The University of Southern Mississippi

The Aquila Digital Community

Spring 5-2008

Power Base Perceptions of School Administrators at Residential Schools for the Culturally Deaf

Allison Washington Moffett
University of Southern Mississippi

The University of Southern Mississippi

POWER BASE PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS AT

RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS FOR THE CULTURALLY DEAF

by

Allison Washington Moffett

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate Studies Office
of The University of Southern Mississippi
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Education

Approved:

May 2008

The University of Southern Mississippi

POWER BASE PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS AT

RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS FOR THE CULTURALLY DEAF

by

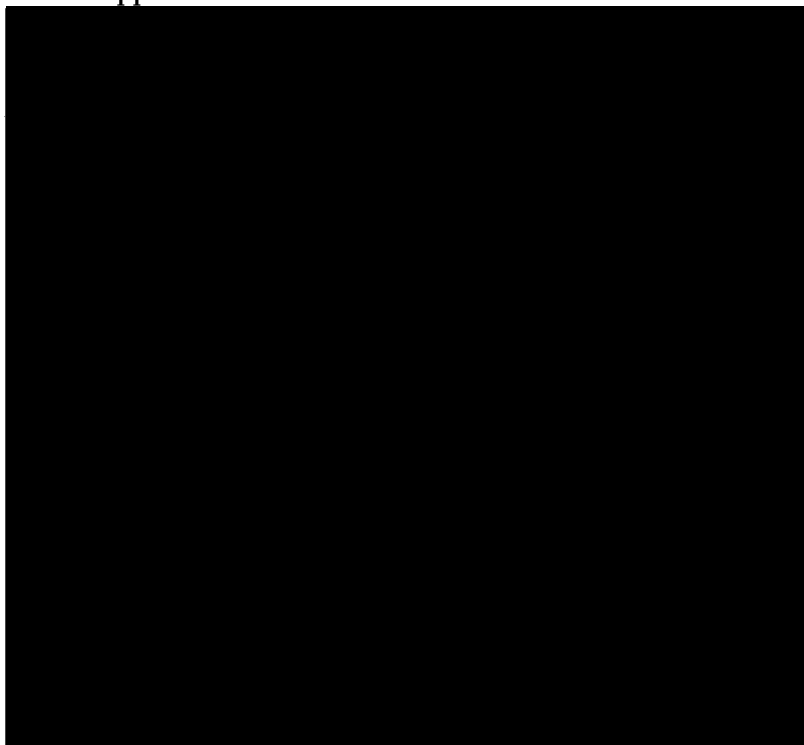Allison Washington Moffett

Abstract of a Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate Studies Office
of The University of Southern Mississippi
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Education

May 2008

ABSTRACT

POWER BASE PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS AT

RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS FOR THE CULTURALLY DEAF

by Allison Washington Moffett

May 2008

Residential schools fill a significant role in the academic and social education of

deaf and hard-of-hearing students worldwide. Progress has been made in these schools as

a result of a collaborative effort between schools and community working together.

Administrators at the residential schools play essential roles in the academic and social

processes of education and as such they must be aware of their own power bases and

usages. Hersey and Blanchard (1993) maintained that it is essential for school

administrators to be able to distinguish the power sources and to be knowledgeable about

which power sources to use in a particular situation.

This study examined the power base perceptions of principals in residential

schools for the deaf in the south area of the United States. Principals were distributed a

demographic questionnaire and the Power Perception Profile—Perception of Self. Also,

demographic questionnaires and the Power Perception Profile-Perception of Others were

sent to 18 superintendents and 175 academic teachers of state operated and supported

residential school for the Deaf that have a total student population of over 75 students.

The purpose of this study was to determine the self perceived bases of power used

by principals in residential schools for the deaf, to examined the power base perceptions

of the principal's power base usage and their ability to influence others, and to identified

administrative profiles for the residential schools, as well as recognized those individual

ii

characteristics related exclusively to those holding administrative positions. Analysis of the data included: descriptive statistics, Paired Sample t-Test, Independent Sample t-Test, and correlation analysis. The level of significance was set at .05.

Findings showed that the principals' self perceived power bases scored high in the legitimate power source. The principals perceived themselves as being able to influence others and make decisions because of their title or position. Superintendents perceived the principal as being able to induce compliance of others by using the coercive power base, which is based on fear. Hearing academic teacher's rated their perceptions of their principal's use of coercive power base higher than that of the deaf academic teachers.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background and Importance of the Study

Historically, the primary organization that have been responsible, both socially

and academically, for the education of culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing students have

been American residential schools for the Deaf (Oyinlade & Gellhaus, 2005).

Throughout the nation, in response to the ever-increasing demands on the public school

systems, many of these residential schools for the Deaf have become logical placement

settings for deaf and hard of hearing students (Bina, 1999). Also, residential schools

have become an important favorable choice, instead of being thought of as last resorts or

substitutes for public school programs (Knudson, 2003). Stenehjem (1993) stated that

"no other place in most states has as much knowledge, expertise, and resources to share

as residential schools" (p. 211).

As the identification and population of deaf individuals increase, residential

schools for the Deaf have been established in almost every state (Knudson, 2003).

Students served by residential schools for the Deaf include individuals with all degrees of

hearing loss, although historically a majority of these deaf and hard of hearing students

were diagnosed as having severe to profound hearing losses (Schildroth & Karchmer,

1986). Since the educational options for deaf and hard of hearing children have

expanded, many of the hard of hearing children have been traditionally served in the

public school setting; consequently, this has caused a tremendous population decrease of

these hard of hearing youths being served at residential schools for the Deaf (Schildroth

& Karchmer, 1986). Unfortunately, the Nebraska School for the Deaf, a well established

residential school, closed in June of 1998 due to this decrease (Rosman, 1998). The quality of the education of culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing students in the United States in residential schools for the Deaf has been under close investigation for the past 30 years (Royster, 1995).

The United States Congress through the Education of the Deaf Act of 1986 instituted The Commission on Education of the Deaf (CED) and authorized a study on the quality of education for the Deaf (Royster, 1995). Findings were analyzed and reported to the Congress and the President of the United States. The Commission on Education of the Deaf stated 52 recommendations meant for the educational advancement of deaf and hard of hearing children. Hardly anything was mentioned concerning the perceptions and qualities of administrators at residential schools for the Deaf. Also, none of the 52 recommendations addressed the need for knowledgeable administrators responsible and competent enough to implement changes in these programs (Royster, 1995).

Today, residential schools for the Deaf must work with other academic programs. Administrators at these residential schools are expected to collaborate with other, as well as with the community to successfully obtain the school's goals and influence change. The administrators at the residential schools for the Deaf are also required to exhibit the guidance and influential abilities that will allow their faculty and staff to share in some of the decision making procedures. In addition, residential schools for the Deaf administrators must establish the school's goals and objectives that closely parallel the state's goals and objectives for all public school students. Frequently, the success of these goals and objectives, whether they are set by the residential schools or the state, is

determined merely by the numbers of students passing the competency based exams given yearly at various academic grade levels (Royster, 1995).

The administrators at residential schools for the Deaf policy and procedures typically seemed to replicate those of the public schools (e.g., Balk, 1997; Johnson, 2004). It is a well known fact that administrators for residential schools for the Deaf are ultimately responsible for the operation, welfare, and maintenance of the institution; therefore, knowledge of the power base perceptions and usages are crucial to the school's success (Johnson, 2004). Moore (2003) claimed that "at no time in our history is the issue of effective leadership more important than it is in today's political and economic environment" (p. 387).

Hersey and Blanchard (1993) contended that effective school administrators should be familiar with the seven power sources and be knowledgeable as to which source is more fitting in a particular situation. Also, they advocate that school administrators who understand and know how to use the seven power sources correctly are much more effective administrators than those who can not or choose not use the sources appropriately.

Power is defined as a matter of perception, and perception is the key to understanding power (Royster, 1995)

"It's not necessarily how much power leaders have, but how much power the followers perceive the leader is willing and able to use that evokes their behavior" (Hersey 1984, pp. 80-81).

French and Raven (1959) described five different types of power base perceptions that can give an explanation for the different outcomes found in social influence. The

identified five power base perceptions are: reward power, coercive power, expert power, legitimate power, and referent power. Raven and Kruglanski (1975) discovered a sixth power base called information power. A seventh power base known as the connection power was identified by Hersey and Goldsmith (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993). The perception of principals' at residential schools for the Deaf of their usage of these seven power bases, and the perception of their superintendents and teachers, was the focus of this study.

Residential schools for the Deaf building level administrators have been known as bureau directors, school administrators, headmasters, principals, and a host of other titles (Knudson, 2003). In 1817, the very first building level administrative position was created with the establishment of the first school for the culturally deaf, presently known as the American School for the Deaf, in Hartford, CT (Moores & Meadow-Orlans, 1990). Under the leadership of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, Laurent Clerc, an experienced and skilled teacher from Europe, provided important guidelines for the establishment of early schools for the culturally deaf individuals (Moores & Meadow-Orlans, 1990).

According to Whitaker (1998), the roles and responsibilities of the building level administrators of residential schools for the Deaf are changing continuously. Whitaker noted that these administrators at residential schools for the Deaf are perceived as being community leaders, decision-making strategist, and supervise the diversified populations of today's students. Successful leadership qualities and abilities, as well as, knowledge of power base perceptions and usages are all critical factors pertaining to the future of deaf education.

Because of the enormous tasks linked with the operations of residential schools for the Deaf, there have been various reports on school leadership, unfortunately, a small number of these studies focused on the administrator's power base perceptions and usages in residential schools for the Deaf (e.g., Gannon, 1981; Knudson, 2003; Moores, 1987; Quigley & Ketschmer, 1982; Van Cleve, 1987). The administrators' role at residential schools for the Deaf is one of the key element in the foundation, operation, and maintenance of an effective school (Knudson, 2003).

Bina (1982) studied self-esteem levels of certified teachers of the visually impaired and examined the concerns these teachers housed about their administrators. Results revealed that there was a number of individualistic procedures that increased the principal's involvement, enhanced supervision, and motivated the morale of principals and teachers to work collaboratively.

Royster (1995) explored the power base perceptions used by line administrators of schools serving culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing students. The population studied only investigated line administrators, such as, superintendents, headmasters, and executive directors from selected schools and various members of their management teams. Royster (1995) noted in the major findings of his study that administrators perceived themselves as high users of expert, information, and referent personal power bases. Also high scores were noted by the administrators on the legitimate and reward positional power bases. The findings of Royster's study support the belief that administrators at residential schools for the Deaf perceived themselves as having the appropriate qualities and skills necessary to influence others and to ultimately produce change. According to the data, administrators did not rate themselves favorably on the

coercive or the connectional power bases. Royster testified that the absence of connectional power in residential schools for the Deaf is considered a disadvantage today because these schools do not operate as autonomous independent schools.

The proposed study was similar to Royster's (1995) perceptions of power bases used by line administrators at schools serving deaf and hard-of-hearing students. It examined elements related to the administrator's exercise of power base perceptions. Both hearing and culturally deaf administrators at selected residential schools for the Deaf in the south region area of the United States was the targeted population for this study. Several of these residential schools for the Deaf academic teachers were included in this study as well.

In 1997, another scholarly study was performed on the leadership practices of superintendents at residential schools for the Deaf (Knudson, 2003). J.W. Balk (1997) completed a study analyzing the leadership practices of superintendents at residential schools for the Deaf compared to effective leadership practices and organizational assessments found in journalisms. Balk's research investigated important questions; however, the research did not address the leadership styles, practices, or power perceptions of the building level administrators at these residential schools. Since Balk's study, there has been very little research on administrative power perceptions and leadership styles of residential schools for the Deaf. Balk's (1997) investigation of leadership practices concluded that leadership at residential schools for the Deaf is not distinct from other schools. Balk concluded that there appeared to be a noticeable difference between the leadership practices of superintendents of residential schools for

the Deaf as compared to the leadership practices described in the literature on leadership effectiveness. Balk recommended that further study be conducted in this area.

School administrators do not work in small groups anymore and having good managerial skills is not enough to survive and succeed in today's world. Leaders should have the ability to motivate, inspire, and develop individuals to function effectively in society (Singleton, 1994).

School leadership perceptions have been the focus of numerous studies and hypothetical foundations. Black (1998) placed educational administration into three distinctive groupings: instructional, transformational, and facilitative leadership. He reported that educational leaders described as being superior generally tend to make strategic decisions and are very knowledgeable about the different leadership styles. Black also reported that good administrators should have flexible strategies, can accomplish short or long term goals, and can meet the needs of the school and the students.

Gardner (1990) identified effective educational administrators as lifetime thinkers, goal emphasizes, motivators, and active participators of various organizations. He believed that these school administrators have the necessary bureaucratic skills to manage schools as well as the neighboring communities. Another characteristic found in these leaders is the capability of coping with the diverse population changes.

Knudson (2003) discovered that superintendents of residential schools for the Deaf are similar to those superintendents in public school districts. His findings indicated that educationally, both groups of superintendents believe that their responsibilities and

duties were similar. However, the biggest inconsistency among the two groups was embedded in their relationships with their administrative boards.

Oyinlade et al. (2003) identified several successful behavioral leadership qualities for principals and superintendents in schools for the visually impaired. Faculty, principals, and superintendents of these schools indicated that transformational leadership qualities exceed transactional qualities.

Lartz and Litchfield (2005) studied important administrative abilities for deaf educators in oral programs. They compared the administrator's competency ratings of oral programs to those of administrators in inclusive culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing programs. Results showed that both groups of administrators collectively agreed that it is important to be aware of general knowledge characterizing deaf and hard-of-hearing learners, cognition development stages, receptive and expressive language skills, diverse instructional strategies and methods, as well as motivational learning environments.

Oyinlade et al. (2005) updated a study on the effectiveness of the leadership of principals and superintendents of schools for visually impaired students from the teachers' point of view. The findings indicated that these school administrators did not meet their teachers' expectations on a variety of leadership viewpoints.

<center>Statement of the Problem</center>

The leadership role of the administrators at a residential school for Deaf is a key component in the organization and function of an effective school (Knudson, 2003). Even though residential schools for the culturally deaf have been in existence since 1817 (e.g., Gannon, 1981; Moores, 1986; Quigley & Kretschmer, 1982; Van Cleve, 1987),

surprisingly, there is little research found in the area of education administration, educational leadership, and power perceptions as it relates to the field of deaf education.

This study identified the power base perceptions of principals of residential schools serving culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing students in the south region of the United States, as perceived by the administrators themselves, by the school's superintendents, and by the academic teachers. The study focused on how those seven identified power base perceptions related to the characterized attributes of the principal and superintendent.

Purpose of the Study

In this study, the researcher examined the effects of the principal's power base usage. Demographic characteristics of the school administrators and academic teachers employed in educational residential programs for the culturally deaf in the south region of the United States was collected and analyzed. Data was examined to determine if an identifiable profile existed for power base perceptions of school administrators in educational residential programs for culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing students. Data was analyzed to determine the relationship between power base perception and attributes such as age, gender, hearing status, years of administrative experience, number of administrative workshops/in-services, number of educational classes, and the type of administrative degree.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was divided into three sections: First, to determine the self perceived bases of power of principals in educational residential programs serving culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing students measured by responses on the Power Perception Profile-Perception of Self (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2004). Next, the

study examined the power base perceptions of the principal's power base usage and their ability to influence others. Those power base perceptions were gathered from responses measured by the Power Perception Profile-Perception of Other (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2002). Third, this research identified administrative profiles for the residential schools, also, recognized those individual characteristics related solely to those principals in educational residential programs for culturally deaf students in the south.

This study contributed information on key personality characteristics and identified a profile of educational administrators in residential schools for the culturally Deaf. The results of this study enhanced the literature on power base perceptions for school administrators at residential schools and provided curricular implications for graduate level training programs in educational administration for the special population. The results provided significant information for in-service training which can yield to professional networking opportunities for these residential school administrators.

The results of this study were useful for expanding and developing the features of programs which prepare individuals to become efficient educational administrators. The results emphasized that awareness and effective practice of power source perceptions at residential schools for the Deaf are essential for the success of the school's operation and welfare.

<div align="center">Research Questions</div>

The proposed study was similar to Royster's (1995) perceptions of power bases used by line administrators at schools serving deaf and hard-of-hearing students. This study investigated variables related to the principal's use of power bases. Superintendents and principals at residential schools for the Deaf in the south region of the United States

were the targeted population for this study. Also, the academic teachers were included in this study as well.

The focus of this study answered these research questions related to characteristics and perceptions of the school administrators for culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing children.

Research questions addressed were:

1. What are the distinctive power bases perceived to be used by principals of residential schools for the Deaf?

2. What are the current demographic variables for the superintendents, principals, and academic teachers for the residential schools for the Deaf?

