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ROBERT D. MORROW:
A CASE STUDY OF LEADERSHIP
IN CHANGING TIMES

by
Abel Morado

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the
PROGRAM OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
In the Graduate College
THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA ®
GRADUATE COLLEGE

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SIGNED: Art Morado

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the love of my life, Mercedes Gomez-Morado. Her love and support every step of the way allowed me to be successful. I also dedicate this dissertation to my children, Roberto, Margarita, Jaime, Antonia, and Enrique, whom I hope will follow in my footsteps and use their father's experience as a model to pursue their own passions. I also dedicate this dissertation to my parents, Jose and Hortencia Morado, who provided me a home filled with love and support.

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ABSTRACT

This case study seeks to understand the implications of Dr. Robert D. Morrow's leadership and management practices and their effects on the direction of Tucson Public Schools. Dr. Morrow was superintendent in Tucson from 1941 through 1968. In the 28 years of his tenure, Tucson grew from a small, provincial town into a major metropolis in the United States southwest.

The research on the leadership and management practices of superintendents is limited. This case study reviews these characteristics from a historical standpoint using the scholarly literature of past and current educational leadership and management.

The central questions of this research case study will consist of: In what ways did Robert D. Morrow seek to solve problems within a growing school district? What personal and professional leadership style and management ability did Dr. Morrow practice within the context of a growing school district? How did Dr. Morrow address the challenges and responsibilities necessary for a superintendent to move the school district forward in a progressive manner in an expanding city after World War II?

The central questions of this research study are supported by a total of six supporting questions. The data presented in chapter four are analyzed using a classification system that segments the data into topics. These topics are grouped into large clusters to form categories. The category of topics creates a systematic process to review and analyze the data across the framework of the design.

A leadership matrix was developed to categorize the leadership styles and the questions of the research study. The treated data from the framework of the categories

were used to determine which type of leadership style Dr. Morrow used to address the six questions of this study.

The conclusions of this study were that Dr. Morrow's leadership was multi-dimensional. He was a decisive leader who applied democratic principles in his relationship with employees, communicated effectively with the governing board and applied his personal sense of morality and fairness to his practices as superintendent. Dr. Morrow was a visionary leader with strong values and defined goals for the school district.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation is a historical case study of Dr. Robert D. Morrow, Superintendent of Tucson Public Schools from 1941 through 1968. The central focus of this study is on Dr. Morrow's personal and professional leadership practices as superintendent. This period of tenure included unprecedented growth in Tucson and significant change in a growing school district. The methods Dr. Morrow used to meet his responsibility for providing educational services during this unique period in history are also studied.

Robert D. Morrow was born in Pawnee City, Nebraska, in 1903, but his parents moved to Washington, Iowa, soon after his birth. After graduating from Washington High School in 1921, he went on a "bumming trip," hopping the *Burlington Zephyr* and heading northwest with no particular destination. He worked odd jobs until 1922. When he had traveled more than 50,000 miles, Dr. Morrow headed back to the Midwest and enrolled in Westminster College in Fulton, Missouri. He completed 2 years there, during which time he became interested in working with the deaf. The deaf students would come into the drug store where he worked and wait for Dr. Morrow to serve them because he had picked up sign language and could sign with them. They began to invite him to their parties and gatherings.

When Dr. Morrow decided to obtain formal training in working with the deaf, he enrolled at George Washington University in Washington, DC, and then received his Master's Degree at Gallaudet in 1927. He returned to Missouri and became a field agent at Missouri School for the Deaf from 1927 to 1928. Dr. Morrow became a teacher at the Iowa School for the Deaf in Council Bluffs for two years and then worked as an intermediate grade supervisor for the following two years.

In 1932, Dr. Morrow interviewed for the position of school superintendent at the Arizona School for the Deaf and Blind. He was offered the position and warned about the political nature of the office. Dr. Morrow was told, "When we get a new governor in January you'll be out of a job. . . . Welcome to Arizona!" (Robert Morrow Interview, 1990, p. 4) The governors at the time were using the Arizona School for the Deaf and Blind for patronage appointments. Staff and parents were embroiled in a difficult political struggle, which had resulted in the dismissal of Dr. Morrow's predecessor. The board of trustees, wanting to get a fresh start, thus making the school less political and more educational, recommended Robert Morrow. He served in this capacity for 9 years.

In 1941, Dr. Morrow was selected over internal candidates as Superintendent of Tucson Public Schools. A governing board member, Dr. S. C. Davis, the co-founder of Thomas-Davis Clinic, recommended him to the other board members, Peter Howell and Judge Fred Fickett. They expressed some concern about his lack of public school experience and ability to delegate responsibility. However, at Dr. Davis' urging, they unanimously voted to appoint Dr. Morrow to replace C. E. Rose, who had served as superintendent since 1920.

Dr. Morrow's tenure as Superintendent of Tucson Public Schools was the longest in this school district's history. When he began his term, the administrative staff consisted of seven members. He had one assistant for the elementary grades. The district enrollment was 8,700 students, who were housed in one high school, four junior high schools, 19 elementary schools, and one combined elementary and junior high school, Dunham School for African-American children. The total investment in land and buildings was \$30 million. In 1968, the year Dr. Morrow retired, the school district consisted of thousands of teachers, hundreds of administrators, 75 schools and 54,000 students. Segregation had been dismantled except for a few vestiges. A multitude of programs and support services existed for students. The total investment in land and buildings was hundreds of millions of dollars.

The changes in Tucson during Dr. Morrow's tenure as superintendent were tremendous and far-reaching. Tucson was a small town through World War II. The population of Tucson in 1941 was 45,000. It was provincial in nature and considered backwater and conservative. Jim Crow was alive and well. However, the post-World War II era signaled a dramatic change in how the business community and community leaders conducted business. Tucson began to experience population growth and social change due to an influx of major companies between 1950 and 1968. Tucson's population was 365,000 by the time Dr. Morrow retired (Robert Morrow Videotaped Interview, 1991).

Other changes that influenced the leadership and management practices of Dr. Morrow were the organization structure of his administration; the promotion of his

relationship with staff, students and subordinate administrators; his decision to desegregate the elementary schools ahead of other school districts; his role in developing the community; his efforts to acquire public support for school funding in order to keep up with growth; and his relationship with the print media concerning the direction and leadership of the school system.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine:

In what ways did Robert D. Morrow seek to solve problems within a growing school district?

What personal and professional leadership style and management ability did Dr. Morrow practice within the context of a growing school district?

How did Dr. Morrow address the challenges and responsibilities necessary for a superintendent to move the school district forward in a progressive manner in an expanding city after World War II?

Statement of the Problem

The study seeks to understand the implications of Dr. Morrow's leadership and management practices and their effect on the direction of Tucson Public Schools and the educational practices of the community.

Significance of the Problem

Dr. Robert Morrow became superintendent during one of the most turbulent and complex periods in our nation's history. "He was a major educational leader within the state. His advanced leadership and management practices greatly influenced the direction and standing of the school district within the community" (Lenzcycki Interview, 2000). Dr. Morrow became a large city superintendent due to his longevity. The social forces and educational issues he administered were unprecedented and have not been replicated in this community.

The range of problems and the degree of complexity of administering a growing school district are important. A study of how this educational leader faced challenges within the school district during turbulent times and in an urban district has not been addressed in the literature. A systematic academic review of Dr. Morrow's tenure has never been studied. An examination is made of some complex issues this superintendent successfully mastered over a period of 28 school years. This study reveals how he handled various critical issues. The findings of this study are beneficial to current and aspiring superintendents.

Assumptions Underlying the Problem

For the purpose of this case study the following assumptions are made:

1. A school district experiencing unprecedented growth presents leadership and management challenges for the school superintendent.

2. The school superintendent has the major duty and responsibility of administering the policies of the governing board.
3. The superintendent must exhibit strong leadership characteristics that reflect the goals of the school district.
4. When the relationship between the school superintendent and the major constituencies of the district are strategically aligned, the community is strong and a positive relationship is manifested by public confidence.
5. The study of school organization leadership and management is a viable area of inquiry.

Boundaries of the Study

This case study is bound in the following ways.

1. This study focuses on the leadership and management practices of Dr. Robert Morrow as he administered issues related to Tucson Public Schools.
2. Only the context of school district and city growth in which he made decisions is studied.
3. The time period addressed in this study is 1941 through 1968. However, references are made to the Fisher/Mendoza court case, which extended from 1974 through 1978.
4. Only Dr. Morrow's role as a community leader, as it relates to his responsibilities as superintendent, is studied. These responsibilities included advocacy for school district funding to keep up with the growing needs of the district.

5. Dr. Morrow's relationship with community leaders, business leaders, and the power structure of the Arizona Daily Star and the Tucson Citizen is studied.
6. The characteristics of the personal relationship Dr. Morrow established with staff, teachers, and parents is studied.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study the following definitions have been established:

Autocratic Leadership:

A supervisor who believes that he must constantly check up on everyone to keep up production. He gives orders and employees carry them out. He believes that the only way to get conscientious performance is to expect and secure discipline and immediate acceptance of all others. (Bradford & Lippitt, 1961, p. 53)

Benevolent Autocratic Leadership:

A supervisor who is interested in seeing his employees happy, shows an interest in his employees, and praises as much as he criticizes his employees. They are urged to bring problems to the supervisor, and he is interested in all of the details of their work. The autocratic leader secures dependence upon himself by making himself the source of all standards of production. (Bradford & Lippitt, 1961, p. 53)

Other supporting literature, Griffiths, 1956.

Democratic Leadership: It evolved in the early portion of the 20th century, spurred by social and economic changes and the evolving social characteristics of school organizations. Democratic leadership was a by-product of the Progressive era in American history.

Democratic leadership was principally homegrown philosophy of school management that drew its strength from the ideas of educational reformers and was founded on a loosely integrated set of beliefs about democratic rights,

individual welfare, and the need for cooperation in human enterprise. (Campbell, 1987, p. 50)

Other supporting literature: Griffiths, 1956.

Governing Board: “The elected body that has been created according to state law and vested with responsibilities for educational policy-making and other aspects of government in a given geographic area established by the state” (Shafritz, Koeppe, & Soper, 1988, p. 374).

Leadership: “The relationship between two or more people in which one attempts to influence the other toward the accomplishment of some goal or goals” (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980, p. 277).

Management: “At its core, managing is about ‘handling’ things, about maintaining order, about organization and control” (Kouzes & Posner, 1995, p. 36). Management refers to carrying out board policy and enforcing rules and procedures. It is the day to day duties of running a school district.

School Bond Issue:

Interest bearing securities in the form of bonds that are made available at one time by a public school district. A bond issue is designed to provide capital funds for a designated need like new building construction, and advance approvals required customarily include one by voters in the district. (Hawes & Hawes, 1982, p. 29)

Superintendent: As the chief executive officer of a public school district, this individual is responsible for carrying out the policies of the governing board.

Triethnic Segregated System: An educational system where three separate and unequal educational programs are practiced. For the purposes of this study the definition of this term was taken from the Fisher et al. and Mendoza et al. versus Tucson Unified

School District. In this 1974 court case, the plaintiffs claimed the district illegally discriminated against Mexican-American and African-American children on the basis of race, color, and national origin.

Tucson Public Schools: The school district located in the central portion of Tucson, Arizona. This district consists of elementary, middle, high and alternative schools. It is the largest Tucson school district in population and size.

Summary

This case study focuses on an analysis of the personal and professional leadership and management practices of Dr. Robert D. Morrow and their impact on Tucson Public Schools during 1941 through 1968. Chapter 2 presents a review of the scholarly literature related to this study.

CHAPTER 2

THE REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The review of the related literature in this chapter is divided into four sections. The first section presents an historical perspective of educational leadership literature through the mid-1970s. The second section presents current educational leadership literature. The writing of Kenneth Leithwood and his analysis of six major leadership concepts are emphasized. These leadership concepts originated from different researchers. Leithwood and Duke summarized the concepts, and they noted the frequency these concepts were used in contemporary literature. The third section presents an historical perspective of the superintendent from 1940 through 1968. The fourth section presents research showing how a superintendent manages the concepts of decision making and problem solving in educational leadership practices. These concepts are emphasized in the design of the study and in the analysis of the data.

Section 1:

An Historical Perspective of Educational Leadership

The study of educational leadership began in the later stages of the 19th century and became a distinct field of study in the early part of the 20th century (Callahan 1962; Campbell, 1987; Culbertson, 1989). This field of study derived from two major needs.

First was the need to protect the educational process from the political realm. Second, the need to educate the masses of new immigrants and to assimilate them into the dominant culture of this nation at the turn of the 20th century required a systematic method of management (Campbell, 1987, p. 2).

“The 1901-1925 period did not produce a critical and systematic analysis of the underpinnings of the science of education and management” (Culbertson, 1989, p. 11).

The role of school management began to take shape into what is recognized today as public school administration.

Leadership in American public education had gravitated from the part-time educational evangelist of the mid-nineteenth century to a new breed of professional managers, who made education a life-long career and who reshaped the schools according to the canons of business efficiency and scientific expertise. (Tyack & Hansot, 1981, p. 9)

The Scientific Management method, written by Frederick Taylor, was prevalent in education from 1900 through the early 1930s. This management method relied on three factors of control.

First, the division of labor broke down the tasks into components. Second, the span of control advocated top-down authority. Third, principles of homogeneity, which advocated that a single department could be formed of positions grouped in any of four different ways. (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, pp. 3-4)

The focus was on making schools more efficient and managing public schools from a business-industrial perspective.

Prior to the Great Depression of the 1930s in the United States, business management practices and the industrial designs of corporations made millions of dollars. During the Industrial Revolution of the 19th century, big business valued efficiency and the maintenance of low production costs, which our public schools were encouraged to

emulate. If schools were more economical to run through more efficient management techniques, then the benefit would be a better educated citizen at less cost to the taxpayer.

The Scientific Management approach was greatly criticized by Callahan, who stated:

The great initial thrust for efficiency and economy against a young, weak profession in the years after 1911 started the unfortunate developments in educational administration and 50 years of inadequate support of our public schools has continued to extend their influence. (Callahan, 1962, p. 258)

The year 1940 signaled a de-emphasis on the business management practices of school administration. The country was emerging from the depression years of the 1930s, and the extensive failure of businesses caused people to become skeptical of the business practices and business-oriented approach to school management. The social sciences emerged as an alternative approach to school management. The social scientist, Chester Barnard, wrote extensively about how formal and informal organizations were structured and how social science fields like psychology, sociology, political science, and economics offered better explanations of the management field of educational leadership (Barnard, 1938; Hoy & Miskel, 1982).

The Human Relations and Democratic approaches to school administration emerged in the literature of the late 1940s. Daniel Griffiths, a leading education writer, stated: "Good human relations in administration are built upon a firm foundation of mutual respect, good will, and faith in the dignity and worth of human beings as individual personalities" (Griffiths, 1956, p. 17). The importance of the individual and his/her role within the organization was the focus of the literature.

The administrator functions within the three-skill method of examination: Technical skill, an understanding and proficiency in a specific kind of activity-particularly involving methods, processes and procedures. Human skills: The executive's ability to work effectively as a group member and to build cooperative effort within the team he leads. Conceptual skill: The ability to see the enterprise as a whole. (Griffiths, 1956, pp. 9-10)

Griffiths asserted that the core substantive knowledge of understanding human relations were motivation, perceptions, communication, power structure, authority, morale, group dynamics, decision making, and leadership. Administrators became proficient in applying these leadership concepts. The emphasis on social science fields of study and the conversion of these concepts into the day to day management of public schools constituted a shift in the leadership and value base of educational administration. "The human relations approach replaced the concentration on organizational structure with an emphasis on employees' motivation and satisfaction" (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, p. 9).

Administrators that employed a democratic approach to school leadership and management used human relations literature to support their practices. One of the goals of democratic leadership

... becomes that of getting each member to share fully in this process, to participate to the maximum in the decision making. With this personal investment in the decision, there will be greater interest in protecting that investment through cooperative group action. (Peterson, 1955, p. 29)

Democratic leaders are more inclusive in their approach to decision making. The leadership practices in a democratic approach enhance the responsibility of each member of the organization. "Leadership that distributes leadership is, in the context of a democratic ethics, the strongest and most fertile of all" (Bramfeld, 1955, p. 67). The three roles of leadership become: "(1) attitude of equality, (2) operation of leading a

group towards decisions or commitments, (3) operative--the implementer, carrying through with any decision or policy that the group has affirmed" (Bramfeld, 1955, p. 63). The democratic approach to leadership was widespread and coexisted with the emergence of the behavioral sciences in the middle of the 1950s.

Trait theories emerge in the literature to describe the leadership characteristics that determine a successful from an unsuccessful leader. This approach, known as the "great man theory of leadership" (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, p. 221), focuses on the behavior and actions of the leader using six different categories. "Focusing on individual traits does not show what the individual leader actually does in a leadership situation" (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980, p. 282). Trait theories could not sufficiently describe or explain the leadership process because the act of leadership could be situational or transactional between the leader and follower.

The one-dimensional approach of the trait theories led to a merger with the contingency approach of leadership. "This approach specifies the conditions, or situational variables, that moderate the relationship between leader traits and performance criteria" (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, p. 223). Szilagyi refers to this merger as the behavioral approach to leadership. This approach "focused on leader effectiveness, not the emergence of an individual as a leader" (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980, p. 283). The predominant characteristics of the behavioral models are task orientation, "the emphasis the leader places on getting the job done and employee orientation, the openness and friendliness exhibited by the leader and his or her concern for the needs of subordinates" (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980, p. 283).

The Ohio State Studies and The University of Michigan Studies best address the behavioral approach. These early approaches sought to measure leadership through leader behavior description questionnaires. The two dimensions of leadership behavior were initiating structure and consideration. Task structure and employee orientations were the basis of the questions. See Table 2.1 for a summary of behavioral approaches to leadership.

