) believe that the origin of domestic violence is in the nature of the family structure rather than patriarchy (Straus & Gelles, 1990). Family conflict theory states that violence happens when conflicts spiral out of control, which

occurs when the family cannot understand the intricacies of their intentions and motivations (Felson & Outlaw, 2007). Therefore, in order to prevent the violence the source of the power struggle and cause of the conflict must be identified (Felson & Outlaw, 2007; Robertson Murachver, 2011).

Family violence researchers agree with feminist researchers that power and control are central concepts to understanding violence between intimate partners (Straus, 2005). For example, family conflict theories argue that violence is a coercive action that is used to influence one's partner (Felson, 2002). However, the family conflict perspective differs from the feminist perspective in two significant ways. First, the family conflict perspective places an emphasis on the batterer's short-term influence rather than on the batterer's need to dominate their partner. In other words, batterers use violence to get their way in a particular instance, not to ensure obedience in the future (Felson, 2002). Second, family conflict scholars argue that women are just as likely as men to use coercive and violent tactics to exert power and control to resolve a conflict (Straus, 2005). Therefore, according to family violence theories, violence in intimate relationships results from conflicts between couples because violence is a tactic that can be used to achieve the goal of resolving the conflict and maintaining the balance of power and control in the relationship or within the dyad (Straus, 2005).

The Duluth Model's curriculum and mainstream feminist theories have been effective at addressing the larger political issue of the oppression of women and have increased the safety of women (for overviews see Babcock et al., 2004; Paymer & Barnes, 2007). Family conflict theories have successfully argued that not all violence among intimate partners is driven by patriarchy and men's need to dominate women as a

group. However, both feminist theories and family conflict theories have been criticized for “failing to address psychological problems, such as attachment disorders traced to childhood abuse or neglect (Dutton & Curvo, 2006, p. 468). This criticism is often dismissed as being inaccurate and unimportant when in fact it is both accurate and important. For example, the originators of the Duluth Model have stated that its theoretical underpinnings are based upon men’s power over women and that the model disregards psychological traits of individual batterers. Pence (1999) stated that the model or wheel situates men’s intimate power and control over women in the broader framework of power relations of gender and “this program assumes battering is not an individual pathology or mental illness but rather just one part of a system of abuse and violent behaviors to control the victim for the purposes of the batterer.” (Pence, 1999, p. 28). Paymar and Barnes (2007) have said that “Although there is much of value in mental health theories that can assist the healing of victims and perpetrators alike, we do not see men’s violence against women as stemming from individual pathology, but rather from a socially reinforced sense of entitlement” (p. 5).

The use of emotional, verbal, and physically violent behaviors can bring any individual a temporary sense of power. However, asserting that the motive behind these behaviors for an individual batterer stems from “a socially reinforced sense of entitlement” does not adequately explain why or where a batterer’s need to strive for power in the context of their intimate relationship originates. Websdale (2010) argues that “power manifests itself in a number of different ways and that men who batter women may be powerful in some of those ways, especially in terms of their immediate physical domination of their spouse/partner. However, they are not powerful in other

ways and it is in those aspects that may hold greater importance” (p.33). In other words, a batterer may possess power by socio-structural standards but still feel or perceive himself or herself as powerless in his or her intimate relationship. It may be from this perception of lack of power at the individual level that a batterer’s “power motive” originates. It is possible that the “aspects” to which Websdale is referring are those that are specific to an individual and the development of a person’s sense of self-concept or identity, self-worth, and sense of personal agency, and how these psychological traits influence power dynamics in the intimate relationship. However, neither feminist theories nor family conflict theories provide any explanation regarding the potential relationship between these specific psychological traits and the “power and control motive” of domestic violence offenders. Therefore, it is important to also review psychological theories of domestic violence.

The Psychological Perspective

There is a large and growing body of research that indicates the importance of psychological and emotional traits in individual batterers and the correlation between trauma in childhood and battering as an adult (see for overviews see Babcock et al., 2000; Ehrensaft et al., 2006; Dutton, 2006; Sonkin & Dutton, 2003). For example, Dutton (1998; 2006) has shown that batterers have difficulty maintaining a strong, clear self-image, see more threat, and feel more anxiety, anger, and humiliation compared to non-abusive men. Reitz (1999) found that batterers place their experience of being violent in the realm of identity-in-relationship and they report specific dualities in which they compare themselves to their partner. Batterers consistently report feeling small, helpless,

and childlike in their intimate relationships and that they lack a sense of self (Eckhart & Dye, 2000; Reitz, 1999; Websdale, 2010).

For over thirty years researchers have studied the relationship between childhood trauma and adult violence, and empirical evidence demonstrates a strong correlation between childhood family violence exposure, emotional deficiencies as an adult, and adult partner violence (Ehrensaft et al., 2006; Holtzworth-Munroe 2000; Moffitt et al., 2001). Horner (1989) noted that serious conflicts and traumas in an individual's earliest experiences result in a failure to develop a healthy base for emotional stability and cause a lack of good feelings about oneself. She further argued that this may in turn necessitate the development of unhealthy tactics such as violence that will protect the individual from the anxiety of powerlessness and the shame that goes with it. When a person feels shame or humiliation they feel powerless and incompetent as if one's stature has been reduced to that of a baby (Dutton, 1998; Websdale, 2010). Empirical studies have found a strong connection between battering and feelings of humiliation and shame (Eckhart & Dye, 2000; Ross & Babcock, 2009; Websdale, 2010). For example, Dutton (1998, 2006) demonstrated that shaming in childhood creates a vulnerable sense of self that can be easily attacked, and when shame-prone individuals feel the slightest affront or attack they respond quickly with open anger and rage.

Most batterers report growing up in homes with varying degrees and types of violence and they demonstrate high levels of negative emotions such as shame and anger and a low degree of self acceptance and independence (Dutton, 1998, 2006; Ehrensaft et al., 1994; Ragg, 1999). Moffitt et al. (2001) has demonstrated that growing up in a home filled with violence and trauma leaves lasting effects on a child and can interfere with

healthy emotional development and hinder the development of an individual's sense of self. Moffitt and her colleagues (2001) have also shown that individuals who batter a partner or spouse have developed "high negative emotionality," which results from a failure to develop a sense of identity and self-worth. Individuals with high negative emotionality describe themselves as nervous, vulnerable, emotionally volatile, and unable to cope with stress, which are all anxiety and fear-based emotions commonly reported by batterers (Dobash & Dobash, 2011; Dutton, 1998; 2001; Eckhardt & Dye, 2000; Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 1997; Lawson, 2003, 2008; Reitz, 1999, Rosenbaum & Leisring, 2003; Sonkin & Dutton, 2003; Websdale, 2010).

Moffitt (2000) has argued that the psychological characteristics of high negative emotionality fit both the psychological traits Dutton (1998) demonstrated to be common among batterers, which he calls the "abusive personality," and they also map onto the motivations attributed to batterers by the leading mainstream feminist theories of domestic violence (see Moffitt et al., 2001 for further discussion). Mainstream feminist theories have demonstrated that batterers have a need for control and dominance, are hypersensitive to perceived threats from their spouse (Dobash & Dobash, 1979; Pence & Paymenr, 1993; Yllo, 1993), and experience emotions such as fear and anger, and rage rapidly with extreme intensity (Holtzworth-Munroe & Smutzler, 1996; Jacobson et al., 1994). Batterers also report that they see the world as being filled with potential enemies and they seek revenge for perceived slights (Moffitt et al., 2001; Reitz, 1999). All of these "personality traits" are intrinsic to the individual and connected to internal power resources such as a sense of self-concept, sense of self-worth, and self-efficacy. They are linked to feelings of power and/or powerlessness and they have all also been shown as

qualities that empirically factor together (Church & Burke, 1994; Tellegen & Walker, 2001).

Power in the Context of Battering

Research has shown that in general batterers have negative self concepts, low self-worth, and a low sense of self-efficacy (Murphy et al., 1994; Ragg, 1999). It is plausible that a batterer's motive or striving for power originates from within themselves and is a result of having low self-concept, low self-worth, and low self-efficacy. The batterer's lack of these internal power resources may be the reason why they have high emotional dependency on their intimate partner for a sense of identity, generating a constant feeling of powerlessness over their lives and especially in their intimate relationships. Keltner et al. (2003) found that "reduced power is associated with increased threat and activates inhibition-related negative affect, vigilant systematic cognition, and situationally constrained behavior (p. 266). The presence of emotions such as anxiety, anger, helplessness, humiliation, shame, guilt, hostility, and low self-esteem leads to experiencing a loss of control and the ability to predict, plan, and channel one's lifecourse (Winestock et al., 2002). Under these conditions coercion and violence become the perceived means to acquire or regain a sense of power and control (e.g. Denzin, 1984; Retzinger, 1991). Therefore, it is possible that batterers strive to increase their external social power in order to increase their dominance because they have learned that they can effectively control their environment this way.

Research has shown that "this perceived power disadvantage appears to have its origins in the individual's own attachment history and its effects are specific to relationships characterized by power asymmetry" (Bugental & Lewis, 1999, p. 52).

Empirical studies have shown that the majority of batterers tend to have childhoods characterized by exposure to parental violence and various forms of child abuse and neglect (Dutton, 1998, 2006; Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 1997; Ross & Babcock, 2009;), resulting in either an insecure or a fearful attachment style, which correlates to the use of violence as a response to fears of being left or abandoned (Lawson, 2006; Sonkin & Dutton, 2003). Mainstream feminist theories have shown that batterers' attitudes and beliefs are based upon the socio-cultural history of patriarchy, which represents a view that the intimate relationship is hierarchal. Any hierarchal relationship has a power imbalance or is asymmetrical, always placing one partner at the top and the other partner as subservient. Studies also indicate that batterers not only view their intimate relationship as hierarchal but they also see it as being dichotomous (Reitz, 1999), with the implication that one partner is "good" so the other is "bad", or one is "big" so the other is "little". Batterers report that their use of coercion and violence generally occurs when they feel like they are powerless in the relationship because they are the one who is "bad" or "little" and they need to feel "good" or "big" again (Reitz, 1999).

Why does the batterer constantly feel powerless and what role does this feeling play in their use of battering behaviors towards their intimate partner? According to mainstream feminist theories a batterer's "power motive" and their use of coercion and violence originates primarily from possessing and using external social resources, such as gender, in order to maintain dominance/control over their intimate partner and keep them oppressed. The argument here is that this view is limited and it is important to also examine the batterer's "power motive" from the psychological perspective. It is possible that the batterer's feelings of powerlessness originate from their lack of internal power

resources, such as not having as a strong sense of self-concept, self-worth, or self-efficacy. This may leave them feeling as if they lack a sense of control over their own lives and future outcomes, resulting in the need to exert dominance/control over their intimate partner in order to regain this lost sense of power and control. Exploring the batterer's "power motive" at the individual level is important because gaining a better understanding of the role that internal power resources, such as self-concept, self-esteem, and self-efficacy, play may shed more light on the etiology of battering. This knowledge can inform and expand upon current domestic violence theory and help to improve the effectiveness of batterer treatment programs. However, in order to do so it is important to first define and conceptualize power at both the social level and the individual level.

Defining and Conceptualizing Power

Power and control are considered universal concepts within the human experience (Dahl, 1957; Van Dijke & Poppe, 2006) and both are constructs studied by social scientists (Keltner et al., 2003). Having a sense of power over one's life and a sense of control over outcomes has long been suspected of transforming how people live their lives. In effect it alters how an individual construes and approaches the world (Fast & Chen, 2009). For example, feelings of powerlessness underlie numerous psychiatric conditions including depression and other anxiety disorders (Murphey et al., 1994; Rosenbaum & Leisring, 2003) and the absence of perceived control leads to pessimism and withdrawal from difficult situations (e.g. Abramson et al., 1978; Peterson & Seligman, 1984; Price et al., 2002). On the other hand individuals who feel powerful experience more positive and less negative affect, have higher self-esteem, and pursue a more assertive approach to the world (Anderson et al., 2011; Adler et al., 2000; Barkow,

Bugental & Cortez, 1988; Keltner et al., 2009). Therefore, having a sense of power and control over one's life is more than just a strategy; it is actually a basic human need.

Power is a chief mechanism of influence in social life (Galinsky et al., 2008) and a basic force in intimate relationships. It has typically been conceptualized as a social-relational concept with an individual's power understood only in relation to another individual or a group (Emerson, 1962; Thibault & Kelley, 1959). Within this social-relational perspective there are two general groups that emphasize different conceptualizations which guide their definitions of power. The first group's conceptualization of power makes the capacity to influence and control the behavior of other people paramount (Lammers et al., 2009; Overbeck & Park, 2001). For example, Dahl (1957) defined power as the ability to compel others to do what you want them to do (see also Thibaut & Kelley, 1959) and Blau (1964) and Emerson (1962) defined power as the control of resources that provides the power holder with the potential to exercise influence for the purpose of altering the behavior of another. The second group's focus is less on influencing others and conceptualizes power as having a freedom from the influence of others. For example, Weber (1946) defined power as the production of intended effects, with Cartwright (1959) and French and Raven (1959) expanding upon his definition by arguing that power is exercised as one's ability to get what one wants without being influenced by others.

Although the two groups differ slightly in their conceptualizations, both still include in their definitions an emphasis on the view that power results from having possession of valuable resources, which creates an asymmetrical control over one's ability to influence outcomes within a specific relationship (Galinsky et al., 2008). This

emphasis is apparent in many of the definitions commonly used throughout the empirical literature on power. For example, Anderson et al. (2011, p.4) stated “we followed the line of many other theorists when we defined power as an individual’s ability to influence another person or other people.” The definition of power used by Keltner et al. (2003) also provides a good example. They defined power as “an individual’s relative capacity to modify others’ states by providing or withholding resources or administering punishments” (p. 266). These definitions focus on one’s capacity to change “others’ states”, with capacity being the product of actual resources and punishments the individual can deliver to others (Emerson, 1962; Fiske, 1993; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). In other words, these definitions assert that in order for an individual to have control over their life and future outcomes they must possess more external valuable resources than the “other” in order to have the capacity to influence and control the behaviors of others.

These traditional conceptualizations of power place a primacy on valuing and obtaining external power resources such as money, specific careers, or status in order to feel powerful and have a sense of control over one’s life. From this perspective power is viewed as a control mechanism used in a social setting to put pressure on others to do what one wants them to do (Overbeck et al., 2001; VanDijke & Poppe, 2006). An issue with this view is that it limits the scope of power, treating it as a single construct, and ignores the psychological properties of power (Lammers et al., 2009). It also assumes that an individual’s “power motive” is generated from an inherent need to control others and that freedom from the influence of others comes from possessing social or external resources. Both these assumptions ignore the potential importance of internal power resources such as self-concept, self-esteem, and self-efficacy. They further ignore that an

individual's "power motive" may be a striving to fulfill the inherent need for personal mastery and autonomy rather than control over others.

There is a growing trend in the power literature which argues that power is not a monolithic construct and that there are two different types of power: *social* and *personal* (Anderson et al., 2011; Fiske & Berdahl, 2007; Galinsky et al., 2003, 2008; Lammers, 2009; Overbeck & Park, 2001; Van Dijke & Poppe, 2006). The traditional perspective on power conceives it as a structural variable and the property of social relationship, which forms the basis for *social power* (Emerson, 1962; Ng, 1980). On the other hand, a more current perspective argues that power is also a psychological property of an individual, which forms the basis for *personal power* (for further discussion see Galinsky et al., 2003). Social power emphasizes external resources and one's capacity to exercise control "over" others (Lammers et al., 2009; Overbeck & Park, 2001); personal power, on the other hand, emphasizes internal resources such as personal independence and exercising control over oneself (Galinsky et al., 2003). An individual's personal power can coincide with their social power but it is separate and distinct from one's external power resources (Anderson et al., 2011).

Although the construct of personal power is much less developed compared to the social power construct, there is still a general consensus among researchers concerning how to define personal power. For example, Galinsky et al. (2008) defined personal power as "the ability to ignore the influence of others, to control one's own outcomes and to be personally independent" (P. 1451). Other researchers have stated that personal power is having power over oneself; it is the extent to which individuals are capable of acting with agency, or to produce their intended effects in the environment (Overbeck &

Park, 2001). Lammers et al. (2009) argued that people who experience substantial amounts of personal power are unconstrained by and independent from others.

Therefore, individuals high in personal power do not need to bother or care about other people in their social environment (Emerson, 1962).

Each of these definitions demonstrates that personal power is associated with self-efficacy, freedom, or independence and having a sense of control over one's life. The ability to produce intended effects or to act for oneself is related to concepts such as competence, personal causation (DeCharms, 1968), and autonomy (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Therefore, personal power is derived from an individual's internal resources and is associated with independence and a freedom from the influence of and need to have control over others in order to feel safe. In contrast, social power comes from an individual's external resources and is associated with interdependency and a need to have control over others (Lammers, 2009).

The current power literature advocates the need to distinguish social power from personal power especially in relationship to an individual's "power motive" (Galinsky et al., 2008; Lammers et al., 2009; Overbeck & Park, 2000; Van Dijke & Park, 2006). This is important because the social power perspective argues that an individual's power motive is a striving to increase control "over others", whereas the personal power perspective argues that an individual's motive is a striving to increase personal agency (Van Dijke & Poppe, 2006). Although social power can certainly impose influence and constraints on others, possessing personal power can free people from the influence of external forces (Overbeck et al., 2006). Therefore, it could be said that having a sense of personal power is one's capacity to be uninfluenced by others and in the absence of personal power one's

life and outcomes are constrained. Within the power motive literature there is empirical evidence that people strive for personal power and people are strongly motivated to restore their independence when they feel it is restricted (see Brehm, 1993 for an overview). Additionally, individuals strive for social power only when it is instrumental in gaining or increasing their personal power, rendering the need for personal power more fundamental (Schulthesis et al., 1999; Van Dijke & Poppe, 2006). When one has a sense of personal power one is relatively free of such forces, at least within the context of the specific power relationship.

Types of Power and Domestic Violence

Social power places primacy on an individual's ability to effect control over others, which is based upon the individual's possession of external resources such as gender, money, information, and status. Having personal power places primacy on the individual's ability to feel in control of one's self and life that is grounded in internal resources. This is an important distinction that applies to domestic violence and battering

Historically, mainstream feminist domestic violence theories have utilized only the social power perspective, assuming that an individual batterer's "power motive" is intrinsically connected to the larger socio-cultural history of men's oppression of women; their need to exercise control "over" their intimate partner is about maintaining men's dominance. This study does not dispute that the socio-cultural history regarding gender roles in society is important to understanding domestic violence and that in some respects power is gendered. However, it is arguing that if the assertion being made concerns an individual batterer's "power motive", then the potential role of the batterer's internal

psychological traits, as they relate to the motive for using coercion and violence, should not be dismissed because it limits future theoretical development.

The power motive in domestic violence speaks to power dynamics in the intimate relationship, which is a result of the unique combination of both the internal and external power resources of the two partners involved. By its very nature an intimate relationship is an interdependent relationship in which there is always a continual balancing of power. Important to maintaining equality or shared power in this dyad requires that the perceived worth or contributions of one's own qualities needs to be roughly equivalent to the perceived contributions of their partner's worth or qualities (Murray et al., 2005). In other words, in order for an individual to feel secure in their intimate relationship they need to feel or perceive that they are just as valuable as their partner. When an individual lacks a sense of self-concept, self-worth, and self-efficacy they will most likely feel inferior to their intimate partner regardless of their partner's actual internal and external power resources, resulting in feelings of insecurity, anxiety, and powerlessness (Murray et al., 2005). These feeling are intrinsic to the individual but they may leave them feeling continually "less than" compared to their intimate partner, which results in their perceptions of their intimate partner being the power holder.

There is an intrinsic psychological need for power in all humans (Adler, 1966; Frieze & Boneva, 2001; Kipnis, 1974; Ng, 1977). Power is considered a basic force in the development of personality, and power issues are often at the core of family and individual pathology (Horner, 1989). Bugental and Lewis (1999) argued that individuals who perceive themselves as powerless may be less socially competent and that these reductions in competence can ultimately lead to an escalation in the individual's efforts to

preserve their authority. Fisk et al. (1996) found that individuals who perceive themselves as powerless may become hypervigilant with respect to the perceived power holder.