3. Are there differences between the principal's own perceptions of their power base use and the perceptions of their power bases usage by the superintendent?

4. Are there differences between principals own perceptions of their power base use and the perceptions of their power base usage by the academic teachers?

5. Do culturally deaf and hearing academic teachers perceive their principals using similar or different power bases?

6. Is there a significant relationship between the principals' perceptions of their own power base usage and the demographic variables of age, gender, hearing status, years of administrative experience, number of educational administrative classes, and the type of administrative degree?

7. Is there a significant relationship between superintendents' perceptions of the principals' power base use related to the superintendent's demographic

variables of age, gender, hearing status, and years of administrative

experience, number of educational administrative classes, and the type of

administrative degree?

The answers to these questions identified power base perception and usage

characteristics that can provide additional knowledge and information for the residential

schools for the Deaf principals to be more productive in their administrative roles and

duties.

Definitions

The study contains terms which may require definition for the reader:

Academic Teachers. The term academic teacher refers to a person who provides

direct educational instructions to the culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing students.

Administrator. The term administrator refers to a person who serves as an

advisory group to the superintendent on matters pertaining to budget, curricula, program

offerings and the like; also who supervise other employees of the school (Royster, 1995)

Amplification. The term amplification refers to process of wearing a hearing aid,

cochlear implant, or any other device to increase the magnitude of a signal.

Auditory training. The term auditory training refers to the process whereby the

aurally handicapped person learns to take advantage of all acoustic cues available to him;

designed to develop optimum use of residual hearing (Nicolosi, Harryman, & Kresheck,

1983).

Coercive power. The term coercive power is based on the leader's perceived

ability to enforce sanctions or consequences for noncompliance; power based on fear

(Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

Connection power. The term connection power is based on the leader's perceived affiliation with influential persons or organizations (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

Culturally deaf. The term culturally deaf refers to a deaf person who is a member embedded in the deaf community (Bertling, 1997).

Day student. The term day student refers to the students attend day class programs for the culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing established in a public school building in which the majority of children have normal hearing (Moores, 1987).

Deaf. The term Deaf refers to the one whom is a member of the deaf community and subscribes to the deaf culture notion (Bertling, 1997).

Deaf. The term deaf refers to the one in whom the sense of hearing in nonfunctional, with or without amplification, for the ordinary purposes of life (Nicolosi, Harryman & Kresheck, 1983).

Deaf-mute. The term culturally deaf-mute refers to an individual who can neither hear nor speak, usually one born with a severe hearing loss (Nicolosi, Harryman, & Kresheck, 1983).

Expert power: The term expert power is based on the perception that the leader has relevant education, experience and expertise (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

Fingerspelling: The term fingerspelling refers to the art of communicating ideas by movements made with the fingers, as with the manual alphabet of the culturally deaf (Nicolosi, Harryman, & Kresheck, 1983).

Hard-of-hearing: The term hard-of-hearing refers to one in whom the sense of hearing, although defective, does function with or without a hearing aid (Nicolosi, Harryman, & Kresheck, 1983).

Hearing aids: The term hearing aids refers to any electronic amplifying device whose function is to bring sound more effectively into the listener's ear; consists of a microphone, amplifier, and receiver; may be worn with the amplifier attached in a unit on the body, or all three parts may be at ear level (Nicolosi, Harryman, & Kresheck, 1983).

Information power: The term information power is based on the leader's perceived possession of or access to useful information (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

Leadership: The term leadership refers to any attempt to influence others (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993, p. 221).

Legitimate power: The term legitimate power refers to the perception that it is appropriate for the leader to make decisions or take action based on his or her title or position in the organization (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

Line administrator: The term line administrator, also known as Line Manager, refers to the person that has the right to make decisions and is primarily responsible for planning, including long-range, middle range, and short range plans (Cherrington, 1991).

Lipreading: The term lipreading utilizes visual cues to determine what is being spoken, i.e., comprehension of speech is accomplished through visual interpretation of lip and facial movements and of general body gestures (Nicolosi, Harryman, & Kresheck, 1983).

Mainstreaming: The term mainstreaming refers to the educational attempt to serve children with learning or adjustment problems in the regular school environment with the aid of school environment with the aid of supportive personnel such as consulting, itinerant, or resource teachers; an effort to provide the most appropriate

education for every child in the least restrictive setting (Nicolosi, Harryman, & Kresheck, 1983).

Management team: The term management team refers to a group of people who report directly to the superintendent; who serve as an advisory group to the superintendent on matters pertaining to budget, curricula, program offerings and the like; and who also supervise other employees of the school. These members of the management team were identified by superintendents (Royster, 1995).

Manual alphabet: The term manual alphabet refers to specific positions of the hands and fingers used to symbolize the different letters of the alphabet (Nicolosi, Harryman, & Kresheck, 1983).

Manual approach: The term manual approach refers to a means of nonverbal communication which includes fingerspelling and signs (Nicolosi, Harryman, & Kresheck, 1983).

Motivation: The term motivation refers to internal or external stimulation which results in an action, such as an idea, need, emotion, or organism state (Nicolosi, Harryman, & Kresheck, 1983).

Oral speech: The term oral speech refers to communication through spoken symbols (Nicolosi, Harryman, & Kresheck, 1983).

Perception: The term perception refers to how the follower sees (perceives) the power of the leader. This perception is not necessarily based on the reality of how much power the leader has (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

Personal power: The term personal power refers to the extent to which an individual gains the confidence and trust of those people he or she is attempting to influence (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

Positional power: The term positional power refers to the extent to which a leader has access to rewards, punishments and sanctions that he or she can bring to bear with regard to followers (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

Power: The term power refers to "A leader's influence potential...the resource enabling the leader to gain compliance or commitment from others (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

Power Bases: The term power bases refers to

Sources of power—position power and personal power as measured by the Power Perception Profile—Perception of Self (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2002) and the Power Perception Profile—Perception of Other (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2004).

Referent power: The term referent is based on the perception that the leader has attractive traits that are admired and liked by others (e.g., French & Raven, 1959; Hersey, 1984; Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

Residential school: The term residential school refers to those facilities used to house students as well as to educate them. In areas accessible to large populations, substantial numbers of children live at home and commute daily. Children living within commuting distance generally attend on a day basis, and those living farther away stay at school on a residential basis, at least during weekdays (Moores, 1987).

Reward power: The term reward power refers to the leader's perceived ability to provide rewards, i.e., things that people would like to have (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

Signs: The term signs refer to the communication method used by the culturally deaf in which gestures function as words; has its own morphology, semantics, and syntax (Nicolosi, Harryman, & Kresheck, 1983).

Simultaneous approach: The term simultaneous approach refers to the integration of the oral-aural and manual methods of aural rehabilitation for both expressive and receptive communication; communication simultaneously utilizes speech, sign, and/or fingerspelling (Nicolosi, Harryman, & Kresheck, 1983).

Superintendent: The term superintendent refers to the person identified by the school's governing board, body, or overseeing governmental agency as the school's chief executive officer (Balk, 1997).

Total communication: The term total communication refers to the philosophy of utilizing any or all communication methods (fingerspelling, sign, speechreading, oral, written, etc.) to enhance receptive and expressive communication (Nicolosi, Harryman, & Kresheck, 1983).

Delimitations

Some delimitations of the proposed study were:

(1)   Difficulties in acquiring the names and addresses of each administrator of residential schools for the Deaf in the south region of the United States. This problem lowered the ability to directly contact the administrators'. Also, a low response rate could have caused some respondent biases.

(2)   Only the superintendents, principals, and the academic teachers at residential schools for the Deaf were investigated. There are numerous

educators in mainstream and day school programs serving deaf and hard-of-hearing children throughout the United States, these individuals were not included in this study.

(3)   Limitations of this study used a questionnaire as a means to gather data exposing the respondents to self serving misrepresentations.

(4)   This study, limited only to principals, superintendents, and academic teachers of residential schools for the Deaf, cannot be generalized to the public school administrators.

(5)   Only the assessment used was the Power Perception Profiles. No other assessment instrument were assessed, evaluated, or included in this study.

(6)   Only administrators of Pre K – 12 grades at residential schools for the Deaf in the south region area were included. Therefore, school administrators in post secondary educational programs were not included in this study.

(7)   The respondents to the survey may differ by gender and permanency of the assignment. Individuals assigned to specific position were hesitant to complete and return the questionnaire.

Justification

There is a lack of information regarding the administrative practices of administrators working in residential schools serving Deaf and hard-of-hearing students (Meadow-Orlans, 2001). If school administrators at residential school for the Deaf are to effectively make changes in their institutions, a working knowledge of their own power

bases perceptions and how to use the power sources to influence their faculty and staff is recommended. They should be knowledgeable about how school community perceives them as using those power bases, and the discrepancies, if any, between the perceptions (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

Research regarding leadership perceptions at residential schools for the Deaf was not evident until 1995 when Royster investigated perceptions of power bases used by line administrators of schools serving culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing students. With the changes in student population and the closing of an established residential school for the Deaf; the findings of Royster's study in 1995 suggest a need for the establishment of systematic functional reviews of residential schools for the Deaf (Royster, 1995).

Balk (1997) reported that responsibilities of superintendents at residential schools for the Deaf are similar to those superintendents in the public schools. His research documented a noticeable difference between the leadership practices of superintendents of the culturally deaf and those described in the literature of effective leadership.

The survey used in this study established an updated profile of administrators at the southeastern residential schools for the Deaf and provided valuable information to the field of deaf education. Finally, the information obtained through this study can possibly be used in administrative training programs to help potential administrators at residential schools for the Deaf recognize the influences of their power base sources.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview of Deaf Education

Historical documents have given credit to the Spanish for establishing the first systematic language used to teach deaf individuals. The educational setting and opportunity was ideal for deaf students at that time. Teachers generally instructed students from educated wealthy families in small secluded classrooms. Many of these deaf pupils succeeded outstandingly, even though, the education of deaf students was primarily delivered in isolation. Because of this seclusion, teachers worked in complete isolation without having the ability to collaborate with other educators. Yet, teachers received a substantial salary encouraging total devotion to the education of their deaf children (Bender, 1981).

A Spanish educator named Pedro Ponce de Leon (1520 – 1584) is known as the father of the art of teaching deaf-mutes from birth. Ponce de Leon established a school at a monastery in Valladolid where he tutored culturally deaf children of Spanish nobleness. Even though very little is known of his teaching techniques or of his instructional use of signs and manual alphabets, his success for working with deaf and hard-of-hearing individuals is widely known and is marked among some of the highest standards found in the literature of deaf education. Following Ponce de Leon's death, for almost thirty years, there was a brief pause in the field of deaf education (Moores, 1987).

After the Ponce de Leon era, Juan Martin Pablo Bonet promoted the training of deaf students by using a one-handed manual alphabet, similar to the alphabet used today in the United States. His belief was that all family members living in the same house

with a deaf-mute individual should be required to learn and use this one-handed manual alphabet. Once the one-handed manual alphabets were mastered, the deaf student was then trained to vocally produce the sound of each letter; training always began with the vowels (Bender, 1981).

Bonet believed that early intervention was critical for the success of deaf children. He believed a consistent enriched language environment was another important contribution to the success of these deaf students. These perceptions have only just recently been accepted in the world today (Moores, 1987). DeLand (1931) maintained that Bonet's beliefs on environmental language training contributed to many of the twentieth-century methods used in many schools for the culturally deaf (Moores, 1987).

John Amos Comenius (1592 – 1671) is known as one of the greatest educators of the seventeenth century completely devoted to child development. Basically, his philosophy states that the understanding of objects and concept development must be acquired before the understanding of words. He believed that symbols were not useful to deaf children until the deaf child had direct experiences with whatever the symbols represent. He also encouraged the teaching of wholeness before the teachings of its parts. George Dalgarno was another language and communication theorist for the deaf. His belief was that writing, using dactylology, another type of manual alphabet, was, first and foremost , much more practical in the education of deaf children (Bender, 1981).

One of the most renowned names in the history of deaf education is Abbe De l'Epee. His dedication and contributions are the most widely known in the field of deaf education. His belief significantly contributed to the basic changes in the philosophy of educational administration in the eighteenth and early nineteenth century. It was De

l'Epee who initially made the education of the deaf available to the lower class, therefore, making deaf education a matter of public concern (Bender, 1981).

As De l'Epee's work with the deaf expanded, he was convinced that sign language, a form of communication that the culturally deaf engaged with each other, by way of using their hands, was the mother tongue for the culturally deaf. He dedicated himself to the task of expanding and elaborating these signs, so as to expand them into a complete language, capable of conveying abstract concepts, as well as concrete thoughts in pantomime. He did not believe that speech was significant for culturally deaf individuals. In his opinion, the culturally deaf were perfectly capable of communicating their thoughts and reasons through the use of signs. However, he did not disapprove of the labor of others' in educating the culturally deaf through verbal communication. Not only did De l'Epee provided a school for his deaf pupils, he also furnished his pupils a home where he lived with them, focused on their physical needs by supplying food, clothing, and shelter. His home soon became known as a safe haven for any needy deaf-mute (Bender, 1981).

According to Bender, Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet is accredited for the establishment of permanent education for the culturally deaf in the United States. When Gallaudet journeyed to Europe, in the pursuit of someone to assist with the education of the culturally deaf students in America, he discovered Laurent Clerc. Working together, they brought deaf education to the United States and established the first State School for the Deaf in Hartford, Connecticut, in 1815. One of the first problems Gallaudet faced on his return to the United States was the lack of money needed to establish the school. In October 1816, the legislature of Connecticut donated $5,000 for the venture. Also,

private donations added to the endowment until $17,000 had been accumulated. On April 15, 1817, the school opened with only seven pupils. By July, 1817, the very first annual report of the American Asylum for the Deaf was published at Hartford by the request of the directors. Today, this school is still in operation under the new name The American School for the Deaf. This facility offers a 24 hour a day residential program, where education is provided both in and out of the classroom (Bender, 1981).

Other states followed Connecticut's lead by opening their own residential schools. The New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb was established in 1818 by the Reverend John who opened his doors with sixty children (Bender, 1981). That same year, the New York School for the Deaf in White Plains-Fanwood was also established. Soon after, Pennsylvania established Mount Airy School for the Deaf in 1820. Kentucky created The Kentucky School for the Deaf in Danville in 1823. The Virginia School for the Deaf in Staunton was founded in1838, and in Indiana, The Indiana School for the Deaf was fathered in 1843 (King, 2001).

Historically, residential schools were known as the very first educational programming facility in the United States responsible for the education of culturally deaf students (Quigley & Ketschmer 1982). The establishment of these public schools for the education of the culturally deaf began in the nineteenth century. There was no turning back in the field of deaf education (Bender, 1981).

While deaf education advanced in the nineteenth century, more and more opinions developed regarding the education of culturally deaf children. Today, education has become a way of living. This educational concept focuses on learning, highly curriculum based program, geared to the natural developmental progress of the child (Bender, 1981).

Both public and private residential schools offer educational and living facilities for their culturally deaf students with little or no specifications for inclusion with hearing students. One of the strongest foundations for the American culturally deaf community that birthed from the residential schools was a place where culturally deaf children could share a familiar language and similar experiences (Quigley & Ketschmer, 1982).

The main goal of these schools was for the culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing students to have frequent contact with each other in their own communication styles and culture. Traditionally, many residential schools' emphasis lies upon the vocational part of education. Usually these deaf students would receive training in printing, shoemaking, leathermaking, sewing, cabinetmaking, as well as other professions. Some time during the early 1900s, culturally deaf pupils could receive training in as many as 57 different occupations at some institutions. With the demands of the changing world, a number of larger culturally deaf schools created more diverse academic and technical courses that were somewhat similar to those in the public sector (King, 2001).

Quigley and Frisina (1961) investigated the consequences of institutionalization on the psychoeducational development of culturally deaf students. They evaluated 120 students who attended 6 residential schools as day students and 120 who attended the same schools as resident students. The results of the study showed that, the day students' performances revealed that speech intelligibility and speechreading scores was better and could be accredited to what the investigators named "oralness of the environment." The researchers reported that the study created no evidence that it was damaging to the development of culturally deaf students to live in residential schools. Also, noted in the

study was that there was no evidence that living in a residential school was in any way advantageous.

Karchmer and Petersen (1980) accumulated a collection of data by the Office of Demographic Studies from 1977-1978 Annual Survey of Hearing Impaired Children and Youth and from a 1974 special studies survey that studied similarities and differences between day and residential students. The study revealed that more day students were identified by teachers as having intelligible speech than those residential students, and the students living in residential school settings were less likely to wear hearing aids. However, there appeared to be no differences in the achievement scores of the two groups of students. These findings were very similar to those of the Quigley and Frisina study, which was conducted 20 years apart. As Quigley and Frisina reported, this difference in achievement scored were probably due to the fact that day students must function to a much greater extent with hearing people who are not able to communicate manually effectively, resulting with the deaf student having to rely more on speech (Quigley & Ketschmer, 1982). After the outcome of Quigley and Frisin's study was presented, the decision as to the kind of communication method to be used would be left completely up to each of the individual residential schools (Bender, 1981).