First, the two theories attempted to explain the leadership situation in terms of behavioral styles of the leader; that is what the leader does, not his or her personal characteristics. Second, the measurement of leadership style for each of the approaches was accomplished through the use of questionnaires. Finally, the research findings suggested that a universally accepted “best” style was inappropriate for the complexities of modern organizations. (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980, pp. 286-287)

Table 2.1

Summary of Behavioral Approaches to Leadership

(Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980, p. 287 [Exhibit 9-6])

Source	Leadership Dimension	How Measured	Summary of Results
Ohio State Studies	1. Initiating structure 2. Consideration	Through questionnaires completed by (1) the leader, (2) subordinates, (3) peers, and (4) immediate supervisor	A research-based approach that initially sought to determine the most effective leadership style. The findings indicate that a mix of initiating structure and consideration leader behavior, which achieved the highest effectiveness, depends largely on situational factors.
University of Michigan Studies	1. Job centered 2. Employee centered	Through questionnaire responses completed by subordinates	Employee-centered and job-centered styles result in productivity increases. However, job-centered behavior created tension and pressure that resulted in lower satisfaction and increased turnover and absenteeism. Employee-centered is the best leadership style.

The situational theories were developed in the 1960s. The influence of the trait theories and the behavioral approach laid the foundation for the situational models. The situational theorists “suggested that the most effective way to lead is a dynamic and flexible process that adapts to the particular situation” (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980, p. 288). Four areas of diagnosis in these models include managerial characteristics, subordinate factors, group factors and organizational factors. The two models identified with situational theories are Fred Fiedler’s A Contingency Leadership Model and Robert House’s A Path-Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness.

The basic theory of A Contingency Leadership Model is that “the effectiveness of the leader in achieving high group performance is contingent on the need structure of the leader and the degree to which the leader has control and influence in a particular situation” (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980, p. 291). Different types of situations determine the leadership type. The situation is an important factor in this model. The favorableness of the situation determines to what degree the leader has control over employees. Three factors were used to determine effectiveness:

Position power, which refers to the degree to which the position itself enables the leader to get subordinates to comply with directives. Task structure, the extent to which the task can be clearly specified, verified, and programmed in a step by step manner. Leader-member relations refer to the extent to which the leader is accepted and respected by the group members. (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, p. 238)

A generalization drawn from the Fiedler model “is that favorableness of the situation elicits leader behavior that is consistent with the motivational system of the leader” (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, p. 240).

The Fiedler model was the best attempt in the 1960s to understand the interplay of various factors that determine leadership effectiveness. It is important to understand that in 1945, just 15 years prior to the development of this model, the social sciences were just beginning to emerge in the field of educational administration.

The Path-Goal Theory, formulated by Robert House in the 1970s, is complex and detailed and similar to the Contingency model discussed above. Path-Goal integrates leader behavior and situational favorableness. "The focus is on how leaders influence their subordinates' perceptions of work goals, personal goals, and paths to goal attainment" (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, pp. 243-244). Two generalizations have been made about Path-Goal Theory.

They are (1) Leader behavior is acceptable and satisfying to followers, (2) The motivational impact of specific leader behaviors is determined by the characteristics of the subordinates and the environmental pressures and demands of the job and organization. (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, pp. 245-246)

The goal is to explain leadership behavior and situational variables that influence the effectiveness of the leader.

Three main differences exist between Path-Goal Theory and the Contingency Theory of leadership.

(1) Path-Goal does not seek to measure the motivational basis of leader behavior—while contingency does not try to measure leader behavior. (2) Contingency: Effectiveness is measured in terms of the extent to which the group accomplishes its task. The Path-Goal leader's effectiveness is measured in terms of the psychological states of the subordinates. (3) Path-Goal is phrased so those additional variables could be added as new ones became known. There is better potential for refining and extending. (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, pp. 246-247)

Table 2.2

Summary of Situational Theories (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980, p. 303 [Exhibit 9-14])

Theory	Leader Behavior Style	Situational Factors	Principal Focus	Research Results
Contingency Model	Task oriented	Leader-member relations	Favorableness of situation for leader (relationship between leader's style and situational factors)	Supportive and nonsupportive findings; major problems concern: (1) how leadership style is measured; (2) unidimensional leadership style; (3) interaction of leadership style and situational factors; and (4) stability of factors and leadership style over time
	Employee oriented	Task structure		
		Leader position power		
Path-Goal Theory	Instrumental	Individual characteristics:	The leader's function is both Supplemental and motivational; leader should exhibit behavior that Emphasizes clarification of expectancies and Valences	Limited findings, but generally supportive; especially supportive when investigating the interaction with the style of task; major problems concern: (1) measurement of variables; (2) complexity and (3) lack of predictions with respect to performance
	Supportive	Ability		
	Participative	Locus of control		
		Needs and motives		
	Achievement oriented	Work-environment characteristics:		
		Nature of task		
		Group factors		
		Organizational factors		

The preparation of programs for educational leaders is a relatively new field. The social science fields have played a major role in formulating the theory and design of these programs. Herbert Simon's writing in Administrative Behavior "provided the most direct conduit in the 1940s for the flow of administrative science into educational administration" (Culbertson, 1989, p. 15). The foundation of study into educational administration shifted from scientific management, industrial models that focused on

efficiency and the division of duties, to social science. The influence of situational variables and leadership factors better explained organizational behavior.

The Kellogg Foundation set up a fund of \$3,400,000 over 5 years “to fund regional efforts to improve the study and practice of educational administration” (Campbell, 1987, pp. 181-182). This field was disjointed in its approach to producing scholarly literature; little coordination existed, the knowledge base validity was unknown, and the placement of this field of inquiry among the many fields of study spurred debate.

In an effort to reexamine the field, the knowledge base, and even their own teaching practices, nine universities were chosen to host Kellogg centers, which initiated several decades of change in preparatory programs (Campbell, 1987). The Cooperative Project in Educational Administration, CPEA, “attracted significant new talent to the field of education, built new bridges between study and practice, and stimulated growth of inservice training” (Campbell, 1987, p. 182). The scholarly research conducted in these nine universities served to consolidate best research about the field of educational administration, to share data, to improve the quality of educational leadership programs, and to publish literature related to this field of study.

It is important to note the influence social sciences played in the formulation of educational administration. The timing of the Kellogg funding, just as the field of social sciences in educational administration was emerging, advanced the knowledge base of educational leadership, influenced the research into leadership theory, and added form and structure to an emerging field of study within the social sciences.

Summary

The evolution of the leadership literature progressed from the scientific management theories to the trait theories, behavioral theories and into the situational theories that in complex ways explained leadership behavior and leadership effectiveness. “The basic parameters of leadership behavior are (1) concern for task and (2) concern for individuals and interpersonal relations. . . . Leadership studies of school administrators suggest that the most effective are those who score high on initiating structure, (organizational ability) and consideration (ability to relate to subordinates)” (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, p. 258). Section 2 focuses on the current leadership theories that in many ways were influenced by these early leadership studies.

Section 2:

A Review of Current Educational Leadership Literature

In this section the researcher reviews the current literature on educational leadership, emphasizing the six models of contemporary leadership practices as listed by Kenneth Leithwood and Daniel Duke. The intent in this section is to create a sense of how leadership practices in educational administration change and how they remain similar to past practices. The models of leadership that school leaders use influence their practices, thus enabling school leaders to understand the impact of those actions on the direction of their organizations.

The current literature emphasizes the impact of influence as a key word in the definition of leadership. The process of leadership includes “Who exerts influence?

How is influence exerted? The purpose for the exercise of influence, and the outcomes of influence” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 46). It is influence, “exerted by one person [or group] over other people [or groups] to structure the activities and relationships in a group or organization” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 46).

Instructional leadership is “a focus on the behaviors of teachers as they engage in activities directly affecting the growth of students” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 47). Three categories of tasks distinguish this leadership style: “Defining the school mission, managing the instructional program and promoting school climate” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 48).

The emphasis of this leadership style places the responsibility on the teachers and principals who are the closest professionals to the children. Instructional leadership responsibility rests first with teachers, who, according to Sergiovanni, (1996, p. 93) have the responsibility “for guiding children academically, socially and spiritually through the world of childhood into adulthood.” The role of the principal is that of process facilitator to guarantee “that the interest of the children are well served” (Sergiovanni, 1996, p. 93). Administrators practice instructional leadership when “they exercise their stewardship responsibilities by committing themselves to building, to serving, to caring for, and to protecting the school and its purposes” (Sergiovanni, 1996, p. 95).

Smith and Andrews (1989) emphasize the role of the building principal with instructional leadership. They contend that a strong interaction between the principal and teachers is an important component of this model. The four areas of emphasis are

“(1) the principal as resource provider, (2) the principal as instructional resource, (3) the principal as communicator, and (4) the principal as visible presence” (Smith & Andrews, 1989, p. 9). The research of Ron Edmonds in *The Effective School Movement*, 1979, is seen as a model for instructional leadership by Smith and Andrews. The basis of effective leadership in schools rests with the following premises:

(1) Have clear, informed visions of what they want their schools to become; (2) translate these visions into goals for their schools and expectations for their teachers, students and administrators; (3) continuously monitor progress; (4) intervene in a supportive or corrective manner when this seems necessary. (Smith & Andrews, 1989, p. 7)

Instructional leadership represents an important leadership category as set forth by Leithwood and Duke. The collaborative process involving teachers and principals that act in the ‘best’ interest of students can be accepted as effective leadership.

“Considerable empirical evidence has accumulated in support of the contribution these leadership practices and functions add to student achievement as well as other types of outcomes” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 48). The concern expressed about instructional leadership models is that the principal is given the overall responsibility of implementing this model. Kleine-Kracht (1993) asserts that “principals alone cannot fulfill all of a school’s need for instructional leadership” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 48). This model asserts that the value of the teacher is critical but does not adequately outline the specific roles teachers perform as instructional leaders. Excellent teaching is seen as the teacher’s leadership function.

In transformational leadership, “Power is attributed by organization members to whomever is able to inspire their commitments to collective aspirations and the desire for

personal and collective mastery over the capacities needed to accomplish aspirations” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999 p. 49). James McGregor Burns is recognized as the leading authority on this leadership style. Burns (1978) asserts that past leadership models over-emphasized the role of power in the leadership transactions. “The essence of leadership is to be found in relationships between motives, resources, leaders, and followers: the most powerful influence consists of deeply human relationships in which two or more persons engage with one another” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 49). He continues to refer to this leadership as “appreciation of power-as-relationships” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 49).

The role of transformational leadership in schools is outlined by Leithwood and Duke.

This model conceptualizes such leadership along seven dimensions: building school vision, establishing school goals, providing intellectual stimulation, offering individualized support, modeling best practices and important organizational values, demonstrating high performance expectations, creating a productive school culture, and developing structures to foster participation in school decisions. (Leithwood, 1994, p. 49)

Transformational leadership is similar to democratic leadership in that it encourages participation from all of the stakeholders in the organization. However, the added dimensions of leadership as an achievement of higher or loftier goals for the organization, or to transcend from the goals of self-interest, are seen as worthy attributes of this leadership style. “Transformational leadership practices encourage people to work for transcendental goals, to be self-motivating, and to seek sources of self-actualization in their workplace” (Leithwood, 1995, p. 329).

James McGregor Burns designed transactional leadership as an exchange theory. "Various kinds of rewards from the organization are exchanged for the services of the employee" (Leithwood, 1995, p. 328). Transactional practices consist of the superintendent's outlining for principals the steps to be completed in order to achieve an outcome.

Of two types of transactional practices, the first is contingent reward. "The superintendent tells staff what to do in order to be rewarded for their efforts" (Leithwood, 1995, p. 328). The second is management by exception. "The superintendent intervenes with staff only if standards are not being met" (p. 328). Transactional leadership does not fulfill the requirements of leadership for an educational organization. There is no motivation for teachers or principals to do their best and to maintain a high level of output.

Douglas McGregor was an influential writer of human relations as it relates to leadership and management studies. His assertion is that self-interest must either be coerced or seduced. His Theory X and Theory Y assumptions are important contributions to the literature in leadership studies.

Theory X is an autocratic style of leadership. The role of the leader in Theory X is to motivate, control and modify employee behavior. The hard sell is characterized by authoritarian and coercive leadership. The soft sell is characterized by using human relations or democratic and paternalistic patterns in administrative practices (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, p. 172).

Theory Y is characterized by factors such as participation and concern for worker morale. Managers are encouraged to practice: “(1) delegating authority for many decisions; (2) enlarging and enriching jobs of workers by making them less repetitive; (3) increasing the variety of activities and responsibilities; and (4) improving the free flow of communication within the organization” (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980, p. 105).

McGregor’s theories were supported by the behavioral literature in leadership that emerged in the 1950s.

Greenleaf (1976) and Hodgkinson (1991) assert that values are an integral factor in leadership and management. In moral leadership

... Values constitute the essential problem of leadership. The focus of moral leadership is on the values and ethics of the leader, so authority and influence are to be derived from defensible conceptions of what is right and good. (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 50)

Past leadership practices did not address values in the leadership literature. Herbert Simon states that values had no place in the study of administrative decision making. “Among the values of greatest concern to those exploring moral perspectives on leadership is the nature of the values used by leaders in their decision making and how conflicts among values can be resolved” (Leithwood, 1999, p. 50). Hodgkinson (1991) associates this leadership with three factors. They are sub-rational, which centers on the self-interest of the leader; rational, which is based on the consensus of the group decision; or transrational, which are “values having a metaphysical grounding. Principles take the form of ethical codes, injunctions, or commandments” (Leithwood, 1999, p. 51).

Another view of moral leadership is the political nature of values in decision making by administrators. “This aspect of moral leadership focuses on the nature of the

relationships among those within the organization and the distribution of power between stakeholders both inside and outside the organization” (Leithwood, 1999, p. 51). An organization also has an informal side, or what Bolman and Deal (1996) would characterize as the symbolic framework of leadership, which includes the culture, attitudes, and myths that are integral to understanding the activities of an organization. Leaders need to recognize that the political and symbolic nature of organizations suggests that values are inherent in the decision making process. Moral leadership represents these values as a reflection of active participation in school organizations and the democratic principles of our society.

Participative leadership, Yukl (1994), otherwise known in the literature as group, shared, or teacher leadership, “stresses the decision-making processes of the group” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 51). This leadership model is the present form of democratic leadership advocated widely after World War II. Participative leadership advocates “more consultative, open and democratic [leadership] that involves teachers and parents much more in school decision making” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 52). Proponents believe that this form of leadership enhances the effectiveness of the organization and that site-based management can best articulate democratic principles.

Site based management is a form of participative leadership. Leithwood (1999) lists three models in the literature: administrative, professional, and community controlled. All include a distribution of power among the major stakeholders in the organization or within the local community. According to Leithwood (1999), the assumptions of participative leadership are that teachers and parents are willing to be

responsive to the values of the school organization. The amount of decision making power is usually manifested through site councils, which may act as an advisory board to the principal or as a decision making body.

“Managerial leadership focuses on the functions, tasks, or behaviors of the leader and assumes that if these functions are carried out competently the work of others in the organization will be facilitated” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 52-53). This style of leadership focuses on the day to day management of organizations. Management is responsible for carrying out policy initiatives, for maintaining the structure within an organization, and for seeing that the right things are done. This style is often placed opposite of leadership characteristics, which “is assigned the challenges of policy making, organizational change, and making sure the right things get done” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 53).

The review of the literature reveals two functions of management in which educational leaders generally engage. Rossmiller (1992) states that administrators “buffer the technical core (curriculum and instruction) of the school from excessive distractions and interruptions, and smoothing input or output transitions” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 53). Myers and Murphy’s (1995) study of organizational mechanisms includes “supervision, input controls (such as teacher transfers), behavior controls (such as job descriptions), output controls (student testing), selection/socialization, and environmental controls (community responsiveness)” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 53). The leadership practices of school administrators contain numerous functions of management. Bennis (1995) states that leaders are important in an organization for the

following three reasons: “They are responsible for the effectiveness of organizations. The change and upheaval of the past years has left us no place to hide. There is a pervasive, national concern about the integrity of our institutions” (Bennis, 1995, p. 15). Leithwood’s (1999) assertion that management practices are a necessary component of meeting leadership goals is the focus of managerial leadership.

Contingent leadership “assumes that there are wide variations in the contexts for leadership and that to be effective, these contexts require different leadership responses” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 54). Contingent leadership assumes that a variety of leadership practices and problem solving approaches are unique to the particular leader. Leithwood’s contention is that there are finite sets of leadership models. The varied way these models are practiced and the way leaders problem-solve in relation to their particular challenges create unlimited practices.

Two types of problem-solving orientations are identified in the literature. They are “those describing leadership as a reflective or craft-like enterprise stress the importance of leaders’ internal processes, and concept of reflective practice, or knowing-in-action, to explore the limited utility to practicing leaders of formal, scientific theory” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 54).

Summary

The common theme that runs through the six leadership models outlined by Leithwood and Duke is relationships. These models center on leaders, followers, the organization and the environment. The models overlap in their perspective of leadership.

“The potential complexity arising from varying forms of relations among leaders, followers, organization, and environment helps explain the difficulties leadership theorists have experienced in developing a widely agreed-upon understanding of leadership” (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p. 67).

The purpose of this section is to define and summarize the current leadership models in the literature. According to Leithwood and Duke, these six models represent the most prevalent thought on leadership practices. The democratic leadership models of the post World War II era are almost identical to the current participative leadership model. The situational theories of the 1960s have common features seen in today’s contingent leadership models. In the next section of the literature review the researcher describes a historical review of the school superintendent.

Section 3:

An Historical Review of the School Superintendent

The evolution of the position of school superintendent since 1912 has reflected the changes in public education. The role responsibilities have remained consistent. The superintendent is the chief executive officer of the governing board responsible for policy implementation. In this section the researcher provides a review of the literature in four main areas. They consist of: (a) identification of factors that influenced the role of the superintendent from 1912 through 1940; (b) changes in the position after World War II; (c) the ferment in school administration in the 1950s that led to the emergence of the superintendent as a negotiator-statesman; and (d) the influence of the social science

movement on school administration that led to the emergence of the superintendent as an applied social scientist.