Research on power supports the idea that those who see themselves as powerless make exceptionally high use of power assertions (Bugental & Lewis, 1999) and that individuals who feel they lack power have a preference for the use of coercive force (Raven & Kruglanski, 1979). The use of force or coercion may repair internal issues such as self-esteem and self-worth on a temporary basis because its use can obtain compliance in the immediate situation, but in the long run it is costly to the individual (Bugental & Lewis, 1999). For example Kipnis (1976) observed that “individuals come to seek the potential to harm others as a means of reaffirming their own sense of worth” (p.84). This is pertinent to understanding batterers because research has shown that batterers have low self-esteem and are highly dependent on their intimate partners for a sense of identity and a sense of social connection (Borenstein, 2006; Carney & Butnell, 2006; Dutton 1998, 2006; Murphey et al., 1994; Ragg, 1999; Rosenbaum & Leisring, 2003; Websdale 2010). This lack of a true self may actually represent a lack of internal power resources an individual needs to feel a sense of power, which leads to a batterer continuously feeling powerless within the context of their intimate relationship regardless of their partner’s actions. In other words, the batterer’s “power motive” may originate from the basic human need to strive for self identity, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and independence. This is a need for internal power, not external power.

Summary

If the assertion that the motive for battering an intimate partner is “power and control” is going to continue to be made, it is incumbent upon researchers to better define power and explain how it is a motive at both the macro and micro level. To date, current mainstream feminist domestic violence theories have offered only a macro level explanation, which has limited the scope of theory and as a result may also be limiting the potential effectiveness of batterer treatment programs. The argument being made here is that there are two distinct types of power--social, which is external power, and personal, which is internal power--and that distinguishing these two types of power is important, especially with regard to an individual’s “power motive”. Although current domestic violence theories primarily utilize an external perspective, understanding internal power may be equally important, if not more important, to gaining insight into the etiology of battering at the individual level.

CHAPTER THREE

INTERNAL POWER

Thus far I have shown that there are two distinct types of power and each type may play an important role in understanding the batterer's "power motive". The first type is social power. This type of power comes from an individual's possession of external resources, such as money and status, and using these resources to exercise control over others. To date the social power construct has been the primary focus of most mainstream domestic violence theories. The second type of power is internal power. This type of power is gained when an individual integrates intrinsic psychological resources, such as a sense of self (self-concept), self-esteem, self-efficacy, with a sense of personal power (autonomy and mastery). Although empirical studies have demonstrated that batterers lack these important intrinsic resources, mainstream domestic violence theories have not yet examined the role of internal power in an individual batterer's "power motive".

It is a basic human need to feel loved and have a sense of self, self-esteem, and self-efficacy (Galinsky et al., 2003), and research from the power literature demonstrates that these internal resources are important to an individual having an internalized sense of power. Studies have also shown that having a feeling of control over one's life is related to having a personal sense of power (Lachman & Weaver, 1998; Guinote et al., 2006).

Therefore, having a feeling of “power” that resides within oneself is similar to feeling empowered, which has been defined as “the ability to speak one’s truth in one’s own voice and participate in the decisions that affect one’s life” (Bush and Valentine, 2000, p. 97). In other words, when an individual is empowered they have a sense of their own internal power.

In the context of motivation internal power is conceptualized as an individual’s innate drive to strive for agency, to be personally independent, and the ability to produce one’s intended outcomes. This conceptualization places primacy on an individual’s ability to feel “in control” of their own self and life, highlighting the importance of agency (self-efficacy, competence), autonomy, and personal causation (mastery). Each of these are important intrinsic resources, but I argue that in order to develop internal power an individual must also have a strong self-concept, a sense of self-worth, sense of agency, and a sense of personal control. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to define, conceptualize, and operationalize the internal power construct.

Defining Internal Power

Internal power is defined as *the recognition that one gains control over one’s life by directing one’s own thoughts, feelings, and behaviors, regardless of outside influences*. In essence, internal power is an individual’s sense of having a power that comes from within themselves. It is a type of power that is generated from having a strong sense of self and knowing one has a legitimate purpose and place in the world regardless of the behaviors of others. It is grounded in an individual’s self-knowledge that they are competent and can produce or prevent their desired and undesired outcomes without needing to exercise power and control over others. Therefore, internal power is

derived from a strong sense of self-concept, self-worth, a sense of personal agency, autonomy, and sense of personal mastery.

The key difference between internal power and external power is that internal power speaks to having power over oneself, which allows one a freedom from the influence of others, while external power seeks to exercise control over other people, which creates a dependency on others. This is because internal power is the recognition that when an individual controls oneself, rather than attempting to exercise control over others they retain the power to create change in themselves and their life, rather than give that control away to “powerful others”. Individuals with high internal power feel more in control of their outcomes and fate, making them freer from the influence of others and the need to control others in order to feel in control of their own lives. They are their own center of strength and they are self-responsible.

Conceptualizing Internal Power

The focus of this study is to develop the internal power construct, explore its scalability, and examining its relationship to the batterer’s “power motive”. Gecas (1982) argued that an individual’s “power motive (striving for power and control) stresses the basic motivational elements of the self” (p. 18). The definition of internal power emphasizes the importance of the connection between an individual’s thoughts, feelings (emotions), and behaviors and that control over one’s life is gained when an individual recognizes personal attributes residing within themselves, regardless of outside influences. Therefore, internal power represents a healthy development of key components of the self (i.e. affective (thoughts), evaluative (feelings), and motivational (behavior), the development of autonomy (self-determination), and an individual’s sense

of personal control (mastery). Therefore, I argue that the etiology of a batterer's "power motive" is intrinsic because their feelings of powerlessness are born from a lack of these five fundamental internal psychological resources, which comprise internal power.

Social science literature has previously identified three separate dimensions of the *self* as being the knowledge (thought) component, evaluative (feeling) component, and motivational (behavioral) component. Research has shown that developing a sense of *self* is important to an individual's overall socio-emotional functioning. A diminished sense of *self* may be related primarily to problems with the cognitive (knowledge or thought), evaluative (judging or feelings) and motivational (behavioral) aspects of the *self*; i.e. self-concept, self-esteem, and self-efficacy (Harter, 1999). Empirical studies demonstrate that it is crucial to have the ability to cope with stressful life events in order to maintain a subjective well-being (Diener et al., 1999). The ability of an individual to successfully cope with life events is facilitated not only by external resources, such as social support (Sarason et al., 1994; Zhou et al., 2008), but also by intrapersonal factors or internal resources such as a positive and well-developed sense of *self* (Taylor, 1995). Although batterers seem to have an abundance of external resources compared to their intimate partner, such as physical size, money, status, and gender power, research has demonstrated that batterers are lacking in important intrapersonal factors such as a strong and positive self-concept, a high sense of self-worth, self-efficacy, autonomy, and an sense of mastery (Dobash & Dobash, 2011; Dutton, 1998, 2006; Ehrensaft et al., 2006; Holtzworth-Munroe, 2000; Moffitt et al., 2001; Reitz, 1999).

In the context of this paper internal power is conceptualized as an inner resource composed of several key aspects that encompass the *self's* knowledge (thoughts),

evaluative (feelings), and motivational (behavior) dimensions (i.e. self-concept clarity, self-esteem, self-efficacy), as well one's sense of personal control (i.e. autonomy and mastery). Therefore internal power consists of the following five fundamental components:

1. The power gained from having a strong and positive self-concept.
2. The power gained from one's intrinsic sense of self-worth and knowing one matters in the world.
3. The power gained from one's sense of personal agency.
4. The power gained from having an inner motivational state independent from outside forces, or autonomy.
5. The power gained from recognizing that regardless of others behavior, an individual's control over their life and outcomes resides within them.

Horner argued that "having a sense of mastery and competence not only makes a person feel good about himself or herself, which is essentially a judgment and an enhanced self-esteem; it feels good in and of itself" (p.15). The five fundamental components of internal power focus on the importance of an individual's own perceived self-concept and evaluations of their worth, as well as the importance of an individual's intrinsic sense of personal agency. However, another key aspect of internal power is its emphasis on the recognition that regardless of the reflexive process or others' behaviors, the individual still has control over their life and outcomes. In other words, effectiveness in one's environment is accomplished through mastery of one's own thoughts, feelings, and behaviors rather than the mastery of others.

Five Fundamental Components of Internal Power and Aspects of the Self

The power gained from having a strong and positive self-concept. This fundamental component of internal power theoretically aligns with an individual's internalized sense of one's self-concept. Rosenberg broadly defined the self-concept as "the totality of an individual's thoughts, feelings, and having reference to himself as an object" (1979, p.7). Epstein (1973) viewed the self-concept as the theory that a person holds about himself as an experiencing, functioning being in interaction with the world. According to both views, "the self-concept is conceptualized as an organization (structure) of various identities and attributes and their evaluations, developed out of the individual's reflexive, social, and symbolic activities. As such the self-concept is an experiential, mostly cognitive phenomenon accessible to scientific inquiry" (Gecas, 1982, p. 4).

An individual's self-concept is constructed from "organized interpretations of one's daily life experiences as they pertain to the self" (Caselman & Self, 2007; p. 353). Ferraro defined the self or self-concept as the meaning individuals accord to their existence (1988). Two aspects that are important to the development of one's self-concept are dimensionality and value. Dimensionality refers to the stability of self-concept over time and across situations. Value refers to whether or not one experiences their self-concept as positive or negative (Ragg, 1999). Both positive self-concept and negative self-concept have been found to be rigidly construed personality traits (Aronson et al., 1995). Negative self-concepts are associated with volatile negative reactions to disappointments, whereas a positive self-concept provides an individual with internalized feelings of worth that can be used to maintain good feelings when negative events occur

(Aronson et al., 1995). A stable self-concept does not vacillate based on how others respond to the individual, whereas unstable or uncertain self-concept configurations create shifts in one's feelings and associated reactions to others. Therefore, a strong self-concept is stable and positive, derived from inside a person versus outside, serving as an anchor that allows the individual to mediate the impact of their emotional states (Ragg, 1999).

A person's self-concept pertains to the knowledge (thought) component of the *self*. Within the self-concept literature there are a variety of theoretical perspectives that emphasize various aspects of the self-concept as taking primacy (see Brackem, 1996 for further explanation). Internal power emphasizes the importance of an individual having a strong and positive self concept, which originates from having an internalized view of the self that is certain and stable. Baumgardner (1990) argued that a high degree of certainty about one's self-concept can contribute to a sense of control about future outcomes, which in turn supports a positive and confident view of self. On the other hand, uncertainty about self-concept is associated with less positive affect towards the self, low self-esteem, temporal instability in self-descriptions, and a lower congruence between perceptions of current and past behaviors (Baumgardner, 1990; Campbell, 1990; Campbell et al., 2003).

This conceptualization of the self-concept is reflected by the construct self-concept clarity. Self-concept clarity is defined by Campbell et al. (1996) as "the degree to which the contents of an individual's self-concept (e.g. perceived personal attributes) are clearly and confidently defined, internally consistent and temporally stable" (p.14). Research has shown that having a high degree of self-concept clarity contributes to a

sense of control about future outcomes and that individuals high in self-concept clarity are less influenced by external stimuli and do not vacillate based on how others respond to them (Campbell et al., 2003). For example, an individual with high self-concept clarity makes consistent decisions across similar situations based upon their perception of themselves, regardless of the perceptions of others. Therefore, the construct self-concept clarity theoretically aligns with this component of internal power.

The power gained from an individual's intrinsic sense of self-worth and mattering in the world. Self-esteem is considered a basic human need (Maslow, 1954). It is an attribute of personality and social functioning (Engle, 2009) and refers to an individual's overall self-evaluation of their worth (Gecas, 1982). Rosenberg (1965) viewed self-esteem as an attitude concerning one's worthiness as a person and argued that it is a pivotal variable in one's behavior. Coopersmith (1967) agreed with this perspective and argued that self-esteem is a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed through the beliefs people have about themselves. He divided these expressions into two parts: one's subjective-expression (the individual's self-perception and self-description) and one's behavioral expression (behavioral presentation of the person's self-esteem that is displayed for outside observers). Coopersmith argued that the presence or absence of such perceived worthiness disposes one toward positive or negative experiences and related behaviors.

Self-esteem stands for a feeling or affectional state of consciousness which represents one's assessment and evaluation of himself or herself (Engle, 2009). It is the overall evaluation of one's worth and value and on a very basic level it is the liking and respecting of oneself based upon simply being who one *is* rather than achieving external

measures of success (Deci & Ryan, 1995; Hodgins et al., 2007). It is the extent to which one evaluates himself or herself positively or negatively and one's self-esteem can be either high or low. For example, individuals with high self-esteem respect who they are as a person, consider themselves worthy, and view themselves as equal to others. Individuals with low self-esteem generally feel self-rejected, self-dissatisfaction, and self-contempt (Engle, 2009). Having high self-esteem is synonymous with positive self-regard (Steffenhagen, 1990; Frey & Carlock, 1989) and Kurman (2006) found that having a positive self-regard is considered a basic motivation of the *self*.

An individual's own perception or evaluation of their self-worth and having a sense of mattering in the world pertains to the evaluative (feeling) component of the self. For example, an individual with low self-esteem takes a negative attitude toward themselves, which leaves them feeling small and worthless. Internal power places primacy on one's sense of self-worth being both intrinsic and stable across time and situations. Therefore the construct self-esteem or having a high self-esteem theoretically aligns with this component of the internal power construct.

The power gained from one's sense of agency and competence. A person's perception of their ability to deal effectively with the environment or their conception of themselves as competent is agency (Novick et al., 1996). One's perceived competence is based on an internal orientation and refers to judgments of one's personal ability to perform effectively, regardless of environmental responsiveness. Therefore agency appears to have an internal and external orientation (Novick et al., 1996). The external refers to one's capacity to influence performance outcomes, whereas perceived competence is based on an internal orientation and refers to one's judgment of personal

ability to perform effectively regardless of environmental responsiveness (Luszczynska, et al., 2005).

The broad concept of human agency focuses on the perception of one's ability to master and deal effectively with the environment and to produce and regulate events in one's life, or one's perception of personal agency (Bandura, 1977). Some scholars (e.g. Bandura, 1997, 2001; Gecas, 2000) view self-efficacy as the most central or pervasive mechanism of personal agency because it is a person's belief about their capability to exercise control over events that affect their lives. Therefore, one's perception of their personal agency is one's belief about their capacities. Perceived self-efficacy is one's belief regarding their competence to tackle difficult tasks and cope with adversity in specific demanding situations (Schwarzer et al., 1999).

Self-efficacy makes a difference as to how people feel, think, and act (Bandura, 1997 for a review of evidence). According to self-efficacy theory the more control an individual believes he or she has over an intended outcome, the more likely the person is to attribute performance achievement to personal competence (Bandura, 1977). Bandura (1989) argued that "self-efficacy beliefs function as an important set of proximal determinants of human motivation, affect, and action (p. 1175)". Therefore self-efficacy beliefs are an individual's perceptions regarding their capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and course of action needed to meet given situational demands (Wiggins, 1973). Henderick (1943) argued that individuals experience pleasure when efficient mastery of events enables a person to perceive they can control and alter their world. One's perceived efficacy (personal agency) influences the way an individual psychologically positions himself or herself in relation to their environment (Novick et

al., 1996). For example, Vallacher and Wegner (1989) found that high-level agents are more likely to perceive their behavior as personally controlled and low-level agents tend to perceive their behavior as being under situational control.

Researchers have suggested that personal agency beliefs, like perceived self-efficacy and perceived control (personal capacity to cause intended outcome), serve important behavior regulation functions (Bandura, 1986, 1989). For example, individuals with strong self-efficacy are more likely to anticipate success (Corbin, 1972; Kazdin, 1978). However, those who see themselves as incompetent dwell on their personal deficiencies and tend to exaggerate the severity of potential problems (Beck, 1976; Sarason, 1975), often undermining their actual performance (Bandura, 1989).

Self-efficacy is part of a broad literature around human agency and control. It refers to people's assessments of their effectiveness, competence and causal agency (Gecas, 1989). Although it is commonly understood as being task specific or domain-specific, researchers have also conceptualized a generalized sense of self-efficacy. General self-efficacy refers to a global confidence in one's coping ability across a wide range of demanding or novel situations (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995; Sherer et al., 1982). It aims at a broad and stable sense of personal competence to deal effectively with a variety of situations (Luszczynska et al., 2005).

An individual's belief regarding their ability to be effective and competent pertains to the motivational (behavioral) component of the self. Individuals high in self-efficacy are more likely to overcome adversity and achieve their goals because they believe they are capable, whereas those low in self-efficacy are more likely to fail at achieving their goals when faced with adversity because they do not believe they are

capable. For example, an athlete with high self-efficacy will believe they can heal from a detrimental injury, which will lead them to engage in and stick with behaviors that will help them to rehabilitate. However an athlete low in self-efficacy will not believe they can heal, therefore they are more likely to give up and not engage in the behaviors that are necessary for them to recover.

Internal power places primacy on an individual having a sense of personal agency that is intrinsic and stable over time. General self-efficacy represents a belief in one's competence in dealing with all kinds of demands, which implies a prospective view and an internal stable attribution of successful action (Luszczynska et al., 2005). Therefore, the construct self-efficacy, and more specifically general self-efficacy, theoretically aligns with this component of the internal power construct.

Having an inner state independent from outside forces: autonomy. In general autonomy refers to an independence or freedom from the will or actions of others, or external pressures. Researchers have argued that having a sense of competence and autonomy are basic psychological needs; when these needs are met an individual is motivated autonomously. However, when these needs are not met an individual becomes control motivated (Hodgins et al., 2007). The concept of autonomy connotes a deep personal endorsement of one's actions and the sense that they emanate from oneself and are one's own (Deci & Ryan, 1987; Hodgins et al., 2007; Koestner & Losier, 1996; La Guardia et al., 2000; Sheldon et al., 2001). Thus, in the context of motivation or behavior autonomous action is chosen based upon one's own will. In other words, "the more autonomous the behavior, the more it is endorsed by the whole self and is experienced as action for which one is responsible" (Deci & Ryan, 1987; p.1025). Therefore,

autonomous individuals tend to choose behaviors based on their interests, endorse their own activities and experience feedback, outcomes, and other events as informational rather than threatening (Deci & Ryan, 2000). However, those lacking in autonomy are more sensitive to external pressures and tend to see the entire social world in terms of control, both controlling others and being controlled (Hodgins et al., 1996).

Although the concept of autonomy is theoretical rather than empirical, self-determination theory can be used to conceptualize and empirically evaluate one's sense of autonomy. Self-determination refers to the innate desire to experience one's true self as the origin of one's own actions (e.g. DeCharms, 1981; Deci & Ryan, 1985). In other words, being autonomous or having self-determination refers to "the experience of freedom in initiating one's behavior" (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 31). Self-determination theory argues that people struggle to internalize the regulation of their behavior to satisfy an inherent need for experiential autonomy and that, as behavioral regulation is internalized, individuals become healthier and more effective (Deci & Ryan, 1991). According to self-determination theory, when an individual's basic psychological need for autonomy and competence is satisfied, they are autonomously motivated (Hodgins, 2007).

A determination to engage in a particular behavior is an intention (Atkinson, 1958). One's intentions are said to come from one's desire to avoid negatively valent outcomes and achieve positively valent outcomes. In cognitive theories of motivation and action, (e.g. Heider, 1960; Lewin, 1951; Tolman, 1959) having an intention implies personal causation and is equivalent to being motivated to act (Deci & Ryan, 1987). It is one's autonomous motivation that allows an individual to approach others in a non-

controlling way (Hodgins et al., 1996). For example, individuals high in autonomy orientation report open, honest, and satisfying interpersonal interactions (Hodgins et al., 1996). However, individuals low in autonomy orientation organize their behavior on the basis of sensitivity to pressure, react to events (even neutral ones) as coercive, and initiate behavior on the basis of demands from others, rather than a genuine interest or integrated goal (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Hodges et al., 2007).

Heider (1958) specified that a person's reason for acting within a behavioral domain may range from extrinsic (controlled reasons) to intrinsic (autonomous) reasons (Ryan & Connell, 1989). Research has shown that individuals whose reasons for acting within given domains (e.g. intimate relationship) are more autonomous than controlled, (i.e. self-determined) are better adjusted and more successful in those domains (Ryan & Connell, 1989; Ryan et al, 1993; Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992). Studies in the self-determination tradition have also demonstrated that individuals oriented towards autonomy (across life situations) are psychologically healthier than individuals oriented towards environmental control (see Deci & Ryan 2000 for review).