As the field of deaf education developed in the United States, a variety of teaching methods were used frequently. Initially, a combination of methods, particularly with oral and manual communication methods were widely employed. Some residential schools favored the "Rochester Experiment" promoted in 1878 by Z.F.Westervelt, at the Rochester School in New York. This method used fingerspelling along with the hand beside the face and oral speech given at the same time. Some residential schools

preferred this method because it offered two simultaneous approaches to English-lipreading and fingerspelling- with the hope that each approach would reinforce the other. Other schools would used signs and speech simultaneously in classroom environments, with the intention that the pupils might follow whichever method they found easier and could gain knowledge more quickly (Bender, 1981).

Traditionally, residential schools for the culturally deaf have been recognized as using a manual or simultaneous approach to the communication controversy (Quigley & Ketschmer, 1982). However, it is imperative to understand some common features of the manual and oral methods oddly enough contain some of the same basic principle. The "oral method" supports the idea that the most important guide for speech and language development is auditory and that the only input is fluent, connected speech. This oral method emphasizes the use of the auditory channel, even though much of its hearing sensitivity is reduced. It holds to the premise that oral speech and language competencies should be first acquired, which paves the way for the student's inclusion or "mainstreaming" (Bender, 1981).

The other method, best known as "Total Communication", derives from the foundation of the significance of early education. The principal characteristic of this method is that all forms of communication approaches are suggested from the beginning. It promotes the use of all manual forms of communications. Although some residential schools provide a choice of communication modes for instructional purposes, the choices appears to be leaning toward Total Communication (Bender, 1981).

In the past 50 years, the most significant developments in the education of deaf individuals have come primarily from enriched technology and secondarily from method

modifications. Today, most communication methods incorporate the usage of amplification, auditory training, reading, writing, and a wide host of audiovisual devices and techniques. Technology usage, however, does not distinguish the kind of method the deaf individual will adopt. The differentiation is determined by whether the student engages in oralism or some form of manual communication. The nature of the school environment will usually determine the communication methodology of that school (Quigley & Ketschmer, (1982).

The future of deaf education is improving each day. Due to scientific advancement techniques and increased professional and public awareness, hearing loss is coming to the forefront of doctors and educators much earlier. Advanced types of hearing aids give young children an opportunity to move toward sufficient hearing, participating in language and speech training at an early age can eliminate many problems of frustration and regression. Using amplification and enhancing the student's speech and language training can enhance the use of additional standard techniques and materials in teaching deaf children (Bender, 1981)

One of the newest influences in the education of deaf children is the introduction of cochlear implants. The implant, first authorized for usage in 1984, transports sounds from an external hearing aid to the auditory nerve. This surgical device is placed under the skin, at the base of the skull, slightly behind the ear,. The cochlear implants primary purpose is to function as the inner ear. Because the implant produces sounds that is different than those sounds that people with normal hearing hears, it is necessary to train the implanted individual to interpret these new sounds. Implanted individuals must have their implants mapped regularly the first few months after implantation to develop clarity

and volume adjustments. There have been more than 30,000 individuals who have been implanted with this device. As technology improves, the number of people selecting to be implanted will continue to increase (Bollag, 2006).

The early years of life are most advantageous for creating a solid foundation for the acquisition of communication and emotional maturation. The results of early development will more than likely determine the path of consequent formal education, its setting, its prominence on several modes of communication, the groundwork of its teachers, and its unmistakable goals (Bender, 1981)

The field of deaf education is more known for its difference of communication opinions than its achievements (Easterbrooks, 2001). In the past, disagreements about the appropriate way to communicate with culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing students have been the underlying disruption from the principal problem of deaf education, The main problem of deaf education is that regardless of the teachers' efforts, a majority of culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing students graduate from high school significantly undereducated (Bowe, 1988; Johnson, 2004).

The tragic truth of this matter is that this level of inadequate performance has persevered for such a long time that it has become accepted, and perhaps even expected, by a majority of deaf educators and administrators. While many documents have attempted to identify the essential learning needs of deaf and hard-of-hearing students (e.g., Bowe, 1988; Mackie, 1956), many professionals are increasingly recognizing that the ability of culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing students to achieve academic success is inevitably linked to the instructional effectiveness of their teachers (Johnson, 2004; Easterbrooks & Baker-Hawkins, 1995). Even though there has not been much research

reported in the field of educational administrators, teacher training, curriculum comparisons, or burnout among these educators (Meadow-Orlans, 2001).

Recently, there have been various educational trends developed in the field of deaf education. First, there has been a demographic shift in deaf education from residential schools to local public schools (Holden-Pitt & Diaz, 1998); secondly, a theoretical investigation for the better communication method which enriches the learning environments of culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing students (Siegel, 2000); and thirdly, an critical national awareness on the lack of trained teachers and administrators of deaf and hard-of-hearing students (Bradfield & Seagrest, 2001). The lack of research has resulted in a rising recognition of the need to examine, redesign how teachers and administrators are trained, and examine how culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing students are educated (Bugen, Innes, Randall, & Siegel, 2001).

According to Johnson 2004, the exact number of educators teaching deaf and hard-of-hearing students without the appropriate certification is unknown. However, the statistics for deaf education appear to be substantially high even though the overall figure for individuals teaching in special education without appropriate certification is 10% (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). In reviewing state programs, it was discovered that a number of states and territories do not offer a deaf education teacher preparation program (Johnson, 2004).

The constant shortage of teachers of the deaf and hard-of-hearing along with the frequent occurrence of individuals teaching deaf and hard-of-hearing students without appropriate certification or licensure have caused six southern states to enter into a unique communal agreement. Under the guidance and assistance of professionals from

the Southeast Regional Resource Center, state department representatives from Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Texas have signed an official memorandum of agreement on the preparation of teachers of deaf and hard-of-hearing students (Johnson, 2004).

According to Johnson 2004, these six states have agreed to collaborate on the design, funding, implementation, and evaluation of regional deaf education teacher preparation programs, rather than state-specific designs. Critical elements involving this collaborative effort requires the states to institute: (a) common certification requirements, (b) course requirements and descriptive, (c) shared recruitment and admission programs, (d) shared supervision strategies and resources, and (e) shared Web-based resources to support and enhance the initial and ongoing professional development of teachers of deaf and hard-of-hearing students. If successful, this developing regional model of deaf education teacher preparation may provide a professional and successful model for a national strategy to prepare and support the large number of teachers of deaf and hard-of-hearing students needed throughout the nation (Johnson, 2004).

The 1965 Babbidge report, frequently referred to as the first comprehensive examination of U.S. educational services for deaf and hard-of-hearing students, reported 52 recommendations to enhance deaf education. These recommendations offered guidance for professional development however did not indicate what professionals should be required to know or be able to perform. The findings can be used as a baseline for measuring subsequent progress (Bowe, 1988).

Reportedly, seven years later, the National Association of State Directors of Special Education (NASDSE) published a complete set of guidelines intended to fill this

professional knowledge void (Easterbrooks & Baker-Hawkins, 1995). The NASDSE guidelines provided 44 issues and numerous goal oriented statements about the foundations for educating students who are deaf or hard-of-hearing, supportive structures and administration, assessment, placement and program options, and personnel. The main intent of the NASDSE manuscript was to provide the state departments of education and educational programs for deaf and hard-of-hearing children with specific guidelines related to critical characteristics of effective educational programming for deaf and hard-of-hearing students (Johnson, 2004). With additional research studies, important information can assist with the identification and specification of the knowledge and skills needed for school administrators serving deaf and hard-of-hearing students.

<div align="center">Theoretical Framework</div>

The past 25 years have birthed many innovative conceptual models in the field of educational leadership and administration. Instructional Leadership, Transformational Leadership, and Situational Leadership are known as some of the leading leadership models of today (Hallinger, 2003).

Instructional Leadership models emerged in the early 1980s from experimental research on effective schools. The impact of the Instructional Leadership role of administrators must be recognized, however, it will by no means be the only role of the school administrator. Administrators participate in managerial, political, instructional, institutional, human resource and symbolic leadership roles in schools. The kind of instructional leadership behavior displayed by the school administrator should be adjusted to the needs of the school. The Instructional Leadership model does not require only the school administrator to provide the leadership in the school setting. The

leadership role can be shared by the teachers as well as the administrator. This model is rooted from a different motivational component than other models. Behavioral components, such as, individualized support, intellectual stimulation, and personal vision is all parts of the foundations. These components suggest that the model is grounded in understanding the needs of individual staff rather than the needs of the school's desired outcomes (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000).

During the initiation of school reconstruction in the 1990s, researchers and practitioners began to birth terms such as Shared Leadership, Teacher Leadership, Distributed Leadership, Transformational Leadership, and Situational Leadership. With the emergence of these new leadership models, many educators experience dissatisfaction with Instructional Leadership because the administrator was depicted as being the centre of expertise, power and authority. Rather than focusing exclusively on direct coordination, control, and supervision of curriculum and instruction, Transformational Leadership attempts to focus and support the development of organizational change in teaching and learning practices (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000).

According to Situational Leadership, there is not a one best way to influence people. This type of leadership presents leaders with some understanding of the relationship between an effective style of leadership and the maturity level of their followers (Blanchard, K.H., Gates, P.E., & Hersey, P. 1976).

Instructional Leadership

According to Hess (2004) important leadership decisions have been determined by teachers who do not hold administrative certificates, yet, hold only a willingness to engage in supervisory activities. Many of these teachers are capable at managing,

satisfying, and even training staff members; however, having sufficient experience or the qualifications to make challenging decisions about personnel or financial choices are lacking. Today, there is a narrow institutionalized perception of who can be an administrative leader. Districts generally rely too heavily on teaching experience and educational coursework and place little regard on managerial and decision-making abilities. Usually, before administrators can be licensed, they are required to have taught for three years, successfully completed graduate coursework, and engaged in an internship. In the 1980's, school pioneers adopted Instructional Leadership concepts recognizing that administrators and superintendents core focus was that of teaching and learning. Hess reports that significant job components for administrators and superintendents centers on monitoring, evaluating, mentoring, and supporting teachers. Instructional Leadership provides leadership in terms of these significant job components (Hess, 2004).

Campbell (1977) suggests that there was a greater need for Instructional Leadership in schools as individualized student's needs, understandings, and demands for different teaching method are expanded. The premise of Instructional Leadership is that it represents a diverse, professionally, trained persons charged with the responsibility of the school and the educational process. Instructional Leadership also includes those external groups and individuals who are supporters and owners of the schools.

The most commonly used concept of Instructional Leadership was developed by Hallinger (2003). This concept is characterized into three dimension of the Instructional Leadership theory: defining the school's mission, managing the instructional program, and promoting a positive school-learning climate. Defining the school's mission involves

all of the other dimensions, as well as outlines and communicates the school's goals. The dimension concerning the administrator's role ensures that the school has clear, measurable goals that are focused on the academic progress of its students. While this dimension does not assume that the administrator defines the school's mission independently, it does assume that the administrator's responsibility is to ensure that the school has a clear academic mission and that it is communicated to the faculty and staff (Hallinger, 2003).

The second dimension, managing the instructional program, specifically focuses on the coordination and control of instruction and curriculum. This dimension includes three leadership functions: supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. These functions require the administrator to be engaged in the school's instructional development. In larger school, it tends to be difficult for the administrator to be the only person involved in guiding the school's instructional program. Nevertheless, this dimension assumes that the administrator is the key leader responsible for the academic core development of the school (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

The third dimension describes a positive school learning climate (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). This dimension includes several functions: protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, maintaining high visibility, and providing learning incentives for teachers. This dimension is broader in scope and intent. It coincides with the concept that effective schools, through the development of high standards and expectations along with continuous improvement, can create an academic environment. The prime responsibility of Instructional Leadership is to align the standards and

practices with its mission of the school, which ultimately creates a climate that supports teaching and learning (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985) .

The implementation of Instructional Leadership must be restricted to the learning environments that closely involve the teacher. Eventhough the learning environments are generally school communities, they are influenced by organization structures, such as, the State Department of Education. Because of the diversity found in school populations, the demographical areas, and the topography, it is difficult to agree on the criteria and standards that must be placed for minimal assurance for local learning environments. Being a part of the learning environment demands the instructional leaders to be the translators of district wide goals of the school system (Hess, 2004).

An instructional leader, according to Andrews, Basom, and Basom, (1991), focuses less on doing things right and more on doing the things that can help improve student achievement. Increasing student achievement requires more than the usual tactics, strategies, and processes of supervision. In high student achievement schools, the building level administrator possesses a vision of what the school can become. Because a trusting relationship saturates the interactions of the school, the school administrator is capable of getting the school community to accept that vision as their own. A strong instructional leader secures the role of leadership from those individuals who are being supervised.

Hess (2004) proclaims that a successful instructional leaders' plan should include all of the educational knowledge and expertise the leader possesses. This planning should include the teacher and the participation of the school community. Hess also believes that today's effective school leaders are successful regardless of the job duties

required. These leaders are successful because of strong personalities, a great deal of energy, and/or the possession of creativity allowing the ability to work around the standard procedures and arrangements. In successful schools where students are doing well, faculty members are engaged and competent management practices are established. But in less successful schools marked by disordered conditions or weak morale, it might be necessary to repair the organization before a traditional instructional leader be placed. Research indicates that every school is in need of a person to take responsibility for assisting teachers improve the curriculum and instruction, but since most schools have a number of faculty members who can potentially fulfill this role, it is not mandatory that the administrators solely accept this role entirely.

According to Hess (2004), there are two major problems identified with Instructional Leadership. First, teachers have worked and learned the school culture and routines of public education. This experience can be tremendously helpful for a leader. However, it can cause leaders to perform slowly on necessary actions. This is particularly true when the administrator and district officials are drawn from the ranks of people who have taught in that very school system. Secondly, many skills can be developed from classroom instruction; unfortunately, those skills are not necessarily suited to managing a staff, a leadership team, or a budget.

Sweeney (2001) believes that with commitment, administrators can make a difference. It takes commitment on the part of training institutions, Boards of Education and superintendents to render a plan that implements the purpose of education is student achievement. But more importantly, it demands the professional commitment of those administrators responsible for student learning-commitment to the belief that all students

can learn, and most of all commitment to the belief that the administrator can make a difference.

Transformational Leadership

Brown & Keeping (2005, p. 246) defines Transformational Leadership as "a leader's ability to articulate a shared vision of the future, intellectually stimulate employees, and attend to individual differences in employees". Leithwood & Jantzi (2000) considers Transformational Leadership as a type of shared or distributed leadership rather than an individual administrator coordinating and controlling all participants. They have declared that Transformational Leadership focuses on motivating change through bottom-up participation.

Transformational leaders generate learning environment where teachers can continuously engage with each other. Transformational leaders work with others to identify personal goals and to link these goals to broader organizational aspirations in the school community. This approach has been known to increase commitment of staff members who realizes the importance of the connection between the relationship between their accomplishments and the mission of the school (Jackson, 2000).

Leithwood and Jantzi (1996) have identified different targeted effects for administrative leadership in a study of Transformational Leadership. The target states:

> Transformational Leadership had strong direct effects on school conditions (.80) which, in turn, had strong direct effects on classroom conditions (.62). Together, Transformational Leadership and school conditions explain 17% of the variation in classroom conditions, even though the direct effects of Transformational Leadership on classroom conditions are negative and non significant. Transformational Leadership has a weak (.17) but statistically significant effect on student identification: its effects on student participation are not significant. (p. 467).

According to Bass (1990), researchers have identified four dimensions of Transformational Leadership. The first dimension is known as charisma or idealized influence, which portrays leaders who have high standards of moral and ethical conduct, as strong role models for followers. These followers generally develop a sense of trust and respect for such leaders. The second dimension can be labeled an individual consideration. These leaders consider each follower as individuals who need coaching, teaching, and continuous feedback. The third dimension is characterized as intellectual stimulation. Followers of this dimension are provided with new stimulating, motivating ideas which encourages them to think in new innovative ways and challenge their own beliefs and values, as well as those beliefs and values of other leaders and organizations. The final dimension is labeled inspiration. Inspirational leaders perform as models for subordinates by motivating, inspiring, and providing meaningful and challenging tasks, which as a result will motivate the followers to transcend their own self-interest (Cremer, D., Duke, M.V., & Bos, A.E.R. (2007).