Historians refer to the first part of the 20th century as the Progressive Era. This era in American history was marked by a heightened concern about the social progress of society. School districts adopted the science of business management developed by Frederick Taylor (Callahan, 1962; Hoy & Miskel, 1982). Griffiths (1966) asserts that the strength of business practices in the United States and the political vulnerability of public schools in society led school districts to imitate the business world. The basic training of superintendents was the routine, the technical, and the business aspects of the position and was permeated with the philosophy of management, of business efficiency. The common practice for districts was to conduct surveys, or audits, of their practices and to strive to become more efficient.

“Individuals who advocated business-industrial management approached schools in a business-like, mechanical, organizational way” (Callahan, 1962, p. 247). Three main consequences of this approach included increases in class size, no time to study and prepare, and no depth of scholarship in education. Callahan goes on to write about these scientific management administrators. “They saw schools not as centers of learning but as enterprises which were functioning efficiently if the students went through without failing and received their diplomas on schedule and if the operation were handled economically” (Callahan, 1962, p. 247).

The 1930s represented a change in practice for school districts. The Great Depression of the 1930s brought with it disillusionment about the wisdom of using

business leadership and practices in school administration. The effects of business management were strong and long lasting for school districts. Most school administrators were trained in the business management philosophy. Griffiths (1966) asserts that these students were taught the value of efficiency, which included plant maintenance, supervision of personnel that was top down, budgeting practices that focused on the bottom line, and the importance of time management as per business standards.

The scientific management practices of business for the most part could be applied in school settings. These practices valued efficiency, low cost production, and high teacher to pupil ratios. The vehicle used by school administrators to manage school systems was bureaucracy, which was influenced by Max Weber. Bureaucracy added the needed structure, procedures, and tight control necessary for success under scientific management. Furthermore, schools of educational leadership predominantly taught aspiring superintendents and principals under a philosophy of scientific management. Hence, as these administrators received their degrees and entered the job market, the practices at their schools were business oriented, bureaucratic and top down.

The superintendency began to change after World War II (Callahan, 1966; Campbell, 1987). The social, political, and economic conditions in the United States changed radically after World War II. Factors, such as mobility in American society, are affirmation of democratic principles in society, and major changes in the economic opportunities for most Americans provided the backdrop for the changes in education administration. The influence of the social sciences began to affect the way in which

school districts were managed. The schools of education still did not collaborate on research and best practices for the science of educational administration.

The field of education administration was influenced by the research in the fields of psychology, sociology, political science, anthropology, and economics. The behavioral approach emerged from these fields of study. The emphasis with this approach was on the behaviors of leaders as they encountered situations within their schools. "By allying educational administration conceptually with other fields of administration, scholars at last had clearly differentiated administration from the teacher" (Culbertson, 1989, p. 17). The pressure on schools of education to change their programs rested on new theories of social science and pressure for policy research, which created an altered relationship between the social sciences and educational administration. The new relationship created turmoil for professors of educational administration but left the field in a better position to deal with the changes, issues, and dramatic growth that followed in the 1950s.

After World War II, the superintendent as practitioner relied on anecdote and limited research that focused on scientific management principles. "Moreover, the ranks of school superintendents had been severely depleted by the war leaving major posts filled by men ready to retire. The supply of qualified men to replace them was very small" (Griffiths, 1966, p. 35). The emergence of social sciences in educational administration exposed numerous deficits and problems in how research literature and best practices were learned and how that knowledge was collated and disseminated to practitioners.

The Kellogg Foundation had supported the study of school administration in the 1930s in some rural counties in Michigan. The National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, NCPEA, convinced the foundation to grant \$3.4 million over 5 years towards the study and research of education administration. The Cooperative Project in Educational Administration, CPEA, was established, in which nine universities established Kellogg centers to study and collaborate on research in educational administration. Professional organizations also led to an increase in research, study, and collaboration for school administrators. The American Association of School Administrators, AASA, became stronger and supported the advancement of school administration as a profession.

The 1950s decade was marked by substantive changes for school superintendents. The influence of the social sciences, the emerging collaboration of the CPEA projects, and the social forces of the 1950s, which included dramatic growth, a fight for civil rights, and unprecedented economic growth, led to what Griffiths refers to as “the ferment in school administration” (Griffiths, 1966, p. 37).

Campbell (1987) asserts that in the 1950s three related developments precipitated major changes in school administration. The first was the effect of the social sciences and advancements in research as noted above. The second was the emerging civil rights issues centered on equality and equal access to education. The 1954 court case, Brown v. Board of Education, in Topeka, Kansas, became the centerpiece of the cause for equal justice and opportunity through education. This court case challenged the doctrine of “separate but equal” educational facilities for African-Americans. The Supreme Court

ruled that this doctrine was flawed and discriminatory towards African-Americans and ordered states to dismantle their segregated school systems. “Third, as urbanization advanced, the reorganization and consolidation of school districts became a major factor in education” (Campbell, 1987, p. 13). In 1947, there were more than 100,000 local school districts in the United States. By 1956 the number was down to 59,000, and by 1980 the number stood at 16,000. These three developments are important examples of the change and turmoil in school districts across the country. This reorganization led to a need for better efficiency and created numerous challenges for school districts and their superintendents.

In the 1950s the superintendent evolved into a negotiator-statesman (Cuban, 1976) or an educational-statesman (Callahan, 1966). The characterization by Cuban of the superintendent as a negotiator-statesman refers to factors such as, “Sensitivity to the impact of the community, . . . the diversity of groups from which schools need both financial and moral support, and to the inherent vulnerability of the superintendent’s position” (Cuban, 1976, pp. 118-119). The characterization by Callahan refers to superintendents as stressing “creative dynamic democratic leadership in school and community with everyone—teachers, pupils and parents—participating” (Callahan, 1966, p. 215). The superintendent required skills in the use of human relations and democratic leadership, considering that these factors influenced the direction of public schools.

The position of superintendent during the later stages of the 1950s and through the 1960s underwent more dramatic change than during the post World War II era (Callahan, 1962; Campbell, 1987; Griffiths, 1966). Those factors that influenced change

in the 1950s seemed to accelerate beyond the capacity of school districts and superintendents' ability to keep up. The influence of the federal government in the area of education also added heavily to the duties and responsibilities of the school superintendent. The 1960s represented a time of radical change in the United States. The Vietnam War divided the country, social justice became a nation-wide cause, especially on college campuses, and the attitude about authority and institutions in the United States was widely debated. Willower and Forsyth (1999) note this attitude in the following comment:

During the 1960s and early 1970s, concerns about such issues as the possibility of nuclear war, environmental deterioration, and economic and social injustices conjoined with the struggles of various groups to attain equity and influence, fueled a powerful social activism. (p. 10)

Griffiths (1966) states that the superintendent evolved into one perceived as philosopher-superintendent. The involvement of the superintendent with the varied educational programs of schools was intensive. "The term philosopher-superintendent . . . shows that there is a need for men of intellect and understanding rather than for men whose chief stock in trade is the manipulation of things" (Griffiths, 1966, p. 101).

Griffiths goes on to state that the role of the superintendent meant the assumption of broader roles in the position to account for the changing values of society.

Superintendents had to keep involved in the instructional leadership aspects of their jobs. They also had to be innovative and yet reasonable in how they approached change within their organizations. Griffiths accepted Callahan's view that superintendents led organizations that were vulnerable to the local community. Griffiths' assertion was that superintendents had to work with their school boards to add structure and form to their

contracts in order to decrease their vulnerability. The final factors in Griffiths' assertion that superintendents needed to evolve into philosopher-superintendents included their improving the ability to delegate responsibility and properly staffing their school districts with administrators. The partnerships with the nearest university in research efforts would strengthen the local school district. Lastly, the superintendent as a person

. . . should have had the benefit of a fine liberal arts education and had excellent graduate training in administration. It would be well for him to have taught and to have had some administrative experience; but intelligence, a broad cultural background, and administrative training are probably more valuable. (Griffiths, 1966, p. 105)

Callahan (1966) outlines four major issues that change the superintendent into an educational realist and applied social scientist. The 1960s placed "great stress upon analyzing educational leadership—or finding out what it was rather than what it should be" (Callahan, 1966, p. 218). The emergence of the superintendent from an educational statesman was in an understanding of human beings and organizations and then a use of this understanding to keep the organization running smoothly. Callahan lists four concepts that are indicative of superintendents in the 1960s. First, he outlines the split in the 1960s between the professors of education administration and superintendents known as school practitioners. This split took place concerning the concept of democratic administration which researchers felt was used by practitioners as an empty slogan. Second, the increase in influence of the social sciences on educational administration was important because of the knowledge base added to this field. Callahan noted that "so much of what we do is opportunistic response to the emergency of the moment or copied from other organizational fields such as the military, business, and industry" (Callahan,

1966, p. 221). Third is the influence of the Kellogg Foundation, which has been reviewed in previous paragraphs. "The fourth major factor contributing to the change in the conception of the superintendency was a resurgence of criticism, which hit the schools between 1950 and 1954" (Callahan, 1966, p. 222). The emphasis of vulnerability and the pressure placed upon superintendents led to numerous dismissals. The source of this criticism was attributed to "the social hysteria produced by McCarthyism, the financial difficulty of increasing enrollment, and the demand for expanded educational services" (Callahan, 1966, p. 223).

Superintendents were urged to create citizen committees to review the direction of their school districts and to review the literature of the social sciences and apply the research into their practices. Callahan, like Griffiths, encouraged superintendents to better understand both human behavior and the concept that controlling their situation on the job was critical to longevity.

Summary

The position of school superintendent is reviewed from a historical perspective since 1912. The changes that affected the administration of schools after World War II, the ferment of the 1950s, the emergence of the superintendent as a negotiator-statesman, and finally, the effects of the social sciences on educational administration have been reviewed. In the next section of the literature review, the researcher describes the concepts of decision making and problem solving as they relate to the leadership practices of school administrators.

Section 4:

A Review of Decision Making and Problem Solving Concepts

In this section the researcher reviews the concepts of decision making and problem solving as supported by the literature for educational administration. Superintendents consistently use the characteristics of these two concepts in order to apply their leadership and management practices.

Decision making is “the process one goes through in order to be able to pass judgement and terminate a controversy” (Griffiths, 1956, p. 202). This process of decision making is inherent for all leaders. Public schools rely on policy, which acts to set limitations on its managers and leaders. Policies affect decision making by defining “who makes the decision, what the decision should be, and what information exists about how the decision is made” (Griffiths, 1956, p. 211). Administrators deal with two types of decision making. The first is personal, which each individual carries out. The second is organizational, which is usually delegated by the leader.

“The major process by which performance occurs is through decision making” (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980, p. 401). Decisions are commonly made at three different levels: the individual, the group, and an organization. The decision making model proposed by Barnard, March, Simon, and Cyert (1978) most closely adheres to the process of decision-making a superintendent would use. “Decision making is the fundamental process of behavior and performance within organizations” (p. 401). Hence, “organizational behavior is to examine the motivational, cognitive, and computational limitations under which actual decisions are made” (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980, p. 408).

“Bounded reality implies that people in organizations make decisions under a number of external and psychological constraints” (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980, p. 408). Three critical assumptions occur about decision making using this model.

First, decisions are made in sequence. Decision-makers search for new alternatives only if they are dissatisfied with present outcomes. The greater the expected value of the outcome, the greater will be the level of aspiration. Second, decision-makers use the most convenient and least expensive information. Third, the direction of the decision maker’s search for alternative actions is often influenced by personal perceptions, values, beliefs, experiences and training. (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980, pp. 408-410)

Leithwood (1995) explains that the duties of a superintendent working along side a governing board represent the conditions of bounded rationality. The governing board is a policy making body that uses a superintendent to administer and implement those policies. The process of decision making also is reflective of the constraints, communication patterns, and information these bodies use to make decisions individually or formally as a district.

Problem solving represents the second concept under review. Leithwood (1995) posits the following problem solving model. “Problems are defined as circumstances in which a gap is perceived between a current state and a more desirable state” (Leithwood, 1989, pp. 54-55). Two general categories in problem solving are as follows:

Understanding processes serve the purpose of generating a CEO’s internal representation of the problem, what he believes the problem to be. Second, solving processes aim to reduce the gap between current and desired states. How the executive will transform the current state into the more desirable goal state. (Leithwood, 1989, pp. 54-55)

The administrator involved in problem solving uses schemata, or prior knowledge. Interpretation and evaluation of the problem are ongoing processes.

Leithwood's evidence suggests that expert administrators possess the following characteristics:

Develop a relatively clearer understanding of the problem before attempting to solve it; devote more time and effort to the initial formulation of ill structured problems; and are more inclined to view the immediate problem in its relationship to the broader mission and problems of the organization. (Leithwood, 1995, p. 56)

In Leithwood's model the superintendent's problem-solving processes appear to be highly expert, to place the immediate problem in a broader context, to use anticipation, and to address constraints. The superintendent's role is to clarify the meaning and consequences of the available alternatives to assist the group in finding the best solution to its problem. Two purposes of the problem solving approach include: "The short-term purpose . . . was to transform ideas into organizational reality. A second, longer term purpose is organizational learning, especially fostering the learning of the groups" (Leithwood, 1995, pp. 78-79).

Summary

Decision making and problem solving are inherent components of the leadership practices of school administrators. The Barnard, March, Simon, and Cyert (1978) model for decision making can be used effectively to study an individual leader. The Leithwood (1995) model represents relatively new research about the problem solving behaviors of superintendents. These models are used for the purpose of comparison with the leadership practices of the subject of this case study.

Chapter Summary

The review of the literature for this study is divided into four sections. The first section provides a review of past scholarly literature of leadership in educational administration. The second section provides a review of current literature in educational leadership. The third section provides a historical review of the superintendent from 1912 through 1968. The fourth section provides a review of decision making and problem solving models as they pertain to school administrators. Chapter 3 presents the design of this study and the methods of research.

CHAPTER 3

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Introduction

This case study ascertains ways Robert Morrow sought to lead and manage a growing school district. The guiding questions of this study are the following:

1. How did Robert D. Morrow seek to solve problems within a growing school district?
2. What personal and professional leadership style and management ability did Dr. Morrow practice within the context of a growing school district?
3. How did Dr. Morrow address the challenges and responsibilities necessary for a superintendent to move the school district forward in a progressive manner in an expanding city after World War II?

This chapter outlines the methods used to investigate the purpose of the study as stated in chapter 1. Included is a description of the methods, instruments used, data collection, document analysis, framework of inquiry, interview procedures, and boundaries of the study.

Methods

The methods used in this case study included:

1. A study of past educational leadership literature.

2. An historical perspective of the role and responsibility of the superintendent and the evolvement of the position since World War II.
3. A study of current educational literature.
4. A study of the role and responsibility of the school superintendent as it relates to the scholarly literature of educational leadership.
5. A framework listing the major themes related to Dr. Morrow's leadership and management practices connected to six models of past and contemporary leadership practices.
6. Personal interviews with individuals who knew and worked with Dr. Morrow.

Data Collection

The data used to complete this case study were literature reviews of past and current educational leadership practices, primary and secondary historical documents, newspaper articles and editorials, and personal interviews with individuals who knew and worked with Dr. Morrow.

Document Analysis

Three areas of Robert Morrow's responsibilities as superintendent of schools were examined. The following sources of information were the basis for the analysis.

1. Arizona Daily Star and Tucson Citizen stories and editorials.
2. An interview of Dr. Morrow given to Mr. Short at the Arizona Historical Society.

3. Personal writings, such as an address to the teachers of the district and an editorial written for the Arizona School Administrator.
4. Several depositions in the Fisher/Mendoza 1974 court case against Tucson Public Schools.
5. Tucson Public Schools historical data on attendance, school bond elections, and student demographic data.
6. Journal articles on segregation and desegregation.
7. Dissertation studies on Tucson Public Schools and on superintendent and school board relationships.
8. Governing Board minutes.
9. Personal interviews of individuals who knew and worked with Dr. Morrow.

These sources of information were used to establish a framework of inquiry that describe the questions of the study and analyze Dr. Morrow's leadership practices in a systematic manner. The information in this list was studied in such a way that the implications of Dr. Morrow's leadership practices are conveyed within the context of his tenure as superintendent. The answers to the questions listed in the framework of inquiry were culled from the body of these sources. Each source provided information about Dr. Morrow's leadership and management practices. The context of the historical period in which he served and the methods used by this researcher to systematically study his tenure provided the boundaries of the research framework.

Research Methods: A Framework of Inquiry

This case study is modeled after the conceptual structure posited by Robert Stake (1988). “The case study is a study of a ‘bounded system,’ emphasizing the unity and wholeness of that system, but confining the attention to those aspects that are relevant to the research problems at the time” (p. 258). The study of Dr. Morrow is centered on his leadership and management practices during his tenure, 1941 through 1968. The researcher reviewed the common patterns of leadership through a case study approach with an emphasis on historical data. The basis of research into case studies was supported by the literature of Stake, 1988; Bogdan and Biklen, 1998; Tyack, 1988; Kaestle, 1988; and McMillan and Schumacher, 2001.

One of the methods used to assist the reader in verifying conclusions about the study is the process of triangulation. “This technique is one of trying to arrive at the same meaning by at least three independent approaches” (Stake, 1988, p. 263). The sources of information listed in the document analysis are used to “give an accurate and useful representation of the bounded system” (Stake, 1988, p. 263).

This design of this case study uses the following framework of inquiry. The three guiding questions in the purpose of the study are supported by specific questions listed below. The supporting data that answer these questions are listed in the document analysis section. The researcher carefully selected these questions so that the reader could generalize the implications of Dr. Morrow’s practices.

The categories that follow the questions are centered on four statements supported by the literature review on educational leadership. The statements consist of: (a) the steps

the superintendent took to problem solve; (b) the superintendent's approach to the challenge, or the day to day and year to year management of the district; (c) the superintendent's decision-making process; and (d) the consequences of the superintendent's problem solving, decisions, and challenges. Each of these statements is supported by brief listings that will guide the researcher in the analysis of the data in chapter 4.