Deci and Ryan (1985, 1991) have argued that feeling autonomous or self-determined is just as important to an individual's psychological health as self-worth, agency, and competence. The self-determination literature has shown that individuals who lack a sense of being the originator of their own behaviors experience less satisfaction and more frustration with their lives (Ryan et al., 1985; Sheldon & Kasser, 1995). Ryan et al. (1996) further argued that the pursuit and attainment of some life goals may provide more satisfaction of the basic psychological needs than the pursuit and attainment of others. Specifically, Kasser and Ryan (1993, 1996) distinguished between

intrinsic aspirations (i.e., goals such as affiliation and personal growth), which are associated with basic need affiliation, from extrinsic aspirations (i.e. goals such as attaining wealth, fame, image), which are more related to obtaining contingent approval or external signs of worth. They argue that some goals are more closely related to basic or intrinsic need satisfaction, and because of this link, pursuit and attainment of intrinsic aspirations are more strongly associated with well-being than those of extrinsic aspirations (see Ryan et al, 1996; Kasser & Ryan, 2000 for further explanation). For example, individuals who act for intrinsic or autonomous reasons in their close relationship have been shown to be better adjusted than those who act from more external or controlled reasons (Blais et al. 1990).

Being self-determined is distinct from one's perceived self-efficacy because self-determination pertains to one's innate desire to experience oneself as the origin of their behaviors (autonomous), whereas the need for agency speaks to one's belief in one's competence. A key aspect of internal power is one's sense of personal independence in the origins of one's behaviors. Autonomy involves feeling that one's activities and goals are self-chosen and are in concert with intrinsic interests (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and values (Kasser & Ryan, 1996). Therefore, the construct of self-determination theoretically aligns with this fundamental component of the internal power construct.

The power gained from recognizing that regardless of other's behavior an individual's control over their life and outcomes resides within them. It is a natural tendency for human beings to observe what is occurring and to assign a reason for why certain events take place (Schepers, 2005). The explanations individuals make for what happens to them or how events are interpreted and given meaning are called attributions

(Heider, 1958; Deschamps,1997). Schepers argued “the causative attributions that people make, and their interpretations thereof, determine to a large extent their perceptions of the social world. Is it friendly or a threatening world? Is it a just or unjust world? Is it a predictable or unpredictable world?” (P.2). Attributions are closely linked to control because the extent to which an individual perceives their ability to shape their achievement of a specific outcome is the perception of control (Stachowiak, 2010). One’s perception of control has to do with the extent to which an individual believes they have control over events and outcomes within their lives versus this being determined by outside forces. To a certain degree, perception of control relates to where people place responsibility for what happens to them or their life outcomes. People either believe they are responsible for events and outcomes, which is a perception of internal control or they perceive outside forces are responsible, which is a perception of external control (Lefcourt et al., 1981).

Having a sense of internal control is important to psychological functioning and a robust predictor of physical and mental well being (Bandura, 1989; Skinner, 1996). An individual’s belief in their capacity to control an outcome influences their perception of events (Lefcourt, 1976). Researchers have argued that people have different beliefs regarding their perceptions of control and their ability to change their life situations or influence outcomes (Skinner, 1996). For example, Rotter’s locus of control theory (1966) states that an individual’s orientation concerning cause of events can be described as resulting from external or internal factors. An individual with an external control orientation believes that outside forces such as fate, chance, or luck dictate their outcomes. However, an individual with an internal control orientation believes that their

actions or behaviors dictate their outcomes (Ray, 1980). According to Rotter (1966) the internal-external control construct describes the extent to which an individual perceives there to be a causal link between one's cognition and behavior and subsequent outcomes. Individuals with an external control orientation are more likely to feel powerless in effecting a final result, whereas individuals with an internal control orientation are more likely to feel powerful in effecting a final result (Lefcourt, 1976).

An individual's level of internal control is the measure of one's belief in his or her own behavior's ability to influence outcomes. As a general principle, an internal sense of control refers to the individual believing that a positive and/or negative outcome is a consequence of their own actions and thereby under their personal control. Therefore, an individual with a high degree of internal control has a sense of mastery over their life. Mastery is a personality characteristic that serves as a psychological resource an individual uses to help them face adverse life events (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978). Pearlin et al. (1981) defined mastery as "the extent to which one regards one's life-chances as being under one's own control in contrast to being fatalistically ruled" (p.338).

A person's sense of having an internal control orientation is their belief that they have a mastery over life. This differs from self-determination or one's sense of autonomy, because autonomy is one's belief that their actions or behaviors are self originated. However, mastery is one's belief that their actions or behaviors are the cause of the events or outcomes in their life. Therefore, a person can act autonomously, but still have an external sense of control, or lack a sense of personal mastery. This person would believe that their behaviors stem from their thoughts and desires, but they would not believe that their behaviors would necessarily affect outcomes. However, an individual that both acts

autonomously and has sense of personal mastery believes both in their capability to act from within themselves, and that their actions bring about the outcomes they experience. A key aspect of internal power is one's sense of control over their outcomes regardless of outside influences. Mastery reflects one's personal sense of control over life's outcomes. Therefore, the concept of mastery theoretically aligns with this fundamental component of internal power.

Operationalizing Internal Power

In order to explore the relationship between internal power and a batterer's "power motive" it must be measurable. The development of a measure for the internal power construct is still in its infancy. However, its conceptualization contains several psychological concepts of the *self*, which can be used to operationalize internal power and explore its scalability.

Internal power is conceptualized to contain five fundamental dimensions that theoretically align with the following constructs: self-concept clarity, self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-determination (autonomy), and mastery. As discussed in the conceptualization section of this chapter each of these constructs are well established within the social sciences, and have empirically reliable and valid measures. For each construct a reliable and valid measure that most closely aligned with the definition and conceptualization of internal power was chosen: the self-concept clarity scale developed by Campbell et al., (1996) is being used to measure self-concept clarity; the Rosenberg (1965) self-esteem scale is being used to measure self-esteem; the general self-efficacy scale developed by Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995) is being used to measure self-efficacy; the self-determination scale developed by Sheldon & Deci (1996) is being used

to measure self-determination; and the mastery scale developed by Pearlin et al. (1981) is being used to measure mastery. Each of the scales will be discussed and explained in more detail in the methods chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The main objective of this study was to advance our current understanding of an individual's sense of power and control as a motive for using coercive control tactics, such as battering against an intimate partner. The previous chapter defined and conceptualized internal power as comprising five fundamental components (underlying factors) and theoretically aligned each component with a specific psychological construct (i.e., self-concept clarity, self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-determination, and mastery). The chapter then presented and briefly discussed each of the scales this study used to measure each of these underlying psychological constructs (factors).

In order to achieve the study's objective, the dimensionality and underlying factor structure of the internal power construct was explored and its scalability must be evaluated empirically. The purpose of this chapter is to (1) describe the study's procedures regarding participant recruitment and data collection and management, (2) describe the measures used in the survey instrument, and (3) describe the analytic plan.

Participants and Recruitment

The participants for this study were recruited from undergraduate criminology courses that were being conducted during the spring semester of 2012 at a large university located in Florida and from a large community college also located in Florida.

At both locations, the criminology courses selected for participant recruitment serve a dual purpose in that they meet requirements for criminology majors, but they also fulfill general education requirements for all students. Therefore, these courses were likely to contain a diverse group of students representative of the general student population.

In order for a student to participate, he or she had to be 18 years of age or older and enrolled in at least one criminology course at one of the locations previously mentioned. Participants were informed that their participation in this study was completely voluntary and that they could discontinue their participation at any time. The principal investigator (PI) recruited participants by asking the instructor of record of the course to allow the PI to present the study's script (see Appendix I) in the instructor's class. The instructor of record was also asked to post the study's script and the study's Web URL into the course's Blackboard site. This allowed participants time to review the study information, to consider if they wished to participate, and to access the study at a time and location both convenient and private for them.

Sample Profile

A total of 425 individuals accessed the study and indicated that they wished to participate. However, 17 of those participants did not answer any other question and another 9 answered only the demographic questions. These 26 cases were removed, leaving a final sample of 399 participants. The age of participants ranged from 18-52 years old, with the majority of the sample between 18 to 22 years of age (mean age=20). Of the total sample 53% (N=211) reported being female and 47% (N=188) reported being male. The majority of the sample reported being Caucasian/White (N=239; 60%) with Latino (N=68; 17%) and African American/Black (N=52; 13%) representing a total of

30% of the sample. The majority of participants reported that they have been involved in at least one intimate relationship (N=346; 87%) and of these participants 87% (N=299) reported using at least one act of either psychological (N=296; 86%) or physical (N=133; 39%) abuse against an intimate partner at least once.

Measures

This study's data collection instrument consisted of three sections of measures. The first section consisted of five separate sets of questions that measured each of the internal power construct's five underlying factors (see Appendixes A–E). The second section contained a series of questions that measured the use of specific behaviors in relationships (Appendix F & G). The third section contained several questions designed to measure general socio-demographic characteristics of the participants (Appendix H).

One of the goals of this study was to explore the existence of and the underlying factor structure of the internal power construct in order to assess its measurability.

Internal power is conceptualized as a latent construct that consists of five fundamental components or underlying factors. Each of these components theoretically aligns with the following psychological constructs: self-concept clarity, self-esteem, general self-efficacy, self-determination, and mastery (see chapter 3). Therefore, five scales were used to explore and develop a measure for internal power.

Self-Concept Clarity Scale

The self-concept clarity scale is a brief unidimensional self-report measure that specifically focuses on measuring the clarity of self-concept (Campbell et al., 1996; Diehl & Hay, 2011). It is designed to assess an individual's perceived temporal stability, consistency, and conviction of self-beliefs. The scale consists of 12 items in which

participants are asked to indicate the degree to which they agree with each statement, based on a five point scale (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). Ten of the 12 items are reverse scored and higher scores reflect a higher self-concept clarity (see Appendix A). Prior research has shown this scale to be both a valid and reliable measure. For example, the scale's construct validity was tested and confirmed on the grounds that the pattern of correlations with related constructs (such as self-esteem, self-focused attention, and the Big Five personality dimensions) adhered to theoretical expectations (Campbell et al., 1996; Diehl & Hay, 2011). Campbell et al. (1996) reported that the scale has a high temporal stability (with test-retest correlations between $r = .79$ at 4 months and $r = .70$ at 5 months). The self-concept clarity scale has also demonstrated good internal consistency across several studies. For example, Campbell et al. (1996) reported Cronbach $\alpha = .88$, while Ritchie (2010) reported Cronbach $\alpha = .90$ and Deihl and Hay (2011) reported Cronbach $\alpha = .91$.

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

The Rosenberg self-esteem scale is a brief unidimensional self-report measure that specifically focuses on measuring an individual's global self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1965). It is designed to assess one's global feelings of self-worth or self-acceptance. The scale is comprised of 10 items in which participants are asked to indicate the degree to which they agree with each statement. This scale employs a four-point response format (strongly agree = 3, agree = 2, disagree = 1, and strongly disagree = 0) resulting in a scale of 0-30 with higher scores representing higher self-esteem (see Appendix B). Several studies have shown that a unidimensional factor structure underlies this scale (e.g. Hensley, 1977; Simpson & Boyal, 1975). Multiple studies have also tested the reliability

and validity of the scale. For example, Dobson et al. (1979) tested the scale's internal consistency and obtained Cronbach $\alpha = .77$, while Flemming and Courtney (1984) reported a Cronbach $\alpha = .88$. The scale's test-retest correlations have ranged from .82 over a one-week interval (Fleming & Courtney, 1984) to .85 over a two-week interval (Silbert & Tippett, 1965). Several studies have also demonstrated empirically the convergent and discriminant validity of this scale (for an overview see Robinson et al., 1991, p. 22).

General Self-Efficacy Scale

The general self-efficacy scale is a brief unidimensional self-report measure that specifically focuses on measuring an individual's general sense of perceived self-efficacy (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). It is designed to assess a general sense of self-belief that one can perform a novel or difficult task or cope with adversity in the various domains of human functioning (Schwarzer, 1992). The scale is comprised of 10 statements for which participants are asked to indicate the degree to which they believe each statement is true (see Appendix C). The scale employs a four-point response format (1 = not at all true, 2 = hardly true, 3 = moderately true, 4 = exactly true), which yields a total score of 10–40, with higher scores reflecting higher self-efficacy. The general self-efficacy scale has demonstrated high reliability, stability, and construct validity across several studies (Leganger, Kraft, & Roysamb, 2000; Schwarzer et al., 1997a; Schwarzer & Born, 1997; Schwarzer, Born, Iwawaki, Lee, Saito, & Yue, 1997b; Schwarzer, Mueller, & Greenglass, 1999), and the assumption of unidimensionality has been supported by confirmatory factor analysis (Leganger et al., 2000; Scholz et al., 2002).

Self-Determination Scale

The self-determination scale is a brief self-report measure designed to assess individual differences in the extent to which people tend to function in an autonomous way (Sheldon et al., 1996; Sheldon, 1995). It is designed to assess the degree to which an individual can be described as having an internal locus of causality. It consists of two five-item subscales that can be used either separately or combined to reach an overall self-determination score (total score of all 10 items). The subscales include awareness of oneself (items 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10) and perceived choice in one's actions (items 1, 3, 5, 7, and 9). This study is using a modified version of the self-determination scale. For each of the 10 items participants are asked to indicate the degree to which they agree with each statement (see Appendix D). The scale is scored by totaling each item in each subscale (individual scale scores, with items 1, 2, 5, 7, and 9 reverse scored first) to get a total score for each subscale. Then the two subscale scores are added together for a total self-determination score, with higher scores indicating a higher degree of self-determination. Across numerous samples, this scale has demonstrated both good internal consistency (alphas .85 to .93) and adequate test-retest reliability ($r = .77$ over an eight-week period) (Sheldon et al., 1996). The self-determination scale has also been shown to be a strong predictor of a wide variety of psychological health outcomes including self-actualization, empathy, life satisfaction (Sheldon & Deci, 1996), and creativity (Sheldon, 1995).

Mastery Scale

The mastery scale is a brief unidimensional self-report measure that specifically focuses on measuring an individual's sense of control (Pearlin et al., 1981). It was designed to assess the extent to which an individual believes one's life events are under

one's own control versus being controlled by others or being fatalistically ruled (Pearlin & Schooler 1978, p.5). The scale is comprised of seven items for which participants are asked to indicate the degree to which they agree with each statement. This scale employs a four-point response format (strongly agree = 1, agree = 2, disagree = 3, and strongly disagree = 4), resulting in scores ranging from 7–28, with higher scores representing higher perception of mastery (see Appendix E). The scale was developed as part of a larger longitudinal study, which yielded a correlational measure of .44 between Time 1 (data collected 1972-1973) and Time 2 (data collected 1976-1977) (Pearlin et al., 1981). Pearlin et al. (1978, 1981) used a confirmatory factor analysis to demonstrate the mastery scale's unidimensionality. This scale has strong face validity, has been translated in multiple languages, and is widely used (Brady, 2003).

Relationship Behaviors

Prior research has shown that within the context of an intimate relationship, batterers use a range of coercive tactics that include both psychologically abusive and physically abusive behaviors designed to exert or maintain “control” over their partner (Dobash & Dobash, 1979; Dutton, 1998, 2001; Eckhardt & Dye; Lawson, 2003, 2008; Moffitt, 2000; Moffitt et al., 2001; Pence & Paymer, 1993; Websdale, 2010; Yllo, 2005). The Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) and Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (CTS2) are the most commonly used scales in the domestic violence literature. However, these scales are currently proprietary and not available for this project. The items on the psychological and physical abuse perpetration scales developed for the Safe Dates program are similar to the items on the CTS, but the Safe Dates scales were specifically developed for use with adolescents. Therefore, this study used a modified version of both the psychological

and physical abuse perpetration scale developed for and used in the Safe Dates program (Foshee et al., 1996, 1998). The psychological abuse perpetration scale comprises 14 items for which participants are asked to indicate how often they have engaged in the behavior. The scale employs a four-point response format (never = 0, seldom = 1, sometimes = 2, and very often = 3). The physical abuse perpetration scale comprises 16 items for which the participant is again asked to indicate how often they have engaged in the behavior. This scale also employs a four-point response format (never = 0, 1 to 3 times = 1, 4 to 9 times = 2, and 10 or more times = 3). Both scales are scored by summing the point value of the responses, with higher scores indicating a greater perpetration (Appendix's F and G).

These scales were developed as part of a larger longitudinal investigation designed to evaluate a school-based program intended to prevent dating violence. Both the scales have demonstrated internal consistency with Cronbach $\alpha = .88$ (Foshee et al., 1998). The items in both the psychological abuse perpetration and physical abuse perpetration scale have strong face validity and are very similar to other commonly used scales designed to measure the perpetration of psychological and physical abuse (e.g. CTS, CTS2, and Abusive Behavior Inventory), but these scales ask participants to indicate their use of these behaviors in the context of a date. Therefore, this study will use a modified version of each scale that will ask participants to indicate their use of behaviors in the context of an intimate relationship (defined as a boyfriend/girlfriend or a husband/wife for at least a month or longer).

Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Basic socio-demographic data were collected so the research team could have a sense of the sample's profile. None of the demographic measures were used for specific analyses. Participants were asked their age, sex, race, student classification, and if they have ever been in an intimate relationship.

Procedures

Prior to any data collection this study was approved by the IRB. The data for this study were collected through the use of a one-time self-report survey instrument, which was administered via a secure Internet website. Participants for the study were provided the direct Web link for the survey, allowing them to take the survey at a time, location, and setting that was both private and comfortable for them. The survey instrument contained three sections of measures: the internal power scales, questions regarding behaviors in intimate relationships, and socio-demographic questions (see Appendices A–H for all measures). On average the survey instrument took participants 15 minutes to complete.

The data for this study were collected and managed electronically. Participants were provided with an Internet link that took them directly to the survey instrument. Qualtrics was used to administer the survey instrument and create the electronic files. Qualtrics is a system that allows for both confidential and secure data collection and management. Although Qualtrics is an on-line interface, IP addresses were not collected by the principal investigator or any other member of the research team, and there is nothing in the data itself that can link participants to their responses. The principal investigator was responsible for maintaining and managing the data. All the data for this

study is stored in electronic files that are protected by a unique user log-on name and password that only the principal and co-investigators can access.

Analytic Plan

The research questions in this study are: 1) Is internal power a unidimensional latent construct comprising five underlying factors (self-concept clarity, self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-determination, and mastery)? (2) What is the relationship, if any, between internal power and an individual's use of coercive control tactics (i.e., psychological abuse and physical violence) in his or her intimate relationship? This next section will identify the hypotheses that were tested and describe the statistical techniques that were conducted to address each research question.

Research Question 1

Is internal power a unidimensional latent construct composed of five underlying factors? Internal power is conceptualized as comprising five underlying factors: self-concept clarity (SCC), self-esteem (SES), self-efficacy (SEF), self-determination (SD), and mastery (M). Each of these underlying factors is a latent construct for which previous empirical research has already established a reliable and valid measure. Therefore, each of the five underlying factors was measured by an independent scale, with each scale containing several indicator items. For example, the self-concept clarity scale is a 12-item measure, and the mastery scale is a seven-item measure, with the other three scales containing 10 items each (see Figure 3). Consequently, in order to determine and empirically evaluate both the unidimensionality and underlying factor structure of internal power, the following series of hypotheses were tested.

- H1: The 12 items in the self-concept clarity scale will demonstrate both internal consistency and a moderate-to-strong intercorrelation with each other.
- H2: The 10 items in the Rosenberg self-esteem scale will demonstrate both internal consistency and a moderate-to-strong intercorrelation with each other.
- H3: The 10 items in the general self-efficacy scale will demonstrate both internal consistency and a moderate-to-strong intercorrelation with each other.
- H4: The 10 items in the self-determination scale will demonstrate both internal consistency and a moderate-to-strong intercorrelation with each other.
- H5: The 7 items in the mastery scale will demonstrate both internal consistency and a moderate-to-strong intercorrelation with each other.
- H6: Based on a principal components analysis the 12 items in the self-concept clarity scale will all load onto one factor.
- H7: Based on a principal components analysis the 10 items in the Rosenberg self-esteem scale will all load onto one factor.
- H8: Based on a principal components analysis the 10 items in the general self-efficacy scale will all load onto one factor.
- H9: Based on a principal components analysis the 10 items of the self-determination scale will load onto one factor.
- H10: Based on a principal components analysis the 7 items in the mastery scale will all load onto one factor.
- H11: The self-concept clarity scale, Rosenberg self-esteem scale, general self-efficacy scale, self-determination scale, and mastery scale will have a moderate-to-strong intercorrelation to each other.