Sheppard (1996) proclaims there are many similarities between the Instructional and Transformation models. Both models primary focuses on creating a shared sense of purpose in the school, developing a climate of high expectations, the school culture focuses on improving teaching and learning, the reward structure of the school reflects the goals set for staff and students, organize and provide a wide range of activities to enhance intellectual stimulation and development for staff and requires the administrator to be a visible in the school, to model the values that are being fostered. These similarities provide useful information for any administrator who desires to reflect upon his/her leadership. Theoretical differences of Instructional and Transformation models were the

target of change, the degree to which the administrator stresses coordination and control strategy, as well as the degree to which leadership is located in an individual. Research suggests that strong Transformational Leadership is essential in supporting the commitment of teachers. Since teachers can hinder the development of leadership, transformational administrators are needed to encourage teachers to share in the leadership functions. Teachers expect administrators' behaviors to be appropriate, to grow in commitment and professional involvement, and to be innovated (Sheppard, 1996).

Thus, Instructional Leadership can be transformational according to (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). Administrators who share in the leadership responsibilities with others would be less subject to burnout than administrators who attempt the challenges and complexities of leadership responsibilities alone. When the administrators demand high levels of commitment and professionalism and works cooperatively with teachers in a shared Instructional Leadership function, schools have the advantage of integrated leadership; resulting in organizations that learn and perform at superior levels (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000).

Successful leaders can be categorized as those individuals who can adapt their behavior to meet the demands of their own particular environment. This theory emerged from earlier leadership models that were based on two types of behavior, task and relationship, which are essential to the concept of leadership. Task behavior is the level of one-way communication the leader engages in by explaining what each subordinate is to do as well as when, where, and how specific tasks are to be accomplished.

Relationship behavior is the extent in which a leader, though one-way communication, provides socio-emotional support. (Blanchard, Gates, & Hersey, 1976).

Situational Leadership

According to Situational Leadership, there is not a specified best way to influence people. The leadership style a person should use with individuals or groups will depend on the maturity level of the people the leader is trying to influence. In Situational Leadership, the definition of maturity is the ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for controlling their own behavior. The variables of maturity should be regarded only when there are specific tasks to be addressed. An individual or a group is not considered mature or immature entirely, however, persons tend to be more or less mature in relation to a specific task, function, or objective that a leader is attempting to accomplish through their efforts (Blanchard, Gates, & Hersey, 1976).

Situational Leadership is based on a relationship among (1) the amount of guidance and direction (task behavior) a leader gives; (2) the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides; and (3) the readiness ("maturity") level that followers demonstrate in performing a specific task, function or objective. This concept was developed to help people to be more effective in their daily interactions with others when attempting leadership duties regardless of their role (Blanchard, Gates, & Hersey, 1976).

Situational Leadership presents leaders with some understanding of the relationship between an effective style of leadership and the maturity level of their followers. Thus, while situational variables, such as, the leader, follower(s), superior(s), associates, organization, job demands, and time are important, the emphasis in Situational

Leadership is on the behavior of a leader in relation to followers. The main concept to Situational Leadership is to evaluate the maturity level of the follower(s) and to perform as the model prescribes. Situational Leadership embeds the belief that a leader should help followers advance in maturity as far as they are able and willing to go (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Situational Leadership contends that if immature followers are to become productive, strong direction (task behavior) is required. An increase in maturity on the part of immature people should be rewarded by increasing positive reinforcement and socio-emotional support (relationship behavior). Finally, as immature followers reach high levels of maturity, the leader should decrease control over their activities, as well as, decrease relationship behaviors. With the very mature followers, the need for socio-emotional support is not as important as the need for independence. At this stage, leaders can demonstrate their confidence and trust in highly mature people by leaving them more and more to perform on their own. Regardless of the maturity level of an individual or group, change is inevitable. One major factor emphasized about Situational Leadership is the focus on the appropriateness or effectiveness of leadership styles according to the task-relevant maturity of the followers (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

The diversity associated with the administrative demands requires today's educational administrator to be an adaptive leader. This leader, regardless of the situation, can be described as one who varies his leadership behavior in an appropriate manner (Blanchard & Hersey, 2001). Successfully, these leaders can adapt their behavior to meet the demands of their own unique environment (Blanchard, Gates, & Hersey,

1976). Therefore, it is assumed that there is not a single model that leaders can use in all situations when considering leadership models (Allbright, 2001).

Truth and reality do not necessarily induce behavior. It is the perception of others about a leader's power that gives that leader the ability to encourage compliance or influence behavior. Thus, an individual's power base must be recognized by others before it can efficiently be used. Therefore, before leaders can successfully influence the behavior of others, information is needed about the perception others have of the leader's power sources. Also it is imperative for leaders to convey to others the power they actually possess (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Therefore, to understand leadership theories, one must fully understand the behavioral theories on which they are based (Allbright, 2001). The most fundamental model for human motivation is Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Heylighten, 1992). Maslow created a belief that required satisfaction of low level needs before the satisfaction of higher levels. The Maslow's Need-Satisfaction Model involves that of: physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization (Heylighten, 1992). Maslow sited that the lower level needs are more pressing and critical. If this lower level is not satisfied, the needs come into play as the foundation and objective of the person. A hierarchy of higher needs can become a motive of behavior for a person only when the lower needs have been satisfied. Unsatisfied lower needs will overshadow unsatisfied higher needs and must be satisfied before the person can ascend the hierarchy (Allbright, 2001).

One of the utmost supporters of Maslow was Douglas McGregor. He is the philosopher that birthed the Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X basically states that

individuals have an innate dislike for work and will avoid work whenever possible. The management's role in this theory is to coerce and control the employee (Allbright, 2001). Theory Y states that individual's work is a natural process. The management's role for this theory is to expand the potential in employees and assist them to release that potential in the direction of common goals (Allbright, 2001).

Fredrick Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation states that a single dimension does not govern motivation. This theory of motivation is comprised of two separate, independent factors and is described as a hierarchy of needs. These independent factors are motivation factors, which lead to motivational (satisfiers) and maintenance (dissatisfies) factors. Both motivational and maintenance factors must be stipulated so that motivation can occur (Allbright, 2001)

Marshall (1990) declared that power perceptions induce people to respond ardently to the demands of a leader. He developed a diagram for describing power relationships. When the leader's behavior is subtle, the power motive has low congruence and the intensity of the power base is light. When low congruence occurs of the power motive and there is heavy intensity of the power base, the leadership's style is that of the Theory-X Dictator. Heavy intensity indicates a Theory-Y style, better known as the Benevolent Dictator. High congruence on the power motive and light intensity on the power-base scale usually indicates a Theory-Z leader who is well respected.

The chief theoretical foundation for most research in social power derives from the work of French and Raven (1959). These theorists identified the major types (bases) of power and defined the power basis systematically. Comparisons were allowed based on the changes and the effects that are associated with the use of power. French and

Raven identified the basis of power as the connector between the person, P, and a social

agent, O. The relationship between O and P, known as the bases of power, is

characterized by several qualitatively different variables. Originally, five bases of power

were identified: (1) reward power, (2) coercive power, (3) legitimate power, (4) referent

power, and (5) expert power.

Raven and Kruglanski (1975) identified a sixth power base called the information

power. This sixth power is based on the opinion that the leader has information that is

significant to others. This is different from expert power, which is the understanding of

or ability to use data. In 1979, a seventh power base known as the connection power was

identified. This power is based on the perception that the leader has relations with

prominent people either inside or outside the organization (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).
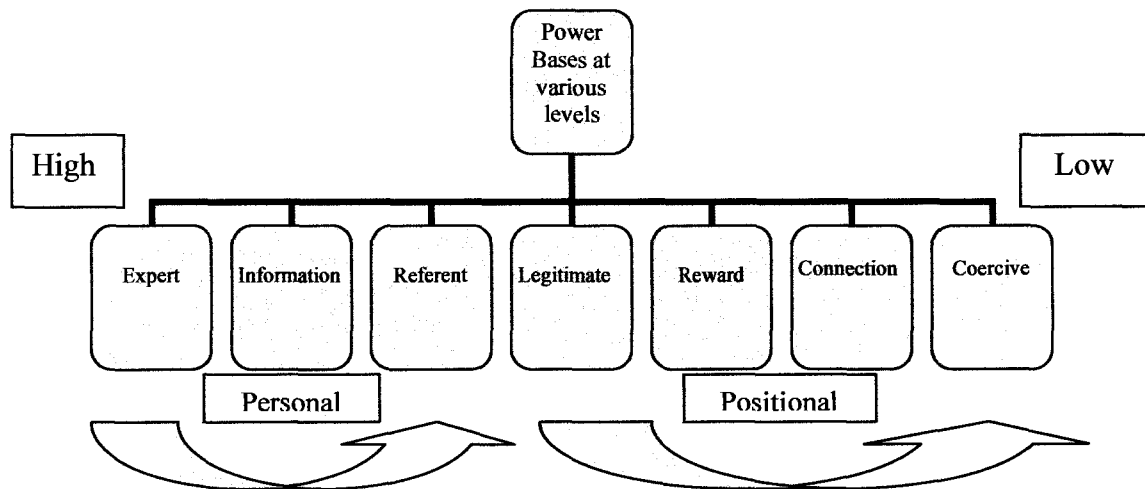
The Perception of Power

Prior to 1980, there was little research on the use of power in the administration of

organizations (Kotter, 1979). It has been well noted that power is the crucial component

of all human relationships and since power is known for producing a dichotomy of

reactions, people tend to have indecisive feelings about it (King & Glidewell, 1976). In the economic and political arenas, leaders must have power to lead. Conversely, many people perceive power as a negative force, relative to exploitation, manipulation, and corruption (Kotter, 1979).

> Power is an ugly word. It connotes dominance and submission, control and acquiescence, one man's [or woman's] will at the expense of another man's [or woman's] self esteem.... Yet it is power, the ability to control and influence others, that provides the basis for the direction of organizations and for the attainment of social goals. Leadership is the exercise of power (Zaleznik & Kets de Vries, 1975, p.3).

However, not all power is viewed as negative. Etzioni (1961) perceived power as the ability to influence others. Kotter (1979) defined power as a "measure of a person's potential to get others to do what he or she wants them to do, as well as to avoid being forced by others to do what he or she does not want to do" (p.xi). McClelland (1973) argued that two factors epitomize the power motive. One facet entails the motivation to prevail over active challengers for the convenient reason of winning. The other facet of the power motive is described in the concept of exercising power to apparently benefit others. This last facet is usually accompanied by a feelings of great ambivalence about the actual possession of such power, and about the nagging doubts about the moral issues instinctive in forcing one's will on others.

Previous Studies

Prior to 1980, not much research was found in the literature on the use of power in the administration arena (Kotter, 1979). Beckman (1992) reported on a study conducted on state residential schools for the culturally Deaf and residential schools for the culturally Deaf and Blind in the United States in regards to their organizational strategy-type, structure, and effectiveness. This study reviewed residential schools for

the culturally Deaf and Blind from a historical point of view, reexamining the influences and the significant changes that have transpired since the establishment of these American culturally deaf schools. This study entailed 38 chief administrators with professional experience ranging from one to twenty-four years. Twenty-one of these chief administrators had four years of experience or less as the chief administrator. One determining factor for participation in this study required the chief administrator to have at least one year of experience at their current school. There were two additional criteria for participation, first, the school must have had residential students and must receive state funds. Forty-eight residential schools met this criterion. Furthermore, this study collected information on the subject of classroom teacher-to-student ratios, funding sources, organizational strategy-type, structure, and effectiveness. The recommendation was that chief administrators use the strategy-type literature to develop more knowledge about the peripheral environment and strategy and their relationship to the residential school's internal construction (Beckman, 1992).

Another study conducted by Alexander (1995) concerning conflict management style of administrators in schools for the culturally deaf was limited to principals, directors, or superintendents at residential schools for the culturally deaf in America. Most of these participants were predominately male. Administrators in the study were reported to have understandable preferences for the use of the collaborating and compromising styles. These preferences were positively linked with teacher job satisfaction and employee performance. The teachers were asked to report on only the principals that participated in the study. The teachers credited better use of competing and avoiding styles to the participating principals than the principals accredited to

themselves. Alexander opposed that being aware of other's perceptions can be a central part of channeling the administrators' approach in handling interpersonal conflict. Ironically, this study reported that many administrators did not handle conflict any differently regardless if they were or were not trained in conflict management. Alexander explained this phenomenon by suggesting that the results are due mainly to conflict management training than administrative practices. It was documented in this study that whenever there were communication difficulties between culturally deaf administrators and hearing teachers, the deaf administrators may have a tendency to exercise exuberant control over the situation and utilize assertive conflict styles. This explanation suggests that administrators at residential schools for the culturally deaf may require conflict management training emphasis on cross-cultural considerations (Alexander, 1995).

Royster (1995) investigated perceptions of power bases used by line administrators of schools providing education services for deaf and hard-of-hearing students. This study included all state operated and supported schools for the culturally deaf, as well as private schools for the deaf with an enrollment populations of 100 or more students listed in the 1993 April edition of the *American Annals of the Deaf*. The detailed population investigation consisted of line administrators, i.e., superintendents, headmasters, and executive directors from the preferred schools and the members of their management teams.

Royster (1995) investigated expert, informational, and referent power under the fundamental division of personal power, in addition to coercive, connection, legitimate and reward power under the other basic division of position power. Effective leaders gain personal power and develop positional power to maximize their influence potential

(Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). Both positional and personal powers directly affect one another. However, for school administrator's to lead adequately, it is necessary to exhibit personal power not positional power.

The major finding of Royster's (1995) study is that administrators perceive themselves as high users of the personal power bases: expert, information, and referent. Also, the administrators rated themselves high on two of the positional power bases: legitimate and reward. The findings supported the belief that administrators of schools for the culturally deaf have the qualities and competencies necessary to influence others and ineffectively effect change. It was also noted that the administrators did not rate themselves high on the coercive or connectional power bases. Royster reported that when connectional power is not used, it causes a disadvantage in residential schools today since these schools are not self-governed independent schools.

Having to succeed in today's world takes more than simply having good management skills. It takes a special kind of leader to be able to motivate, inspire, and develop people effectively (Singleton, 1994). For purposes of this study, the main point was not on how much power a principal actually has, instead, it focused on how the superintendent and academic teachers perceive that power, which allowed the principal to influence others (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

CHAPTER III

METHOD

The objectives of this study first, identified and analyzed the self-perceived power

bases used by principals in residential schools for the culturally Deaf located in the south

region area of United States, as measured by responses on the Power Perception Profile-

Perception of Self (Hersey and Natemeyer, 2004). Second, the study analyzed the

perceptions of the superintendents and the academic teachers regarding the principals'

power bases, using responses measured by the Power Perception Profile-Perception of

Other (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2002). Third, two questionnaires (one for the

superintendent and the principals and one for the academic teachers) were used to gather

demographic data (See Appendixes A and B). This demographic data will identify

profiles for the residential schools, as well as recognized specific characteristics related

exclusively to the administrators.

Target Population

The population for this study was drawn from eighteen (18) southern region states

in the United States. These were state operated and supported residential schools for the

culturally Deaf with populations of 75 students or more. These schools were identified

on the July, 2007 website of *The American Annals of the Deaf*, which listed all the known

schools and programs for deaf and hard-of-hearing students in the United States and its

locations that replied to the annual survey. The population of the study consisted of

approximately 20 superintendents, nearly 40 principals, and almost 60 academic teachers

of these schools.

Table 1

Calendar of Events in Carrying Out the Study

Date	Action
October, 2007	Letter sent to Institutional Review Board (IRB) for approval (See Appendix E).
December, 2007	Instruments ordered.
December, 2007	Letter with postage paid self-addressed envelope and Power Perception Profile-Profile of Self sent to Superintendent inviting their participation in the study (See Appendix D).
December, 2007	Instruments, questionnaires sent to superintendents for distribution to principals and academic teachers.
February, 2008	Data coded and entered as received.
March, 2008	Data analysis.

Procedures and Data Collection

The following procedures were used for data collection:

1. The names of administrators of state operated and supported schools for the culturally deaf with student populations of 75 or more was obtained from the July, 2007 website of *The American Annals of the Deaf.*

2. Each superintendent was sent a consent letter requesting permission to participate in the study (Appendix D).

3. Each superintendent was sent a packet which included: (a) a copy of the consent letter giving permission for participation in the study (See Appendix C), (b) the Demographic Questionnaires (See Appendix A and B), (c) the Power Perception Profile—Profile of Self (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2004), (d) the Power Perception Profile—Profile of Other (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2002), and (e) stamped, self-addressed envelopes in which to return the completed instrument and questionnaire. A letter was provided explaining the procedures, reasons for the study, and assurance of its complete confidentiality (See Appendixes C and F).