Six historical and contemporary leadership practices are briefly defined in this chapter. The literature review of chapter 2 provides a more thorough analysis of these practices. These six practices are used as an evaluation framework of the leadership and management practices of educational practitioners. Two of the six practices identified by Leithwood and Duke (1999) were used in the design of the study. The other four practices were taken from the historical literature of educational leadership. The group of questions posed by the researcher together with the standardized methods in which the data was analyzed and compared to the six leadership practices through a matrix is listed in Figure 3.1. Dr. Morrow's leadership practices related to the questions of this study are listed in the matrix in chapter 4.

	Benevolent Autocratic	Democratic	Situational	Transactional	Transformational	Moral
How did Robert D. Morrow seek to solve problems within a growing school district?						
1 What type of organizational structure existed within Dr. Morrow's administrative staff?						
2 In what ways did Dr. Morrow promote a positive and productive relationship with students, faculty, administrative and support staff?						
What personal and professional leadership style and management ability did Dr. Morrow practice within the context of a growing district?						
3 How did Dr. Morrow's decision to promote the desegregation of the elementary schools in Tucson Public Schools affect his status as a leader in the community?						
4 In what ways did Dr. Morrow promote the development of the community through his position as superintendent?						
How did Dr. Morrow address the challenges and responsibility to move the school district forward in a progressive manner in an expanding city after WWII?						
5 What practices did Dr. Morrow employ in order to acquire public support to build more schools thereby avoiding a shortage of classroom space?						
6 What kind of relationship did Dr. Morrow have with the print media related to the issue of growth and school funding?						

Figure 3.1. Leadership practices and style matrix.

The Questions of the Design

This study analyzes the following areas of responsibility:

1. How did Robert D. Morrow seek to solve problems within a growing school district?
 - A. What type of organizational structure existed within Dr. Morrow's central administrative staff?
 - B. In what ways did Dr. Morrow promote a positive and productive relationship with students, faculty, and the administrative and support staff?
2. What personal and professional leadership style and management ability did Dr. Morrow practice within the context of a growing school district?
 - A. How did Dr. Morrow's decision to promote the desegregation of the elementary schools in Tucson Public Schools affect his status as a leader in the community?
 - B. In what ways did Dr. Morrow promote the development of the community through his position as superintendent?
3. How did Dr. Morrow address the challenges and responsibility necessary for a superintendent to move the school district forward in a progressive manner in an expanding city after World War II?
 - A. What practices did Dr. Morrow employ in order to acquire public support to build more schools, thereby avoiding a shortage of classroom space?
 - B. What kind of relationship did Dr. Morrow have with the print media related to the issue of growth and school funding?

Framework of the Design

Each area of Dr. Morrow's responsibilities was examined in a systematic and standardized method based upon the research of Leithwood, 1999; Hoy and Miskel, 1982; Griffiths, 1956; Tyack, 1988; Cuban, 1980; Szilagyi and Wallace, 1980; Campbell, 1987; Callahan, 1962; Willower, 1999; and Culbertson, 1989.

A coding system for the organization of the data for this study used the Bogdan and Biklen (1998) model and the McMillan and Schumacher (2001) model. The categories used in this study are situation codes and activity codes. "Situation codes place units of data that tell how the subjects define the setting or particular topics" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998, p. 167). The perspective of the subject [Dr. Morrow], the researcher's thought processes about people and objects, the process of coding words, and phrases that facilitate categorizing sequencing of events are related issues of the situation code. "The activity codes are directed at regularly occurring kinds of behavior" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998, p. 170).

The classification system used "the research question and foreshadowed problems or subquestions . . ." (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001, p. 467). The coding strategy "segment[ed] the data into units of content called topics and then group[ed] the topics into larger clusters to form categories" (p. 467). Four main topics center on the leadership and management practices of the superintendent. These topics are supported by categories, which create a detailed analysis of the leadership practice. The researcher used the sources of information listed in the document analysis to compile data that

answer the categories in each topic. The data were systematically entered into the framework for each question.

The presentation of the data from the sources relevant to Dr. Morrow's leadership practices was applied systematically across the four categories and through each subcategory of the framework. Certain categories may not be applicable to certain questions in the design. In these instances the researcher moved through the framework and analyzed those categories that were relevant and supported by the literature.

This analysis includes the following framework:

1. The steps the superintendent took to problem solve: Leithwood, 1995; Barnard, March, Simon, and Cyert, 1978.
2. A description of the challenge, obstacle or problem
 - A. The historical background
 - B. The governing board perspective
 - C. The community perspective
 - D. The educational factors
 - E. The financial factors
 - F. The political factors and risks
3. The superintendent's approach to the challenge: Information gathering by the superintendent. Campbell, 1987; Callahan, 1965; Cuban, 1980; Leithwood, 1995 and 1999.
 - A. Governing Board involvement
 - B. District staff roles and functions

C. Community involvement

4. The superintendent's decision making process: Hoy and Miskel, 1982; Griffiths, 1956; Szilagyi and Wallace, 1980; Barnard, March, Simon, and Cyert, 1978.
 - A. Timing—preventive, timely, or reactive
 - B. Consideration of all information and perspectives
 - C. Openness of process to input or suggestions
 - D. Preliminary discussions prior to decision making
5. The results of the superintendent's decisions and challenges: Leithwood 1995, 1999; Hoy and Miskel, 1982; Griffiths, 1956; Cuban, 1980; Campbell, 1987; Callahan, 1965; Willower, 1999; and Culbertson, 1989.
 - A. Consequences with the governing board
 - B. Consequences with the community
 - C. Consequences with superintendent's staff
 - D. Financial consequences
 - E. Educational consequences

A summary description of the leadership characteristics of each category of questions is reviewed. Each area of Robert Morrow's responsibilities is evaluated and assessed for evidence of a specific, dominant leadership style. In chapter 4, the researcher completes the matrix using the supporting data analysis.

Leadership Concepts of the Design

The leadership concepts of contemporary and past educational leadership literature used in this evaluation constitute the column headings in Figure 3.1. These leadership concepts are briefly defined as follows:

1. Benevolent Autocratic leadership represents a leadership model from the business-industrial design, which existed prior to the human relations movement.

A supervisor who is interested in seeing his employees happy, shows an interest in his employees, and praises as much as he criticizes his employees. They are urged to bring problems to the supervisor, and he is interested in all of the details of their work. The autocratic leader secures dependence upon himself by making himself the source of all standards of production. (Bradford & Lippitt, 1961, p. 53)

Other supporting literature, Griffiths, 1956.

2. Democratic leadership evolved in the early portion of the 20th century, spurred by social and economic changes and the evolving social characteristics of school organizations. Democratic leadership was a by-product of the Progressive era in American history.

It was principally a homegrown philosophy of school management that drew its strength from the ideas of educational reformers and was founded on a loosely integrated set of beliefs about democratic rights, individual welfare, and the need for cooperation in human enterprise. (Campbell, 1987, p. 50)

Other supporting literature, Griffiths, 1956.

3. Situational leadership focuses on factors and settings at work that confronted the leader or manager.

The effectiveness of the leader is not only determined by his or her style of behavior but also by the situation surrounding the leadership environment. Situational factors include the characteristics of the leader and the subordinate, the

nature of the task, the structure of the group, and the type of reinforcement. (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980 p. 281)

Other supporting literature, Hoy and Miskel, 1982.

4. Transactional leadership focuses on exchanges between the leader and the follower (Burns, 1978). This leadership model is often compared with transformational leadership defined later in this study.

The transactional leader satisfies followers' needs by entering into a relationship of mutual dependence in which the contributions of both sides are recognized and rewarded. (Shriberg, et. al., 1997 p. 213) This leadership style is rooted in the top down bureaucratic leadership style of the past. It creates dependencies because the majority of the power rests with the leader. 'Transactional leaders give followers things they want in exchange for things leaders want.' The transactional leadership style is limiting because the idea is to barter and exchange in the immediate sense. The goals of leading for the greater good of the organization, or of making decisions which are right but unpopular are not considered in this leadership style. (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, p. 393)

Other supporting literature, Burns, 1978; Leithwood, 1995.

5. Transformational leadership is about change, and how the process of change influences the relationship between the leader and followers. This style also transcends the study of management science. It calls for higher ideals, moral leadership, and the act of turning followers into leaders and leaders into agents of change. Transformational leadership requires change in the behavior of leaders and the need to establish a vision that reflects how these behaviors will achieve the goal. This type of leader describes for the members of the organization the "city on the hill" and defines the higher ideals of why they should follow and become leaders (Bennis, 1995; Leithwood & Duke 1999; Hoy & Miskel, 1982).

6. Moral leadership describes the role of values within the framework of leadership. The proponents contend that influence and decision making require leaders to apply values to their practices.

The focus is on the values and ethics of the leader, so authority and influence are to be derived from defensible conceptions of what is right and good. It is also a focus on the nature of the relationships among those within the organization and the distribution of power between stakeholders both inside and outside the organization. (Leithwood & Duke, 1999, pp. 50-51)

Other supporting literature, Hodgkinson, 1991.

Interview Procedures

The emphases of the questions are on key leadership and management practices. The positions of the interviewees, their relationships with Dr. Morrow, and their experiences as administrators were studied. The individuals chosen for the interviews are Elbert Brooks, a former assistant superintendent who worked with Dr. Morrow for 8 years; Hubert Summers, business manager under Dr. Morrow for 4 years; and Mary Belle McCorkle, a copy girl in the central office who became a teacher and later was appointed principal by Dr. Morrow one year prior to his retirement. The central questions to be asked of all of the interviewees include:

1. What was your general impression of Dr. Morrow as a person?
2. Based on your personal experiences how would you describe Dr. Morrow's leadership and management style? Can you characterize it and expand on examples you remember?

3. What do you remember as being the major issues with which the superintendent dealt?
4. Discuss the issues of protocol, procedures, and habits regarding the meetings he held.
5. Explain Dr. Morrow's views on the integration of students, desegregation, and his approach to minority populations.
6. Tucson was growing dramatically in the 1950s and 1960s. How were Dr. Morrow's leadership practices influenced by this phenomenon?
7. What influence did he have on you as a person?

The answers to these questions were tape-recorded, transcribed, and used as reference sources for the purpose of the research of this study. The content of this material is included in the appendices of this study.

Boundaries of the Design

1. This study focused on the leadership and management practices of Dr. Robert Morrow as he administered issues related to Tucson Public Schools.
2. Only the context of school district and city growth in which he made decisions was studied.
3. The time period addressed in this study was 1941 through 1968. However, references are made to the Fisher/Mendoza court case, which extended from 1974 through 1978.

4. Only Dr. Morrow's role as a community leader as it related to his responsibilities as the superintendent was studied. These responsibilities included advocacy for school district funding to keep up with the growing needs of the district.

5. Dr. Morrow's relationships with community leaders, business leaders, and the power structure of the Arizona Daily Star and the Tucson Citizen were studied.

6. The characteristics of the personal relationships Dr. Morrow established with staff, the teachers, and parents were studied.

Summary

This chapter has focused on the design of the study, emphasizing the research methods; the framework of inquiry used to analyze Dr. Morrow's leadership and management practices; data collection; analysis; and the boundaries of the study. Chapter 4 presents and analyzes the data obtained from the various sources.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to analyze the data obtained through questions outlined in the purpose of this study. Each question has two sub-questions treated by the categories listed in the framework of the study. The categories consist of: (a) the steps the superintendent took to problem solve; (b) the superintendent's approach to the challenge through information gathering; (c) the superintendent's decision making process; and (d) the results of the superintendent's decisions and challenges. Each category has sub-categories used to gather data for the analysis of the study.

The chapter is divided into seven sections. Each of the six questions is covered in a separate section of this chapter. The researcher systematically used the sub-categories as a guide to analyze the data. Each section includes a summary outlining the central features of the analysis. Section 7 includes the matrix that shows the leadership concepts along with the questions of this study. The researcher completed the matrix using the conclusions of each section summary analysis. The completed matrix is an analysis assessment of the leadership and management practices of Dr. Robert Morrow when compared against a constant set of categories. This systematic approach allows the reader to reflect on the leadership and management styles of this superintendent during a unique period in American history.

The first section is an analysis of the superintendent's organizational structure.

Section 1:

The Organizational Structure of Dr. Morrow's Central Administrative Staff

Introduction

In this section the researcher reviews the organizational structure used by Dr. Morrow with central administrative staff. Each category is reviewed and the data presented and analyzed.

The Steps the Superintendent Took to Problem Solve

In 1941 the governing board of Tucson Public Schools offered Dr. Morrow the position of superintendent. Dr. Thomas Davis, president of the governing board, had expressed an interest in Dr. Morrow. Dr. Davis knew the quality of his work at the Arizona School for the Deaf and Blind, and after nine years believed Dr. Morrow was ready to move into a bigger job. The other two board members expressed doubt about Dr. Morrow's ability to delegate authority and responsibilities. After addressing these concerns with Dr. Morrow, however, these board members felt better and consented to offering him the position.

The Arizona Daily Star understood the challenge facing Dr. Morrow, "The superintendency is a vitality-consuming job and the youthful educator who inherits the mantle will encounter many things to test his mettle" ("A Fortunate Arrangement," 1941). Dr. Morrow indicated that he would proceed slowly and make it a point to visit

schools one third of the time. "Only through this method can he thoroughly know how the job of educating students is actually carried on in the Tucson schools" ("Schools Open Session," 1941). Dr. Morrow also indicated that it was important to delegate duties to his staff because he should spend a good portion of his time dealing with the educational problems of the district.

Soon after he accepted the position of Superintendent of Tucson Public Schools, Dr. Morrow went to Columbia Teachers' College to finish coursework. He also spent time visiting other school districts. He collected ideas about what was best in the organizational structure of a district. He expressed an interest in a composite of ideas gained from schools who were doing radical things and others that were conservative and structured in their approach. He understood that before ideas were adopted "they must be worked out from a standpoint of local conditions" ("Schools Open Session," 1941).

"When I became superintendent there were seven people in central administration" (Morrow Interview, 1990, p. 10). He had the assistance of an elementary supervisor, a couple of attendance officers, secretarial staff, and a very small maintenance staff. Dr. Morrow did much of the work himself. The district was small enough that he could tend to the education issues and keep the governing board informed.

During the growth period of the 1950s, Dr. Morrow's central administrative staff grew to include elementary and secondary assistant superintendents. Beginning in the mid-1950s, he created an assistant superintendent for auxiliary services, which included physical plant maintenance, attendance, and school planning. In 1951 he released Laura Ganoung from her counseling duties to become coordinator of special education. A

business manager and an assortment of directors, resource teachers and secretaries completed the staff. Principals and assistant principals at the junior high and high school levels staffed the sites.

In 1965, with approval of the governing board, Dr. Morrow created the position of deputy superintendent. The district had grown to more than 70 schools and had more than 50,000 students. This deputy superintendent, Thomas Lee, dealt with the day to day operations of the school district and kept in close contact with Dr. Morrow on the major issues of the district.

The governing board perspective was that Dr. Morrow had established an excellent reputation at the Arizona School for the Deaf and Blind. They believed he could do the same for Tucson Public Schools. Hoffman (1982) reported that Dr. Morrow was democratic in his organizational approach to his administration.

Dr. Morrow made sure that the board was provided with several alternatives for issues or recommendations brought to its attention by the administration. Trustees frequently remarked that the superintendent gave the board information and suggestions, but did not personally try to influence the decision or vote of individual members. (Hoffman, 1982, p. 6)

The governing board members dealt with the school district's business and financial matters, such as land acquisition for future schools, the tax rate, proper budgeting and spending, and pay raises for teachers.

The research data does not support the community perspective category on problem solving for analysis purposes.

Dr. Morrow viewed schools within a range from traditional to progressive. The traditional schools were very structured, used corporal punishment and taught a set

curriculum. The progressive schools were where “children are allowed to follow their desires almost to the point of absurdity” (Hoffman, 1982, p. 9). Dr. Morrow advocated a middle of the road school where administrators took the best from both approaches.

Dr. Morrow equated the amount of services and programs available to students with quality education. In a 1990 interview he made it a point to emphasize the many programs that Tucson Public Schools was first in implementing, including special education resource teachers to assist other teachers and continuing education for pregnant teens. He was successful in getting the governing board to approve and fund these programs. His reputation as a professional educator and the willingness of the governing board to yield to his professional educator’s opinions gained him unanimous support on most votes.

The research data does not support the financial factors category on problem solving for analysis purposes.

The political factors and risks were minimal for the first 10 years of his administration. The structure of the organization and the problem solving methods employed by the superintendent were stable, as evidenced by Morrow’s relationship with the governing board and the absence of criticism in the local newspapers.

The second 10 years represented significant changes in the school district. The process of desegregating the district’s elementary schools was completed, criticism from the local papers was extensive, especially on school bond elections, and the need to build more schools to keep up with the increased enrollment placed a strain on the school district’s resources. In 1952 the total active enrollment of students was 18,135. In 1962,

the total active enrollment was 41,991, representing a 131.5% increase (Morrow, 1962, p. 13).

The Arizona Daily Star and the Tucson Citizen criticized both the superintendent and the governing board for poor school business practices. The political risks were greater in the community considering that these local papers were widely read and circulated among the entire community. In the 1950s and 1960s, Mr. William Mathews, the editor of the Arizona Daily Star, excoriated Dr. Morrow and the governing board on a range of issues. The most severe attacks were in the area of bond elections. These bonds were critical to the school district because bond floating was the most efficient way to build schools to keep up with growth in the student population.

The political risks of losing bond elections forced the governing board and the superintendent to take their case to the community. Fortunately, the citizenry understood that Tucson was growing rapidly. Nevertheless, the school district had to work harder to make sure business practices and the justification for school bonds were sound and well supported.

The Superintendent's Approach to the Challenge

Dr. Morrow enjoyed widespread support from the governing board, especially in the area of educational issues (Brooks, 2001; Hoffman, 1982). The relationship was based on respect and support given to him by the governing board during the years of growth. His practice of keeping board members informed of the issues, of having clear

goals for the district and of establishing a professional and honest relationship with each board member led to their support.