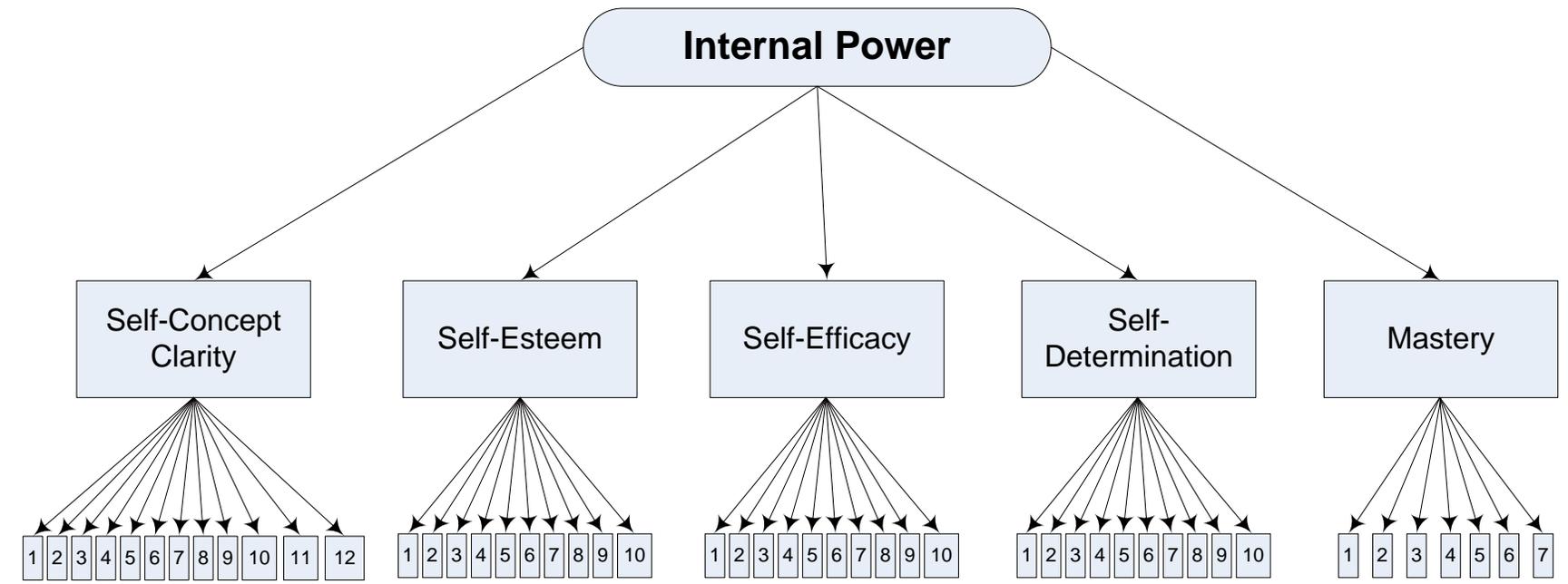


Figure 3. Factor Structure

H12: The internal power measure comprising the self-concept clarity scale, Rosenberg self-esteem scale, general self-efficacy scale, self-determination scale, and mastery scale will be internally consistent.

H13: Based on a principal components analysis the self-concept clarity scale, Rosenberg self-esteem scale, general self-efficacy scale, self-determination scale, and mastery scale will all load onto one factor.

The first ten hypotheses (H1–H10) are designed to verify the reliability and factorial structure, within this sample, of the individual scales proposed to measure each of the factors theorized to be underlying the internal power construct. For H1–H5 a correlation matrix was used to assess how well the items contained in each scale intercorrelate, and a Cronbach’s alpha was calculated to assess the internal consistency of each measure. For H6-H10 a principal components analysis was used to examine the factorial structure of each scale. Hypotheses 11-13 are designed to assess the internal reliability and factorial structure of the internal power construct. Therefore, a correlation matrix was used to test H11, a Cronbach’s alpha was calculated to assess H12, and a principal components analysis was used to test H13.

A principal components analysis was used to evaluate the internal power measure because conceptually, factor analytic techniques are a way of isolating or identifying specific traits or characteristics that are measured by items in a scale (Kim & Mueller, 1978). It begins from the premise that one big category (i.e., concept or construct) containing all of the items is all that is needed to account for the pattern of responses, and then it assesses how much of the association among individual items that single concept can explain (DeVellis, 2012). In essence it is a method of statistically examining the

correlation matrix in search of clusters of items that correlate more highly with each other than with other items or clusters of items (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). Therefore, H1–H13 are testing a series of correlation matrices and a series of principal components analyses to examine the internal reliability and factorial structure of the internal power instrument (i.e., are the predicted factors present, are other unpredicted factors also present. etc.).

Research Question 2

What is the relationship, if any, between internal power and an individual's use of coercive control tactics (psychologically abusive and physically abusive behaviors) in his or her intimate relationship? Part of the objective for this study was to assess the relationship between internal power and specific relationship behaviors that are commonly used by batterers: coercive control tactics. Research with batterers has shown that they tend to lack at least one, and sometimes several, of the psychological factors that comprise the internal power construct. Therefore, the internal power construct is expected to be negatively related to the use of coercive control tactics, specifically psychologically abusive and physically violent behaviors; that is, as internal power decreases, the use of coercive control tactics increases. In order to examine internal power's predictive validity a t-test and a Pearson correlation coefficient were used to test the following hypotheses:

H14: An individual's degree of internal power will have a moderate-to-strong inverse relationship with his or her use of psychologically abusive behaviors.

H15: An individual's degree of internal power will have a moderate-to-strong inverse relationship with his or her use of physically violent behaviors.

H16: An individual's degree of internal power will have a moderate-to-strong inverse relationship with his or her use of total coercive control behaviors.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to advance our understanding regarding a batterer's power and control motive. The objective of the study was to theoretically develop and empirically evaluate the construct internal power and assess its relationship to battering. To achieve this objective a series of analyses were conducted in order to empirically test the dimensionality and underlying factor structure of internal power. The question addressed by these analyses was as follows: Is internal power a unidimensional latent construct comprised of five underlying factors? Bivariate correlations, Cronbach's alpha and principal components factor analysis were used to explore the internal consistency and examine the factorial structure of internal power. On the basis of this demonstrated validity, this study then used a preliminary scale measure of internal power to explore the relationship between internal power and an individual's use of psychological and physical abuse tactics towards an intimate partner.

Analyses of Hypotheses

Research Question 1

Internal power is conceptualized as a latent construct composed of five underlying factors. Each of these underlying factors is also a latent construct. In order to address the first research question the analyses required a two step process. The first step was to

examine the reliability and validity of each of the five scales that were used to measure each of the underlying factors. Since each of these scales had previously been empirically tested, the purpose of these analyses was to verify the internal consistency and factorial structure of the scales within this sample. The second step was to examine the internal consistency and factorial structure of internal power. The hypotheses and analytic results for each of the five underlying scales (self-concept clarity scale, Rosenberg self-esteem scale, general self-efficacy scale, self-determination scale, and mastery scale) are presented first and the empirical analyses of internal power presented second

Hypotheses 1-10. All of the five scales were hypothesized to demonstrate moderate to strong intercorrelations with each other, to be internally consistent, and to load onto one factor. The first series of analyses produced descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations for each of the individual scales (i.e. self-concept clarity scale, Rosenberg self-esteem scale, general self-efficacy scale, self-determination scale, and mastery scale). The means, standard deviations and Pearson correlation coefficients for each of the five scales are presented in tables one through five.

A Pearson product-moment correlation was run to determine the relationship between each of the items in each of the individual scales. The value of the Pearson correlation coefficient ranges between -1 and 1, with the negative sign indicating an inverse relationship. The greater the absolute value of the coefficient the stronger the linear relationship, with the weakest being 0 and strongest being 1. According to Cohen (1988) the following guidelines can be used for judging the strength of a correlation coefficient: .1 to .3 is a weak association; .3 to .5 is a moderate association; and .5 to 1 is

a strong association. Since each of the five scales underlying internal power were previously developed and empirically evaluated across multiple studies the items contained within in them were expected to demonstrate a moderate-to-strong positive relationship.

The self-concept clarity scale contained 12 items that were measured on a five-point response format, with higher scores indicating higher self-concept clarity. The means for each of the 12 items ranged from 2.88 to 4.10, with standard deviations ranging from .924 to 1.188 (see Table 1). Eleven of the 12 items were significantly related to each other at the .01 level and demonstrated a positive Pearson correlation coefficient that ranged from .131 to .631. A closer examination of the coefficients indicates that the majority of items do demonstrate a moderate-to-strong relationship with each other, with Pearson correlation coefficients at a .4 or higher. However, item number 6 (*I seldom experience conflicts between different aspects of my personality*) was significantly related at the .01 level with only 3 other items, at the .05 level with only one item, and was not significantly related to six items within the scale (see Table 1).

The Rosenberg self-esteem scale contained 10 items that were measured on a four-point response format, with higher scores indicating higher self-esteem. The means for each of the 10 items on the Rosenberg self-esteem scale ranged from 2.80 to 3.45, with standard deviations ranging from .597 to .905. All of the items on this scale were significantly related to each other at the .01 level, with Pearson correlation coefficients ranging from .289 to .702. The majority of items on this scale did demonstrate a moderate-to-strong positive relationship with each other as expected with only one of the inter-item Pearson correlation coefficients dropping below a .3 (see Table 2).

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for the Twelve-Item Self-Concept Clarity Scale (N=392)

Items	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	3.46	1.05	-											
2	2.88	1.17	.498**	-										
3	3.22	1.19	.434**	.469**	-									
4	3.63	1.13	.460**	.417**	.527**	-								
5	3.42	1.09	.330**	.401**	.432**	.416**	-							
6	3.11	1.15	.120*	-.006	.091	.131**	.061	-						
7	3.52	1.188	.299**	.320**	.354**	.433**	.321**	.114*	-					
8	3.77	1.089	.489**	.480**	.474**	.554**	.452**	.200**	.487**	-				
9	3.69	1.16	.395**	.429**	.391**	.485**	.413**	.095	.509**	.624**	-			
10	4.10	.997	.362**	.360**	.378**	.480**	.420**	.158**	.485**	.631**	.622**	-		
11	4.02	.924	.290**	.271**	.397**	.421**	.290**	.072	.341**	.439**	.379**	.403**	-	
12	3.12	1.24	.406**	.448**	.398**	.413**	.367**	.051	.477**	.512**	.536**	.413**	.302**	-

Note. See Item Descriptions in Appendix A. **Coefficients are significant at the .01 level. * Coefficients are significant at the .05 level

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for the Ten-Item Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (N=394)

Items	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	3.21	.719	-									
2	3.02	.837	.500**	-								
3	3.40	.606	.470**	.473**	-							
4	3.26	.597	.388**	.356**	.454**	-						
5	3.25	.833	.390**	.467**	.462**	.289**	-					
6	2.97	.891	.421**	.702**	.378**	.348**	.553**	-				
7	3.28	.668	.470**	.447**	.527**	.431**	.423**	.392**	-			
8	2.80	.905	.448**	.564**	.302**	.317**	.382**	.577**	.328**	-		
9	3.45	.697	.416**	.559**	.349**	.301**	.508**	.554**	.380**	.446**	-	
10	3.17	.711	.543**	.534**	.562**	.398**	.385**	.483**	.550**	.437**	.416**	-

Note. See Item Descriptions in Appendix B. **All Coefficients are significant at the .01 level.

The general self-efficacy scale contained 10 items that were measured on a four-point response format, with higher scores indicating higher self-efficacy. The means for each of the 10 items on this scale ranged from 2.85 to 3.52, with standard deviations ranging from .584 to .685 (see Table 3). All of the items on the general self-efficacy scale, except for items 2, were significantly related to each other at the .01 level. The intercorrelations of the significantly related items were positive and for the majority of the items the intercorrelations demonstrated moderate-to-strong Pearson correlation coefficients ranging from .326 to .619. Again item 2 was the exception and its Pearson correlation coefficients ranged from .130 to .207 (see Table 3).

The self-determination scale contained 10 items that were measured on a five-point response format, with higher scores indicating higher self-determination. The means for each of the 10 items ranged from 3.54 to 4.14, with the standard deviations ranging from .785 to 1.089. All of the items on this scale were significantly related to each other at the .01 level. However, the Pearson correlation coefficients indicate that several of the items have a weak-to-moderate relationship with half of the other items, but a moderate-to-strong relationship with the other half of the items. For example, item 1 has a weak-to-moderate relationship to items 3, 6, 8, and 10, with Pearson correlation coefficients ranging from .188 to .269, but a moderate-to-strong relationship to items 2, 4, 5, 7, and 9, with Pearson correlation coefficients ranging from .307 to .444. (see Table 4). The self-determination scale can be broken into two subscales (i.e. perceived choice and awareness of self). Further examination of the weak-to-moderate intercorrelations indicates that the weaker relationships occur between items across the two subscales.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for the Ten-Item General Self-Efficacy Scale (N=395)

Items	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	3.36	.613	-									
2	2.85	.633	.199**	-								
3	3.19	.685	.444**	.130**	-							
4	3.27	.646	.361**	.174**	.413**	-						
5	3.14	.678	.476**	.165**	.394**	.600**	-					
6	3.52	.584	.491**	.173**	.398**	.511**	.445**	-				
7	3.19	.740	.385**	.090	.344**	.516**	.559**	.326**	-			
8	3.21	.664	.538**	.149**	.431**	.486**	.648**	.401**	.494**	-		
9	3.31	.586	.452**	.207**	.395**	.519**	.617**	.413**	.449**	.555**	-	
10	3.30	.623	.447**	.193**	.390**	.534**	.540**	.404**	.518**	.524**	.619**	-

Note. See Item Descriptions in Appendix C. **Coefficients are significant at the .01 level.

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for the Ten-Item Self-Determination Scale (N=395)

Items	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	3.88	.873	-									
2	3.78	.901	.444**	-								
3	3.54	1.02	.188**	.227**	-							
4	4.05	.948	.307**	.245**	.339**	-						
5	4.12	.785	.403**	.343**	.257**	.310**	-					
6	4.14	.847	.261**	.270**	.224**	.480**	.290**	-				
7	4.02	.849	.400**	.343**	.300**	.331**	.385**	.350**	-			
8	3.94	1.089	.223**	.217**	.236**	.403**	.287**	.512**	.268**	-		
9	3.98	.845	.417**	.332**	.366**	.326**	.408**	.348**	.677**	.259**	-	
10	4.10	.997	.269**	.268**	.254**	.505**	.279**	.445**	.266**	.680**	.322**	-

Note. See Item Descriptions in Appendix D. **Coefficients are significant at the .01 level.

The mastery scale contained 7 items that were measured on a four-point response format, with higher scores indicating a higher degree of mastery. The means for the 7 items ranged from 2.96 to 3.51, with standard deviations ranging from .626 to .842. All of the items on this scale were significantly related to each other at the .01 level. Six of the seven items demonstrate a moderate-to-strong relationship with Pearson correlation coefficients ranging from .259 to .469. However, item 6 demonstrated a weak-to-moderate relationship with the other six items, with Pearson correlation coefficients for this item ranging from .198 to .245 (see Table, 5)

Table 5

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for the Seven-Item Mastery Scale (N=398)

Items	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	3.09	.686	-		.				
2	2.96	.756	.414**	-					
3	3.01	.695	.469**	.412**	-				
4	3.02	.800	.373**	.425**	.252**	-			
5	3.05	.842	.324**	.411**	.426**	.503**	-		
6	3.46	.629	.245**	.240**	.204**	.204**	.198**	-	
7	3.51	.626	.256**	.293**	.369**	.369**	.329**	.459**	-

Note. See Item Descriptions in Appendix E. **Coefficients are significant at the .01 level.

The next series of analyses used Cronbach's alpha to examine the internal consistency for each of the five scales (Cronbach, 1951). The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient normally ranges between 0 and 1. The closer Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0 the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale. George

and Mallery (2003) provide the following rule of thumb when using Cronbach's alpha: below .5 is unacceptable; .5 to .6 is poor to questionable; .7 is acceptable, .8 is good and .9 is excellent. As a general rule an alpha of .8 or higher is reasonable to accept for a scale (Nunally & Bernstein, 1994).

All of the five scales demonstrated good internal consistency and Cronbach's alpha scores were similar to those found in prior research. The alpha for the self-concept clarity scale was $\alpha=.88$ compared with prior studies reporting a range of $\alpha=.88$ to $\alpha=.91$ (Campbell et al., 1996; Deihl & Hay, 2011). The alpha for the Rosenberg self-esteem scale was $\alpha=.89$, compared with prior studies reporting a range of $\alpha=.77$ to $\alpha=.88$ (Dobson et al, 1979; Flemming & Courtney, 1984). The alpha for the general self-efficacy scale was $\alpha=.88$, compared with prior studies reporting a range of $\alpha=.79$ to $\alpha=.90$ (Schwarzer and Jerusalem, 1995; Schwarzer et al., 1999). The alpha for the self-determination scale was $\alpha=.84$, only slightly lower than alphas produced in prior studies, that range from $\alpha=.85$ to $\alpha=.93$ (Sheldon et al., 1995). The alpha for the mastery scale was $\alpha=.79$, comparable to prior studies reporting a range of $\alpha=.79$ to $\alpha=.85$ (Mayer et al., 2004; Parlin & Schooler, 1978).

The next series of analyses used a principal components analysis to examine the factorial structure and dimensionality for each scale. The primary applications of a principal components factor analysis are: 1) to reduce the number of items in a scale so that the remaining items maximize the explained variance in the scale and maximize the scale's reliability; 2) to identify potential underlying dimensions in a scale (Netemeyer et al., 2003). There are several psychometric criteria or "rules of thumb" commonly used in evaluating the results of a principal components analysis. The first is the "eigenvalue-

greater-than-1” rule also known as the Kaiser rule (Kaiser, 1974). Each component (factor) has an eigenvalue that represents the amount of variance accounted for by the component, where the sum of all eigenvalues is equal to the number of items analyzed. Eigenvalues less than 1 indicates that the component accounts for less variance than any single item. A component with an eigenvalue less than one is not considered meaningful, therefore only components with eigenvalues over one are retained (Netemeyer et al., 2003).

Cliff (1988) demonstrated that the eigenvalue-greater-than-1 rule can be flawed, therefore as recommended by most researchers a scree test was also used in this study (Netemeyer, 2003). A scree test plots the eigenvalues and shows the slope of the line connecting the eigenvalues. Factors are retained where the slope of this line approaches zero, and at which point a sharp “elbow” occurs. Deleting a factor well below this elbow will show little loss of explained variance.

The next rule of thumb for retaining factors is to evaluate each of the items factor loadings. Although what is considered a substantial loading is somewhat open for debate, loadings in the .40 range and above are classified as substantial (Floyd & Widaman, 1995) and loadings above .50 are considered as being “very significant (Hair et al., 1998). The final rule of thumb involves the amount of variance that is being explained by an extracted factor, in relation to the total variance explained by the entire factor solution. Some researchers have advocated that the number of factors extracted should account for 50% to 60% of the variance in the items and that for any one factor to be meaningful at least 5% of the total variance explained should be attributable to that factor (Hair et al., 1998).

It was expected that the results of the principal components analysis would indicate that each scale is unidimensional and each of the items in the scale is substantial. In evaluating the results from the factor analyses all of the above criteria and “rule of thumbs” were employed. Tables 6-10 present the results of the factor analysis for each of the five scales.

The results of the factor analyses demonstrated empirical support for the unidimensionality of each of the five scales. The self-concept clarity scale indicated an eigenvalue of 5.36 with 44.73% of the variance explained by one component. The factor loadings for 11 of the 12 items ranged from .587 to .740, but item 6 had a loading of .180. The corrected item-total correlations ranged from .142 to .756, but if item six were removed this changed the range drastically being .500 to .756¹ (see Table 6).

Table 6

Summary of the Reliability Analysis and Principal Components Analysis for the Self-Concept Clarity Scale (N=392)

Item	Factor Loading	Communality	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item Deleted
1	.646	.417	.568	.87
2	.658	.433	.567	.87
3	.686	.471	.606	.87
4	.740	.547	.664	.86
5	.629	.395	.542	.87
6	.180	.032	.142	.89
7	.661	.437	.578	.87
8	.818	.670	.756	.86
9	.769	.591	.687	.86
10	.742	.550	.663	.86
11	.587	.345	.500	.87
12	.691	.478	.606	.87
Eigenvalue	5.367			
% of Variance	44.73			

Note. Scale α =.88

The Rosenberg self-esteem scale indicated an eigenvalue of 5.08 with 50.84% of the variance explained by one component. The factor loadings for the 10 items ranged from .582 to .804, with the corrected item-total correlation range of .491 to .742 (see Table 7). The general self-efficacy scale indicated an Eigenvalue of 4.875 with 48.75% of the variance explained by one component. The factor loadings for 9 of the 10 items ranged from .582 to .804, but item 2 had a loading of .283². The corrected item-total correlations ranged from .225 to .742 (see Table 8).