Description of the Instrument

Two instruments, The Power Perception Profile, Perception of Self (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2002) and The Power Perception Profile, Perception of Other (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2004) was used for this study. Copies of the instruments were purchased from the Center for Leadership Studies, which is located in Escondido, California. In addition to the profiles, two different demographic questionnaires were sent: one for the superintendent and the principals and one for the academic teachers (See Appendixes A and B).

The Power Perception Profile, Perception of Self and the Power Perception Profile, Perception of Other contains 21 forced choice pairs of statements showing evidence of one of the seven sources of power. The statements are focused on motives often referred to when people are asked why they do the things that a leader asks them to do (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2002).

Each respondent was asked to assign a total of three points between each pair of choices. They were to judge the importance of each statement within the pair and distribute the points between the first and second item using one of the four following possibilities (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2002):

3
0

0
3

1
2

2
1

Most forced-choice instruments only compare items or categories and do not show perceptions of the overall scope of the concept. In order to rectify this disadvantage, the authors of the instrument require the respondents to compare the leader with other leaders they have known, regarding the seven power bases (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

In addition to the two instruments mentioned above, two questionnaires (one for the administrators and one for the academic teachers) were disseminated to the residential schools for the Deaf to gather demographic data (See Appendixes A and B). The administrators' questionnaire requested information about age, gender, hearing status, years of experience, the number of years in administration, and the number of academic workshops attended in the last set of years. Also, the demographic survey asked the administrator for the type of degree earned either in educational administrator or special education administration (See Appendix B). The questionnaire for the academic teachers requested information about age, gender, hearing status, number of years of experience

with their present administrator, and number of years in the current position (See Appendixes A).

Validity and Reliability

Information and documentation concerning the validity and reliability of the two instruments was not available from the distributor. The Power Perception Profile was developed to be used in training situations, not specifically for individual diagnostic or research purposes. There have been several researchers, however, have performed their own tests of reliability prior to using the Profile for their research instrument (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2002).

Stotts (1988) conducted a test/retest of the Power Perception Profile—Perception of Self, with 25 members of management teams, on two different dates one month apart. The results of Stotts' study (1988) showed a relatively high degree of reliability (above .80) on coercive, connection, expert, and legitimate, which are four of the seven power bases. The information (.69), referent (.74), and reward (.76) revealed low to moderate reliability.

Isele (1988) conducted a pilot study using the Power Perception Profile—Perception of Self to test the instrument's reliability with 30 male and female graduate students in Ohio University's College of Education. The test and retest were administered at two-week intervals, acquiring the reliability scores:

Power Bases	Reliability Scores
Coercive	.88
Connection	.79
Expert	.94

Information	.86
Legitimate	.84
Reward	.66

The reliability score of the referent power base results were not reported by Isele. However, results for the expert, coercive, information, and legitimate power bases were found to be most reliable. The reward power base was found to be the least reliable (Isele, 1988).

Delaney (1980) conducted a test of content validity using the Power Perception Profile. A group of 22 judges, who were experts from business, industry, and academia, were asked to assess the content validity of both types of the instrument. Those judges matched the descriptions and definitions found in the Power Perception Profiles. They were divided into two panels of 11 judges each permitting comparison of results between the two groups.

In examining the results of both groups of judges, it was found that the judges were not in total agreement on any of the categories. Group One of the judges had an agreement of 79 percent and Group Two had a 75 percent agreement in matching definitions to the seven power base categories. The validity of the legitimate power base was extremely high. The validity of the information and expert bases were moderately high. The results indicated the coercive, connection, and reward power bases generating evidence of moderate validity, and the referent power base showed to have a low validity rating. Thus, based on the percentage of agreement with each power base between the two groups of judges. The overall estimate of content validity was moderate.

Analysis of Data

Data obtained from the returned instruments and questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS software. Superintendents (S) were identified as SA or SB. The letters A and B identifies which principal the superintendent is evaluating. Principals (P) were identified with the letters PA or PB code, the letters A and B distinguishes the principals. The academic teachers were identified by the letters T1A, T2B, T3A, etc. The number signifies which teacher. The letter A correlates with the specific principal.

CHAPTER 1V

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

This study examined the power base perceptions perceived to be used by administrators and academic teachers in residential schools for the Deaf in the south area of the United States. A demographic questionnaire (See Appendixes A and B) and the Power Perception Profile-Perception of Others (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2004) were sent to 18 superintendents and 175 academic teachers of state operated and supported residential school for the Deaf that have a total population of over 75 students, as listed on the July, 2007 website of *The American Annals of the Deaf.* Also, principals of residential schools for the Deaf were distributed a demographic questionnaire (See Appendix B) and the Power Perception Profile—Perception of Self (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2002).

The wintry weather of 2008 was a challenging time for any residential school for the Deaf located in the southern region area of the states. During this period, many schools were closed due to inclement weather; therefore a high percentage of the sampling population did not report their results in the allotted timeline. There were three schools that reported not having a superintendent; therefore, the schools chose not to participate in the study. This administrative instability may have caused negative influences on the response rate.

Results of the Study

The results of the study are presented under each of the seven research questions.

Research Question 1

What are the distinctive power bases perceived to be used by principals of

residential schools for the Deaf?

Descriptive statistics were used to find the mean and standard deviation of each of

the seven power base. Analysis of the data (See Table 2) revealed that principals had

high scores in the personal power sources: referent (11.81), expert (11.27), information

(11.18) and in two of the positional sources: connection (8.90), and legitimate (8.81).

Table 2

Principals' Perceptions of their Power Base Use

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Personal Power				
Referent	8.00	15.00	11.81	1.88
Expert	5.00	14.00	11.27	2.49
Information	9.00	15.00	11.18	1.99
Positional Power				
Connection	4.00	12.00	8.90	2.66
Legitimate	7.00	13.00	8.81	1.77
Reward	2.00	8.00	5.54	2.06
Coercive	1.00	10.00	5.45	2.50

Meaning, as high scorers on the referent power base, principals perceived themselves as being well liked and admired by others which induces compliance. High scorers on the expert power base implies the principals saw themselves as having the skills and knowledge needed to influence others. As high scorers on the information power base, principals perceived themselves as having worthwhile information or access to information that others would consider beneficial. The legitimate power base score suggest the principals viewed themselves as possessing the power to make decisions based on title or status. The connection power base score implied that the principals viewed themselves as having the ability to influence others because of their connection with influential persons. A score of 5.45 was reported for the coercive power base. The lower score on the coercive power base suggests that principals did not perceive themselves as having the ability to influence by means of punishment.

Research Question 2

What are the current demographic variables for the superintendents, principals, and academic teachers for the residential schools for the Deaf?

Of the questionnaires sent to 35 principals of residential schools for the Deaf, 11 (31%) were returned. The principals ranged in age from 30 to 60 years of age. Six of the principals (54%) were between the ages of 35 and 49. Of the questionnaires sent to 18 superintendents of residential schools for the Deaf, 3 (17%) were complete. The superintendents ranged in age from 50 to 59 years of age. Two of the superintendents were (40%) between the ages of 55 and 59. Of the questionnaires sent to 175 teachers of residential schools for the Deaf, 53 (30%) were returned. The teachers ranged in age from 25 to over 60 years of age. Fifteen of the teachers (28%) were between the ages of 25

and 29. Six teachers (11%) were 30 – 34 years of age, another six were 35 – 39 years,

one teacher (2%) was 40 – 44, five (9%) were 45 – 49 years old, nine teachers (17%)

were 50 – 54, six teachers (11%) reported being 50 – 54, and three teachers (6%) reported

being over 60 years of age (See Figure 1).

Figure 1. Age Distribution of Principals, Superintendents, and Academic Teachers
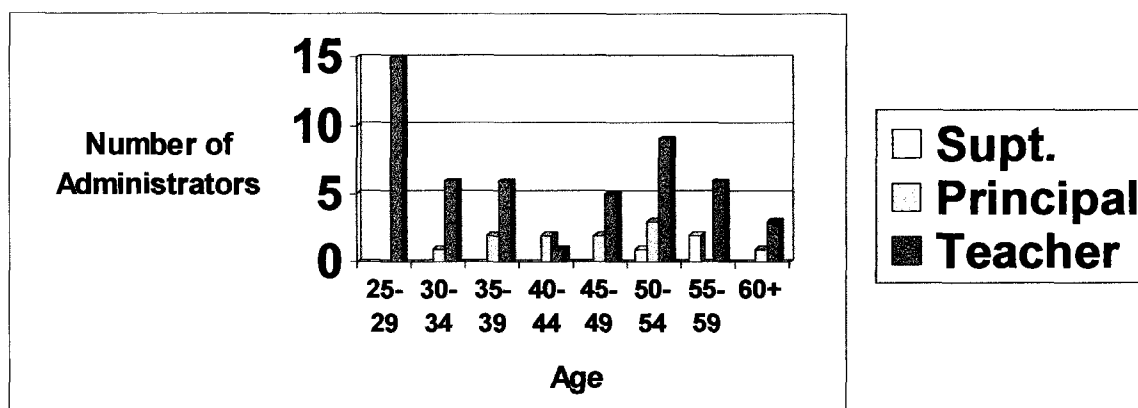
Most of the principals (73%) responding were females and all of them (100%)

were hearing. Of the superintendents responding, all (100%) were females and hearing.

Nearly all (83%) of the teachers responding were females. Forty-two of the teachers

(79%) were hearing (See Figures 2 and 3).

Figure 2. Gender Distribution of Principals, Superintendents, and Academic Teachers

Superintendents

2, 40%

3, 60%

□ male
□ female

Teachers

7, 14%

44, 86%

□ male
□ female
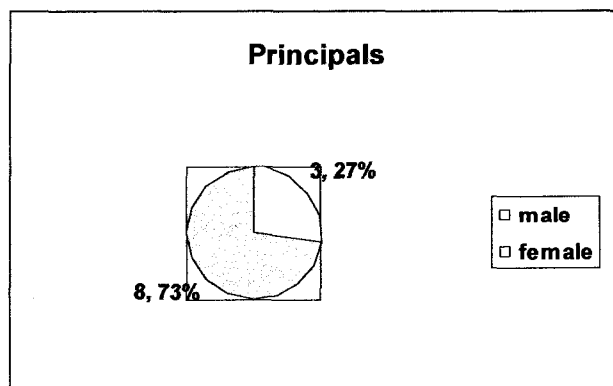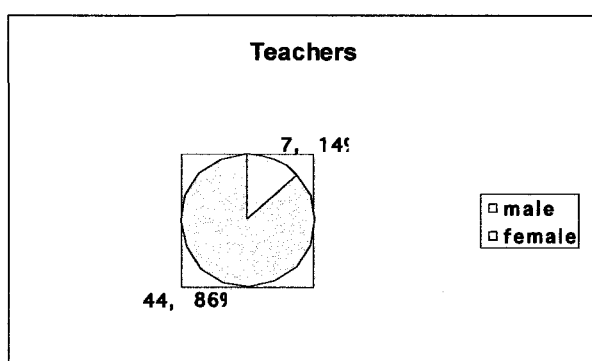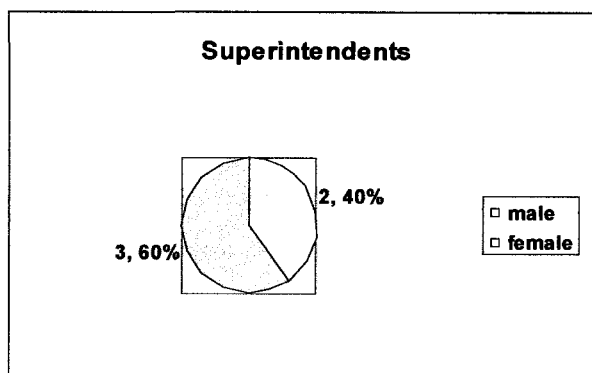
Figure 3. Hearing Distribution of Principals, Administrators, and Teachers

Principals

0, 0%

, 0%

11, 100%

□ hearing
□ deaf
▩ missing

Superintendents

2, 40%

0, 0%

3, 60%

□ hearing
□ deaf
▩ missing

Teachers

2, 4%

9, 17%

42, 79%

□ hearing
□ deaf
▩ missing
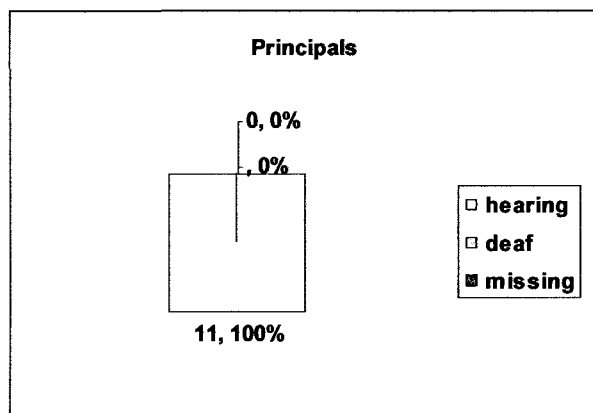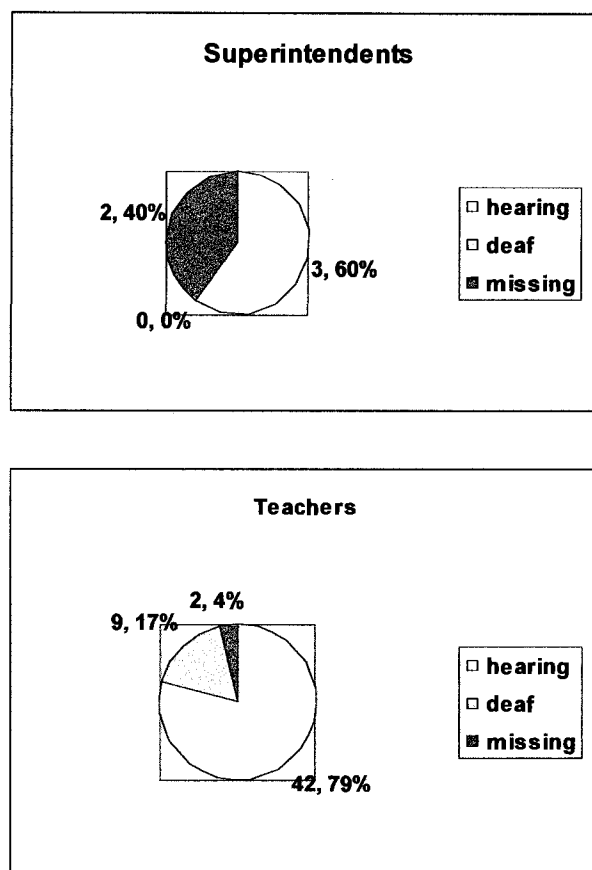
When asked the number of years of administrative experience, four of the

principals (36%) had less than five years, six principals (54%) fell between 5 – 15 years,

and one principal had over 20 years. Two of the superintendents (40%) had 10 - 15 years

and one ranged between 20 – 25 years (See Figure 4).

Figure 4. Years of Administration Experience Distribution of Administrators

□ Superintendent
□ Principal

25+
20-25
15-20
10-15
5-10
<5

0   1   2   3   4   5
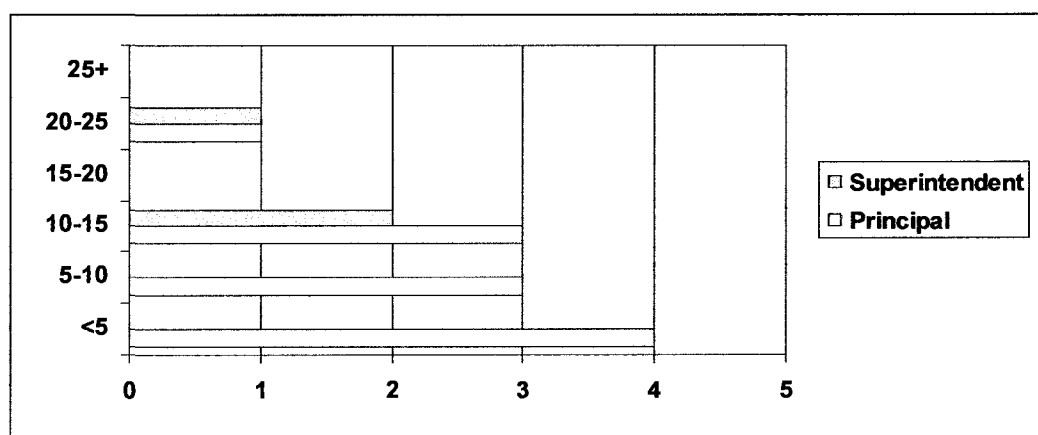
Of the number of principals attending workshops/in-services, five (46%) reported

to have participated in a workshop/in-service within the last 5-10 years, one (9%)

reported having attended an administrative workshop within 10-15 years, another one

(9%) reported having attended a workshop within 20 – 25 years, while four (36%)

reported having attended a workshop within 15-20 years. All of the superintendents

(100%) reported participated in a workshop/in-service within the last 25 years

(See Figure 5).