In 1962 the newly passed state open meeting law provided that public meetings be open. All governing board meetings thus needed to be transcribed, the agenda had to be set ahead of time, and most business of the governing board needed to be conducted in public. The effect on the district was that it changed the manner in which business was conducted. The ability to change agendas or to introduce new issues during meetings was curtailed. This law also changed the manner in which the executive session was handled.

If a board member had a topic he or she wanted to investigate, the superintendent was asked to obtain the information and present it to the board at a later date. The board members would then study the information and at a future meeting discuss the issue and hopefully reach a decision. Morrow would then carry out the board's will even if he did not agree with that decision. (Hoffman 1982, p. 54)

The district staff roles and functions were directed by Dr. Morrow. The direction he received from the governing board and his own agenda for moving the district forward dictated staff functions, most of which were management duties basic to any school district. Dr. Morrow held weekly executive staff meetings with the assistant superintendents and the business manager. Tasks were assigned and problems in the district were discussed. The meetings were democratic in that everyone at the meeting was encouraged to participate (Brooks, 2001; Summers, 2001).

Dr. Morrow's common practice of visiting schools and district facilities enabled him to ask precise questions, to understand his employees better, and to know what resources they needed. His staff was responsible for providing him answers to his

questions and to make recommendations on a variety of issues (Brooks, 2001). “He left to his staff the nuts and bolts of carrying out that agenda. But he expected them to be on the job and to do the job right” (Brooks, 2001, p. 2).

The research data does not support the community involvement category on approaching the challenge for analysis purposes.

The Superintendent’s Decision-Making Process

Dr. Brooks, assistant superintendent, describes Dr. Morrow as a superintendent who routinely arrived at work around 5:00 a.m. He completed paperwork, sorted tasks, wrote memos and delivered delegated duties to his secretary and to Dr. Brooks. Then Dr. Morrow went to the schools and walked around to make sure he met everyone. “He was a stickler for getting things done. If he saw foot dragging, he was quick to move in offering suggestions. He talked face-to-face with you, and he reached agreement about what details would be completed” (Brooks Interview Notes, 2001).

In an address to fellow superintendents in 1963, Dr. Morrow outlined some personal philosophy statements that provide a view of the basis of his leadership. The emphases on being a risk taker, a facilitator and a transformational leader emerge from the statements.

I have always felt I would rather be surrounded by dreamers, idealists, empire builders, even if they make some mistakes, than to be surrounded by people who are complacent and content. I would rather have to hold back than have to constantly push, pull, and prod. (Morrow Address, 1963, p. 7)

Later in the same address, Dr. Morrow discussed the procedures used for textbook adoption, library purchases of texts, and for the addition or deletion of educational

materials. "I would hope that such procedures would be backed up by board policies and administrative rules and regulations. We have found it much more difficult to delete than to add" (Morrow Address, 1963, p. 8). The description here emphasized a structured, bureaucratic approach, far different than the description of people with whom he surrounded himself. Dr. Morrow described himself in multi-dimensional terms. He enjoyed being around people who thought creatively and who envisioned new ideas; however, his procedures and efficiency of completing tasks was structured, bureaucratic and governed by policy.

Dr. Morrow considered all information and perspectives in the process of decision making. Dr. McCorkle described a period of time when Dr. Morrow collaborated with district staff and the University of Arizona on a project to review One-C classrooms. These classrooms were for beginning students who had not developed a proficiency in English. The first year of schooling was spent learning the basics in English and the second year became the first grade year. The program evidenced poor results, especially in the junior high and high school levels.

Dr. Morrow gathered individuals to discuss the One-C problem. As a solution the emergence of the pre-bilingual programs occurred. Resource teachers were used to train teachers, provide resources, and make recommendations to the superintendent. Once Dr. Morrow was convinced that the One-C classrooms needed to be eliminated, he made his decision and held firm to his convictions in spite of opposition and complaints from parents (McCorkle Notes, 2001, p. 7).

Hoffman (1982) stated that “Dr. Morrow usually assigned the research to one of his assistant superintendents. He, at times, assigned a portion of the task to individual principals. Eventually, all information was given to Dr. Morrow, who personally presented it to the board” (Hoffman, 1982, pp. 57-58).

The openness of the decision making process to input or suggestions is supported by the research. Dr. Morrow’s staff formulated much of the research that led to decisions recommended to the governing board. He set the goals and discussed the general ideas. The staffs then had the responsibility for gathering the data, putting it together in a readable format, and possessing the ability to defend the data. At governing board meetings, the data were shared by the superintendent, outlining ideas and details and then answering questions from governing board members (Hoffman, 1982; McCorkle, 2001; Morrow, 1990).

The preliminary discussions prior to the decision-making category is not sufficiently supported by the research data.

The Results of the Superintendent’s Decisions and Challenges

Dr. Morrow received widespread support from the various governing boards with which he served during the 28 years of service to the district. Respecting board members’ responsibilities and tasks, Dr. Morrow educated governing board members. He sought to understand which issues they supported. He had an even-handed approach with each member.

All of the trustees who recalled the leadership skills of the superintendent, said that Dr. Morrow never tried to talk with members individually and ask for their

support on any major issue. If he wished to discuss a proposal, he would do so at formal meetings or in private study or executive sessions. (Hoffman, 1982, p. 55)

The result of this approach led to a measure of respect each developed for the superintendent. Dr. Morrow's self-discipline to be consistent in these procedures demonstrated an understanding for the delineation of roles between the governing board and the superintendent. Norval Jasper, a governing board member, remembered Dr. Morrow as,

A very intelligent man [who] knew his subject. . . . He just knew everything there was to know about schools, school administration. . . . People respected him, period. And I think that's where his power came from. (Hoffman, 1982, p. 55)

Although disagreements with the governing board and among governing board members occurred throughout Dr. Morrow's tenure, the superintendent's basic approach described above remained consistent. Even when two governing board members, Robert Salvatierra and Dan McKinney, were elected to the governing board with the support of the Arizona Daily Star on anti-administration issues, they acknowledged their support for Dr. Morrow's approach and the level of consistency he showed as the superintendent (Hoffman, 1982).

The consequences with the community category is not sufficiently supported by the research data.

The consequence with the superintendent's staff is an organization structured and designed to provide information to the superintendent. Each member of his staff believed that he took a special interest in him or her and that he tried to know them on a personal level. Mr. Summers, business manager during the 1950s, stated that he felt supported and believed he had established a friendship with Dr. Morrow (Summers, 2001). Dr. Brooks

indicated that Dr. Morrow appointed people in whom he had confidence and then delegated responsibility for which he supported them.

The financial and educational consequence categories are not sufficiently supported by the research data.

Summary

The research data suggests that Dr. Morrow practiced benevolent autocratic leadership and democratic leadership in the organizational structure of his central administrative staff.

The benevolent leadership characteristics are that he took personal interest in all of his employees. Each was urged to bring problems to meetings the superintendent attended, and he expressed an interest in the details of their work. Another dominant theme in benevolent autocratic leadership was the act of securing dependence upon himself and making himself the source of all standards of production. The evidence suggests that in group meetings and in one-on-one meetings, Dr. Morrow was the final arbiter of information. He decided what to take to governing board meetings. Staff members did the research and were encouraged to debate issues or recommend different directions. However, it was Dr. Morrow who made final decisions (Brooks, 2001; Hoffman, 1982; Summers, 2001).

Participation in staff meetings and the ability of building principals to influence decisions were democratic in nature. During meetings every voice counted and all were encouraged to participate. The delegation of duties and tasks centered on who could

provide the most accurate information. Dr. Morrow's attitude towards mistakes was that they created learning opportunities. He encouraged discussion focused on problem solving and improvement of the district. Voting during the meetings to decide on issues or recommendations did not occur, for the purpose of the democratic process was to encourage input and participation, not to decide issues or plot a direction for the district. These matters were reserved for the governing board with recommendations from the school superintendent.

The following section is an analysis of ways the superintendent promoted a positive and productive relationship with various stakeholders within the organization.

Section 2:

The Promotion of a Positive and Productive Relationship

Introduction

In this section the researcher reviews relationships that the superintendent established with students, faculty, administration and support staff. Relationships form the basis of leadership and management style. The data for this question reflect the characteristics and leadership style of the superintendent.

The Steps the Superintendent Took to Problem Solve

Dr. Morrow was cognizant of the importance of establishing positive relationships as early as 1932 as he was about to assume the position of superintendent of Arizona School for the Deaf and Blind. The evidence suggests that he adhered to guiding

statements that focus on human relation skills and common sense. He compiled a list of seven central statements including “Do not talk—listen,” “Be Hard, Be Firm and Be Fair,” “Don’t cut off the cat’s tail an inch at a time,” and “Always take your job seriously—never yourself” (Morrow, 1967, pp. 2-3).

Dr. Morrow is described as friendly and outgoing. He took a real interest in the people of the school district, spent a lot of time in the schools, and asked many questions during his visits (Brooks, 2001; Hoffman, 1982; Summers, 2001). Maria Urquides, a long time educator in Tucson Public Schools stated, “Both as a person and as superintendent of schools, Bob was a terrific person. He really was interested in all the children of the district” (Bagwell, 1993). The common themes in the research of Dr. Morrow’s tenure are his ability to be personable, a sense of professionalism in his approach, and a willingness to listen to various points of view (Brooks, 2001; Hoffman, 1982; McCorkle, 2001; Morrow Interviews, 1976, 1990).

Hoffman (1982) reported that Dr. Morrow and the governing board were often in agreement. The superintendent had a great deal of respect given to him by the governing board and they had a homogenous approach in that they lived close to one another. The Open Meeting Law of 1962 made things more difficult because it changed the nature of leadership in governing board meetings.

Dr. Morrow worked hard to secure the support of the governing board. He never took the relationship with the board for granted.

Bob Morrow and his staff were constantly on the alert, one former board member said, to bring new things to us for the improvement of the district. He knew we had a strong, independent board and he’d better have his facts and justifications ready first. (Hoffman, 1982, p. 11)

Dr. Morrow was careful to protect his status as educational leader in his relationship with the governing board. He never acted on his own with respect to changing district policy prior to receiving governing board approval. Dr. Morrow understood his role in the district and made sure the governing board understood its role.

Dr. Morrow considered his position as superintendent as that of an ambassador for the school district. He was very active in the community, serving on numerous community boards. During the depression years of the 1930s, when allocation of funds by the state was scarce, he established partnerships with local businesses and the University of Arizona. This practice continued during his tenure as superintendent of Tucson Public Schools. Dr. Morrow worked the circuit, that is, he communicated with community leaders and the power structure of the city. The editor of the local paper wrote, "Superintendent Robert Morrow and the board have maintained excellent relations with the mothers and the fathers of students. The standard of instruction is high and is something to be proud of" ("Soleng Tom," 1964).

In an editorial written within a year of his retirement, Dr. Morrow assessed the qualifications of anyone who had aspirations of becoming superintendent. "The superintendent must be well trained, a person of integrity committed to education, genuine feeling and concern for people especially little people; and of course a sense of humor helps" (Morrow, 1967, p. 2). The longevity of his tenure afforded Dr. Morrow an opportunity to assess four decades of experiences and change in public education.

The services and programs that Tucson Public Schools developed over the years led to the development of the comprehensive high school program. "We are proud of the

well-rounded, comprehensive program which we provide as we try desperately to meet the needs of all the pupils—the slow learner, retarded, trainable, talented, gifted” (Morrow Address to Teachers, 1962, p. 3). Dr. Morrow believed in a comprehensive program for all students. His work in the community in order to implement such an ambitious educational program required a wide network of internal and external support. In order to undertake this form of education, a commitment from the community was necessary. The building blocks necessary for success were his status as educational leader, the promotion of the school district programs within the community, a strong relationship with the schools and with the governing board, and a strong vision of the direction of the school district.

The evidence suggests that financial factors strained the goal of a positive and productive relationship. First, the dramatic growth of the 1950s and 1960s required the superintendent to recommend bond elections for the construction of new schools to the governing board, who in turn called for elections, (Morrow Deposition, 1976). Second, Dr. Morrow made efforts to keep the district salary schedule competitive with national norms, especially that of California, and to keep the salary levels higher than surrounding districts (Morrow Interview, 1990). Third, Dr. Morrow defended the cost of running the school district. The Arizona Daily Star severely criticized his administration and the governing board regarding fiscal management. Dr. Morrow believed that a quality staff, quality programs, and quality buildings were critical to the success of an educational program, the community and for the future of Tucson (“Morrow Defends District 1,” 1965).

Hoffman (1982) stated that Dr. Morrow took political risks, but the evidence suggests they were calculated and taken only if he had the support of the governing board. Jimmye Hillman, who served for a few months as a governing board member, noted, "Bob [Morrow] was a strong executive . . . The rest of the board . . . was also content with Morrow's style and encouraged him to continue to advise them in educational and policy matters" (Hoffman, 1982, p. 15). It was this relationship that allowed Dr. Morrow to advocate for a strong educational program in the community and to use political skills towards that end.

The Superintendent's Approach to the Challenge

The governing board involvement in the business of the school district was to make policy. The evidence suggests that Dr. Morrow went to great lengths to keep board members informed and to ensure that the day to day management of the district was effectively accomplished. Summers (2001) noted that Dr. Morrow sought to lead in a professional fashion. If the governing board tried to enter into management, he would respond politely that he would handle it. The strength of the administration was noted repeatedly by the editorials in the Arizona Daily Star, going so far as to state that the school administration selected governing board members to run in elections.

As usual the school administration has its candidate, Dr. Delbert Secrist, and naturally the school administration wants him re-elected. He has been a perfect rubber stamp for the school administration at a time when a more alert trustee could have served both the schools and the public better. ("A New School Trustee," 1953)

Dr. Morrow made sure that he was accessible to board members and that the lines of communication were kept open. According to Hoffman, "These trustees appreciated the fact that Morrow was sociable and accessible to members without using the occasion to lobby for a vote. . . . Morrow seemed to cultivate friendly, informal relationships with the individual members of the board" (Hoffman, 1982, pp. 15-16). It was generally known that after board meetings Dr. Morrow and the members of the governing board would gather at Austin's, a local ice cream shop, as a way to end the evening and enjoy one another's company (Brooks, 2001; Hoffman, 1982; Summers, 2001).

The expectation of district staff was to make recommendations to Dr. Morrow on ideas and issues that would surface. The district was undergoing dramatic growth and the goals of the district were to maintain quality programs and quality buildings for the students of this community. "Dr. Morrow appointed people that he had confidence in, and he provided leadership opportunity, but the responsibility as well. And he was not one to dictate how you do things; he accepted different leadership styles" (Brooks Interview, 2001, p. 1). Herb Cooper, Director of Auxiliary Services noted, "If I heard Morrow say it once, I heard him say it a hundred times, they are our boys and girls and we have to give them the best we have, and that was his philosophy" (Cooper Deposition, 1976, p. 243). The consistency of his approach and his sense of professionalism with his staff fostered loyalty and the sense that Dr. Morrow would provide consistent support (Summers, 2001).

The question regarding community involvement and the superintendent's approach to the challenge is not supported by sufficient data.

The Superintendent's Decision-Making Process

Dr. Morrow's management by walking around exemplified the promotion of a positive and productive relationship with students and staff. The one quality remembered most by those who worked with Dr. Morrow was his practice of visiting every school, including all of the classrooms, every department, and every office. In his deposition he makes mention of this practice.

A. I visited every classroom.

Q. Was that something that you did every year?

A. Yes. I thought it was more fun than working.

Q. Did you do it in the fall of every year?

A. I took—when the school [district] was small I did it in the fall and spring. As the schools grew I did it whenever I could, but, sometime before the end of the year.

Q. How did you do it? Did you actually go into every classroom?

A. I might just say hello and God bless you and they introduced me as the Holy Father and I would go out and go to another classroom.

Q. And that was done for all the years up until when?

A. Until 19 June of 1968.

Q. And you started doing it how early?

A. September 1941. (Morrow Deposition, 1976, p. 194)

The evidence suggests that in order to establish relationships, the stakeholders need to know the educational leader. The basis of the superintendent's authority was centered on the bureaucratic structure set by governing board policies. The practice of his knowing his employees, talking to them regularly, and supporting their needs within

the organization contributed to their assessment of a supportive and rewarding work experience (Bagwell, 1993; Brooks, 2001; McCorkle, 2001; Summers, 2001). The close relationship that he established with the teachers, maintenance staff, and students when the district was smaller carried through into the late 1960s when the district became larger.

According to Dr. Elbert Brooks, principal of Pueblo High School during the 1950s, Dr. Morrow would enter the office, greet everyone, speak to the principal about how things were going, ask which teachers or staff members were having problems and which deserved congratulations. He would then make his way through the school and return to the principal's office with a list of questions or details that he would check on later. He would delegate responsibilities, offer suggestions, and make sure that before he left, everyone understood his or her responsibilities (Brooks, 2001).

The consideration of information and perspectives from administrative staff was generally done in small group settings.

Dr. Morrow liked a great deal of small groups, one on one and individual discussions. He did try to set forth the major goals that he had in mind for the district. But he left to his staff the nuts and bolts of carrying out that agenda. (Brooks Interview, 2001, p. 2)

Brooks (2001) and Summers (2001) describe a superintendent who was hands-on in his approach, but who relied on the information from staff for guidance and for the formulation of the details of his overall goals. Dr. Morrow described it in the following way: "One of the things that was valuable about our district is that we let people make mistakes. We had high esprit d'corps and had the support and enthusiasm of teachers,

administrators and the community” (Morrow Interview, 1990, p. 22). Brooks (2001) and McCorkle (2001) in their interviews supported this statement.

Administrators and teachers reported that they felt supported when they were considering new programs or when they suggested better ways to operate. Dr. Brooks and Dr. McCorkle report that they wanted to eliminate One-C classes in the district. These classes, designed for students developing proficiency in English, taught students the basics of English language and developed their reading skills. The success rate of these classes was low, with most students lagging a year behind their peers without the expectation that they would catch up. Both indicated that Dr. Morrow listened, asked questions, reviewed their proposals and then made his decision. Dr. Morrow adopted the decision and made sure that it received the support of the governing board. These administrators felt a sense of reward in that he made them believe they had influenced the education process through his decision-making practices.