Table 7

Summary of the Reliability Analysis and Principal Components Analysis for the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (N=394)

Item	Factor Loading	Communality	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item Deleted
1	.723	.523	.638	.88
2	.804	.646	.742	.87
3	.705	.496	.613	.88
4	.582	.339	.491	.89
5	.686	.471	.604	.88
6	.773	.597	.712	.87
7	.694	.482	.601	.88
8	.676	.457	.599	.88
9	.702	.493	.629	.88
10	.762	.581	.678	.86
Eigenvalue	5.084			
% of Variance	50.84			

Note. Scale $\alpha=.89$

The self-determination scale demonstrated an eigenvalue of 4.077 with 40.77% of the variance explained by one component. The factor loadings for the 10 items ranged from .508 to .707, with the corrected item-total correlation range of .453 to .593 (see Table 9). The mastery scale demonstrated an eigenvalue of 3.126 with 44.66% of the variance explained by one component. The factor loadings for the 7 items ranged from

.510 to .732, with the corrected item-total correlation range of .370 to .589 (see Table 10).

Table 8

Summary of the Reliability Analysis and Principal Components Analysis for the General Self-Efficacy Scale (N=395)

Item	Factor Loading	Communality	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's α if item Deleted
1	.695	.482	.610	.86
2	.283	.080	.225	.89
3	.625	.391	.532	.87
4	.754	.568	.508	.86
5	.810	.656	.591	.85
6	.658	.433	.387	.86
7	.693	.481	.415	.86
8	.778	.606	.533	.85
9	.773	.597	.523	.86
10	.761	.579	.499	.86
Eigenvalue	4.875			
% of Variance	48.75			

Note Scale α =.88

Table 9

Summary of the Reliability Analysis and Principal Components Analysis for the Self-Determination Scale (N=395)

Item	Factor Loading	Communality	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's α if item Deleted
1	.606	.367	.489	.82
2	.563	.318	.453	.83
3	.508	.258	.507	.82
4	.674	.454	.566	.82
5	.618	.381	.593	.81
6	.666	.443	.403	.83
7	.686	.470	.571	.81
8	.647	.419	.561	.82
9	.707	.500	.540	.82
10	.683	.467	.589	.81
Eigenvalue	4.077		.83	
% of Variance	40.77		.82	

Note. Scale α =.84

Table 10

Summary of the Reliability Analysis and Principal Components Analysis for the Mastery Scale (N=398)

Item	Factor Loading	Communality	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's α if item Deleted
1	.675	.456	.526	.76
2	.695	.483	.548	.76
3	.717	.514	.571	.75
4	.732	.536	.589	.75
5	.703	.494	.556	.76
6	.510	.260	.370	.79
7	.618	.382	.480	.77
Eigenvalue	3.126			
% of Variance	44.66			

Note. Scale α = .79 N=398

Hypotheses 11-13. The next three hypotheses were tested in order to examine the internal consistency and factorial structure of the most global construct of internal power. It was hypothesized that the self-concept clarity scale, Rosenberg self-esteem scale, general self-efficacy scale, self-determination scale, and mastery scale would demonstrate moderate-to-strong intercorrelations with each other, be internally consistent, and load onto one factor. The descriptive statistics and frequencies for each scales are presented in Table 11. The bivariate correlation analysis, also presented in Table 11 demonstrates support for the hypotheses that there is internal consistency across these five scales.

All of the scales were significantly related to each other at the .01 level and all of the intercorrelations demonstrated a moderate-to-strong positive Pearson correlation coefficient ranging from .437 to .734 (see Table 11). The self-concept clarity scale demonstrated two of the strongest intercorrelations, but also had one of the weakest

intercorrelations. For example, the Pearson correlation coefficient between the self-concept clarity scale and the Rosenberg self-esteem scale was $r=.734$ and the Pearson correlation coefficient between the self-concept clarity scale and the self-determination scale was $r=.735$, but the Pearson correlation coefficient between the self-concept clarity scale and the general self-efficacy scale was $r=.437$. The Rosenberg self-esteem scale also demonstrated one of the strongest correlations to both the mastery scale ($r=.727$) and the self-determination scale ($r=.657$). The weakest correlation among these scales was $r=.437$, but even this is considered to be a moderately strong correlation and the majority of interitem correlations were at .5 or greater with several reaching .7, which are considered to be strong. However, it is interesting that the self-concept clarity scale shared both the strongest and the weakest relationships across the intercorrelations for all five scales.

Table 11

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for the Five Underlying Factors of Internal Power (N=399)

Items	Mean	SD	SCCS	RES	GES	SDS	MS
Self-Concept Clarity Scale (SCCS)	41.88	8.753	-				
Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RES)	31.77	5.336	.734**	-			
General Self-Efficacy Scale (GES)	32.29	4.460	.437**	.584**	-		
Self-Determination Scale (SDS)	39.49	5.183	.735**	.657**	.487**	-	
Mastery Scale (MS)	22.07	3.381	.650**	.727**	.510**	.665**	-

Note. **Coefficients are significant at the .01 level

The next analysis used a Cronbach's alpha test to examine the internal consistency of internal power. Since three of the five scales used a four point response format and two of the scales used a five point response format, the standardized version for each of the scales was used to test the internal reliability of internal power. The standardized internal power scale demonstrated good internal consistency with $\alpha=.89^3$. Values between .70 to .90 are well accepted guidelines for values of Cronbach's alpha, with numbers higher than this indicating redundancy of items (deVet et al., 2011). These results also indicated that the internal consistency for internal power decreased if self-concept clarity, self-esteem, self-determination, and mastery were removed, but it increased if self-efficacy was removed. However, the increase in the Cronbach's alpha that resulted in removing self-efficacy was more minimal ($\alpha=.90$) than the decreases in the alpha that occurred if any of the other four scales were removed (see Table 12).

Finally, a principal components analysis was used to examine the factorial structure of internal power. The results of the factor analyses demonstrated empirical support for the internal power scale, indicating an eigenvalue of 3.494 with 69.87% of

Table 12

Summary of the Reliability Analysis and Principal Components Analysis for the Internal Power Scale (N=399)

Item	Factor Loading	Communality	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's α if item Deleted
SCCS	.861	.741	.772	.86
RES	.893	.797	.811	.84
GES	.702	.492	.557	.90
SDS	.854	.730	.771	.86
MS	.856	.733	.758	.86
Eigenvalue	3.494			
% of Variance	69.87			

Note. Scale $\alpha=.89$

the variance explained by one component. The eigenvalue for a second component was only a .624 with only 12% of the variance explained by a second component.

Researchers have advocated that only components (factors) with an eigenvalue greater than 1 are meaningful and the number of factors extracted should account for 50% to 60% of the variance in the items. According to the eigenvalue-greater-than-1 rule and the amount of variance explained rule these findings indicate that internal power is unidimensional. The screeplot of the initial factor analysis also clearly indicated that the five scales were loading onto only one factor. The factor loadings for the internal power scale ranged from .702 to .893 with the corrected item-total correlations ranging from .557 to .811 (see Table 12). A loading of a .40 is considered to be a substantial loading but Hair et al., (1998) determined that factor loadings above a .50 are considered as “very significant”. These results indicate strong support for the hypothesis that these five scales are loading onto one component and that internal power is a unidimensional construct.

Summary of results for question 1. The first series of analyses were conducted to verify the internal consistency and factorial structure for each of the five scales intended to measure the five underlying factors of internal power. Overall the findings did support each the first ten hypotheses. Although item six of the self-concept clarity scale did not perform as strongly as expected, it did not perform so poorly to warrant removing the item, and the scale itself did perform as expected. The Cronbach’s alpha for each of the five scales were between .79 and .89. The principal components analysis for each of the five scales indicated that each scale is unidimensional, supporting the predicted factorial structure.

The second series of analyses were conducted to assess the internal consistency and factorial structure of internal power. Each of the hypotheses were support by the findings. For example, all of the Pearson correlation coefficients were moderate-to-strong and significant at the .01 level. The Cronbach's alpha for the internal power scale was a .89, which is within the well accepted and established guidelines. The factor analysis indicated strong support for internal power being a unidimensional construct comprised of these five underlying factors. Specifically, findings showed that one component can account for just over 69% of the variance explained, with all five factor loadings exceeding what is considered to be "very significant".

Research Question 2:

An important component to this study was to assess the relationship between internal power and an individual's use of coercive control tactics towards their intimate partner. Since the empirical findings regarding the first series of hypotheses empirically supported a preliminary scale measure for internal power, a t-test and Pearson product moment correlation were used to explore internal power's predictive validity. In order to test the final hypotheses a subsample was used that contained only those individuals who reported having been in an intimate relationship (N=346). Then the internal power scale was created. This was done by first standardizing each of the five scales that comprise the underlying factors. Then the standardized scores were summed to create a standardized internal power scale. Table 13 presents the descriptive statistics for each of the five standardized scales and the standardized internal power scale.

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics for the Standardized Self-Concept Clarity Scale, Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, General Self-Efficacy Scale, Self-Determination Scale, Mastery Scale and Internal Power Scale (N=346)

	Mean	SD	Range	Min	Max
Self-Concept Clarity Scale	.037	.982	4.80	-2.73	2.07
Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale	.040	.992	4.68	-3.14	1.54
General Self-Efficacy Scale	.033	1.00	4.71	-2.98	1.73
Self-Determination Scale	.027	.981	4.30	-2.50	1.81
Mastery Scale	.039	.982	4.73	-2.98	1.75
Internal Power Scale	.177	4.087	18.33	-9.43	18.90

Hypotheses 14-16. It was hypothesized that an individual’s internal power will have a moderate-to-strong inverse relationship with his or her use of psychologically abusive behaviors, physically abusive behaviors, and their total use of abusive behaviors towards an intimate partner. In order to test these hypotheses six different measures of violence were created from participants’ responses on the psychological abuse perpetration and physical abuse perpetration questionnaires. The first step taken was to recode the 14 psychological abuse items and the 16 physical abuse items into 0=never and 1=at least once or more. Then three dichotomous measures of violence were created. First, the 14 items from the psychological abuse perpetration questionnaire were used to create the psychologically abusive measure (0=reported never on all 14 items and 1=reported yes on at least one of the 14 items). Second, the 16 items from the physical abuse perpetration questionnaire were used to create the physically abusive measure (0=reported never on all 16 items and 1=reported yes on at least one of the 16 items). Third, the total 30 items (psychological and physical abuse items combined) were used to create the total abusive measure (0=reported never on all 30 items and 1=reported yes on

at least one of the 30 items). Lastly, the three indicators of violence were made into three variety scales: The psychologically abusive scale was the sum of the recoded (0=never and 1=at least once) 14 psychological perpetration items; the physically abusive scale was the sum of the recoded (0=never and 1=at least once) 16 physical perpetration items; and the total abusive scale was the sum of the recoded (0=never and 1=at least once) 30 items (psychological and physical items combined).

Preliminary analysis produced descriptive statistics for each of the six violence measures. The frequencies of the dichotomous variables were interesting because 86% of the sample reported using psychological abuse and 39% reported using physical violence. However, the effect of combining the two types of violence into one measure resulted in 89% of the sample indicating they used at least one of the abusive acts, at least once against an intimate partner (see Tables 15, 16, and 17).

The descriptive statistics were also interesting for the three variety scales of violence (see Table 14). The psychologically abusive scale ranged from 0-14 with a mean of 4.6, but when the distribution was examined it showed a fairly normal distribution. This indicates that for this sample engaging in at least one of the psychological abuse items appears to be normal. This normal distribution could be a reflection of the age of the sample and that many of the items used to indicate psychological abuse perpetration may be common among adolescents. The physically violent scale ranged from 0-16 with a mean of 1.33. When the distribution was examined it revealed this scale did not have a normal distribution with the majority of participants indicating they never engaged in any of these behaviors. According to these results it appears that psychological abuse perpetration may be common among college age

individuals but physical abusive is not. However, physical abuse perpetration is still more common in this sample compared to other studies of domestic violence.

The total abuse scale ranged from 0-30 with a mean of 5.97. The distribution of this scale was not normal but it was less skewed than the distribution of the physical abuse scale. This could be due to the presence of the psychological abuse scale, which may have too much influence affecting the overall scale.

Table 14

Descriptive Statistics for the Psychological Abuse Scale, Physical Abuse Scale, and Total Abuse Scale

	Mean	SD	Range	N
Psychological Abuse Scale	4.600	3.685	14	345
Physical Abuse Scale	1.334	2.669	16	344
Total Abuse Scale	5.947	5.674	30	344

The first set of analyses conducted were a series of t-tests. The purpose of these analyses was to examine the differences between those who reported using violence and those who reported never using violence. Three separate independent samples t-tests were conducted to compare each of the three dichotomous measures of abuse (psychological, physical, and total) in self-concept clarity, self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-determination, mastery, and internal power. The results indicate that there is not a significant difference in the scores between the two groups regarding psychological abuse and total abuse for internal power or any of its five factors underlying factors. However,

Table 15

Group Differences for Self-Concept Clarity, Self-Esteem, Self-Efficacy, Self-Determination, Mastery and Internal Power Between Individuals Who Did and Did Not Report Using Psychological Abuse (N=345)

Measure	No Psychological Abuse (18%)		Yes Psychological Abuse (86%)		t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Self-concept Clarity Scale	.167	1.178	.019	.9475	.839	.405
Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale	.046	1.166	.041	.964	.029	.977
General Self-Efficacy Scale	.045	1.188	.033	.971	.072	.943
Self-Determination Scale	.098	1.157	.021	.934	.445	.658
Mastery Scale	.110	1.233	.029	.937	.438	.663
Internal Power Scale	.468	5.104	.143	3.903	.425	.672

Note. No Psychological Abuse N=49. Yes Psychological Abuse N=295.

Table 16

Group Differences for Self-Concept Clarity, Self-Esteem, Self-Efficacy, Self-Determination, Mastery and Internal Power Between Individuals Who Did and Did Not Report Using Physical Abuse (N=344)

Measure	No Physical Abuse (61%)		Yes Physical Abuse (39%)		t	p	Cohen's d
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Self-concept Clarity Scale	.193	1.016	-.208	.879	3.75	.000	.422
Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale	.190	1.016	-.195	.914	3.56	.000	.398
General Self-Efficacy Scale	.155	.996	-.165	.984	2.92	.004	.323
Self-Determination Scale	.160	.987	-.171	.907	3.12	.002	.349
Mastery Scale	.213	.992	-.234	.911	4.20	.000	.469
Internal Power Scale	.911	4.23	-.973	3.58	4.42	.000	.481

Note. No Physical Abuse N=211. Yes Physical Abuse N=133

Table 17

Group Differences for Self-Concept Clarity, Self-Esteem, Self-Efficacy, Self-Determination, Mastery and Internal Power Between Individuals Who Did and Did Not Report Using Total Abuse (N=344)

Measure	No Total Abuse (13%)		Yes Total Abuse (87%)		t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Self-concept Clarity Scale	.214	1.21	.012	.945	1.07	.289
Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale	.092	1.175	.033	.966	.373	.709
General Self-Efficacy Scale	.130	1.14	.016	.981	.711	.477
Self-Determination Scale	.119	1.19	.019	.933	.642	.521
Mastery Scale	.161	1.25	.022	.938	.717	.477
Internal Power Scale	.716	5.149	.102	3.912	.768	.446

Note. No Total Abuse N=45. Yes Total Abuse N=299

there was a significant difference in the scores between the two groups regarding physical violence for internal power and its five underlying factors (see Tables 15,16,and 17).

Also, in the case of physical violence each of the scales had a small to medium effect size, with internal power having the largest effect size of .481 (see Table 16).

The next analysis conducted was a bivariate correlation. The purpose of this analysis was to examine the correlation between each of the three variety scale measures of abuse and the internal power scale, including its five underlying factors. These results indicate that as predicted there is an inverse relationship between internal power and psychological abuse, physical abuse, and total abuse. The results also showed that the relationship between internal power and psychological abuse, physical abuse and total abuse is significant at the .01 level. Each of the five factors underlying internal power are also inversely and significantly related to the three types of violence at the .01 level, but the Pearson correlation coefficients indicate that the strength of association is slightly stronger for internal power as compared to its underlying factors (see Table 18).

Table 18

Pearson Correlation Coefficient Scores of Self-Concept Clarity, Rosenberg Self-Esteem, General Self-Efficacy, Self-Determination, Mastery Scale and Internal Power for Three Measures of Abuse (N=345)

Measures	Psychological Abuse	Physical Abuse	Total Abuse
Self-Concept Clarity Scale	-.241**	-.175**	-.238**
Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale	-.258**	-.202**	-.262**
General Self-Efficacy Scale	-.244**	-.219**	-.259**
Self-Determination Scale	-.277**	-.204**	-.276**
Mastery Scale	-.270**	-.278**	-.306**
Internal Power Scale	-.311**	-.260**	-.323**

**Coefficients are significant at the .01 level

Summary

The first set of analyses did verify, for this sample, the internal consistency, reliability, and factorial structure of the five scales that measure each of the factors underlying the internal power construct. The second set of analyses demonstrated empirical support for the internal power construct as it was conceptualized for this study. The results also indicated that it is possible to measure internal power as a scale. Specifically, the principal components analysis revealed that the five underlying factors do all load onto one latent construct with more than 69% of the variance explained by one component, and the reliability test indicated that the internal power scale has good internal consistency. Furthermore, internal power is both inversely and significantly related to psychological abuse, physical abuse, and total abuse when these are measured as a scale. In conclusion, findings from this study indicate that both the measure for internal power and its potential relationship to an individual's use of battering behaviors warrants further exploration and development.

1. Although the bivariate correlation and factor loading suggest that item 6 of the self-concept clarity scale is performing poorly, this item was retained. The reliability analysis indicated that the removal of item 6 did not increase the reliability of the scale. Also, removing the item would alter the original scale to an extent that further research would need to be done to determine if the new scale was a reliable and valid measure. To do so was beyond the scope of the current study.

2. Although item 2 does not have a good factor loading and it did not perform strongly on the bivariate correlations, it was still significantly related to eight of the other items and reliability was not improved by eliminating the item. Therefore the item was retained.

3. Since this study is exploratory a Cronbach's Alpha test was also conducted on the unstandardized scores, producing $\alpha=.86$. This demonstrates good internal consistency and is not significantly different from the standardized alpha. In this analysis Cronbach's alpha for the scale remained unchanged when the self-efficacy item was removed but still decreased when any of the other four scales were removed.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION

According to mainstream domestic violence theories, power is a key component to understanding a batterer's motive for using coercive control tactics against an intimate partner. The assertion "the batterer's motive is power and control" has become fundamental to almost all of our currently used and accepted theoretical explanations regarding domestic violence (Cascardi & Vivian, 1995; Dobash & Dobash, 1979; Malik & Lindahl, 1998; Straus & Gelles, 1990; Yllo, 2005). However, thus far researchers have failed to challenge and empirically test this theoretical assertion, and the domestic violence literature has yet to postulate either a specified conceptualization of the construct "power" or any theories of power that can explain how power acts as a motive for the individual batterer. If the assertion that the motive for battering an intimate partner is "power and control" is going to continue to be fundamental to domestic violence theory, it is incumbent upon researchers to better define, conceptualize, and operationalize power as well as empirically test theories regarding an offender's "power and control motive".

The overall purpose of this study was to address this gap by focusing on the role of power in domestic violence theory and offer a more complete conceptualization and precise operationalization of power. The argument made here is that there are two

distinct types of power—social, which is external power, and personal, which is internal power—and that distinguishing these two types of power is important, especially in regard to an individual’s “power motive”. To date, domestic violence theories have utilized primarily the external perspective, but some literature suggests that internal power may be equally if not more important to understanding the etiology of battering at the individual level (Schulthesis et al., 1999; Van Dijke & Poppe, 2006). The main goal of this study was to advance our current understanding of a batterer’s sense of internal power as a motive for using coercive control tactics, such as psychologically abusive and physically abusive behaviors against an intimate partner. Therefore, the primary objective of this study was to theoretically develop and empirically evaluate a measure for the construct internal power and examine its relationship to coercive control tactics.

The current study effectively postulated that the construct internal power is important to understanding a batterer’s power and control motive. Specifically, the construct internal power was defined, conceptualized, and operationalized and internal power’s relationship to an individual’s use of coercive control tactics was empirically examined. This was accomplished by first testing a series of hypotheses designed to evaluate the dimensionality and underlying factor structure of internal power. Then three hypotheses that examined internal power’s predictive validity regarding psychologically abusive behaviors and physically abusive behaviors directed against an intimate partner were tested. Each of these hypotheses predicted that one’s internal power would have a moderate-to-strong inverse relationship with one’s use of both types of violent behaviors towards an intimate partner.