Figure 5. Workshop Distribution of Administrators
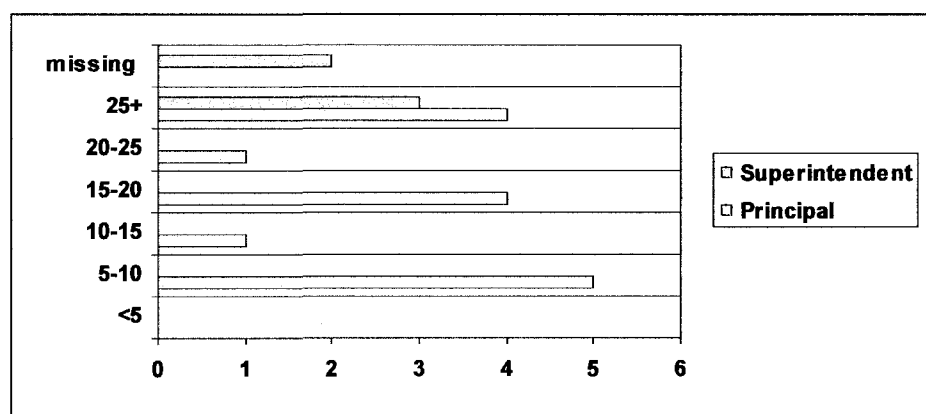
Of the number of principals reported enrolling in educational administrative

classes, six (54%) attended classes in the last 15 years, one principal (9%) attended a

class within 15 – 20 years, two principals (18%) went to school in the last 25 years, and

one (9%) was enrolled in a class over 25 years ago. As for the superintendents enrolled

in educational administrative classes, one attended classes in the last 10 – 15 years, one

attended a class within 20 – 25 years, and one was enrolled in a class over 25 years ago

(See Figure 6).

Figure 6. Classes Distribution of Administrators
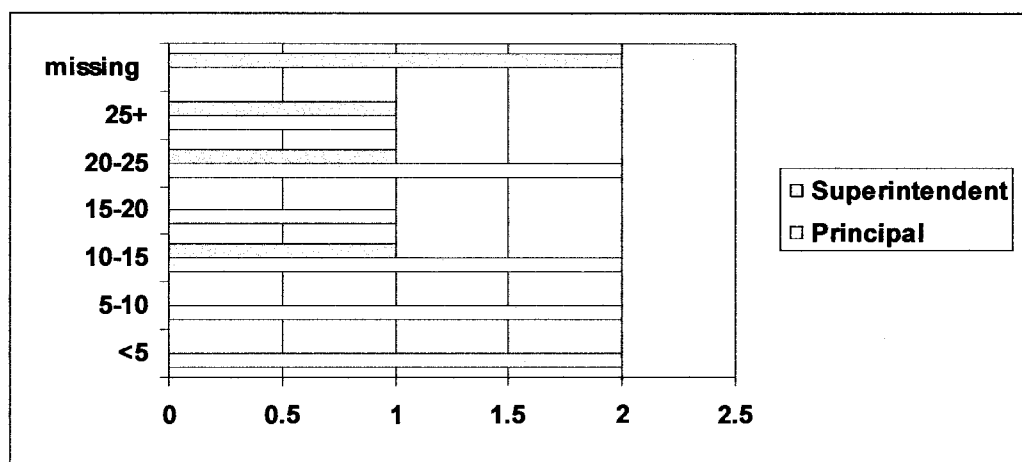
When asked of the type of administrative degree held, only 8 principals

responded. Of those eight, 64 percent of the principals held a master's degree in

educational administration and nine percent held a specialist degree in administration.

One superintendent held a master's degree in educational administration, one held a

doctorate degree in administration, and one held a doctorate degree in special education

administration (See Figure 7).

Figure 7. Degree Distribution of Administrators

Superintendents
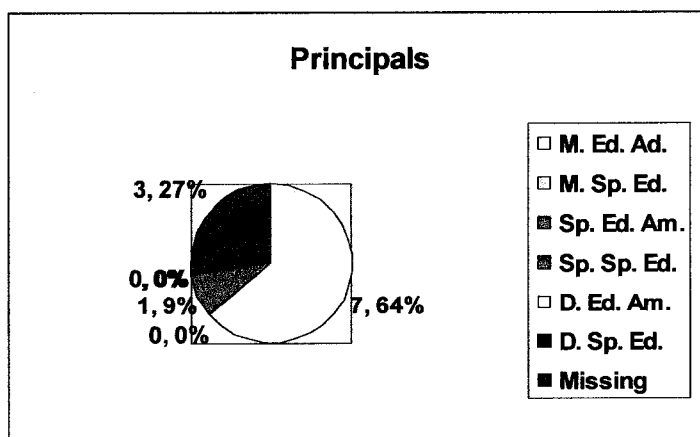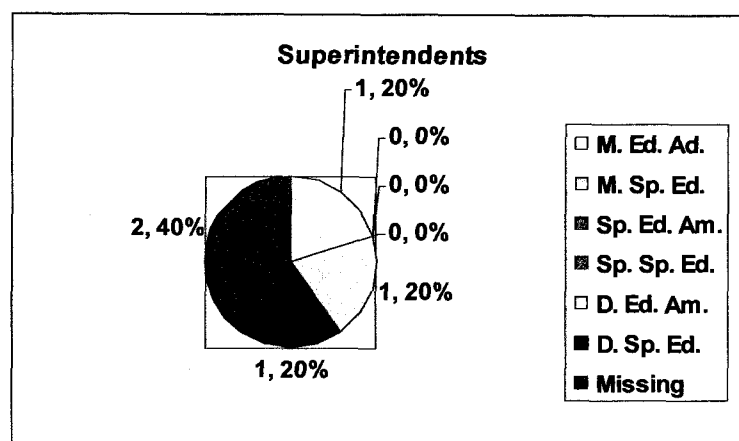
Relative to academic teachers only, when asked the number of years of current position, eighteen of the teachers (34%) had less than five years, ten teachers (19%) fell between 5 – 10 years, six teachers (11%) had 10 – 15 years, seven teacher (13%) reported 15 – 20 years, two teachers (4%) had 20 – 25 years, and eight of the teachers (15%) had over 25 years of experience (See Figure 8).

Figure 8. Years of Current Position Distribution of Academic Teachers
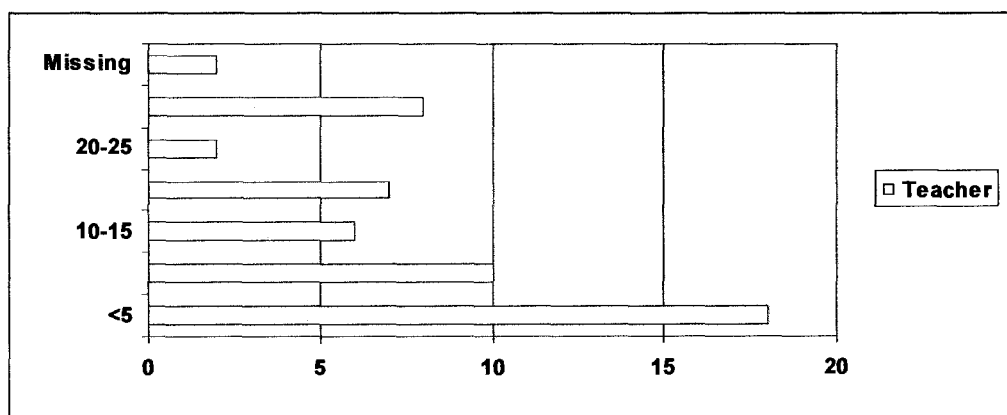
Of the number of years of experience with current administrator, twenty-nine (55%) of the teachers reported less that 5 years of experience, fifteen teachers (28%) reported 5 – 10 years, three teachers (6%) reported 10 – 15 years, another three teachers reported 15 – 20 years, and only one teacher (2%) reported more than 25 years of experience (See Figure 9).

Figure 9. Years of Experience with Principal Distribution of Academic Teachers
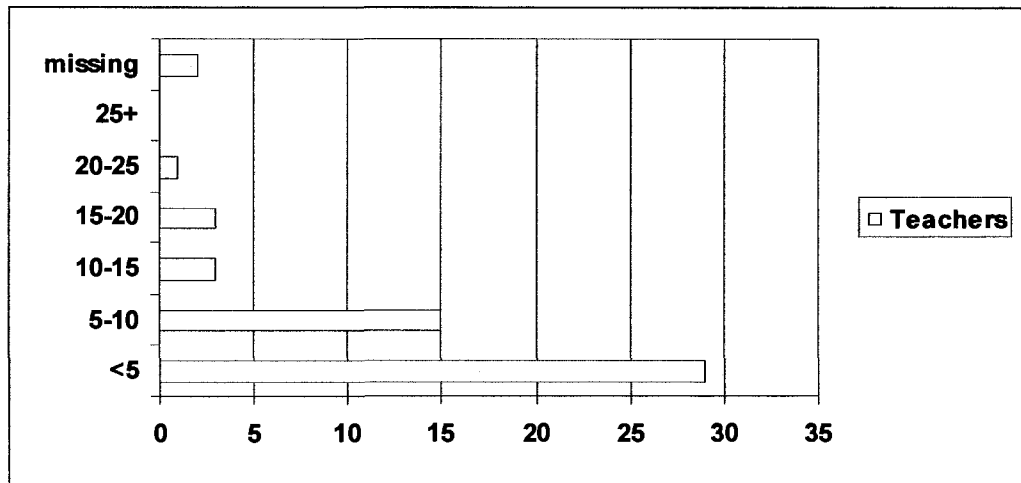
Research Question 3

Are there differences between the principal's own perceptions of their power base

use and the perceptions of their power bases usage by the superintendent?

A Paired – Sample t Test was used to address this research question. Results

showed a significant difference between principals' self-perceptions and the perceptions

of their superintendent's regarding the principals' use of power in only two cases, the

legitimate and the coercive power bases. The legitimate power base gave the principal

high scores (.009) as having substantial power to influence others than the

superintendent. The paired sample results for legitimate was found (t (4) = -4.811, p

<.009). The coercive power base indicated a higher score (.016) for the superintendent

than the principal. Also, the paired sample results was reported in coercive as (t (4) =

4.000, p <.016). As for the other power bases: expert, information, reward, connection,

and referent, there was no significant difference noted (See Table 3).

Table 3

Principals' and Superintendents' Perceptions of Principals Power Base Use

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Personal Power Bases				
expert	superintendent	11.80	5	2.38
	principal	12.40	5	1.51
information	superintendent	10.6	5	1.14
	principal	9.80	5	.44
referent	superintendent	11.60	5	1.51
	principal	12.00	5	.70
Positional Power Bases				
legitimate	superintendent	7.00	5	1.00
	principal	8.80	5	1.48
connection	superintendent	9.40	5	1.14
	principal	9.20	5	1.78
coercive	superintendent	7.20	5	1.48
	principal	5.60	5	1.67
reward	superintendent	5.40	5	3.20
	principal	5.20	5	2.04

Table 3 (continued).

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
expert	-.480	4	.656
information	1.37	4	1.00
referent	-.59	4	.587
legitimate	-4.81	4	.009
connection	.17	4	.871
coercive	4.00	4	.016
reward	.08	4	.934

Research Question 4

Are there differences between principals own perceptions of their power base use and the perceptions of their power base by the academic teachers?

A Paired – Sample t Test was used to address this research question. Results showed a significant difference between principals' self-perceptions and the perceptions of their teacher's regarding the principals' use of power in three cases: reward, coercive, and the referent power bases. The mean for the reward power base is -2.03 ($sd = 2.71$). The reward power base gave the teacher higher scores in the perception of the principal having the ability to give rewards to others than the principal himself. The mean and standard deviation for the coercive power base was -1.69 ($sd=2.09$). The coercive power base indicated a higher score for the teachers than the principal. As for referent, the mean

is reported as 2.13 (sd=1.95) this power base indicates a higher score for the principals as being liked by others than the teachers (See Table 4).

Table 4

Principals' and Academic Teachers' Perceptions of Principals Power Base Use

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Personal Power Bases				
Expert	principal	11.20	10	2.61
	teacher	10.38	10	1.82
information	principal	11.10	10	2.07
	teacher	10.14	10	1.64
referent	principal	11.90	10	1.96
	teacher	9.76	10	1.60
Positional Power Bases				
legitimate	principal	8.80	10	1.87
	teacher	9.34	10	.95
connection	principal	8.90	10	2.80
	teacher	8.53	10	1.31
coercive	principal	5.20	10	2.48
	teacher	6.89	10	2.00
reward	principal	5.90	10	1.79
	teacher	7.93	10	1.46

Table 4 (continued).

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
expert	.88	9	.40
information	1.90	9	.08
legitimate	-.87	9	.40
reward	-2.36	9	.04
connection	.34	9	.73
coercive	-2.55	9	.03
referent	3.46	9	.00

Research Question 5

Do culturally deaf and hearing academic teachers perceive their principals using similar or different power bases?

An Independent Sample t-Test was use to calculate comparison of the mean scores of deaf and hearing academic teacher's perceptions of their principals using similar or different power bases. There was a significant difference found between the deaf and hearing academic teachers perceptions of how their principals' use the coercive power base ($t(49) = 2.033, p = .04$). Hearing academic teacher's rate their perceptions of their principals use of coercive power base higher than did the deaf academic teachers. Both deaf and hearing academic teachers perceived to be high in the use of the expert, information, legitimate, reward, connection, and referent power bases (See Table 5).

Table 5

Deaf and Hearing Academic Teachers Perceptions of Principals Power Base Use

	Hearing	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expert	hearing	42	10.11	3.14
	deaf	9	12.11	3.01
Information	hearing	42	9.69	2.19
	deaf	9	10.33	2.44
Legitimate	hearing	42	9.76	2.08
	deaf	9	8.77	3.07
Reward	hearing	42	7.90	3.08
	deaf	9	8.00	1.73
Connection	hearing	42	8.42	2.80
	deaf	9	7.88	2.66
Coercive	hearing	42	7.28	2.66
	deaf	9	5.22	3.23
Referent	hearing	42	9.80	2.44
	deaf	9	10.66	2.29

Table 5 (continued).

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Expert	-1.73	49	.08
Information	-.78	49	.43
Referent	1.17	49	.24
Legitimate	-.08	49	.93
Connection	.52	49	.60
Coercive	2.03	49	.04
Reward	-.96	49	.33

Research Question 6

Is there a significant relationship between the principals' perceptions of their own

power base usage and the demographic variables of age, gender, hearing status, years of

administrative experience, number of educational administrative classes, and the type of

administrative degree?

Pearson Correlation Coefficients were used to analyze the variables of age,

gender, hearing status, years of experience in administration, and formal education or

training in administration. There was a significant correlation with the referent power

base and the variable of years of administrative experience (p=.05). There was no

significant relationship found between the principals' perception and with the expert,

reward, connection, or coercive power bases. However, there was a moderate correlation

noted in each of these power bases. Expert (.504) and reward (-539) moderate

correlation appears between the variable of age. The referent power base shows a

moderate correlation of -.402 between the gender variable. Connection shows its moderate correlation (-.535) with the years of administrative experience. As for coercive power base, a moderate correlation was found in the variable referring to the number of administrative workshop (.451), the number of educational administrative classes (.482), and the type of administrative degree (.633). (See Table 6)

Table 6

Correlations Between Self-Perceived Power Bases Use and Attributes of Principal

	Age	Gender	Admin	Work-shop	Class	Degree
Personal						
Expert	.50	-.10	.36	.11	-.08	-.14
Information	-.10	-.15	.30	-.32	.09	-.22
Referent	-.19	-.40	.60*	-.03	-.11	-.70
Positional						
Legitimate	-.01	.05	-.25	-.21	-.30	-.16
Connection	.01	.21	-.53	-.10	-.16	.36
Coercive	-.13	.28	-.25	.45	.48	.63
Reward	-.53	-.03	-.08	-.02	.07	-.02

*$p<.05$

Research Question 7

Is there a significant relationship between superintendents' perceptions of the principals' power base use related to the superintendent's demographic variables of age, gender, hearing status, and years of administrative experience, number of educational administrative classes, and the type of administrative degree?

This research question was not analyzed due to the fact that only three

superintendents completed the inventory, which did not yield enough demographic data.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

All over the country, residential schools for the Deaf are playing a very important part in the academic and social education of deaf and hard-of-hearing students (Oyinlade & Gellhaus, 2005). These residential schools, as well as the community are compelled to work together to achieve the school's goals and to influence change (Royster, 1995). Administrators at these residential schools are responsible for the daily operations of the institutions, as well as meeting the needs of the deaf student and school faculty; therefore, it is crucial for the administration's to be aware of their own power base perceptions and usages which contribute to the success of school's community and to the future of deaf education (Johnson, 2004).