Dr. Morrow encouraged subordinates to have ideas and to share them with him. The skill that was most valued was his ability and willingness to listen.

I found him to be a very good listener. He didn't always agree with you, but he was a very good listener and I came to respect him more, and the idea that he was out there in the schools and knew what was going on. (Brooks Interview, 2001, p. 3)

Hoffman (1982) asserted that Dr. Morrow wanted to present the governing board with options and different alternatives. In order to do this effectively, he had to make sure staff knew what information they needed to provide. The input and suggestions were used by Dr. Morrow in his presentations to the governing board. His level of confidence and trust in his subordinates was high.

Dr. Morrow held group meetings with his senior staff on a weekly basis. Hoffman (1982) and Brooks (2001) report that the meetings were democratic in nature. Everyone was expected to participate and to have a thorough understanding of the issues in individual departments. He cultivated a feeling of collegiality among staff and prohibited finger pointing (Morrow Interview, 1990). Dr. Brooks and Dr. McCorkle indicated that Dr. Morrow held an open mind on issues and that he could be talked into supporting issues and ideas that were not his own.

The Results of the Superintendent's Decisions and Challenges

The promotion of a positive and productive relationship with staff resulted in clear goals and significant buy-in regarding the direction of the district. Dr. Morrow's involvement in the day to day management of the district, for example, personal involvement, attendance at school functions, visits to classrooms at all of the schools every year, and clear goals for the educational program enhanced his standing and credibility with the employee groups, with the community and with the governing board.

Of the ten trustees who were asked whether or not they believed that there was an individual in the decision making process who influenced those decisions more than anyone else, all ten mentioned the superintendent. All ten also claimed, however, that the trustees themselves recognized and 'cherished' their right to accept or reject the superintendent's proposals. (Hoffman, 1982, p. 54)

Dr. Morrow refers to the time period of the 1950s and 1960s as follows: "People still talk about the golden years in District One and it was because I think we had such an outstanding staff and school board" (Morrow Interview, 1990, p. 21).

The evidence suggests that matters with the parents were handled in face to face meetings. Dr. Morrow indicated that he knew many parents in the district. He placed phone calls himself or went to the neighborhoods to seek out individuals to discuss various school-related issues. Dr. Morrow regularly attended PTA meetings at various school sites, a practice which enhanced his standing with parents and established credibility with the school sites.

Two issues challenged Dr. Morrow's ability and skill in promoting a positive and productive relationship with staff. The process of desegregating the elementary schools and the effort to keep up with the dramatic growth in Tucson required a coordinated effort and clear directives from the superintendent. "As the school system grows, Mr. Morrow is going to have to delegate more and more of his work to competent assistant superintendents" ("The Man to Make," 1952).

When complaints against the staff were lodged with the superintendent or at governing board meetings, he investigated the matter. He pledged his support to his employee publicly and then followed through with a report to the governing board. A letter would then be forwarded to those who complained (Morrow Deposition, 1976, exhibits 55 & 56).

Not enough data exists to support the question in the matter of financial consequences as it relates to results of the superintendent's decisions and challenges.

The central feature of the educational consequences of the superintendent's decisions and challenges is the affirmation of so many programs and services for the students of this community. Brooks (2001) and McCorkle (2001) recall that they were

encouraged to initiate new ideas and to improve upon the current practices within the district. The administrative team worked on educational issues, such as lowering class size, working with students who were non-English speaking students, and developing the comprehensive high school. Specifically, Dr. McCorkle remembers the development of the resource teacher program. The district used some of its better teachers to mentor or to provide resource assistance for new teachers or for those whom principals deemed needed skill improvement. A group of five to six teachers would visit elementary schools and assist the building principal with improving the teaching performance of the building teachers. According to Dr. Brooks, ideas were enhanced at the school site through Dr. Morrow's leadership. "The idea that he was out there in the schools and knew what was going on, implementing school programs that other districts had not seen fit to move on" (Brooks Interview, 2001, p. 3).

Dr. Morrow's relationship with teachers inspired loyalty, and trust. Demonstrating an interest in his staff on a personal level, he was willing to support those programs by securing funding and by defending these programs in the community. Dr. Morrow's reflections about allowing people to make mistakes without pointing fingers at them is supported by the evidence.

Summary

In what ways did Dr. Morrow promote a positive and productive relationship with students, faculty, and the administrative and support staff? The leadership concepts that

emerged from the presentation of the data regarding this question are democratic leadership, benevolent autocratic leadership, and situational leadership.

The development of relationships occurred within democratic leadership settings, which are characterized by staff participation, democracy within the small group settings, value for the creation of ideas, and encouragement of teachers to apply best practices in their positions.

Administrators had to convince Dr. Morrow that their ideas deserved consideration and support, a characteristic of benevolent autocratic leadership in work settings where employees bring their problems to the supervisor. "He is interested in the details of their work. The autocratic leader secures dependence upon himself by making himself the source of all standards of production" (Bradford & Lippitt, 1961, p. 53). The question and answer period, once the ideas were on the table, came primarily from Dr. Morrow (Brooks, 2001; Summers, 2001). The questions continued until he was satisfied that the idea was functional and that it could be placed within the rubric of district goals. The other prime consideration was whether or not the governing board would support the idea. Dr. Morrow was the sole decision-maker regarding the presentation of the idea to the governing board.

The concept of situational leadership rested on two major factors that were influential in the history of Tucson Public Schools. The decision to desegregate the elementary schools and the dramatic growth that occurred in Tucson after World War II created situational leadership scenarios. Situational leadership is characterized by "situations surrounding the leadership environment. Situational factors include the

characteristics of the leader and the subordinate, and the nature of the task” (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980, p. 281).

Dr. Morrow built relationships through the central goal of acquiring and maintaining a quality staff, quality programs, and quality buildings. This goal led to situational factors within the work environment. Dr. Brooks (2001) and Dr. McCorkle (2001) assert that the development of these programs and the support of staff who implemented the practices led to a progressive district.

The next section is an analysis of how the superintendent promoted the practice of desegregation of the school district.

Section 3:

The Promotion of Desegregation in Tucson Public Elementary Schools

Introduction

In this section the researcher reviews the data on the desegregation of Tucson Public Schools. Each section of categories is reviewed and the data analyzed to determine which leadership style Dr. Morrow practiced.

The Steps the Superintendent Took to Problem Solve

Dr. Morrow arrived in Tucson in 1932 and served as superintendent of the Arizona School for the Deaf and Blind. ASDB integrated instruction and accepted all students who were deaf and/or blind regardless of race. “All aspects of life and

schooling” were integrated at ASDB (Morrow Interview, 1976, p. 5). The segregation law was disregarded due to the specialization of the school and its small size.

In 1941 as superintendent in Tucson Public Schools, Dr. Morrow found that segregation was institutionalized. Arizona state law mandated school segregation practices: “They [Governing Boards] shall segregate pupils of the African race from pupils of the Caucasian race in all schools other than high schools, and provide all accommodations made necessary by such segregation” (Arizona Code, 1939, p. 465). The elementary schools were segregated, with African-American students attending Dunbar Elementary. The high school was integrated, although homerooms were segregated, and African-American students could not participate in all activities. Tucson High was completely integrated by 1946.

Dunbar School was reaching capacity around 1950. A new school was requested by a contingent of African-American parents due to large class sizes. In 1945 the enrollment at Dunbar’s elementary school was 297 and the junior high had 119. By 1948 the elementary enrollment was at 421 and the junior high enrollment was at 162. The prospect of building a new school to maintain a segregated school system was costly and contradicted the district’s goal of integrating the school system. The request was denied, and a year later the students went to their neighborhood schools.

The original intent was to dismantle the dual school system approach. State law mandated segregation in all K-8 public schools. The decision to end the segregation practices in the high school occurred sooner than in the elementary schools because the law provided an exception for high schools. “We were not acting within the spirit, or

even the letter of the law, but rather we acted according to our beliefs” (Morrow Deposition, 1976, p. 5). In a journal article published in The Nation’s Schools, Dr. Morrow states that “The local colored people have had excellent leadership and have realized that many problems still unsolved can be solved best through an evolutionary process rather than through a revolution” (“Racial Minorities,” 1944).

In 1951 the legislature proposed permissive legislation regarding school segregation. House Bill 86 (1951), an anti-segregation bill was amended to state, “They may segregate groups of pupils” (Journal of the House of Representatives, 1951, p. 211). The removal of the word ‘shall’ changed the intent of the law and allowed Tucson Public Schools to move ahead with plans for desegregation of their elementary schools.

Dr. Morrow, along with several legislators, worked long hours to pass permissive legislation in 1951. He recommended to the governing board that as soon as the legislation passed and was signed by the governor that Tucson Public Schools integrate its schools. The board followed his lead and made the decision to desegregate the elementary schools all at once. “We were ready to immediately act, and I gave the go-ahead for total dismantlement of our dual school system” (Morrow Deposition, 1976, p. 7). The legislation passed in March 1951, and Tucson Public Schools were desegregated in September 1951.

The governing board perspective regarding the issue of school desegregation was one of caution. Once permissive legislation was passed, discussions were held about moving slowly. The concern was that segments of the community uncomfortable or unhappy with desegregation would cause problems for the governing board. Once the

governing board approved desegregation, Dr. Morrow provided direction to staff about the dispersal of students and the transfer of teachers from Dunbar into other district schools.

The community perspective on desegregation was mixed. Arizona was democratic with confederate sympathies. The reaction in Tucson was favorable. Tucson Public Schools received national recognition for its desegregation efforts and for the courage to deal with this issue in such a forthright manner. It was against this backdrop that unhappy parents had to complain. A few removed their children from the school system. Others requested that an African-American teacher not teach their children. The majority accepted the decision and the district educated the community about the details of this decision. "We had a lot of meetings that spring and summer with PTA groups, with church groups, with kids, and with parents, explaining what the situation was" (Morrow Interview, 1990, p. 14).

Apprehension existed among Black families that closing Dunbar School would create undue stress on their children. The evidence suggests the district made real efforts to maintain separate but equal facilities. The school was a tight knit community that took pride in its educational program and in the extra curricular offerings for students. Some African-American teachers were apprehensive about teaching in schools where they would be the only minority teacher. The Council for Civic Unity, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, and other community groups welcomed the change because of the greater opportunities an integrated school system afforded African-American children. "The school administration was asked to provide

speakers for civic groups. The superintendent accepted all invitations and gave most of the talks himself" (Williams & Ryan, 1954, p. 227).

The educational factors related to problem solving rested with the efforts of school administrators to welcome African-American children into integrated schools. Dunbar had been kept equal in academic resources and with qualified teachers; therefore, the transition was not as problematic academically as it could have been. The schools reported a smooth transition with few problems. The district instituted an orientation program for African-American students and their parents to discuss their new integrated school environment. "The importance of friendly and equal treatment of all persons was emphasized" (Williams & Ryan, 1954, p. 227).

The financial factors surrounding the desegregation of schools led to a reduction in costs. Initially, the closing of Dunbar did involve some costs. However, the dispersal of students within the system was not a financial factor. Safford and Holladay schools received the greatest influx of students.

Governing Board members are elected officials. The political risk of desegregating the schools was significant. Arizona was a conservative state with southern sympathies. However, the longstanding existence of Hispanic and Native populations within the community was accepted and understood. In fact, Hispanics had mixed with the Anglo population socially and economically since the territorial days. The integration process of African-Americans into the schools was not seen as revolutionary. Additionally, the population of African-American families within Tucson

stood at around 4%, and the majority held low paying or entry level jobs within the economy.

Dr. Morrow felt that the schools could lead the way in the goal of integrating the community. “I always believed that if we could desegregate the school district, other institutions in Tucson would follow” (Morrow Deposition, 1976, p. 14). Indeed, other public places like restaurants, theaters, and swimming pools followed the school district’s lead.

In contrast, the Phoenix School District took a much more gradual approach towards integration. There was no defined leader, and the initiative to integrate came from community activists with little clout and with no widespread public support.

The leadership role Dr. Morrow assumed in this issue assisted the governing board. An integrated school system was necessary for the school system to move forward. Dr. Morrow’s philosophy was that,

... My policy of avoiding categorization into ethnic groups was legally and morally correct. It was inclusive rather than exclusive and intended to provide—as I believe it has—equal educational opportunities for all youngsters, regardless of race, color, class, or creed. (Morrow Deposition, 1976, p. 9)

Dr. Elbert Brooks, assistant superintendent, noted that Dr. Morrow led the charge against segregation out of a sense of fairness and justice and a belief in a quality education for all students. The political factors were attenuated by the superintendent’s leadership in educating the governing board, a well-established plan for integration, and a transition period that demonstrated evidence of success and a general absence of vocal opposition.

The Superintendent's Approach to the Challenge

The governing board adopted Dr. Morrow's recommendation to establish the neighborhood concept, a plan calling for students to return to their neighborhood schools. The boundaries within which African-American students lived would dictate which school they would attend. The governing board also closed Dunbar, which was the segregated elementary school. The neighborhood concept adopted by the governing board set in motion practices that would later contribute to a lawsuit claiming discrimination and unequal educational practices on the part of the district.

Some members of the board were hesitant about an all-at-once approach, fearing community reaction. The superintendent maintained that it was morally right and economically sound to make the change in one move. He convinced the board, because he had his plans well formulated and because the board had confidence in him and in his judgment of what was best for the schools. (Williams & Ryan, 1954, p. 225)

The role of staff regarding the function of the desegregation plans for the district was outlined in a letter from the superintendent dated May 9, 1951. In it he states: "We are confident that all of you will work together to make desegregation a reality rather than something superficial, and that all of you will continue to help us make the Tucson Schools among the best in the nation" (Morrow Letter, 1951). The employees were reminded about the importance of the plans for desegregation and that this challenge required their commitment and sense of fair play.

Twenty African-American teachers and an African-American principal worked at Dunbar. Fifteen of the 20 were dispersed throughout eight district schools. The principal stayed at the junior high, renamed John Spring Junior High. White teachers were asked to volunteer and transfer to schools where African-American students and teachers would

now be attending. "I sent out a memo to the teachers. If any of them didn't want to teach in a desegregated school I would understand" (Morrow Interview, 1990, p. 14). More volunteers than needed proclaimed their readiness to transfer.

The neighborhood concept procedures held that students would attend the school within their home boundaries. Holladay and Borton elementary schools experienced significant changes in their demographics. Safford Junior High experienced the most change due to increased enrollment from Dunbar. Safford Junior High ended up with 74 African-American students and Spring Junior High kept 64 of their own students. The district received correspondence from the American Friends Service Committee complimenting them on their integration efforts. After receiving this correspondence, Dr. Morrow stated, "I was all the more assured that we had adopted the ideal replacement for the old dual system" (Morrow Deposition, 1976, p. 12).

There was no organized movement to protest the desegregation plans the district implemented. Some small but well-organized groups supported the district plans. These were the American Friends Service Committee, The Council on Civic Unity, the local chapter of the NAACP, school PTAs, and numerous church groups. The administration made a concerted effort to educate the PTAs and the local church groups about their plans for desegregation.

The Superintendent's Decision-Making Process

The timing of Tucson Public Schools' desegregation plans was proactive and ahead of most school districts in the country. A statewide referendum was placed before

voters in 1950, designed to end segregation. It failed by a two to one margin. “We could not stop until all vestiges of segregation were removed, and it was our belief that it had to begin in the schools” (Morrow Deposition, 1976, p. 7).

School segregation was argued in the Supreme Court in 1954 through a landmark court case, Brown v. Board of Education. The argument in this case was that the “separate but equal” doctrine established in 1896 in Plessy v. Ferguson was inherently unequal for education facilities. The Supreme Court held for the plaintiffs.

Chief Justice Warren reasoned that to separate them from others of similar age and qualifications solely because of their race generates a feeling of inferiority that may affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely ever to be undone. (Fife, 1992, p. 2)

Tucson Public Schools was a leader in assuring educational equity. Dr. Brooks (2001) states that Dr. Morrow established a power base in Tucson by getting control of the school district. When the desegregation plans of the district went into effect, he had been superintendent for 10 years. He had been in Tucson for 9 years before that, arriving in 1932 at ASDB. Dr. Morrow’s familiarity with the political landscape, his knowledge of the power structure within Tucson, and his argument to the governing board that desegregation was inevitable and important to the future success of the school district led to the planning process for desegregating the elementary schools.

There is no evidence that Dr. Morrow or the governing board sought out public opinion regarding the issue of school desegregation. Dr. Morrow’s convictions and his philosophy of an equal education for all children seemed to be the driving force behind this decision. He was direct about the fact that he kept the governing board well

informed and that a dual school system was morally wrong and economically not feasible. Nevertheless, he did not move without the approval of the governing board.

The evidence also suggests that the superintendent and the governing board insulated themselves from public meetings or pressure groups regarding this decision. Complete integration at the high school level had occurred by 1946 with no problems or issues of concern. The state legislature needed to pass the permissive legislation in order for the school district to effect change. Dr. Morrow had time to put his plans in place and to convince the governing board to act without the pressure of public meetings or opposing debate.

The governing board accepted the direction of the superintendent and understood that an integrated school system was an important goal of his administration. They had approved prior integration efforts, specifically in the high school, and the desegregation of the elementary schools was seen as the next step in creating a single school system for all students.

The Results of the Superintendent's Decisions and Challenges

The consequences with the governing board were that they are elected political bodies. The desegregation of the school district had no effect on the status of governing board members.

The acceptance of the desegregation plans within the district was generally mixed. Dr. Morrow received hate mail, a few students left the district, and at least one teacher exited the district voluntarily. Dr. Morrow was honored for his leadership in this matter.

The Tucson Council for Civic Unity named him citizen of the year. "It is our feeling that the quick and painless manner in which he has handled the desegregation program in Tucson's schools is a remarkable achievement that will receive nationwide attention" ("School Leader," 1951). The National Conference of Christians and Jews also honored Dr. Morrow for his work on desegregation. Invariably the governing board was always mentioned as collaborators in the effort to desegregate Tucson Public Schools.