General Overview of the Findings

The internal power construct was conceptualized to contain five specific underlying factors: self-concept clarity, self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-determination, and mastery. A series of bivariate correlations, reliability analyses, and factor analyses verified, for this sample, the internal consistency, reliability, and factorial structure for each of scales being used as a measure for each of these five underlying factors. Then, bivariate correlations, Cronbach's alpha, and principal components factor analyses demonstrated empirical support for the internal power construct. Specifically, the bivariate correlations showed that each of the five constructs (self-concept clarity, self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-determination, and mastery) did share for the most part moderate-to-strong intercorrelations with each other, and the Cronbach's alpha demonstrated the internal consistency of a scale measure for internal power. Finally, a principal components analysis showed that these five underlying constructs do load onto one factor that explains more than 69% of the variance. The proposed measure for the internal power construct was also supported by strong factor loadings for each of the five underlying factors.

Overall the results indicate empirical support for the construct internal power and its ability to be measured. However, a few of the results are of particular interest to highlight and discuss. For example, the first series of analyses indicated that the self-concept clarity scale and the general self-efficacy scale each had one item that did not perform well. Specifically, item number 6 of the self-concept clarity scale did not have a moderate-to-strong correlation with each of the other items and this item's factor loading was low. However, when a promax rotation was performed the results showed support

for retaining item 6 and the Cronbach's alpha did not significantly increase or decrease when item 6 was removed. Also item 2 of the general self-efficacy scale did not demonstrate moderate-to-strong intercorrelations with all of the other items on the scale and its initial factor loading was low. Similar to the item in the self-concept clarity scale when a promax rotation was performed the results again supported retaining this item and the Cronbach's alpha did not change significantly when the item was removed.

Another interesting result was the change in the Cronbach's alpha for internal power if self-efficacy is removed. Although the change was not significant, it still merits attention and discussion. This small change could be the result of the particular measure used for self-efficacy or it could be reflective of the degree to which self-efficacy as a construct fits into the internal power construct theoretically, as compared to the other four underlying factors. Given that only one of the items on the general self-efficacy scale did not perform well, it would be premature to remove self-efficacy conceptually from the theoretical model for the internal power construct, but future studies should consider this finding and explore it further.

The last finding of particular interest that warrants discussion was the strength of the results from the principal components analysis for internal power. One of the primary functions of factor analysis is to assess how much association among individual items a single construct can explain (Kim and Mueller, 1978). In this study five items, each measured by their own scale, were hypothesized to underlie the single latent construct internal power. First, the correlation matrix demonstrated that each of the five underlying factors did share moderate-to-strong intercorrelations with each other, supporting the first hypothesis that internal power is a single latent construct comprising five underlying

factors (self-concept clarity, self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-determination, and mastery).

Next, according to Kaiser's (1960) eigenvalue criterion and Cattell's (1966) scree test criterion the results clearly indicated that only one factor should be retained.

Specifically, the eigenvalue for internal power was 3.49 with almost 70% of the variance explained by one factor, and the scree plot showed a clear and distinctive "elbow" with only one factor lying to the left of the elbow. Finally, a factor loading is considered to be large if it is at least a .40 and in this study the loadings for each of the five underlying factors comprising internal power ranged from .70 to .86.

In order to empirically evaluate the relationship between internal power and coercive control tactics, internal power must be measurable. Although the scale measure proposed and empirically evaluated in this study is preliminary, it was still important to explore its relationship to battering. Therefore, three hypotheses were tested. These hypotheses posited that internal power would have a moderate-to-strong inverse relationship to psychologically abusive behaviors, physically abusive behaviors, and the total of both psychologically and physically abusive behaviors. Several of the results from testing these hypotheses were interesting.

First, the descriptive statistics indicated that when the three measures of violence were dichotomous (either never used or used one item at least one time or more), a large portion (86%) of the study participants reported using psychologically abusive behaviors against an intimate partner at least once. Also the dichotomous measure of psychological abuse was not significantly related to internal power or any of its underlying factors. Descriptive statistics also showed that 39% of the study participants reported engaging in at least one of the physically abusive behaviors at least once. The latter statistic is more

reflective of findings from other studies (CDC, 2010) and physically violent behaviors were also significantly related to internal power, along with the five underlying factors, with internal power having the greatest effect size.

When the findings regarding total abuse behaviors are examined it appears that psychologically abusive behaviors tended to mask the relationship of the physically abusive behaviors to internal power. One reason for this may be that a large number of participants reported using at least one type of psychological abuse tactic against an intimate partner at least once and the distribution for psychological abuse behaviors was normal for this sample. This could mean that for college students the use of psychological abuse tactics is a normative behavior, signifying that the use of only one type of psychological abuse tactic or only one incidence of using this type of abusive behavior should not be counted as battering or the use of coercive control tactics. One way this could be explored further in future studies would be to ask participants about both the context in which the abusive behavior occurred and their intent behind the abusive behavior. It is argued in the domestic violence literature that this type of information can provide the researcher important insight which can help distinguish battering from situational violence (Johnson, 2008).

The next interesting finding was that when each of the indicators of violence were created into a variety scale internal power did demonstrate a moderate inverse relationship to psychological abuse and total abuse, but its relationship to physical abuse was a weak inverse relationship. However, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was statistically significant for all three measures of violence. Considering the findings from the dichotomous violence measures it appears that the psychological

abuse measure could again be influencing the results regarding total abuse. Therefore, it seems that when measuring violence it is important to measure both psychologically abusive and physically abusive behaviors separately. Also based upon these findings it appears that scaling the violence measures provides more information and a more accurate assessment of the relationship between violence and internal power.

The final interesting finding to discuss was that each of the five factors theorized to underlie internal power also demonstrated a moderate inverse relationship with each type of violence. To a certain degree this was expected since prior domestic violence studies have shown batterers tend to be low in self-concept, self-esteem, and self-efficacy (Moffitt et al., 2001; Murphy et al., 1994; Ragg, 1999). One question this study attempted to address was: Can internal power offer us greater explanation than each of its five underlying factors can individually? The findings do indicate that overall internal power is a distinct latent construct, but based on the findings it is unclear if combining these factors affects the relationship to the use of coercive control tactics in important ways. However, the findings do indicate support for the hypotheses that internal power does have a moderate-to-strong inverse relationship to an individual's use of coercive control tactics.

Application of Internal Power to Domestic Violence Theory

The majority of policies and programs designed to prevent domestic violence that are widely used today are based upon a theoretical framework that arose from the Battered Women's Movement and early inductive feminist research designed to address the sociopolitical issue of violence against women. Early feminist-based research demonstrated consistencies in findings across studies regarding the patterns and forms of

coercion, control, and physically violent tactics used by males against their female partners (Browne, 1987; Pence & Paymar, 1985; Walker, 1979). From these early works researchers began to create a theoretical model that attempted to explain the “dynamics of domestic violence”. The most widely used and accepted theoretical model that arose from this early research is the Duluth Model’s educational curriculum based upon power and control. Today, the Duluth Model’s Power and Control Wheel along with its curriculum is commonly used by advocates to raise awareness through educational campaigns, and it has become the backbone to most court-mandated batterer intervention programs (Paymar & Barnes, 2007).

Despite the widespread acceptance and implementation of criminal justice policies and BIPs, domestic violence continues to be a persistent problem. For example, there is little evidence to support that the incidence rate of domestic violence has significantly declined and the effectiveness of new policies and BIPs are being questioned (Babcock et al., 2004; CDC, 2010; Gondolf, 2007; Stark, 2007). Therefore, even though the Duluth Model and feminist theories based upon “power and control” have been instrumental in developing educational curricula, raising the public’s awareness, changing the sociopolitical view of domestic violence, creating new criminal laws and policies, and developing treatment programs for batterers it does not mean their limitations should not be addressed and critically examined. The issue being raised here is that the widespread use and dependence upon the Duluth Model’s “power and control” curriculum and its Power and Control Wheel has led to a such a widespread acceptance of the assertion “a batterer’s motive is power and control”, that this assertion has become,

in essence, an untested fundamental theoretical component to mainstream domestic violence theory.

Effective policies and programs are built upon empirically developed and tested theories. The “power and control theory” evolved from qualitative inductive research conducted in the mid 1980’s (Browne, 1987; Paymar & Barnes, 1985; 1993; Walker, 1979). However, researchers have never empirically tested the basic theoretical tenets of the Duluth Model’s “power and control theory”. It is possible that our failure to empirically test this key component has contributed to the lack of significant decline in incidence rates and the lack of effectiveness of our BIPs.

Domestic violence research from the psychological perspective has shown that batterers are typically damaged, unhappy, psychologically impaired individuals and it is important to identify early risk markers if we are going to more effectively treat batterers (Rosenbaum and Leisring, 2003). The social psychological research regarding the construct power has begun to establish that there are two types of power: social and personal. Some of this research has shown that personal power, which is internal to an individual, may perhaps be more important than social power or power that is external to the individual (Schulthesis et al., 1999; Van Dijke & Poppe, 2006). Based upon this research and the psychological theories of domestic violence I argue that there are two types of power: internal and external. The majority of domestic violence theories and current BIPs utilize an external power conceptualization in regard to a batterer’s “power motive”. It is being argued here that this conceptualization is too narrow and it is important to develop a conceptualization of power at the individual level in order to empirically test a batterer’s power and control motive.

This study sought to take a step toward addressing this gap by developing and empirically testing the construct internal power and assessing its relationship to an individual's use of psychologically abusive and physically abusive behaviors. It did so by defining, conceptualizing, operationalizing, and empirically evaluating the construct internal power and its predictive validity regarding an individual's use of coercive control tactics. The findings indicate support for the construct internal power and that it has an ability to help further our understanding of a batterer's power and control motive.

This is important to domestic violence theory because it is the first attempt within the domestic violence literature to conceptualize and operationalize power at the individual level and it takes a step toward advancing a theory that attempts to explain how power acts as a motive for battering. This research challenges the "power and control motive" and the primary curriculum that has been used in BIPs, based upon the lack of empirical testing regarding this commonly held assertion. The purpose of this challenge is to generate productive discourse in the field that can help open new doors and lead to new developments, which are necessary if we are going to continue to advance our understanding and implement policies and programs that can be effective at reducing domestic violence incidence rates. Second, this research calls attention to the widespread implementation of the unquestioned "power and control" curriculum, which forms the foundation of the Duluth Model and most mainstream domestic violence theories. However, the reason for challenging the power and control tenet of the Duluth Model and mainstream domestic violence theories is not to say it is inaccurate, but to address the fact that it has never been empirically tested and the need for domestic violence researchers to do so.

Limitations

It is important to state that this study was exploratory; therefore, the findings should be considered as preliminary with further research needed. Prior to this study power has primarily been conceptualized as being only external. The main objective of this study was to theoretically develop the construct internal power, assess its measurability, and explore its relationship to domestic violence. The purpose behind this research was in essence to conduct an exploratory pilot study to help determine if scale development of the internal power construct is possible, and if so to empirically evaluate whether internal power, as conceptualized here, has application to domestic violence theory. These findings do indicate support for the construct internal power, that it is possible to measure internal power, and it is applicable to domestic violence theory. However, this does not mean the measure of internal power at this time is empirically sound and ready for use to develop and test domestic violence theory. In other words, the findings from this study are promising, but they simply indicate that further empirical development of internal power is warranted. Once an empirically sound scale is developed internal power then could contribute to domestic violence theory and practice.

Suggestions for Future Research

Developing an empirically sound scale measure for any construct takes time and multiple studies. Future research should first replicate the study conducted here on a second sample. This will allow for an assessment of the findings to determine if they occurred by chance. There are three things the researcher should consider in this replication study. First the researcher should pay particular attention to the performance of item 6 on the self-concept clarity scale and item 2 on the general self-efficacy scale, in

order to determine if their poor performance in this study was an issue with the sample or with the items. Second, the researcher may want to add contingency questions to the psychological abuse items to capture context and intent or use an additional measure for psychological abuse. For example, the subscale from the Conflicts Tactics Scale 2 (CTS2) could be used in conjunction with the items used in this study. Adding either contingency questions or a second measure, such as the CTS2 could help the researcher evaluate if the use of psychological abuse tactics is in fact normative or if the normal distribution found in this study was a result of how psychological abuse was measured. Third, a second measure for self-efficacy should be added. Adding a second measure for self-efficacy can help the researcher further evaluate if the change in the Cronbach's alpha for internal power that occurred in this study when self-efficacy was removed is based upon a measurement issue or based upon a conceptual issue.

If findings from the replication study continue to support the hypotheses tested in this study then further development of a measure for internal power is warranted. When developing a new measure, or more specifically a scale measure, DeVellis (2012) recommends an eight step process that utilizes multiple studies and sample populations. The first step in this process is for the researcher to clearly determine what it is they want to measure. The second step in the process is to generate an item pool. The third step is to determine the format for the measurement. For example, should the items be equally weighted and how many response categories should be used? The fourth step is to have the initial item pool reviewed by experts. Typically for this step qualitative research is done using techniques such focus groups or open ended response questionnaires that experts can write their opinions regarding each item. The fifth step is where the

researcher examines all the information from the experts along with empirical literature regarding the construct to determine which items to include in the pool of items for validation. Then the sixth step is to administer the items to a sample for item validation and initial scale development. Lastly, in the seventh and eighth steps the researcher uses analytic techniques, such as principal components analysis and confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate the items and optimizes the scale length.

Internal power is conceptualized to contain five underlying factors. Each of these underlying factors are previously validated instruments that were developed using a process similar to what DeVellis recommends. These scales were used for this study to help develop the internal power construct theoretically and explore its dimensionality. If a replication study is conducted on a new sample then the first seven steps of DeVellis's eight step process are technically completed. However, one objective of scale development is to have the minimal number of items needed and to exclude items that do not add explanation or increase the scale's reliability. This study has successfully completed step one and clearly determined what is to be measured, but at this time the item pool to measure internal power contains a total of 49 items (total of all scales). Although each of the scales used to measure the underlying factors are well developed, it does not necessarily mean that using each scale in their entirety, or that the specific scale chosen for each underlying factor and used in this study contains the best items to measure internal power. Future research should include qualitative studies with experts in the area of domestic violence and the five psychological constructs that underlie internal power. The purpose of this research would be to explore the development of new

items and/or pulling items from scales already developed to generate an item pool that may measure internal power better and with fewer items.

Using good research methods, instruments, and well constructed measures to build knowledge and empirically test that knowledge over time is how good theory is developed. The recommendation being made here is that future studies should continue to follow DeVellis's (2012) procedure for scale development and then once an empirically valid measure for internal power is complete use it to test theory. As part of this process future studies should include samples of both the general adult population and clinical populations that include domestic violence offenders. Once an empirically sound scale is complete then future studies should further explore integrating internal power into other mainstream macro level theories of domestic violence, in order to evaluate if it can bring greater explanation to current theories. As part of this exploration studies should also include measures of external power in order to establish internal and external power as two distinct constructs and better evaluate each of their roles concerning domestic violence theory. Future studies should also include qualitative research with experts who treat domestic violence offenders in order to explore the utility of internal power as part of a treatment model.

Summary

One of my goals as a researcher is to empirically test our theories and work towards offering advocates and practitioners empirically sound explanations that they can put into practice. This research is intended to be a step towards developing domestic violence theory in regard to the batterer's power and control motive. Findings show empirical support for the construct internal power, that it can be measured, and that it can

contribute to domestic violence theory. It is my hope that researchers in this field will critically evaluate the internal power construct and its application to domestic violence theory and practice.

REFERENCES

- Abramson, L. Y., Seligman, M. E. P., & Teasdale, J. D. (1978). Learned helplessness in humans: Critique and reformulation. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 87*, 49-74.
- Adler, A. (1966). The psychology of power. *Journal of Individual Psychology, 21*, 166-172.
- Adler, N. E., Epel, E., Castellazzo, G. & Ickovics, J. (2000). Relationship of subjective and objective social status with psychological and physical health in healthy white women. *Healthy Psychology, 19*, 586-592.
- Anderson, K. L., & Umberson, D. (2001). Gendering violence: Masculinity and power in men's accounts of domestic violence. *Gender and Society, 15*, 358-380.
- Anderson, C., John, O. P., & Keltner, D. (2011). The personal sense of power. *Accepted Article. Journal of Personality*. Doi: 10.1111/j.1467-6494.2011.00734.x.
- Aronson, J., Blanton, H., and Cooper, J. (1995). From dissonance to disidentification: Selectivity in the self affirmation process. *J. Personal. Social Psychol*, 68: 986-996.
- Atkinson, J. W. (1958). *Motives in fantasy, action and society*. Princeton, NJ: Van Nostrand.
- Babcock, J. C., Green, C. E., & Robie, C. (2004). Does Batterer treatment work? A meta-analytic review of domestic violence treatment. *Clinical Psychology Review 23*, 1023-1053.
- Babcock, J. C., Jacobson, N. S., Gottman, J., & Yerington, T. P. (2000). Attachment, emotion regulation, and the function of marital violence: Differences between secure, preoccupied, and dismissing violent and nonviolent husbands. *Journal of Family Violence, 15*, 391-409.
- Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*, 1-26.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York, NY: Freeman.

- Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American Psychologist*, 9, 1175-1184.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. 1977. Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84:191-215.
- Baumgardner, A. H. (1990). To know oneself is to like oneself: Self-certainty and self-affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 58, 1062-1072.
- Beck, K. H. & Lund, A. K. (1981). The effects of health threat seriousness and personal efficacy upon intentions and behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 11, 401-415.
- Blau, P. (1964). *Exchange Power in Social Life*. New York, NY: John Wiley.
- Bograd, M. (1988). Feminist perspectives on wife abuse: An introduction. In K. Yllo & M. Bograd (Eds.), *Feminist Perspectives on Wife Abuse* (pp. 11-26). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Bornstein, R.F. (2006). The complex relationship between dependency and domestic violence: Converging psychological factors and social forces. *American Psychologist*, 6, 595-606.
- Brackem, B. A. (1996). *Handbook of Self-Concept*. New York, NY: Wiley & Sons.
- Brady, T. J. (2003). Measures of self-efficacy, helplessness, mastery, and control. *Arthritis & Rheumatism*, 49, S147-S164.
- Brehm, J. W. (1993). Control, its loss, and psychological reactance. In G. Weary, F. H. Fleicher, & K. L. Marsh (Eds.), *Control Motivation and Social Cognition* (pp. 3-30). New York: Springer Verlag.
- Browne, A. (1987). *When Battered Women Kill*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Bugental, D. B., & Cortez, V. L., (1988). Physiological reactivity to responsive and unresponsive children as moderated by perceived control. *Child Development*, 59, 686-693.
- Bugental, D. B., & Lewis, J. C. (1999). The paradoxical misuse of power by those who see themselves as powerless: How does it happen? *Journal of Social Issues*, 55, 51-64.

- Busch, N. B., & Valentine, D. (2000). Empowerment practice: A focus on battered women. *Affilia*, 15, 82-95.
- Campbell, J. D. (1990). Self-esteem and clarity of the self-concept. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59, 538-549.
- Campbell, J. D., Assanand, S., & Di Paula, A. (2003). The structure of the self-concept and its relation to psychological adjustment. *Journal of Personality*, 71, 116-138.
- Campbell, J.D., Trapnell, P.D., Heine, S.J., Katz, L.M., Lavalley, L.F., Lehman, D.R. (1996). self-concept clarity: Measurement, personality correlates, and cultural boundaries. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70, 141-156.
- Carmines, E. G., & Zeller, R. A. (1979). *Reliability and Validity Assessment*. Newbury Park: Sage.
- Carney, M. M., & Buttell, F. (2006). Exploring the relevance of interpersonal dependency as treatment issue in batterer intervention. *Research on Social Work Practice*, 16, 276-286.
- Cascardi, M., & Vivian, D. (1995). Context for specific episodes of marital violence: Gender and severity of violence differences. *Journal of Family Violence*, 5, 215-224.
- Caselman, T. D. , & Self, P. A. (2007). Adolescent perception of self as a close friend: Cultured and gendered contexts. *Social Psychology of Education*, 10, 353-373.
- Centers for Disease Control, (2010). *National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey Summary Report*. Division of Violence Prevention. Atlanta, GA.
- Centers for Disease Control, (2003). *Costs of Intimate Partner Violence Against Women in the United States*. Department of Health and Human Services. Atlanta, GA.
- Cliff, N. (1988). The eigenvalue-greater-than-one rules and reliabilities of components. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103, 276-279.
- Coopersmith, S. 1967. *The Antecedents of Self-Esteem*. San Francisco, CA: W. H. Freeman.
- Copeland, J. T., (1994). Prophecies of power: Motivational implications of social power for behavioral confirmation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 67, 264-277.
- Corbin, C. (1972). Mental practice. In W. Morgan (Ed.). *Ergogenic Aids and Muscular Performance* (pp. 93-118). New York, NY: Academic Press.