Nationwide, residential schools for the Deaf have become sound placement options for many deaf and hard-of-hearing students because of the demands being placed on the public school systems (Oyinlade & Gellhaus, 2005). Many educators, parents, and other individuals that have not had the opportunity to experience the deaf environment are questioning the roles and qualities of residential schools for the Deaf and their administrators. Residential school administrators' are expected to display a style that allows for flexibility and opportunities for continuous change, as well as, show a perception style that sanctions others to participate in the educational development of these students. Of course, this change requires the administrators to have the working knowledge necessary to influence others. One means of reaching this influential stage is for the administrators to have the understanding of the own power base perceptions along with an awareness of how to use this influential power (Hersey, 1984).

This research project focused on two different types of power: personal and positional. The administrator exhibiting high scores in the personal power bases has the self-assurance needed to provide the trust deemed necessary to achieve support. This personal power engages use of the expert, information, and referent power bases (Hersey, 1984).

The other kind of power is known as positional power. This power's foundation lies in the ability of the administrator to give out rewards, punishments, and some restrictions required to obtain compliance from their supporters (Hersey, 1984). Positional power consists of coercive, connection, legitimate, and reward power bases. For administrators' to function properly, both personal and positional power bases must be present. Hersey (1984) stated that personal power is the degree to which an individual gains confidence, trust, and the willingness of others to follow. Personal power, however, is more important to an administrator's ability to lead others than position powers (Greenfield, 1991).

This study examined the power base perceptions used by principals in residential schools for the Deaf. These perceptions were perceived by the administrators themselves and by the administrator's academic teachers in the south area of the United States. This study was divided into three sections: First, to determine the self perceived bases of power used by principals of residential schools serving culturally deaf and hard-of-hearing students measured by responses on the Power Perception Profile-Perception of Self (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2004). Secondly, the study examined the power base perceptions of the principal's power base usage and their ability to influence their academic teachers. Those power base perceptions were gathered from responses

measured by the Power Perception Profile-Perception of Other (Hersey & Natemeyer, 2002). Last, this research identified a profile for the residential school administrators, as well as recognized those personal characteristics related entirely to those holding administrative positions in these educational programs for deaf students in the south.

Eighteen superintendents (17% of those polled), 35 principals (31% of those polled), and 175 (30% of those polled) academic teachers of state operated and supported residential schools for the Deaf participated in the study. Seven research questions formed the basis of the study. Several statistical methods were used throughout the study, including: (a) descriptive statistics - mean and standard deviation; (b) Independent Sample t-Test; (c) Paired Sample t-Test; and (d) the Pearson Correlation Coefficient.

Research Question 1

What are the distinctive power bases perceived to be used by principals of residential schools for the Deaf?

Principals perceived themselves as extremely high users of all of the personal power bases: expert, information, and referent. Meaning, they profess to have the necessary skill and knowledge that influences others; in addition to that knowledge, they are known as having vast amounts of valuable information or access to that information that is regarded as beneficial. As high scorers on the referent power base, these administrators perceived themselves as being highly liked and admired, creating a positive motivating atmosphere which encourages their followers to be effective workers. Findings supported the belief that administrators of residential schools for the Deaf have the necessary traits to influence others and thus promote change.

The principals also rated themselves on the positional power bases. High scores were gathered for two of the bases: legitimate and connection. Scores on those power bases indicated that the administrators believe that they have the right to make decisions because of their title, role or job position. As high scorers on the connection power base, the administrators perceived themselves as having the connections with influential persons which presses those teachers to comply.

It was interesting to detect that principals did not rate themselves highly on the reward or coercive power bases. That is, they did not perceive themselves as having the authority to provide rewards, such as, merit increases, job promotions and/or the sanctions that would encourage people to do the things asked of them. This perception certainly is true for most state operated schools, either residential or public.

Research Question 2

What are the current demographic variables for the superintendents, principals, and academic teachers for the residential schools for the Deaf?

Principals of residential schools for the Deaf ranged from 30 to 60 years of age. The highest percentages of principals were between the ages of 35 and 49. Most of the principals responding to the demographic questionnaire were females. All of the principals were hearing. Regarding the number of years of administrative experience, most of the principals fell between 5 – 15 years. Data indicated that principals at these residential schools for the Deaf do not attend workshops, inservices or classes very often.

When asked of the type of administrative degree held, not all principals responded, possibly because the questionnaire only indicated higher level degrees. . The majority of those responded held master's degrees in educational administration.

Results of the questionnaires sent to the academic teachers of residential schools for the Deaf indicated that the teachers' age ranged from 25 to 60+ years of age. The majority of the teachers fell between the ages of 25 and 29. Most of the teachers responding were females and over half were categorized as hearing. The majority of the teachers reported as being in their current position (34%) and current administrator (54%) for five years or less, making the population relatively new.

The results from the superintendent's questionnaires reported that they ranged in age from 50 to 59 years of age. All of the superintendents (100%) responding were females and hearing. Two of the superintendents had 10-15 years of administrative experience. All of the superintendents (100%) reported having participated in a workshop, in-service, or class within the last 25 years. Each superintendent reported having obtained degrees in educational administration.

Research Question 3

Are there differences between the principal's own perceptions of their power base use and the perceptions of their power bases usage by the superintendent?

In only two cases were significant differences found between the principals' self perceptions and the perceptions of the superintendent: legitimate and coercive power bases. Even though both groups saw the principal as frequent users of these positional power bases, the principal's legitimate power base score was substantially higher than the superintendent's score of the principal. In other words, the principals perceived themselves as being able to make decisions due to their title, while the superintendent thought differently. The coercive power base indicated a higher score for the superintendent rather than to the principal. It is interesting to note that the

superintendents perceived themselves as being the person assigned and capable to use consequences to place fear among their faculty more so than the principal.

Research Question 4

Are there differences between principals own perceptions of their power base use and the perceptions of their power base by the academic teachers?

Results showed that there was a significant difference between principals' self-perceptions and the perceptions of their academic teacher's regarding their use of power in three different cases: reward, coercive, and the referent power bases. For the reward power base, the teachers scored the principals higher than the principals scored themselves indicating that they felt that the principal has the ability to give rewards that would reinforce positive behavior, whereas, the principal thought they did not have that ability. The teachers scored the principal higher in coercive power base than the principal's scored themselves. As for referent power base, the principals gave themselves a higher score than what the teachers gave them. The principals thought that individuals responded in a positive manner because they were very likable and greatly admired.

Research Question 5

Do culturally deaf and hearing academic teachers perceive their principals using similar or different power bases?

Deaf and hearing academic teachers reported a significance difference in coercive power base regarding the principals' usage of the positional power base perception. Hearing academic teacher's rated their perceptions of the principal's use of coercive power base higher than did the deaf academic teachers. In other words, hearing academic teachers, more than deaf teachers, felt that the principals received performance from the

followers by force and the threat of administrative sanctions. Those individuals that have had the opportunity to experience Deaf Culture are aware that Deaf individuals have a tendency to be straightforward and direct. Some individuals, not familiar with the Deaf world, have even alleged deaf individuals as being blunt and rude (Bienvenu & Colonomos, 1988). Possibly because of this directiveness, many of the deaf academic teachers did not perceive the principals as being firm or forceful.

Research Question 6

Is there a significant relationship between the principals' perceptions of their own power base usage and the demographic variables of age, gender, hearing status, years of administrative experience, number of educational administrative classes, and the type of administrative degree?

For principals, age seemed to have moderate effect on the expert power base. Moderate relations were also apparent between gender and the referent power base. Administrators with more experience in educational administration were more likely to influence because the followers tended to like, respect, and identify with the principal. The more workshops and classes the principals attended, the more they perceived themselves using the coercive power base to influence others. Having an advanced degree, either master's, specialist's, or doctorate in education administration or special education administration had typically no effect on the principal's own perceptions of their usage of coercive and referent powers.

Research Question 7

Is there a significant relationship between superintendents' perceptions of the principals' power base use related to the superintendent's demographic variables of age, gender, hearing status, and years of administrative experience, number of educational administrative classes, and the type of administrative degree?

This research question was not analyzed due to the fact that only three superintendents completed the inventory, which does not yield enough demographic data.

Discussion

Surprisingly after almost thirteen years, the conclusion of this study is very similar to Royster's (1995) results noted in his study of perceptions of power bases used by line administrators at schools serving deaf and hard-of-hearing students. In both studies, the administrators viewed themselves as high users of information, referent, and expert powers.

One difference observed of the administrative studies' was that Royster's (1995) rating of the reward power base was higher by the administrator than the current study. This study indicated that the administrators did not believe that they could induce compliance by their ability to provide rewards, such as merit increases, job promotions, etc. This finding is a representative of how our society functions in the education arena.

Administrators who want to increase their repertoire of power base usage and improve their skill in influencing change must continue to attend professional development classes. Principals of residential schools for the Deaf must stay educated of newly developing trends and topics in the field of deaf education if these schools want to be able to compete with the ever changing developments in education. This study

supported Hersey (1984) belief that having knowledge of one's own power perception is

very critical to the administrator's ability to lead, influence, and effect change.

In conclusion, the study highlights a statement given by Joseph Blase (1990):

> "….school principals should make every effort to develop a deep awareness of
> self, especially political values and purposes, as well as the strategies they employ
> to influence individuals and groups… the effective use of power is synonymous
> with effective leadership and effective schools." (p.251)

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to principals, superintendents, and their academic teachers

in state residential schools for the Deaf with 75 students or more. Consequently, the

findings involved only a small population of school principals. The total

superintendent's population of residential schools for the Deaf was relatively small;

subsequently, the sample indicated the responses of a much smaller number.

In addition, there are some mechanical matters that may have shaped the results of

the study. The publisher of the power perception profile failed to provide a report that

documented the validity and reliability results of the instruments; however, other

researchers have used these profiles and to form validity and reliability scores.

One more factor that may possibly have affected the outcome of the study was the

fact that several inventory packages were misplaced in the mail due to the large number

of superintendent's positions vacant during the data collection phase of the study. The

absence of this crucial position could possibly indicate some level of administrative

instability. It is appropriate to assume that the principals may have responded differently

had the superintendent's position was not vacant.

Another limitation of the study was noted involving the findings collected

pertaining to the deaf and hearing workers. Reportedly there are a small number of deaf

administrators in residential schools for the Deaf. The questions regarding the differences between of deaf and hearing academic teacher's perception of their principals may be restricted only to those schools where there are large numbers of deaf teachers.

Recommendations for Policy and Practice

School administrators should exam the school's policies and practices to determine whether the administrative' power base usages are encouraged or hindered. Principals should be provided the opportunity to observe other principals in similar environments and receive continuous coaching from their immediate supervisor as they refine and develop their power base perception knowledge. Also, superintendents can show support to the principals as they enhance both personal and positional power base skills by incorporating the results from this study into workshops and in-services. Administrators at residential schools for the Deaf should study the results of the profile and determine whether changes in administrative positions would benefit the school.

Institutions of Higher Learning offering leadership training in special need areas should offer classes' pertaining to the educational culture in their area of specialty. Administrators should be highly encouraged register for classes to become knowledgeable about their school culture and environment. Research shows that there is little turnover in the administrative pool in residential schools for the deaf and hard of hearing. Very few newcomers enter the administrative ranks, and incumbent administrators tend to enjoy very long tenures. Active recruitment of qualified administrators should be incorporated yearly at residential schools for the Deaf.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study was an important addition in the field of deaf education emphasizing administrators' power base perceptions or ability to influence others. in residential schools for Deaf and hard-of-hearing. Administrators wanting to be successful in leadership positions must become aware of effective ways to exercise both use of the person and position power bases. Additional contributions from further study might include the following:

1. Investigations of the power base perceptions use of principals and their academic teachers perceptions of that power base use in blind culture. By duplicating this investigation with a different population, the information can provided generalization to schools and programs that serve other students with special needs.

2. Investigations of the power base perceptions use of principals in educational programs serving deaf and hard-of-hearing and their academic teacher's perceptions of that power base use. By repeating the existing investigation using a different population in other educational programs, private or public, the information can provide further insight in to impact of culture on leadership effectiveness.

3. Additional research should be conducted nationwide on the power base perceptions of administrators of residential schools for the Deaf. In addition to this nationwide survey, a demographic questionnaire should be included.

APPENDIXES A
ACADEMIC TEACHER DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

The information obtained through this demographic questionnaire will be strictly

confidential. No one will have access to this data except the researcher. Data that relates

to the administrators and their management teams will not be individually reported. Once

the study is completed, all data will be destroyed.

Check the <u>one</u> category that applies for each item.

Age:	( ) 25-29	( ) 40-44	( ) 55-59
	( ) 30-34	( ) 45-49	( ) 60+
	( ) 35-39	( ) 50-54	

| Gender: | ( ) male | ( ) female |

| Hearing Status: | ( ) hearing | ( ) deaf |

| Years in current position: | ( ) less than 5 | ( ) 10-15 | ( ) 20-25 |
| | ( ) 5-10 | ( ) 15-20 | ( ) 25+ |

| Years of experience with current administrator: | ( ) less than 5 | ( ) 10-15 | ( ) 20-25 |
| | ( ) 5-10 | ( ) 15-20 | ( ) 25+ |

APPENDIXES B
ADMINISTRATOR'S DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

The information obtained through this demographic questionnaire will be strictly

confidential. No one will have access to this data except the researcher. Data that relates

to the administrators and their management teams will not be individually reported. Once

the study is completed, all data will be destroyed.

Check the category that applies for each item.

Age: ( ) 25-29   ( ) 40-44   ( ) 55-59

                      ( ) 30-34   ( ) 45-49   ( ) 60+

                      ( ) 35-39   ( ) 50-54

Gender: ( ) male   ( ) female

Hearing Status: ( ) hearing   ( ) deaf

Years of administrative
experience: ( ) less than 5   ( ) 10-15   ( ) 20-25
                      ( ) 5-10   ( ) 15-20   ( ) 25+

Number of administrative
Workshops/in-services: ( ) less than 5   ( ) 10-15   ( ) 20-25
                      ( ) 5-10   ( ) 15-20   ( ) 25+

Number of educational
administrative classes: ( ) less than 5   ( ) 10-15   ( ) 20-25
                      ( ) 5-10   ( ) 15-20   ( ) 25+

Type of administrative
degree: ( ) master's degree in educational administration

                   ( ) master's degree in special education administration

                   ( ) specialist degree in administration

                   ( ) specialist degree in special education administration

                   ( ) doctorate degree in administration

                   ( ) doctorate degree in special education administration

APPENDIX C

To: Superintendent
From: Allison Moffett
Date: January 7, 2008
Subject: Power Perception Profiles

PROJECT TITLE: Power Base Perceptions of School Administrators at Residential
                  Schools for the Deaf

Several weeks ago, I received your information regarding interest in participating in my
doctoral study of Power Base Perceptions. The power perceptions of administrators at
residential schools for the Deaf have been a powerful influence in the education of deaf
and hard-of-hearing students. This study will examine the power base perceptions of
residential school administrators and collect demographic information.

For this study,

> Superintendents will:
>   (1) Complete the Power Perception Profile of OTHERS – You will be
>   completing this inventory using your impressions of the perceptions
>   of your principals.
>   (2) Complete demographic study.

> Principals will:
>   (1) Complete the Power Perception Profile of SELF
>   (2) Complete demographic study.

> Teachers will:
>   (1) Complete the Power Perception Profile of OTHERS – You will be
>   completing this inventory using your impressions of the perceptions
>   of your principal.
>   (2) Complete demographic study.

Please review the profile's directions and note that confidentiality of individual's
response is assured. The names of your subordinates completing this inventory will
remain confidential and the results will only be reported in coded terms. Your completion
and return of this inventory in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope is
appreciated. If you should have any questions about the survey or the results, please feel
free to contact me at amoffett@mde.k12.ms.us, 601-984-8028 V/TTY, or 601-382-2963
(c).

Sincerely,

Allison W. Moffett

APPENDIX D

Dear Colleague:

As part of my doctoral studies in Administration at The University of Southern Mississippi, I am conducting a study of the power base perceptions of school administrators in residential schools for the Deaf. The purpose of this letter is to ask for your participation in the research study for my dissertation. This study will compare the self-perceptions of power base usage of administrators of schools for the deaf with the perceptions of their academic teachers. I'm sure the results will be fascinating!

While the personal data from this study will be strictly confidential, the results can be used to help recruit and train future deaf educators for administrative positions, as well as help current administrators understand their profile perception as administrators.