During the 1960s the neighborhood policy came under attack. African-American families were generally located in certain portions of the city, hence their selection of schools was narrowed. In the early part of the 20th century, red-lining, the act of relegating African-Americans to certain neighborhoods regardless of their economic status, was common practice. The economic condition of African-Americans also restricted the neighborhoods they could afford. The schools they attended were not integrated with whites, but had high concentrations of Hispanic, Native Americans, and poor Whites.

The evidence also suggests that Whites were transported to schools where Whites were the majority. Minorities, especially African-Americans, were transported to schools where minorities were the majority population. Consequently, the segregated system in place prior to desegregation in 1951 continued and was known as de jure or legal segregation.

While it appears that the effort of the district to desegregate blacks and to dismantle the dual system then existing with respect to blacks was fairly successful and effective, it also appears that the result was to place blacks disproportionately in schools which were heavily imbalanced with Mexican-Americans. (Frey, 1978, p. 119)

Herb Cooper was the Director of Auxiliary Services for Tucson Public Schools in the 1950s. His duties were to select school sites, to recommend attendance boundaries and to acquire land for future school district use. He worked closely with the planning and zoning commissions in the city and county governments. Mr. Cooper was in charge of implementing the neighborhood school concept. During a deposition in 1976 for the Fisher/Mendoza court case, in which the plaintiffs claimed that Tucson Public Schools practiced discrimination and that the schools remained segregated and thus unequal, Mr. Cooper was questioned at length about the school district's policies.

A. Let's face it here, we are not kidding anybody around the table. The Whites wanted no part of this and you know that.

Q. Wanted no part of what?

A. Integration. God Almighty, look what happened in Boston, that would be the worst thing in the world that could happen in this community, but it will happen and can happen. They didn't want to go into those schools.

Q. Did they tell you that, they didn't want to?

A. No. It's a rare person that ever came in and would be stupid enough to say in my presence that he didn't want his kids to go with the minority kids. But behind what they were arguing there was always the feeling on my part this was the main reason. (Cooper Deposition, 1976, pp. 242-243)

Mr. Cooper's comments demonstrated that the actual administrative practices involving de jure segregation were contrary to the public statements made by the school district about their model program of integration. The school district was found guilty of practicing discrimination with regards to constitutional violations against minority students. Judge Frey used the court case of Green v. Country School Board as a reference when he stated: "A dual system must be eradicated 'root and branch,' it now

appears that the effects of the dual system which existed in 1950-51 were not effectively eradicated, notwithstanding considerable progress and attenuation" (Frey, 1978, p. 120).

Adoption of a "neighborhood school policy" even if it were neutrally and inflexibly adhered to—is not alone a satisfactory and effective means of dismantling a formerly dual school system where that policy builds upon a pre-existing pattern of residential segregation created at least in part by prior acts of private and public discrimination. (Frey, 1978, p. 212)

Judge Frey's ruling imposed an injunction upon the school district prohibiting it from constitutional violations. The court required the district to demonstrate equity in their educational programs and to remove all vestiges of segregation from its practices. The financial cost of achieving equity and of maintaining equal schools translates into expenses in busing, improving facilities, hiring more teachers, and increasing instructional supplies. The court allowed the school district to levy taxes upon the local property owners in order to demonstrate an equitable educational program.

Dr. Morrow's philosophy of education included an emphasis on a single educational program of high quality, delivered to all of the children of the community. The issue of growth in the district was a more immediate and significant problem for the governing board and for the superintendent. Dr. Morrow believed that it was necessary to resolve the dilemma of a dual school system prior to dealing with the dramatic growth that was about to occur in Tucson. He believed that segregation was insidious, and if left unchecked, would threaten any future success the district might enjoy.

My policy of avoiding categorization into ethnic groups was legally and morally correct. It was inclusive rather than exclusive and intended to provide—as I believe it has—equal educational opportunities for all youngsters, regardless of race, color, class, or creed. (Morrow Deposition, 1976, p. 9)

Dr. Morrow knew and understood that there were vestiges of segregation in the school district. White children were generally bussed to schools where whites were the majority, often right past schools with available seats but with higher minority enrollment. The political risks of addressing this vestige of segregation were great.

The school is society's chief agency for conserving and transmitting its culture, educational segregation has extra significance. A segregated educative system is likely to transmit to each succeeding generation the superiority-inferiority value attitudes of a racially conscious society. ("Grade School Segregation," 1952)

Judge Frey commended the district on being proactive and of having the best interest of the students in mind when they desegregated the district three years before most districts. However, he admonished the district by stating, "So long as an attitude of inferiority defines minority schools, a system cannot be said to be effectively dismantled" (Frey, 1978, p. 212).

Summary

Dr. Morrow demonstrated two leadership concepts that were dominant throughout the process of desegregating Tucson Public Schools. Transformational leadership and moral leadership traits are evident, beginning with Dr. Morrow's philosophy of education, through his problem solving methods and decision making process and finally, in the implementation of the desegregation plan.

Change and the resultant influences on the relationship between the leader and the followers characterize transformational leadership. Inherent in transformational leadership is a call for higher ideals, moral leadership, and the turning of leaders into change agents. The evidence suggests that Dr. Morrow considered segregation to be

insidious and morally unjust. His belief system and moral convictions compelled him to eliminate it from district practices. The change Tucson Public Schools underwent was based on higher ideals and a belief that the district could live up to its potential only if all children received an equal education. "I have always believed that if we could desegregate the school district, other institutions in Tucson would follow" (Morrow Deposition, 1976, p. 14).

Moral leadership focuses on the traits and approaches of the leader. The emphasis is on the values and ethics of the leader, and authority is derived from a rubric of right and wrong. The relationship of the leader to those within and outside of the organization is based on values and moral convictions. Dr. Morrow's leadership surrounding desegregation was a strong values-based approach that led him to see segregation as right versus wrong. His statements emphasized that in order to move forward, the district needed to rid itself of a dual system of education. The act of integrating the schools all at once instead of piecemeal like the Phoenix School District did aligned with the moral values that characterized segregation for the superintendent. Dr. Morrow's following statement characterizes moral leadership: "Before 1951, our primary task was to achieve a desegregated school district. Once that was accomplished, our primary attention was necessarily turned to supervising a school district in which new population was far outstripping existing school facilities" (Morrow Deposition, 1976, p. 12).

It is ironic that Tucson Public Schools was sued in this matter, considering they desegregated the district three years prior to Brown v. Board of Education. The accolades, criticism, and risk taken by Dr. Morrow in initiating and following through

with such a risky venture demonstrate his conviction and moral values. The lawsuit called his actions, especially the neighborhood concept, into question and alleged that the district continued to practice segregation. In his deposition he laments,

My personal philosophy has always been that kids are kids, not white, brown, or black. But I am personally disappointed that recently education has come to a point when more distinctions between people are made than before 1951 when black children were segregated. (Morrow Deposition, 1976, p. 11)

Judge Frey notes similar sentiments in his conclusions of law.

Plaintiffs considerably overstate their case in attempting to equate the district practices and policies and community conditions with those cities and those school districts which did nothing to accomplish desegregation, even after the Brown decision in 1954 and even after the Civil Rights Act of 1964, where there were clearly segregative policies such as overlapping attendance zones, disparate facilities and every imaginable step being taken to retain artificial racial and ethnic separation. (Frey, 1978, p. 196)

The next section is an analysis of ways Dr. Morrow promoted the development of the community through his position as superintendent.

Section 4:

The Superintendent's Promotion and Development of the Community

Introduction

In this section the researcher reviews ways in which Dr. Morrow promoted the development of the community through his position as superintendent. Several categories will not be included because the research does not support an analysis of those categories.

The Steps the Superintendent Took to Problem Solve

The promotion of the community was common practice for Dr. Morrow, beginning with his tenure at the Arizona School for the Deaf and Blind. While there he established community partnerships with The University of Arizona, local businesses, and service organizations, such as Rotary Club and the Lion's Club. One common practice was to invite dignitaries that vacationed in Tucson to visit and speak to the students at ASDB. Figures like General "Blackjack" Pershing, Tom Mix, and Amelia Earhart would visit the school, take a tour and hold question-and-answer sessions with the students.

Dr. Morrow continued the development of the community by focusing on the process of inclusion in Tucson Public Schools. His efforts to desegregate the school district enabled the community to move forward together rather than as separate communities. His efforts to educate Yaqui children were inclusive in that the general feeling was that these children could not learn. Richey Elementary School, built within the boundaries of the Yaqui Pascua Village, included showers because many of the homes in the village did not have running water (Brooks, 2001; Morrow, 1976, 1990). The evidence suggests that Dr. Morrow believed that the community and school district were one.

Another factor in developing the community was a change in expectations. An example of the change in expectations included the elimination of segregated schools, thus enabling all children to attend school and achieve on an equal basis. Specialized programs for non-English speakers enabled students to acquire reading and writing skills. Later these programs were eliminated in favor of more inclusive programs that measured

academic progress more precisely. The needs of special education students were recognized and steps taken to standardize their education. Dr. Morrow held firm to his philosophy. "Where education is concerned, I believe now, as I did over a quarter century ago, that my policy of avoiding categorization into ethnic groups was legally and morally correct" (Morrow Deposition, 1976, p. 9).

Dr. Morrow's advocacy of public education through a proliferation of programs and services, being inclusive of all of the children of the community and setting high expectations, enhanced the school district's credibility within the community. These factors enabled him to discuss the future progress of the school district in realistic terms because all of the stakeholders were included.

The governing board's perspective of the development of the community consisted of making sure the business of the district was well managed (Hoffman, 1982). They were mainly concerned with the business bottom line and with policy-making decisions. Dr. Morrow was successful over his 28-year tenure to influence and shape the direction of the school district and to secure the governing board's support for these visions and goals. Dr. Morrow handled the day to day management of the school district. The governing board considered him the professional educator and adopted his recommendations on a consistent basis (Hoffman, 1982).

The evidence suggests that the community supported Dr. Morrow's improvement efforts by moving the school district forward into the modern era. The community voters passed approximately 75% of the bond elections (Morrow Interview, 1990). The incumbents on the governing board won all but two re-election races in the duration of

Dr. Morrow's tenure. In 28 years, only two governing board candidates that ran on anti-administration stands were elected (Hoffman, 1982).

The evidence suggests that Dr. Morrow was responsive to the needs of the community. He recommended to the governing board that petitions from the Fort Lowell and Wrightstown neighborhoods be accepted, thereby initiating the annexation of these communities into Tucson Public Schools (Morrow Interview, 1982).

During the desegregation process, one of Dr. Morrow's strategies was to accept invitations to attend PTA meetings or any other community meeting to discuss the merits of the plans for desegregation. The purpose of these appearances was to answer concerns and to educate the community about the reasoning behind the decision (Morrow Deposition, 1976).

Dr. Morrow advocated for the development of the comprehensive high school, whose purpose was to provide a variety of educational programs and services to students. The common characteristics of these high schools were a broad range of vocational programs, fine arts, and extracurricular offerings as well as the academic program. Dr. Morrow referred to these programs as "middle of the road" because they implemented what was good from both traditional schools and progressive schools. The goal was that every student would be enrolled in at least one program in which he or she were interested and could pursue in preparation for college or the world of work.

Dr. Morrow introduced new programs that provided opportunities for the development of the community. He collaborated with Congresswoman Isabella

Greenway to establish teacher and student exchange programs and sister city collaborations with the country of Greece (Morrow Interview, 1990, p. 23).

Another factor leading to the development of the community was the addition of lawns and grass for playgrounds, thus emphasizing the beautification of campuses. Dr. Morrow hired a landscape architect to provide the maintenance department with design ideas. He also insisted, with governing board support, that air conditioning be added to the construction costs of new schools. The local newspapers criticized him for “extravagant waste,” but he believed that attractive and up to date buildings were a benefit to the community.

Financial factors presented the greatest challenge to Dr. Morrow. During the 1950s Tucson Public Schools grew by 2,000 students per school year. The burden of providing classroom space and educational services during periods of dramatic growth strained the existing capital and labor resources of the school district (Brooks Interview, 2001; Cooper Deposition, 1976; Officer, 1961).

Dr. Morrow’s goals were to provide a comprehensive program with quality schools, staffed by certificated and well-paid teachers in well-built and functional school buildings. These three factors became the standard through which success was measured. Dr. Morrow believed that school improvements were directly tied to community improvements (Sears, 1965).

The political risks assumed by Dr. Morrow existed because of the change involved in the tasks he undertook. The need to provide a high quality educational program in which all students would be provided opportunity and to manage the dramatic

growth of the district presented political challenges. Dr. Morrow attenuated the political risks by seeking the guidance and direction of the governing board. He communicated the goals of the school district to all employees. His school site visitations enhanced his credibility and afforded him the opportunity to evaluate whether those goals were being translated into school practice (Brooks, 2001; Hoffman, 1982).

The Superintendent's Approach to the Challenge

The research data does not support the category of governing board involvement regarding this question.

The role of district staff centered on support and management of the goals and directives of the governing board. The dramatic growth and the financial constraints of the district also dictated their functions.

The proliferation of programs and services common to comprehensive schools required support staff to work independently and to make recommendations to Dr. Morrow. The organizational structure relied on the superintendent's bringing ideas and recommendations to the governing board (Hoffman, 1982). These ideas and recommendations were discussed and debated, often with Dr. Morrow present. Many of the recommendations submitted to the governing board were consensus decisions made in committees with the superintendent (Brooks, 2001; Hoffman, 1982).

Community involvement varied during Dr. Morrow's tenure as superintendent. Organizations such as Parent Teacher Associations, Rotary, Lion's Club, and the Red Cross were partners with the school district in a variety of ventures. In certain matters,

community involvement played a significant role, for example, in desegregating schools or in passing school bond elections. Dr. Morrow asked for the community's support, attended their meetings to answer questions, used governing board meetings to outline the details of the support needed, and used the print media to appeal to the public. The central feature of Dr. Morrow's approach was to equate school district success with community success (Brooks, 2001; Morrow, 1990).

The Superintendent's Decision-Making Process

The decision-making procedures used by the superintendent were influenced by many factors. The recommendations were often discussed and debated by his staff prior to being submitted to Dr. Morrow for consideration. He asked questions and then decided how and when to present the information to the governing board for study or for approval (Brooks, 2001; Hoffman, 1982).

The decision to promote the development of the community forward into the modern era is best illustrated by the decision to desegregate the school district three years prior to Brown v. Board of Education. In 1951 the state legislature passed permissive legislation permitting school districts to continue the practices of segregation instead of mandating such practices. As this legislation was being considered, Dunbar School was reaching capacity, thus requiring the building of a new school for African-Americans. Dr. Morrow considered the practice of segregation morally wrong and hence made the recommendation to the governing board that if permissive legislation were passed, then Tucson Public Schools should desegregate all at once (Morrow Deposition, 1976).

The evidence suggests that Dr. Morrow considered perspectives other than his own. He valued ideas and proposals that met the needs of the students in the district. He emphasized this expectation with staff and encouraged debate and discussions for making schools more effective. "Dr. Morrow assembled a cadre of specialists at the central office. There were language arts, mathematics, science experts who were trying to build the premier school district" (McCorkle Notes, 2001, p. 9). Dr. Brooks expressed similar sentiments, "His ambition was not only to provide the best quality education as he could for the children of Tucson, but he wanted Tucson to be the lighthouse district in the city" (Brooks, 2001, p. 1).

The category of openness of process to input and suggestions and preliminary discussions prior to decision making is not supported by the research data.

The Results of the Superintendent's Decisions and Challenges

The category of consequence with the governing board is not supported by the research data.

The development of well formulated plans of action, along with a unified relationship with the governing board, enhanced Dr. Morrow's credibility with the community. His status as a professional educator, along with some strong stands on the issues of desegregation of the school district, and his vision for handling the issue of growth enabled him to set the agenda on educational issues and to follow through with implementation of his ideas.

The Tucson community wanted the best educational program for its children. The evidence suggests that Dr. Morrow positioned the district to deliver on this expectation. His goal of best programs using the best teachers who teach in the best buildings was the plan of action. During a period of dramatic growth and financial constraints, the willingness of the members of the community to pay for having the premier district was sometimes in question. However, the record reflects that 75% of the bond elections were passed, affording the school district the opportunity to meet its goals.

Members of Dr. Morrow's staff reported a feeling of being supported and seeing that their involvement and work contributed to the educational program. "I also believe there is no position [superintendent] which offers a greater opportunity for service" (Morrow, 1967, p. 2). The opportunity for service was a common pattern in the projects, proposals, and tasks undertaken by the superintendent's staff.

Dr. Brooks credits Dr. Morrow's leadership and mentoring in the area of school desegregation. Dr. Brooks was invited to interview in Nashville, Tennessee, in part because of his experience in working on the effort to desegregate Tucson Public Schools. Dr. Brooks had experienced the process, knew about the conviction necessary to hold the course, and understood the pitfalls and change problems that could surface with this type of change (Brooks, 2001). The belief and degree of commitment required to change and move the school district forward meant that the superintendent's staff were required to do more than react and manage the daily job tasks.

The financial consequence of the superintendent's decisions to promote the development of the community was an increase of costs. Dr. Morrow recommended

budgets that promoted a quality educational program at a time when student population growth was absorbing most of the school district's budget. Amid charges of extravagant spending, he defended the increases in cost by convincing the community that they were getting what they paid for.

He proposed bond elections to the governing board to deal with the dramatic growth. However, he increased the number of programs and services available to students. For example, the use of resource teachers expanded in the 1950s. These teachers did not carry a class load but acted as a teacher resource to promote ideas for implementing the curriculum. However, for every teacher he used as a resource teacher, he needed a replacement for the classroom. Hence, the costs of the educational program rose, but in Dr. Morrow's estimation, the quality of the educational program was worth that cost to the community. He justified it by stating that if he were to be damned, he would be damned for a product he believed in (Morrow, 1962, p. 11).