- Corvo, K., Dutton, D., & Chen, W. (2010). Do Duluth Model interventions with perpetrators of domestic violence violate mental health professional ethics. *Ethics and Behavior*, 19, 323-340.
- Cronbach, I. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, 16, 297-334.
- Dahl., R.A. (1957). The Concept of Power. *Behavioral Science*, 2, 201-215.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M., (2000). The “what” and “why” of goal pursuits. Human needs and self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11, 227-268.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1991). A motivational approach to self: Integration in personality. In R. Dienstbier (Ed.), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation: Vol. 38. Perspectives on Motivation* (pp. 237-288). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1995). Human autonomy: The basis for true self-esteem. In M. H. Kernis (Ed.), *Efficacy, Agency, and SE* (pp. 31 – 49). New York: Plenum Press.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1987). The support of autonomy and the control of behaviour. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 53, 1024-1037.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R.M. (1985). The general causality orientations scale: self-determination in personality. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 19, 109-134.
- Deschamps, J. (1997). Attribution or explanations in everyday life. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 6, 7–24.
- DeCharms, R. (1968). *Personal causation: The internal affective determinants of behavior*. New York: Academic press.
- Denzin, N. K. (1984). *On Understanding Emotions*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- DeVellis, R. F. (2011). *Scale Development: Theory and Applications*. Washington DC: Sage.
- Diehl, M., & Hay, E. L. (2011). self-concept differentiation and self-concept clarity across adulthood: associations with age and psychological well-being. *International Journal of Aging and Human Development*, 73, 125-152.
- Diener, E., Suh, E. M., Lucas, R. E., & Smith, H. L. (1999). Subjective well-being: Three decades of progress. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125, 276–302.
- Dobash, R. P., & Dobash, R. E. (2011). What were they thinking? Men who murder and intimate partner. *Violence Against Women*, 17, 111-134.

- Dobash, R. P., & Dobash, R. E. (1995). Reflections on findings from the Violence against Women Survey. *Canadian Journal of Criminology*, 37, 457-484.
- Dobash, R. E., & Dobash, R. P. (1993). *Women, Violence, and Social Change*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Dobash, R. E. & Dobash, R. P. (1988). Research as social action: The struggle For battered women. In K. Yllo & M. Bograd (Eds.), *Feminist Perspectives on Wife Abuse* (pp. 51-74). Newbury Park, CA: Sage
- Dobash, R. P. & Dobash, R. E. (1979). *Violence Against Wives*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Dobash, R. P., Dobash, R. E., Wilson, M., & Daly, M. (1992). The myth of sexual symmetry in marital violence. *Social Problems*, 39, 71-91.
- Dobson, C., Goudy, W.J., Keith, P.M., & Powers, E. (1979). Further analysis of Rosenberg's Self-Esteem scale. *Psychological Reports*, 44, 639-641.
- Dutton, D. G., & Corvo, K. (2007). The Duluth model: A data-impervious paradigm and a Failed strategy. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 12, 658-667.
- Dutton, D. (2006). *Rethinking Domestic Violence*. Vancouver: UBC Press.
- Dutton, D. (2003). Treatment of assaultiveness. *Journal of Aggression and Maltreatment*, 7, 7-28.
- Dutton, D. (1998). *The Abusive Personality*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Dutton, D., and K. Corvo. (2006). Transforming a flawed policy: A call to revive psychology and science in domestic violence research and practice. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 11, 457-483.
- Dutton, M. A., & Gondolf, E. W. (2000). Wife Battering. In Ammerman & Hersen (Eds.) *Case Studies in Family Violence*, 2nd ed. New York, NY. Kluwer Academic / Plenum Publisher.
- Duttweiler, P. (1984). The internal control index: A newly developed measure of locus of control. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 44, 209-229.
- Eckhardt, C. I., Murphy, C. M., Black, D., & Suhr, L. (2006). Intervention programs for perpetrators of intimate partner violence: Conclusions from a clinical research perspective. *Public Health Reports*, 121, 369-381.
- Eckhardt, C. I., & Dye, M. L., (2003). The cognitive characteristics of martially violent men: Theory and evidence. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 24, 139-158.

- Ehrensaft, M. K., Cohen, P., Johnson, J. G. (2006). Development of personality disorder symptoms and the risk for partner violence. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 3*, 474-483.
- Eigenberg, H. M. (2001). *Women Battering in the United States: Till Death Do Us Part*. Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press.
- Emerson, R.M., (1962). Power Dependence Relations. *American Sociological Review, 27*, 31-41.
- Engel, G. (2009). *The Interdependence Between Self-esteem and Quality of Romantic Relationships* (Doctoral dissertation). Adler School of Professional Psychology, Chicago, IL.
- Epstein, S. 1973. The self-concept revisited or a theory of a theory. *American Psychology, 28*:404-16
- Fast, N. J., & Chen, S. (2009). When the boss feels inadequate: Power, incompetence, and aggression. *Psychological Science, 20*, 1406-1413.
- Feder, L. and Wilson, D. B. (2005). "A meta-analytic review of court-mandated batterer intervention programs: can courts effect abusers' behavior?" *Journal of Experimental Criminology, 1*, 239 – 262.
- Felson, R., & Outlaw, M. C. (2007). The control motive and marital violence. *Violence and Victims, 22*, 387-407.
- Felson, R. (2002). *Violence and gender reexamined*. Washington, DC: American psychological Association.
- Ferraro, K. J. (1988). An existential approach to battering. In G. T. Hotaling, D. Finkelhor, J. T. Kirkpatrick, & M. A. Straus (Eds.). *Family Abuse and its consequences: New Direction in Research* (pp.126-138).. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Fiske, S.T. (1993). The Impact of Power on Stereotyping. *American Psychologist, 6*, 621-628.
- Fiske, S. T., & Berdahl, J. (2007). Social power: In A. W. Kruglanski & E. T. Higgins (Eds.), *Social Psychology Handbook of Basic Principles* (pp. 678-692). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Flemming, J. S., Courtney, B. E. (1984). The dimensionality of self-esteem. II. Hierarchical facet model for revised measurement scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46*, 404-421.

- Floyd, F. J., & Widaman, K. (1995). Factor analysis in the development and refinement of the clinical assessment instruments. *Psychological Assessment*, 7, 286-299.
- Foshee VA, Bauman KE, Arriaga XB, Helms RW, Koch GG, & Linder GF. (1998). An evaluation of Safe Dates, an adolescent dating violence program. *American Journal of Public Health*, 88, 45–50.
- Foshee VA, Linder GF, Bauman KE, Langwick SA, Arriaga XB, Heath JL, McMahon PM, Bangdiwala S. (1996). The Safe Dates project: theoretical basis, evaluation design, and selected baseline findings. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 12, 39–47
- French, J. R. P., & Raven, B. H. (1959). The basis of social power. In D. Cartwright (Ed.), *Studies of Social Power* (pp.118-149). Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for Social Research.
- Frey, D., & Carlock, C. J. (1989). *Enhancing Self-Esteem* (2nd ed.). Muncie, IN: Accelerated Development.
- Frieze, I. H., & Boneva, B. S. (2001). Power motivation and motivation to help others. In A. Y. Lee-Chai, & J. A. Bargh (Eds.), *The use and abuse of power: Multiple perspectives on the causes of corruption* (pp. 75–89). Philadelphia, PA, US: Psychology Press/Taylor & Francis.
- Furnham, A., & Steele, H. (1993). Measuring locus of control: A critique of general children's, health- and work-related locus of control questionnaires. *British Journal of Psychology*, 84, 443–479.
- Galinsky, A. D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Magee, J. C. (2003). From power to action. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85, 453-456.
- Galinsky, A. D., Magee, J.C., Gruenfeld, D.H., & Whitson, J. A. (2008). Power Reduces the Press of the Situation: Implications for Creativity, Conformity, and Dissonance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 6, 1450-1466.
- Gecas, V. (1982). The self-concept. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 8, 1-33.
- Gecas, Viktor. 2000. Value Identities, Self-Motives, and Social Movements. In S. Stryker, T. J. Owens and R. W. White (eds.), *Self, Identity, and Social Movements*: pp. 93–109. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.
- Gelles, R. J. (2001). Standards for men who batter? Not Yet. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment, and Trauma*, 5, 11-20.

- Gelles, R. (1993). Alcohol and other drugs are associated with violence-They are not the cause. In R. Gelles & D. Loseke (Eds.) *Current Controversies on Family Violence*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Gelles, R. J. (1974). *The Violent Home: A Study of Physical Aggression between Husands and Wives*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Gondolf, E. (2007). Theoretical and research support for the Duluth Model: A reply to Dutton and Corvo. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 12*, 644-657.
- Gondolf, E. (2002). *Batterer intervention systems: Issues, outcomes and recommendations*. Sage Publications.
- Gondolf, E. W. (2000). Reassault at 30 months after batterer program compliance, *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 44, 111-128.
- George, D. Mallery, P. (2003) *SPSS for Windows Step by Step: A Simple Guide and Reference 11.0 update* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Gordon, M. (2000). Definitional issues in violence against women: Surveillance and Research from a violence research perspective. *Violence Against Women, 6*, 747-783.
- Guinote, A., Brown, M., & Fiske, S.T. (2006). Minority status decreases sense of control and increases interpretive processing. *Social Cognition, 24*, 169-186.
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1980). *Work Redesign*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1993). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (5th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hanson, B. (2010). *Differentiating Theoretical Approaches to Batterer Intervention: A Study of Batterer Intervention Programs* (Doctoral dissertation). The City University of New York, New York, NY.
- Heider, F. (1958). *The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Hendrick, I. (1943). The discussion of the "instinct to master". *Psychoanalytic Quarterly, 12*, 561-565.
- Hensley, W.E. (1977). Differences between males and females on Rosenberg scale of self-esteem. *Psychological Reports, 41*, 829-830.
- Heider, F. (1958). *The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations*. New York: Wiley.

- Hillsman, S. T. (2002, January 17). Welcoming Remarks, from Batterer Intervention: Where Do We Go From Here?, Workshop, National Institute of Justice. Retrieved from www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij/topics/crime/violence-againstwomen/workshops/batterer-intervention.htm.
- Hodgins, H. S., Brown, A. B., Carver, B. (2007). Autonomy and control motivation and self-esteem. *Psychology Press*, 6, 189-208.
- Hodgins, H. S., Koestner, R., & Duncan, N. (1996). On the compatibility of autonomy and relatedness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22, 227–237.
- Holtzworth-Munroe, A.(2000). A typology of men who are violent toward their female partner: Making sense of the heterogeneity in husband violence. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 9, 140-143.
- Holtzworth-Munroe, A., Stuart, G.L., Hutchinson, G. (1997). Violent Versus Non-Violent Husbands: Differences in Attachment Patterns, Dependency and Jealousy. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 11, 314-331.
- Horner, A. (1989). *The Wish for Power and the Fear of Having It*. London: Jason Arson Inc.
- Hunnicut, G. (2009). Varieties of Patriarchy and violence against women: Resurrecting “patriarchy” as a theoretical tool. *Violence Against Women*, 15, 553-573.
- Jasinski, J. L. (2001). Theoretical explanations for violence against women. In C. M. Renzetti, J. L. Edleson, & Bergen, R. K. (Eds.), *Sourcebook On Violence Against Women* (pp. 5-21). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Johnson, M. P. (2008). *A Typology of Domestic Violence: Intimate Terrorism, Violent Resistance, and Situational Couple Violence*. Boston, MA: Northeastern University Press.
- Johnson, M. P. (1995). Patriarchal terrorism and common-couple violence: Two forms of violence against women. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 57, 283–294.
- Jones, A., & Schechter, S. (1992). *When Love Goes Wrong*. New York, NY: Harper Collins.
- Kaiser, H.F. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika*, 39, 31-36.
- Kasser, T., & Ryan, R. M. (1993). A dark side of the American dream: Correlates of financial success as a central life aspiration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65, 410-422.

- Kasser, T., & Ryan, R. M. (1996). Further examining the American dream: Differential correlates of intrinsic and extrinsic goals. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22, 80-87.
- Kasser, T., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). Be careful what you wish for: Optimal functioning and the relative attainment of intrinsic and extrinsic goals. In P. Schmuck & K. M. Sheldon (Eds.), *Life goals and well-being*. Lengerich, Germany: Pabst Science Publishers.
- Kazdin, A. E. (1978). Covert modeling-Therapeutic application of imagined rehearsal. In J. L. Singer & K. S. Pope (Eds.), *The Power of Human Imagination: New Methods in Psychotherapy. Emotions, Personality, and Psychotherapy* (pp. 255-278). New York, NY: Plenum Press.
- Keltner, D., Gruenfeld, D.H., & Anderson, C. (2003). Power, Approach, and Inhibition. *Psychological Review*, 110, 265-284.
- Kim, J., & Mueller, C. W. (1978). *Introduction to Factor Analysis: What is it and How to Do It*. Newbury Park: Sage
- Kipnis, D. (1974). The powerholder. In J. T. Tedeschi (Ed.), *Perspectives on social power*. Chicago: Aldine publishing company.
- Koestner, R., & Losier, G. F. (1996). Distinguishing three types of being highly motivated: A closer look at introjection, identification, and intrinsic motivation. In E. L. Deci & R. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of Self-Determination Research*. Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- Kurman, J. (2006). Self-enhancement, self-regulation, and self-improvement following failures. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 45, 339-356.
- Kurz, D. (1993). Social science perspectives on wife abuse: Current debates and future directions. In P. Bart & E. Moran (Eds.), *Violence Against Women* (pp. 252-269). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Lachman, M.E., Weaver, S.L. (1998). The sense of control as a moderator of social class differences in health and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74, 763-773.
- La Guardia, J., Ryan, R.M., Couchman, C., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Within-person variation in security of attachment: A self-determination theory perspective on attachment, need fulfillment, and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79, 367-384.
- Lammers, J., Stoker, J. I., & Stapel. (2009). Differentiating social and personal power: Opposite effects on stereotyping, but parallel effects on behavioral approach tendencies. *Psychological Science*, 20, 1543-1548.

- Lawson, D.M., (2003). Incidence, explanations, and treatment of partner violence. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 81, 19-32.
- Leganger, A., Kraft, P., & Røysamb, E. (2000). Perceived self-efficacy in health behavior research: Conceptualisation, measurement and correlates. *Psychology and Health*, 15, 51–69.
- Lefcourt, H. M. (1976). *Locus of control: Current trends in theory & research*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Lefcourt, H., Miller, R., Ware, E., & Sherk, D. (1981). Locus of control as a modifier of the relationship between stressors and moods. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 41, 357–369.
- Lewin, K. (1951). Intention, will, and need. In D. Rapaport(Ed.), *Organization and Pathology of Thought* (pp. 95-153). New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Luszczynska, A.; Scholz, U.; Schwarzer, R.. (2005). The general self-efficacy scale: Multicultural validation studies. *Journal of Psychology: Interdisciplinary and Applied*, 39, 439-457.
- Malik, N. M., & Lindahl, K. M. (1998). Aggression and domestic violence: The roles of power and culture in domestic violence. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*, 5, 409-423.
- Maslow, A. (1954). *Motivation and Personality*. New York, NY: Harper and Row.
- Max W, Rice DP, Finkelstein E, Bardwell RA, Leadbetter S. 2004. The economic toll of intimate partner violence against women in the United States. *Violence Vict* 19(3):259–72.
- Mayer, J. M., Leonard, J. A., & Olson, B. D. (2004). Optimism, abstinence self-efficacy, self-mastery: A comparative analysis of cognitive resources. *Assessment*, 11, 57-63.
- McPhail, B. A., Busch, N. B., Kulkarni, S., & Rice, G. (2007). An integrative feminist model: The evolving feminist perspective on intimate partner violence. *Violence Against Women*, 13, 817-841.
- Minnesota Coalition for Battered Women. (2012). “Understanding Men Who Batter”. Retrieved April 26, 2012 From: <http://swc.osu.edu/posts/documents/understanding-men-who-abuse-from-mn-coalition-for-battered-women.pdf>.

- Moffitt, T. E., Krueger, R. F., Caspi, A. & Fagan, J. (2000). Partner abuse and general crime: How are they the same? How are they different? *Criminology*, 38, 199-232.
- Moffitt, T.E., Robins, R.W., Caspi, A. (2001). A Couples Analysis of Partner Abuse with Implications for Abuse Prevention Policy. *Criminology*, 1, 5-36.
- Molm, L. D. (1981). The conversion of power imbalance to power use. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 44, 151-163.
- Murray, S. L., Rose, P., Holms, J. G., Derrick, J. Podchaski, E. J., Bellavia, G., & Griffin, D. W. (2005). Putting the partner within reach: A dyadic perspective on felt security in close relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 88, 327-347.
- Murphy, C. M., Meyer, S.L., O’Leary, K.D. (1994). Dependency Characteristics of Partner Assaultive Men. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 103, 729-105.
- National Institute of Justice. (1998). *Batterer Intervention: Program approaches and criminal justice strategies*. Washington, DC: Author.
- Netemeyer, R. G., Bearden, W. O., and Sharma, S. (2003). *Scaling Procedures: Issues and Applications*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ng, S. H. (1980). *The Social Psychology of Power*. London/New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Ng, S. H. (1977). Structural and non-structural aspects of power distance reduction tendencies. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 7, 317–345.
- Novick, N., Cauce, A. M., & Grive, K. (1996). Competence self-concept. In B. A. Bracken (Eds.). *Handbook of Self-Concept*. New York, NY: Wiley & Sons.
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1992). *Psychometric theory* (3rd ed.). New York, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Overbeck, J. R., & Park, B. (2001). When power does not corrupt: Superior individuation processes among powerful perceivers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81, 549-565.
- Pearlin, L., Liberman, M., Menaghan, E., & Mullan, J. (1981). The stress process. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 22, 337-356.
- Pearlin, L. & Schooler, C. (1978). The structure of coping. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 19, 2-21.

- Pence, E. L., (1999). Some thoughts on philosophy. In Shepard, M., & Pence, E., (Eds). *Coordinating Community Response to Domestic Violence: Lessons from Duluth and Beyond* (pp.25-40). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Paymer, M., & Barnes, G. (2007). Countering confusion about the Duluth Model. Battered Women's Justice Project. www.bwjp.org.
- Pence, E. L. and Paymar, M. (1985). *Power and Control: Tactics of Men who Batter*. Duluth, MN: Duluth Abuse Intervention Project.
- Pence, E. and Paymar, M. (1993). *Education Groups for Men Who Batter: The Duluth Model*. New York: Springer.
- Pleck, E. (2004). *Domestic tyranny the making of american social policy against family violence from colonial times to the present*. Chicago, IL: University of Illinois Press.
- Peterson, C., & Seligman, M. E. P. (1984). Causal attributions as a risk factor for depression: Theory and evidence. *Psychological Review*, 91, 347-374.
- Price, R. H., Choi, J., & Vinokur, A. D. (2002). Links in the chain of adversity following job loss: How economic hardship and loss of personal control lead to depression, impaired functioning, and poor health. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 7, 302-312.
- Ptacek, J. (1999). *Battered Women in the Courtroom: The Power of Judicial Response*. Boston, MA: Northeastern University Press.
- Ptacek, J. (1988). Why do men batter their wives?. In K. Yllo & M. Bograd (Eds.). *Feminist Perspectives on Wife Abuse*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Ragg, D. M. (1999). Dimensions of self-concept as predictors of men who assault their female partners. *Journal of Family Violence*, 14, 315-329.
- Ray, J. (1980). Belief in luck and locus of control. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 3, 299-300.
- Reitz, R. R. (1999). Batterers' experiences of being violent. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 23, 143-165.
- Retzinger, S. M. (1991). *Violent Emotions: Shame and Rage in Marital Quarrels*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

- Ritchie, T.D. , Sedikides, Constantine , Wildschut, Tim , Arndt, Jamie and Gidron, Yori(2010). 'Self-concept Clarity Mediates the Relation between Stress and Subjective Well-being', *Self and Identity*, First published on: 07 July 2010 (iFirst). *Psychology Press*, 2-16.
- Rivara, F. P., Anderson, M. L., Fishman, P., Bonomi, A. E., Reid, R., Carrell, D., & Thompson, R. S. (2007). Healthcare utilization and costs for women with a history of intimate partner violence. *American Journal of Preventative Medicine*, 32, 89-96.
- Robertson, K., & Murachver, T. (2011). Women's and men's use of coercive control in Intimate partner violence. *Violence and Victims*, 26, 208-217.
- Rosenbaum, A., & Leisring, P.A. (2003). Beyond power and control: towards an understanding of partner abusive men. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, 7-22.
- Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Rosenberg, M. 1979. *Conceiving the Self*. New York, NY: Basic
- Rosenberg, M. (1989). *Society and the Adolescent Self-Image. Revised edition*. Middletown, CT: Wesleyan University Press.
- Ross, J., & Babcock, J. C. (2009). Proactive and reactive violence among intimate partner violent men diagnosed with antisocial and borderline personality disorder. *Journal of Family Violence*, 24, 607-617.
- Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs*, 80(609), 1-28.
- Russell, B. (1938). *Power: A New Social Analysis*. London: Unwin Books.
- Ryan, R. M., & Connell, J. P. (1989). Perceived locus of causality and internalization: Examining reasons for acting in two domains. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57, 749-761.
- Ryan, R. M., Connell, J. P., & Deci, E. L. (1985). A motivational analysis of self-determination and self-regulation in education. In C. Ames & R. E. Ames (Eds.), *Research on Motivation in Education: The Classroom Milieu* (pp. 13-51). New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Ryan, R. M., Rigby, S., & King, K. (1993). Two types of religious internalization and their relations to religious orientations and mental health. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65, 586-596.