The following procedures were used to gather the data:

1. I will call you approximately one week after I receive your consent form to ask for the names of your academic teachers that will participate in the study.
2. The instrument, The Profile Perception Profile-Perception of Self /Others and a short demographic questionnaire will be sent and asked to fill them out.
3. The time anticipated completing the instrument and questionnaire is 10 minutes.
4. The data will be coded and analyzed without names or other indentifying information. After all the data is analyzed, the code file will be destroyed.

Your responses will be CONFIDENTIAL and will remain anonymous. There are no risks or discomforts associated with completing the questionnaire or participating in this research effort. After the study is complete, you will receive a summary of the findings and all original data was destroyed.

If you are willing to participate in this research, please duplicate the attached form and return it to me on your school's letterhead by December 21, 2007. I am enclosing a stamped, self return envelope for your convenience. Thanks in advance for your cooperation in this study. If you have any questions, please call me at 601.984.8028 TTY/V, by FAX at 601.984.8067, or by email to amoffett@mde.k12.ms.us.

Sincerely,

Allison W. Moffett
Principal Investigator

APPENDIX E

THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN MISSISSIPPI
AUTHORIZATION TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH PROJECT

Participant's Name __Allison W. Moffett____

Consent is hereby given to participate in the research project entitled
__Power Base Perceptions of School Administrators at Residential schools
for the Deaf____. All procedures and/or investigations to be followed and their
purpose, including any experimental procedures, were explained by _Allison
Moffett_____. Information was given about all benefits, risks, inconveniences,
or discomforts that might be expected. The opportunity to ask questions
regarding the research and procedures was given. Participation in the project is
completely voluntary, and participants may withdraw at any time without penalty,
prejudice, or loss of benefits. All personal information is strictly confidential, and
no names were disclosed. Any new information that develops during the project
was provided if that information may affect the willingness to continue
participation in the project.

Questions concerning the research, at any time during or after the project, should
be directed to researcher(s) name(s) at telephone number(s). This project and
this consent form have been reviewed by the Human Subjects Protection Review
Committee, which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow
federal regulations.

Any questions or concerns about rights as a research participant should be
directed to the Chair of the Institutional Review Board, The University of
Southern Mississippi, 118 College Drive #5147, Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001,
(601) 266-6820.

Use the following only if applicable: The University of Southern Mississippi has
no mechanism to provide compensation for participants who may incur injuries
as a result of participation in research projects. However, efforts was made to
make available the facilities and professional skills at the University. Information
regarding treatment or the absence of treatment has been given. In the event of
injury in this project, contact treatment provider's name(s) at telephone
number(s). A copy of this form was given to the participant.

_____
Signature of participant   Date

_Allison W. Moffett__ amoffett@mde.k12.ms.us _____1/04/08_____
Signature of person explaining the study   Date

APPENDIX F

THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN MISSISSIPPI

January 7, 2008

Dear Colleague:

In December 2007, I sent you a consent form requesting your participation in my doctoral research on the power base perceptions of school administrators in residential schools for the Deaf. Because there is such a limited amount of research available on residential schools for the Deaf, YOUR participation is VERY important to the success of this study.

I hope you will assist me by completing and returning the consent form by January 18, 2008 and then participating in the study. For your convenience, I am enclosing another consent form and a stamped, self return envelope. You can even fax me the signed consent form at 601.984.8067 if you prefer. If you have already signed and returned the consent form, please disregard this request. Also, I have enclosed the power perception profiles to be completed and returned. Thank you for your cooperation.
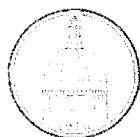
Please remember that your responses were CONFIDENTIAL. After the study is completed, you will receive a summary of the findings and all original data was destroyed.

If you have any questions, please call me at 601.984.8028 TTY/V, send me a FAX at 601.984.8067, or contact me via email at amoffett@mde.k12.ms.us.

Sincerely,

Allison W. Moffett

APPENDIX G

THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN MISSISSIPPI

Institutional Review Board

118 College Drive #5147
Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001
Tel: 601.266.6820
Fax: 601.266.5509
www.usm.edu/irb

HUMAN SUBJECTS PROTECTION REVIEW COMMITTEE
NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION

The project has been reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi Human Subjects Protection Review Committee in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services (45 CFR Part 46), and university guidelines to ensure adherence to the following criteria:

- The risks to subjects are minimized.
- The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the "Adverse Effect Report Form".
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months.
  Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: 27111201
PROJECT TITLE: **Power Base Perceptions of School Administrators
at Residential Schools for the Deaf**
PROPOSED PROJECT DATES: **12/01/07 to 01/31/08**
PROJECT TYPE: **Dissertation or Thesis**
PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATORS: **Allison Moffett**
COLLEGE/DIVISION: **College of Education & Psychology**
DEPARTMENT: **Educational Leadership & Research**
FUNDING AGENCY: **N/A**
HSPRC COMMITTEE ACTION: **Expedited Review Approval**
PERIOD OF APPROVAL: **12/13/07 to 12/12/08**

Lawrence A. Hosman, Ph.D.   1-09-08
HSPRC Chair   Date

REFERENCES

Alexander, D.C. (1995). Conflict management styles of administrators in schools for the

culturally deaf: Teacher perceptions of job satisfaction. *Dissertation Abstracts*

International, 56, 07A.

Allbright, B. (2001). *Leadership in the role of technology coordinator.* Retrieved June

16, 2007, from http://home.swbell.net/barbfaye/Portfolio/newlead.html.

Andrews, R.L., Basom, M.R. & Basom, M. (1991). Instructional leadership:

Supervision that makes a difference. *Theory Into Practice, 30*(2), 97-101.

Balk, J. W. (1997). Leadership practices of superintendents at residential schools for the

deaf. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 58*, 03A.

Bass, B.M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share

the vision. *Organizational Dynamics, 18*, 19-31.

Beckman, J.C. (1992). State-supported and state-aided residential schools for the Deaf

and residential schools for the Deaf and blind in the United States: Relationships

among their organizational strategy-type, structure, and effectiveness.

Dissertation Abstracts International, 53, 98A.

Bender, R. (1981). *The conquest of deafness: A history of the long struggle to make

possible normal living to those handicapped by lack of normal hearing.* Danville,

IL: The Interstate Printers & Publishers, Inc.

Bertling, T. (1997). *No dignity for Joshua: More vital insight into deaf children, deaf

education and deaf culture.* Wilsonville, OR: Kodiak Media Group.

Bienvenu, M.J. & Colonomos, B. (1988). *An introduction to American deaf culture.

Deaf norms [Videotape].* Burtonsville, MD: Sign Media, Inc.

Bina, M. J. (1982). Morale of teachers of the visually handicapped: Implications for

    administrators. *Journal of Visual Impairment & Blindness, 76,* 121-128.

Bina, M. (1999). Schools for the visually disabled: Dinosaurs or mainstays?

    Educational Leadership, 56(6), 78-81.

Black, S. (1998). Research: A different kind of leader. *American School Board Journal,*

    185(6), 32-34.

Blanchard, K.H., Gates, P.E, & Hersey, P. (1976). Diagnosing educational leadership

    problems: A situational approach. *Educational Leadership,* 348-354.

Blanchard, K.H. & Hersey, P. (2001). A leadership theory for educational

    administrators. *Education, 303-310.*

Blase, J.J. (1990). Some negative effects of principals' control-oriented and protective

    political behavior. *American Educational Research Journal,* 727-753.

Bollag, B. (2006). The debate over deaf education. *Chronicle of Higher Education,*

    52(36), 18-21.

Bowe, F. (1988). *Toward equality: Education of the deaf.* Washington, DC: U.S.

    Government Printing Office.

Bradfield, A., & Seagrest, R. (2001, June). *Deaf education teacher training issues.*

    Unpublished notes from the Deaf Education Supervisors' Workshop, San

    Antonio, TX.

Brown, D.J. & Keeping, L.M. (2005). Elaborating the construct of transformational

    leadership: The role of affect. *Leadership Quarterly, 16,* 245-272.

Bugen, C., Innes, J., Randall, K., & Siegel, I. (2001, February). *Vision: Achieving*

educational equality: Fulfilling each child's dream. Paper presented at the meeting of the National Agenda, San Diego, CA.

Campbell, A. (1977). Are Instructional Leaders Still Needed? *Educational Leadership,* Oct., 11-14.

Cherrington, D.J. (1991). *The management of human resources* (3rd ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Cremer, D., Duke, M.V., & Bos, A.E.R. (2007) When leaders are seen as transformational: The effects of organizational justice. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology,* 37(8), 1797-1816.

Delaney, J.J. (1980). A validity and reliability study of the power perception profile instrument. *Dissertation Abstracts International,* 41(06), 2791.

DeLand F. (1931). *The story of lipreading. Its genesis and development.* Washington, D.C.: The Volta Bureau.

Easterbrooks, S. (2001). Veteran teachers of children who are deaf/hard-of-hearing describe language instructional practices: Implications for teacher preparation. *Teacher Education and Special Education, 24,* 116-127.

Easterbrooks, S., & Baker-Hawkins, S. (Eds.). (1995). *Deaf and hard-of-hearing students: Educational service guidelines.* Alexandria, VA: National Association of State Directors of Special Education.

Etzioni, A. (1961). *A comparative analysis of complex organizations.* New York, NY: The Free Press.

French, J.W. & Raven, B.H. (1959). *The bases of social power.* Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan.

Gannon, J.R. (1981). *Deaf heritage: A narrative history.* Silver Spring, MD: National

Association of the Deaf.

Gardner, J. W. (1990). *On leadership.* New York: The Free Press.

Greenfield, W.D. (1991). *Toward a theory of school leadership.* Paper presented at the

Annual meeting of the American Research Association, Chicago, IL. (Eric

Document Reproduction Service No. ED 332 378)

Hallinger, P. (2003). Leading educational change: Reflections on the practice of

instructional and transformational leadership. *Cambridge Journal of Education,*

33 (3), 329-351.

Hallinger, P. & Murphy, J. (1985). Assessing the instructional leadership behavior of

principals. *Elementary School Journal, 86* (2), 217-248.

Hersey, P. (1984). *The situational leader.* New York, NY: Warner Books.

Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K.H. (1982). *Management of organizational behavior:*

Utilizing human resources. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc.

Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K.H. (1993). *Situational leadership, perception, and the impact*

of power. Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources.

(6th Ed.) Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc.

Hersey, P. & Natemeyer, W.E. (2002). *Power Perception Profile: Perception of Others.*

Escondido, CA: Leadership Studies Publishing.

Hersey, P. & Natemeyer, W.E. (2004). *Power Perception Profile: Perception of Self.*

Escondido, CA: Leadership Studies Publishing.

Hess, F.M. (2004). Treating principals like leaders: Should classroom teaching be the

only route to the principal's office? *American School Board Journal*, May, 32-35.

Heylighten, F. (1992). A cognitive-systemic reconstruction of maslow's theory of self-actualization. *Behavioral Science, 37*(1), 39-59.

Holden-Pitt, I. & Diaz, J. (1998). Thirty years of the annual survey of deaf and hard of hearing children and youth: A glance over the decades. *American Annals of the Deaf, 143*(2), 72-76.

Isele, V.A. (1988). A comparison of perceptions of power bases within management teams in effective school districts. *Dissertation Abstracts International,* 48, 2206A.

Jackson, D. (2000). The school improvement journey: Perspectives on leadership. *School Leadership & Management, 20* (1), 61-78.

Johnson, H.A. (2004). U.S. Deaf education teacher preparation programs: A look at the present and a vision for the future. *American Annals of the Deaf, 149*(2), 75-91.

Karchmer, M., and Petersen, L. (1980). *Commuter students at residential schools for the deaf.* Office of Demographic Studies, Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C.

King, D.C. & Glidewell, X.X. (1976). *Power.* In J.W. Pfeiffer & J.E. Jones (Eds.) The 1976 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators (pp. 139-142). La Jolla, CA: University Associates, Inc.

King, F.J. (2001). *Introduction to deaf education: A deaf perspective.* Hillsboro, OR: Butte Publications, Inc.

Knudson, B. G. (2003). Superintendents of American residential schools for the Deaf: A profile. *American Annals of the Deaf, 148*(1), 49-55.

Kotter, J.P. (1979). *Power in management.* New York, NY: AMACOM.

Lartz, M. N. & Litchfield, S. K. (2005). Administrators' ratings of competencies needed

To prepare preservice teachers for oral deaf education programs. *American*

Annals of the Deaf, 150(5), 433-442.

Leithwood, K. & Jantzi, D. (2000). Principal and teacher leader effects: A replication.

School Leadership and Management, 20(4), 415-434.

Leithwood, K. & Jantzi, D. (1996). Transformational leadership effects: A replication.

School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 4(10), 451-479.

Mackie, R.P. (1956). *Teacher of children who are deaf: A report based on findings from*

the study "Qualification and Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children."

Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Marshall, W.J.A. (1990). *Power: An administrator's guide along the corridors of*

arrogance. ERIC administrator's update 7, (1-3), pp. 1-12.

McClelland, D.C. (1973). *The two faces of power.* In D.C. McClelland & R.S. Steele

(Eds.), Human motivation: A book of readings. Morristown, NJ: General

Learning Press.

Meadow-Orlans, K.P. (2001). Research and deaf education: Moving ahead while

glancing back. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education, 6*(2), 143-148.

Moore, J. E. (2003). Guest editorial. *Journal of Visual Impairment & Blindness, 97,*

387.

Moores, D. (1987) *Educating the Deaf: Psychology, principles, and practices.* Boston,

MA: Houghton Mifflin Co.

Moores, D.F., & Meadow-Orlans, K.P. (1990). *Educational and developmental aspects*

of deafness. Washington, DC: Gallaudet University Press.

Moores, D.F. & Kluwin, T. (1986). *Issues in school placement.* In A. Schildroth & M. Karchmer, deaf children in America. San Diego, CA: College Hill Press.

Nicolosi, L., Harryman, E., & Kresheck, J. (1983). *Terminology of communication disorders: Speech, language, hearing* (2nd Edition). Baltimore, MD: Williams & Wilkins.

Oyinlade, A. O., Gellhaus, M. M., & Darboe, K. (2003). Essential leadership qualities for effective leadership in schools for students who are visually impaired: A national study. *Journal of Visual Impairment & Blindness, 97,* 389-402.

Oyinlade, A. O. & Gellhaus, M. (2005). Perceptions of effective leadership in schools For students with visual impairments: A national study. *Journal of Visual Impairment & Blindness,* May 2005.

Quigley, S. & Frisina, D. (1961). *Institutionalization and psychoeducational development of deaf children.* CDC Research Monograph, Urbana, Illinois.

Quigley, S.P. & Kretschmer, R.E. (1982). *The education of deaf children: Issues, theory, and practice.* Baltimore: University Park Press.

Raven, B.H., & Kruglanski, W. (1975). *Conflict and power.* In P.G. Swingle (ED.), The structure of conflict (pp. 177-219). New York: Academic Press.

Rosman, V. (1998). *Nebraska School for the Deaf Graduates Last Class,* Norris, Rick (Editor) South Dakota Association of the Deaf News. Summer 1998, Vol. 13, Issue 2, Pine Hill Press, Freeman, South Dakota.

Royster, M.A. (1995). Perceptions of Power Bases used by Line Administrators of

Schools Serving Deaf and Hard-of-hearing Students, (Doctoral dissertation, Gallaudet University, 1995). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 65,* 07A.

Schildroth, A. N., & Karchmer, M. S. (1986). *Deaf children in America.* San Diego, CA: College Hill Press.

Sheppard, B. (1996). Exploring the transformational nature of instructional leadership. *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 42*(4), 325-344.

Siegel, L. (2000). The educational and communication needs of deaf and hard-of-hearing children: A statement of principle on fundamental educational change. *American Annals of the Deaf, 145,* 64-77.

Singleton, P.E.M. (1994). Leadership Style, Personality Type and Demographic Profiles of Deaf Female Administrators in Educational Programs for Deaf Students, (Doctoral dissertation, Gallaudet University, 1994). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 55,* 11A.

Stenehjem, D. O. (1993). Residential schools: An underutilized resource. *Journal of Visual Impairment & Blindness, 87,* 211-212.

Stotts, G.L., Jr. (1988). A study of organizational power bases of management teams within public school districts judged to be effective. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 48,* 1616A.

Sweeney, J. (2001). Principals can provide instructional leadership-it takes commitment. *Education, 103*(2), 204-207.

Van Cleve, J.V. (1987). *Gallaudet encyclopedia of deaf people and deafness.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

Whitaker, K. (1998). The changing role of the principal: View from the inside.

Planning and Changing, 29, 130-150.

U.S. Department of Education. (2002). *Twenty-third annual report to Congress on the implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act.* Retrieved December 8, 2002, from the Office of Special Education Programs Website: http://www.ed.gov/offices/OSERS/OSEP/Products/OSEP2001AnlRpt/

Zaleznik, A., & Kets de Vries, R.F. (1975). *Power and the corporate mind.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.