- Ryan, R. M., Sheldon, K. M., Kasser, T., & Deci, E. L. (1996). All goals are not created equal: An organismic perspective on the nature of goals and their regulation. In P. M. Gollwitzer & J. A. Bargh (Eds.), *The Psychology of Action: Linking Cognition and Motivation to Behavior* (pp. 7-26). New York, NY: Guilford.
- Sarason, I. G. (1975). Anxiety and self-preoccupation. In I. G. Sarason & D. C. Spielberger (Eds.), *Stress and Anxiety* (Vol 2, pp 27-44). Washington DC: Hemisphere.
- Saltzman, L. E. (2004). Definitional and methodological issues related to transitional research on intimate partner violence. *Violence Against Women*, 7, 812-830.
- Sarason, I. G., Sarason, B. R., & Pierce, G. R. (1994). Social support: Global and relationship based levels of analysis. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 11, 295–312.
- Schepers, J. M. (2005). The construction of a normative scale of locus of control. *Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 31, 1–11.
- Scholz, U., Gutierrez-Dona, B., Sud, S., & Schwarzer, R. (2002). Is general self-efficacy a universal construct? Psychometric findings from 25 countries. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, 18, 242–251.
- Schultheiss, O. C., Campbell, K. L., & McClelland, D. C. (1999). Implicit power motivation moderates men's testosterone responses to imagined and real dominance success. *Hormones and Behavior*, 36, 234–241.
- Schutt, R. K. (2011). *Investigating the social world: The process and practice of research* (7th ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Schwarzer, R., Bäßler, J., Kwiatek, P., Schröder, K., & Zhang, J. X. (1997). The assessment of optimistic self-beliefs: Comparison of the German, Spanish, and Chinese versions of the General Self-Efficacy Scale. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 46 (1), 69-88.
- Schwarzer, R., & Born, A. (1997). Optimistic self-beliefs: Assessment of general perceived self-efficacy in thirteen cultures. *World Psychology*, 3(1-2), 177-190.
- Schwarzer, R., Mueller, J., & Greenglass, E. (1999). Assessment of perceived general self-efficacy on the Internet: Data collection in cyberspace. *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping*, 12, 145-161.
- Schwarzer, R., Born, A., Iwawaki, S., Lee, Y.-M., Saito, E., & Yue, X. (1997). The assessment of optimistic self-beliefs: Comparison of the Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese and Korean versions of the General Self-Efficacy Scale. *Psychologia: An International Journal of Psychology in the Orient*, 40 (1), 1-13.

- Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1995). Generalized Self-Efficacy scale. In J. Weinman, S. Wright, & M. Johnston, *Measures in health psychology: A user's portfolio. causal and control beliefs* (pp. 35-37). Windsor, England: NFER-NELSON.
- Seeman, M. (1991). Alienation and Anomie. In J. P. Robinson, P. R., Sjaever, & L. S., Wrightsman (Eds.) *Measures of Personality and Social Psychological Attitudes, Volume I*. New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Sheehan, K. A., Thakor, S., & Stewart, D. E. (2012). Turning points for perpetrators of intimate partner violence. *Trauma, Violence, and Abuse*, 13, 30-40.
- Sheldon, K. M. (1995). Creativity and self-determination in personality. *Creativity Research Journal*, 8, 61-72.
- Sheldon, K. M., & Deci, E. L., (1996). *The Self-Determination Scale*. Unpublished Manuscript. University of Rochester.
- Sheldon, K.M., & Kasser, T. (1995). Coherence and congruence: Two aspects of personality integration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68, 531-543.
- Sheldon, K. M., Ryan, R. M., & Reis, H. (1996). What makes for a good day? Competence and autonomy in the day and in the person. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22, 1270-1279.
- Sheldon, K. M., Elliot, A. J., Kim, Y., & Kasser, T. (2001). What's satisfying about satisfying events? Comparing ten candidate psychological needs. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 80, 325-339.
- Shepard MF, Campbell JA. The Abusive Behavior Inventory: a measure of psychological and physical abuse. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 1992;7:291–305.
- Sherer, M., Maddux, J.E., Mercadante, B., Prentice-Dunn, S., Jacobs, B., and Rogers, R.W. (1982) The self-efficacy scale: Construction and Validation. *Psychological Reports*, 51, 663-671.
- Silber, E., & Tippett, J. (1965). Self-esteem: Clinical assessment and measurement validation. *Psychological Reports*, 16, 1017-1071.
- Simpson, C.K., & Boyal, D. (1975). Esteem construct generality and academic performance. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 35, 897-907.
- Skinner, E. (1996). A guide to constructs of control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 7(3), 549–570.

- Sonkin, D.J. & Dutton, D. (2003). Treating Assaultive Men from an Attachment Perspective. *Journal of Aggression and Maltreatment*, 7, 105-133.
- Stachowiak, B. J. (2010). *Job Satisfaction and Locus of Control in an Academic Setting* (Doctoral dissertation). Pepperdine University.
- St. John, T. (2008). *Grounded Theory of Domestic Violence Perpetration: Normalizing by Abnormalizing* (Doctoral dissertation). North Central University, Prescott Valley, AZ.
- Stark, E. (2007). *Coercive Control: How Men Entrap Women in Personal Life*. Oxford, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Steffenhagen, R.A., (1990). *Self-Esteem Therapy*. New York, NY: Praeger.
- Stets, J. E. (1995). Modeling control in relationships. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 57, 489-501.
- Stets, J. E. (1993). Control in dating relationships. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 55, 673-685.
- Straus, M. A. (2005). Women's violence towards men is a serious social problem. In D. R. Loseke, R. J. Gelles, & Mar M. Cavanaugh (Eds.). *Current Controversies on Family Violence*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Straus, M. A. (1971). Some social antecedents of physical punishment: A linkage theory interpretation. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 33, 658-663.
- Straus, M. A., & Gelles, R. J. (1990). How violent are American families? Estimates from the National Family Violence Survey and other studies. In M. Straus & R. Gelles (Eds.) *Physical Violence in American Families: Risk Factors and adaptation to Violence in 8,145 Families* (pp 95-112). New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction.
- Straus, M. A., Gelles, R. J., & Steinmetz, S. K. (1980). *Behind Closed Doors: Violence in the American Family*. Garden City, NY: Anchor press/Doubleday.
- Taylor, S. E. (1995). *Health psychology*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Thibaut, J. W., & Kelley, H. H. (1959). *The Social Psychology of Groups*. New York: Wiley.
- Tjaden P, Thoennes N. (2000). *Extent, Nature, and Consequences of Intimate Partner Violence: Findings from the National Violence Against Women Survey*. Washington (DC): US Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice.

- Tolman, E. C. (1959). Principles of purposive behavior. In S. Koch (Ed.), *Psychology: A study of a science* (Vol. 2, pp. 92-157). New York: Mc-Graw-Hill.
- United States Department of Justice, (2012). Retrieved on April 26, 2012 from: <http://www.ovw.usdoj.gov/domviolence.htm>.
- Vallerand, R. J., & Bissonnette, R. (1992). Intrinsic, extrinsic and amotivational styles as predictors of behavior: A prospective study. *Journal of Personality*, 60, 599-620.
- Van Dijke, M., & Poppe M., (2006). Striving for Personal Power as a Basis for Social Power Dynamics. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 36, 537-556.
- Walker, L. (1979). *The Battered Woman*. New York, NT: Harper & Row.
- Weber, M. (1947). *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization* (A.M. Henderson & T. Parsons, trans.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Websdale, N. (2010). *Familicidal Hearts: The Emotional Styles of 211 Killers*. Oxford University Press: New York.
- Winstock, Z., Eisikovits, Z., & Gelles, R. (2002). Structure and dynamics of escalation from the batterer's perspective. *Families in Society: Journal of Contemporary Human Services*, 83, 129-152.
- Yllo, K. A. (2005). Through a feminist lens: Gender, diversity, and violence: Extending the feminist framework. In D. R. Loseke, R. J. Gelles, & Mar M. Cavanaugh (Eds.). *Current Controversies on Family Violence*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yllo, K. & Straus, M. A. (1990). Patriarchy and violence against wives: The impact of structural and normative factors. In M. A. Straus & R. J. Gelles (Eds.), *Physical violence in American Families: Risk Factors and Adaptations to Violence in 8,145 families*. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction.
- Yllo, K. (1988). Political and methodological debates in wife abuse research. In K. Yllo & M. Bograd (Eds.), *Feminist Perspectives on Wife Abuse* (pp. 28-50). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Zhou, X., Sedikides, C., Wildschut, C., & Gao, D.-G. (2008). Counteracting loneliness: On the restorative function of nostalgia. *Psychological Science*, 19, 1023-1029.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Self-Concept Clarity Scale

For each of the statements below, please indicate the extent of your agreement by checking the appropriate circle.

The response choices are as follows:

Strongly Disagree
Disagree
Neutral
Agree
Strongly Agree

1. My beliefs about myself often conflict with one another.
2. On one day I might have one opinion of myself and on another day I might have a different opinion.
3. I spend a lot of time wondering about what kind of person I really am.
4. Sometimes I feel that I am not really the person that I appear to be.
5. When I think about the kind of person I have been in the past, I'm not sure what I was really like.
6. I seldom experience conflict between the different aspects of my personality.
7. Sometimes I think I know other people better than I know myself.
8. My beliefs about myself seem to change very frequently.
9. If I were asked to describe my personality, my description might end up being different from one day to another day.
10. Even if I wanted to I don't think I would tell someone what I am really like.
11. In general, I have a clear sense of who I am and what I am.
12. It is often hard for me to make up my mind about things because I don't really know what I want.

The scale is scored by assigning a value to each item as follows:

All items except for 6 and 11 are scored Strongly Disagree=5, Disagree=4, Undecided=3, Agree=2 and Strongly Agree=1.

Items 6 and 11 are reversed scored.

The items are then summed, with higher scores representing higher self-concept clarity.

Campbell, J.D., Trapnell, P.D., Heine, S.J., Katz, L.M., Lavallee, L.F., Lehman, D.R. (1996). Self-Concept Clarity: Measurement, Personality Correlates, and Cultural Boundaries. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70, 141-156.

Appendix B: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with these statements about yourself.

Response choices are as follows:

Strongly Agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly Disagree

1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
2. At times, I think I am no good at all.
3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
6. I certainly feel useless at times.
7. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

The scale is scored by assigning a value to each item as follows:

Items 1,3,4,7,10 are scored as: Strongly Agree=3, Agree=2, Disagree=1, and Strongly Disagree=0.

Items 2,5,6,8,9 are reverse scored as: Strongly Agree=0, Agree=1, Disagree=2, and Strongly Disagree=3.

The scale ranges from 0-30, with 30 indicating the highest score possible.

Rosenberg, Morris (1965). *Society and the Adolescent Self-Image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Rosenberg, Morris (1989). *Society and the Adolescent Self-Image*. Revised edition. Middletown, CT: Wesleyan University Press.

Appendix C: General Self-Efficacy Scale

For each of the ten statements below please choose the best response.

Response choices are as follows:

Not at all True
Hardly True
Moderately True
Exactly True

1. I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.
2. If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.
3. It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.
4. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.
5. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.
6. I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.
7. I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.
8. When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.
9. If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.
10. I can usually handle whatever comes my way.

The scale is scored by assigning the following values and adding up all responses to a sum.

1=Not at all True, 2=Hardly True, 3=Moderately True, 4=Exactly True

The range is from 10 to 40 points. Those with a higher score have a higher degree of general self-efficacy.

Schwarzer, R., and Jerusalem, M. (1995). Generalized Self-Efficacy scale. In J. Weinman, S. Wright, and M. Johnston, *Measures in health psychology: A user's portfolio. Causal and control beliefs* (pp. 35-37). Windsor, England: NFER-NELSON.

Appendix D: Self-Determination Scale

Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with these statements about yourself.

Response choices are as follows:

Strongly Agree
Agree
Neutral
Disagree
Strongly Disagree

1. I always feel like I choose the things I do.
2. My emotions always seem to belong to me.
3. I do what I have to, but I don't feel like it is really my choice.
4. I feel that I am rarely myself.
5. I do what I do because it interests me.
6. When I accomplish something, I often feel it wasn't really me who did it.
7. I am free to do whatever I decide to do.
8. My body sometimes feels like a stranger to me.
9. I feel pretty free to do whatever I choose to.
10. Sometimes I look into the mirror and see a stranger.

The scale is scored by assigning the following values:

Items 1,2,5,7,& 9 Strongly Agree=5, Agree=4, Neutral=3, Disagree=2, and Strongly Disagree=1
Items 3,4,6,8,& 10 (reverse scored) Strongly Agree=1, Agree=2, Neutral=3, Disagree=4, Strongly Disagree=1

The scale ranges from 10-50, with 50 indicating the highest score possible. The higher an individual scores the higher the degree of Self-determination.

The two subscales are as follows:

Awareness of Self: Contains Items 2, 4, 6, 8, 10

Perceived Choice: Contains Items 1, 3, 5, 7, 9

Sheldon, K. M., Ryan, R. M., & Reis, H. (1996). What makes for a good day? Competence and autonomy in the day and in the person. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22, 1270-1279.

Sheldon, K. M. (1995). Creativity and self-determination in personality. *Creativity Research Journal*, 8, 61-72.

Appendix E Mastery Scale

Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with these statements about yourself.

Response choices are as follows:

Strongly Agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly Disagree

1. I have little control over the things that happen to me.
2. There is really no way I can solve some of the problems I have.
3. There is little I can do to change many of the important things in my life.
4. I often feel helpless in dealing with the problems in my life.
5. Sometimes I feel that I am being pushed around in life.
6. What happens to me in the future mostly depends on me.
7. I can do just about anything I really set my mind to do.

The scale is scored by assigning a value to each item as follows:

For items 1-5: Strongly Disagree=4, Disagree=3, Agree=2, and Strongly Agree=1.

For items 6 and 7 (which are reversed scored): Strongly Agree=4, Agree=3, Disagree=2, and Strongly Disagree=1.

The scale ranges from 1-28, with 28 indicating the highest score possible. The higher an individual scores the higher the degree of Mastery.

Pearlin, L., Liberman, M., Menaghan, E., & Mullan, J. (1981). The stress process. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 22, 337-356.

Appendix F: Psychological Abuse Perpetration

How often have you done the following things to someone you have been in an intimate relationship with?

By intimate relationship we mean: a boyfriend/girlfriend or a husband/wife for at least a month or longer

Responses choices are as follows:

Never
Seldom
Sometimes
Very Often

1. Damaged something that belonged to them.
2. Said something to hurt their feelings on purpose.
3. Insulted them in front of others.
4. Threw something at them that missed.
5. Would not let them do things with other people.
6. Threatened to start dating someone else.
7. Told them they could not talk to someone of the opposite sex.
8. Started to hit them but stopped.
9. Did something just to make them jealous.
10. Blamed them for bad things I did.
11. Threatened to hurt them.
12. Made them describe where they were every minute of the day.
13. Brought up something from the past to hurt them.
14. Put down their looks.

The scale is scored by assigning a value to each of the items as follows:

Never=0, Seldom=1, Sometimes=2, Very often=3

The participants score is calculated by summing their responses across all 14 items, with the higher the score indicating moderate to severe perpetration.

Foshee VA, Bauman KE, Arriaga XB, Helms RW, Koch GG, & Linder GF. (1998). An evaluation of Safe Dates, an adolescent dating violence program. *American Journal of Public Health*, 88, 45–50.

Foshee VA, Linder GF, Bauman KE, Langwick SA, Arriaga XB, Heath JL, McMahon PM, Bangdiwala S. (1996). The Safe Dates project: theoretical basis, evaluation design, and selected baseline findings. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 12, 39–47

Appendix G: Physical Abuse Perpetration

How many times have you ever done the following things to someone you have been in an intimate relationship with? Only include when you did it to him/her first. In other words, don't count it if you did it in self-defense.

By intimate relationship we mean: a boyfriend/girlfriend or a husband/wife for at least a month or longer

Responses choices are as follows:

Never

1 to 3 times

4 to 9 times

10 or more times

1. Scratched them...
2. Slapped them...
3. Physically twisted their arm...
4. Slammed them against a wall...
5. Kicked them...
6. Bent their fingers...
7. Bit them...
8. Tried to choke them...
9. Pushed, grabbed, or shoved them...
10. Dumped them out of a car...
11. Threw something at them and hit them...
12. Burned them...
13. Hit them with my fist...
14. Hit them with something besides my fist...
15. Beat them up...
16. Assaulted them with a knife or gun...

The scale is scored by assigning a value to each of the items as follows:

Never=0, 1 to 3 times=1, 4 to 9 times=2, 10 or more times=3

The participants score is calculated by summing their responses across all 14 items, with the higher the score indicating moderate to severe perpetration.

Foshee VA, Bauman KE, Arriaga XB, Helms RW, Koch GG, & Linder GF. (1998). An evaluation of Safe Dates, an adolescent dating violence program. *American Journal of Public Health*, 88,45–50.

Foshee VA, Linder GF, Bauman KE, et al. (1996). The Safe Dates project: theoretical basis, evaluation design, and selected baseline findings. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 12,39–47

Appendix H: Socio-Demographic Questions

1. How old are you?
2. What is your sex?

Male
Female
3. Which best describes you?

African American/Black
Caucasian/White
Latino
American Indian/Alaska Native
Asian/Asian American
Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
Other
4. If you choose other please type your response
5. Are you?
Latino/Hispanic
Not Latino/Hispanic
6. What is your student classification?

Freshman
Sophomore
Junior
Senior
Graduate Student
7. Have you ever been in an intimate relationship?
By intimate relationship we mean: a boyfriend/girlfriend or husband/wife for at least a month or longer.

Yes
No

Appendix I: Study Script

We are currently recruiting participants for a social science research study titled *Deconstructing the "Power and Control Motive": Developing and Assessing the Measurability of Internal Power*. This study consists of completing a short questionnaire that is being administered via a secure Internet site, which you can access at a time and location that is most convenient and private for you. Completion time should not exceed 20 minutes. Any student who is currently enrolled in a criminology course and at least 18 years of age can participate.

The purpose of this research is to explore whether five specific personality factors are related to one another and to specific behaviors that individuals may use in the context of their intimate relationship. If you choose to participate, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire that contains five short personality assessments, two sets of questions regarding the use of specific psychological and physical behaviors in an intimate relationship, and a few questions about your background (sex, race, age).

There are no foreseeable risks associated with this project. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and confidential; no identifying information (including IP addresses) will be collected by the research team, and your response will not be identifiable in any way. Your participation in this specific study is not related to your course assignments and will not have an effect on your course grade. Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from this project at any time.

If you have any questions or comments about this study, feel free to contact Shelly Wagers either by email drwagers@gmail.com or by phone at 813-419-3980. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this study or have complaints, concerns or issues you want to discuss with someone outside the research team you can contact the Institutional Review Board at 813-974-5637 (eIRB #Pro00007094).

Thank you for helping with this important research. In order to participate in this study simply click on the link below.

Link to study: http://cbcs.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_dhQethvRCwQbs2w