The educational consequences of the superintendent's decisions were a proliferation of educational services and programs for students. Dr. Morrow believed in the comprehensive school. Programs and services were designed to be inclusive of all student populations and to raise the expectations of the community for the schools they funded.

Schools were the center of the community in the growth plans submitted to Dr. Morrow by Herb Cooper, Coordinator of Auxiliary Services. The educational programs had to be of high quality, and the school needed to provide a service to all students, regardless of their backgrounds or needs. Dr. Morrow believed that the educational

process of the past did not serve the future well. Schools needed to elevate the condition of the community. In order to promote the development of the community, the school district needed to become modern because “what has been good enough in the past will not be good enough in the future” (Morrow, 1967, p. 3).

The evidence suggests that in the 1960s the federal government became more active in its involvement in public school education. Title I programs provided much needed revenue for extra teachers, for training and for improving the quality of the educational program in the district. Dr. Morrow supported the application of Title I grants, which came at a time when costs were rising. Title I federal programs benefited education programs for pre-school children, providing more services to schools whose populations required more individualized attention. These grants enhanced the district’s ability to make the school important in the progress and development of the community.

Summary

The evidence suggests that Dr. Morrow practiced transactional and transformational leadership in the ways he promoted the development of the community through his position as superintendent.

Transactional leadership is characterized by “a relationship of mutual dependence in which the contributions of both sides are recognized and rewarded” (Shriberg et. al., 1997, p. 213). The relationship among the city, county, and Tucson Public Schools was transactional. Mr. Cooper was assigned the responsibility of working as a liaison to purchase school sites and to plan the layout of future schools. Once these school sites

were set, the city of Tucson could plan the infrastructure of that neighborhood and give the developers an idea of where to build their subdivisions. Both the school district and the city of Tucson benefited by this relationship.

Dr. Morrow's leadership during the period of dramatic growth in Tucson demonstrated transformational leadership. The characteristics of transformational leadership require vision, higher ideals, moral conviction and the ability to convince the community that something better is possible. The evidence suggests that Dr. Morrow practiced these characteristics. At a time when growth threatened to overwhelm the resources of the school district, Dr. Morrow expanded the programs and services of the school district. His belief in comprehensive schools required that the school become more important in the community. The extended opportunities and services served to commit the community to its schools. Hence, the financial support necessary to maintain these services became tangible. Dr. Morrow equated the success of the schools with the progress the community was making to move Tucson into the modern era. He was accused of establishing "a Cadillac school system for a Chevrolet community" ("Tucson's Newspapers Assailed," 1964). He took great pride in using this statement in the community as proof that their children were worthy of a top quality school program. Along with the governing board, Dr. Morrow transformed the educational programs and services into a modern school system.

The following section will emphasize the practices Dr. Morrow used to acquire public support to build more schools.

Section 5:

The Acquisition of Public Support for More Schools

Introduction

In this section the research data is presented and analyzed, demonstrating how Dr. Morrow sought to acquire public support to build more schools to address the post-World War II era unprecedented growth in Tucson. Each category is analyzed and the data presented to determine the leadership style of the superintendent.

The Steps the Superintendent Took to Problem Solve

The economic depression of the 1930s created severe hardship for public school systems throughout the nation, including Arizona. The building of new schools was out of the question. The maintenance and upkeep of older buildings was costly and thus neglected. During World War II, districts that wanted to build or renovate found it difficult due to shortages in labor and building materials (Morrow, 1967, p. 1).

Through the leadership of the governing board and the previous superintendent, C. E. Rose, the district had purchased land for future school sites.

Realizing that knowledge of a school building going up in any particular locality immediately boosts the land prices, the board decided to insure themselves against overly high real estate costs by purchasing land several years in advance of such need. ("School Board Foresees," 1941)

This practice was used extensively in the 1940s and 1950s and saved the district millions of dollars. "Dr. Morrow believed that Tucson's main problem between 1941 and 1968 was the rapid growth and expansion of the district" (Hoffman 1982, p. 10).

Central to problem solving in the area of acquiring public support for building new schools were the communication of the issues, development of a rationale for the list of school district needs, and the creation of a district philosophy for the type of educational program the leaders of the district would implement. With these factors in place, the district could be more proactive about managing growth, implementing planned educational programs, and projecting school bond elections (Hoffman, 1982; Morrow, 1963).

The level of growth was dramatic, especially in the mid-1950s through the 1960s. Many schools had to run double sessions while others bussed in or bussed out students. The use of portable buildings became commonplace. Nowhere was the level of growth felt more than at Tucson High School. For a period of time in the 1950s triple sessions were implemented in the same facility. The school was open from 6:00 a.m. to 10:00 p.m.

The leadership challenge for Dr. Morrow was how to properly finance this level of growth, to establish appropriate projections of school sites, to recommend bond elections to stay ahead of the growth curve, and to provide a high quality education for all students.

The governing board shared the same perspective as the superintendent. They were aware of the growth issues and the problems that came with a lack of classroom space. Jacob Fruchthendler, a governing board member in the 1950s, assessed the perspective of the governing board.

I would have to say that probably the matter of growth of the district and putting together a physical facility and staff, creating businesslike frameworks, probably

absorbed the greatest part of our attention that the board gave its efforts to that particular situation. (Fruchthendler, 1976, p. 187)

The day to day management of the school district was left for the superintendent.

Dr. Morrow was credited by the governing board for keeping them well informed, making recommendations based on factual information, and then taking their direction and implementing those directives (Hoffman, 1982).

The community perspective was generally supportive. Parents of children who had to send them to double sessions or to bus them away from their neighborhood schools expressed their displeasure at governing board meetings (Cooper Deposition, 1976). They also understood, however, that the district could not control the population growth. The expectation was that the district handle the management of population growth in a fair and expedient fashion.

As new schools opened or when the district needed to alleviate overcrowding, boundary changes were employed. This process created consternation among parents and neighborhood representatives. The public's attitude was that boundary changes were necessary, but they didn't want it to affect their child or their neighborhood (Cooper Deposition, 1976; Morrow Deposition, 1976).

Dr. Morrow used the local PTA chapters to support passage of bond elections. Encouraged to become established at each school, the PTA chapters were organized groups of parents with the motivation to provide the best facilities for their children. The district mobilized them to get out the vote in school board elections (Morrow Interview, 1990, p. 28).

The research data does not support the educational factors category for this question.

The financial factors were areas in which the superintendent and the governing board worked the closest. In the 1950s the governing board received yearly budget proposals from Dr. Morrow. Once the budget was adopted, it was transferred to the county board of supervisors for approval. Upon its approval, the board of supervisors adjusted the tax rate on property values in the school district in order to satisfy the approved budget amount (Summers Interview, 2001).

The district was allowed to negotiate with the county supervisors regarding per capita cost increases that were adjustments to the approved budget. In the 1960s the state legislature passed laws reducing the county supervisors' authority to increase the per capita costs. Indeed, they lowered the per capita costs limits, an action that adversely affected the district's budget. The state legislature also capped the amount that county boards of supervisors could tax the property owners. The result was that the state legislature began to control tax rates, which resulted in a slower process for budget approvals. The district had to curtail services and programs unless bond elections were passed. The loss of localized control of the budget process had long range effects in the building and maintenance of the district sites (Summers Interview, 2001).

The political factors and risks for the superintendent and the governing board were whether or not their school construction plans could satisfactorily meet the needs of a growing community. The confidence and trust of the community were important, especially for the governing board members who were up for re-election every four years.

The manner in which the board moved boundaries and alleviated overcrowded schools was also a test of their ability to manage this situation. An increase in the tax rate of the community is never popular. However, given the situation in Tucson in the 1950s, few alternatives remained.

The option of doing nothing was not an alternative. The community would not tolerate double sessions and bussing as permanent solutions to over-crowded schools. The attacks by the editorials of the two local newspapers created problems for the school district, which had to work harder to convince the public that the course of action was prudent, efficient and community-centered.

The Superintendent's Approach to the Challenge

The evidence suggests that the governing board was actively involved in the process of acquiring support to build more schools. The manner in which they were involved was their formal relationship with the superintendent. Dr. Morrow was their agent in these matters, and they expected him to manage the plans for acquiring public support.

Dr. Morrow kept the governing board involved by providing them accurate information, by ensuring that financial matters were satisfactorily explained, and by answering their questions. Dr. Morrow's task in this relationship was to stay abreast of the issues of growth and to make sure that growth and funding problems did not interfere with the educational process.

Dr. Morrow appointed Herb Cooper as Director of Auxiliary Services in 1952.

Cooper was responsible for being a liaison among county and city planning and zoning commissions and the school district. Cooper, in charge of site selection, attendance zones and boundary change recommendations for the school district, reported directly to Dr. Morrow.

The school district was growing by 2,000 students a school year, requiring 100 new classrooms a year to house its students. Numbers like these threatened to overwhelm the school district. The resources of the district could not support this kind of rapid growth. Dr. Morrow needed assistance in the critical area of site acquisition and boundary issues.

Cooper worked closely with the city and county planning and zoning commissions. The acquisition of sites, based on a study of census tracts to ascertain where people would live, required the planners to project future population growth. The district began to purchase land sites, 10 acres for elementary schools, 20 acres for junior high schools, and 40 acres for high schools. The land was purchased prior to the development of roads, housing, or businesses because the cost was less expensive than that of the purchase of developed land (Cooper Deposition, 1976).

Elementary school sites were planned in the center of a one square mile subdivision. The center acreage of the subdivision was the projected location of the school site. No child would have to walk more than six blocks to get to school nor have to cross major avenues of traffic to get to school.

Mr. Cooper also worked with land developers that wanted to know the location of school sites. Subdivisions of houses then were planned around the school site, and property values increased. In this manner, the district bought the land at substantial savings by buying ahead of the population growth curve. Cooper compiled reports for Dr. Morrow regarding recommended school site acquisitions. Dr. Morrow then secured authorization from the governing board to purchase land.

Dr. Brooks commented on this practice,

I don't know of any administrator that had the foresight that Bob Morrow had and Herb Cooper his manager, who had the responsibility for carrying it out. He went out into the greater Tucson area, far beyond the population of that time, to acquire school sites. He was criticized in two areas. One, property was being taken off the tax rolls. Another one was, well, we'll never need them. All you have to do is look at Tucson now to see how those school sites acquired forty and fifty years ago now are right in the middle of the population. I can only remember one that didn't pan out. (Brooks Interview, 2001, p. 3)

Dr. Morrow reported that the community was very supportive of the school district's efforts to provide a quality education for students.

I'd go down on West Congress Street . . . I could get ten petitions filled there in three hours if I wanted to. . . . They just wanted good schools for their kids. All I had to do was go in and say, we need this. We need that. It was done. (Morrow Interview, 1990, p. 26)

The Superintendent's Decision-Making Process

The growth patterns of student population and Cooper's assessment of school site acquisitions governed the timing of Dr. Morrow's actions. Over time he came to rely more and more on Cooper's assessments (Cooper Deposition, 1976). The information

from the planning and zoning commission proved to be valuable in assisting the district in planning site acquisition and bond elections.

The appointment of Cooper added structure and organization to a process that had long range effects in the district. This process also joined city and county planning with school planning, resulting in positive effects on Tucson's development.

Dr. Morrow used the reports from the city and county planning departments to present information to the governing board about recommendations for future bond elections and building plans. These reports also afforded the district an opportunity to present to the public accurate information about district plans. The use of this information added credibility to the district's management approach.

The district formulated a citizen's committee on finances, led in part by Oliver Drachman, a former governing board member. The committee was established in response to the frequent need for bond elections and the Arizona Daily Star's continual criticism that the school district was wasteful in its spending, mismanaged resources, and tried to increase the local tax rate. Put into place to affirm to the community that effective and reasonable business and financial practices occurred in the district, the committee "made a comprehensive study of school building, construction costs, and the educational programs" (Morrow 1962, p. 8). It also made recommendations to the governing board about possible programs to cut or curtail.

The categories, openness of process to input or suggestions and preliminary discussions prior to decision making, are not supported by the data in the research.

The Results of the Superintendent's Decisions and Challenges

The relationship with the governing board concerning acquisition of public support to build more schools remained strong. Dr. Morrow remained committed to maintaining high quality educational programs using well paid teachers and maintaining the quality of their buildings. "Buildings are carefully planned to meet the needs of a given area. The buildings are safe and functional. Through design, and by wise use of materials and color, most of the schools are attractive" (Morrow, 1962, p. 8). The governing board supported this approach by yielding to Dr. Morrow's professional advice. They did not challenge him on the management of the duties of superintendent. Despite strong criticism from the local newspapers, the governing board and superintendent remained united on meeting the challenges that student population growth and school building construction presented.

Dr. Morrow, along with members of the governing board, involved themselves with the "power elite" of the community in order to plan, develop and implement a worthy plan for school site construction in the community (Officer, 1961). The community passed most bond elections. However, attacks from the local newspapers, as well as the rising cost of maintaining a quality school district, required participation in the politics of city government.

The consequence of failed bond elections was that plans for construction of school sites were put behind schedule, resulting in students attending double sessions and prolonging the process of bussing students away from their neighborhood schools. The

prospects of curtailing or eliminating school programs existed, thereby compromising the comprehensive school approach Dr. Morrow advocated for many years.

The category of consequences with the superintendent's staff is not supported by the research data.

The financial consequence of the superintendent's decisions was that the property tax rate did increase in Pima County. Dr. Morrow defended the education costs in the district by stating that more programs were offered in Tucson Public Schools than in surrounding districts. "In salaries of certificated personnel, District No. 1 was in the top 20%—ranging from the top 3% to the top 33% in various minimums and maximums in Arizona" (Morrow, 1962, p. 5).

The school building program allowed the district to continue to maintain its level of educational programs and to keep the teacher to student ratio at a manageable level. School bonds were vital to the district's ability to keep up with the student population growth, for they provided needed funds to contract the building of schools and the renovation of others. Dr. Morrow referred to the financial reality of education when he stated, "Quality education cannot be purchased at bargain basement prices. . . . It is perfectly ridiculous to look at the tax rate separately from all other factors and draw the conclusion that there has been waste and carelessness" (Morrow, 1962, p. 4).

The category educational consequences is not supported by the research data.

Summary

The evidence suggests that Dr. Morrow's leadership practices in an effort to acquire public support to build more schools were situational and transformational.

The leadership situation that faced Dr. Morrow was the dramatic growth of the population of students in the district. In the 1950s the district was growing by approximately 2,000 students a year (Cooper, 1976). The need to accommodate these students strained the district's existing resources, and school construction became a district priority. The importance of keeping the school board informed, generating public support for new school funding, and maintaining a high quality educational program were leadership challenges that were situational in nature. Dr. Morrow's actions and practices were governed in part by the situation surrounding the leadership environment.

Many of the factors surrounding these leadership situations were difficult to manage or were specific in nature and required Dr. Morrow to react. Recommendations to the governing board about the development of a neighborhood or a decision to call for a bond election were specific matters that are characteristic of situational leadership.

Dr. Morrow practiced transformational leadership with respect to the management of the dramatic growth that occurred in the 1950s and 1960s. In 1945 the school district was small and its schools were inadequate to meet the needs of a community that was about to experience tremendous growth. At the time of Dr. Morrow's retirement, the district had been successful in getting the community to pass \$56 million in bonds. The enrollment stood at 52,000 students. The district had extensive land holdings valued at \$94 million dollars.

One of the hallmarks of transformational leadership is the ability to see coming trends and to position the organization and its members to assume a leadership role. The change required of the district and of the ability to turn followers into leaders was evident in Dr. Morrow's practices surrounding the acquisition of public support to fund more schools. The decision to assign Herb Cooper to work directly with city and county planners placed the district ahead of the population patterns occurring throughout the city. The wisdom of purchasing undeveloped land and then working with land developers regarding the location of schools within the planned neighborhoods saved millions of dollars for the community. The district was accurate in its assessment of population growth areas, thereby the school becoming the center of the neighborhood. These leadership practices changed the complexion of the community and contributed to making Tucson a modern city with a proactive school district.

The next section is the presentation of data regarding Dr. Morrow's relationship with the print media.

Section 6:

Relationships with Print Media Related to Growth and School Funding

Introduction

In this section the researcher explores the relationship between the superintendent and the print media of Tucson. The influence of the print media during the period of school growth is reviewed, as well as the relationship that developed among the superintendent, the governing board and the editorial staff at the Arizona Daily Star.

The Steps the Superintendent Took to Problem Solve

Dr. Morrow accepted the position of Superintendent of Tucson Public Schools in 1941. The Arizona Daily Star called it a fortunate arrangement. The district was characterized as “physically and organically one of the best in the country” (“A Fortunate Arrangement,” 1941).

Dr. Morrow assessed the state of the district in an article in the Star introducing him to the community. The school district was not expected to grow rapidly; however, he predicted that growth would be steady. During the 1930s, the school board had purchased school sites with the expectation that population growth would occur. Dr. Morrow advocated

. . . a middle of the road one, half way between the traditional and the progressive school types. He believes that if the system has good teachers we will have good schools, and if we have good schools we will put the welfare of the whole school system first. (“Morrow Takes Over,” 1941)

The 1950s represented a period of unprecedented growth in the district. District resources could not keep up with the increasing student population. The district administration thus called for school bond elections in order to increase funding for new school buildings.

The Arizona Daily Star and the Tucson Citizen represented the print media in Tucson. The Star was the most widely circulating paper and its editorial staff was strident in their opinions of district practices. William Mathews, the editor of the Star, was perhaps the most vocal critic of district practices. Mr. Mathews’ views were that the district should live within its budget, that property taxes should be raised only as a last resort, and that the district needed to be more efficient in its business practices.

In the 1950s the verbal attacks on the school district administration and the governing board escalated. The basis of these attacks rested on three central issues. First, Mr. Mathews believed that the school district was too powerful and that it selected governing board candidates to run for office. He called the district administration the school machine. Second, he believed that the school district's practices were extravagant, out of touch with community goals, and too costly. Third, as an elite power broker in the community, he was not consulted on issues important in the community. These three assessments were corroborated by the following sources: Officer, 1961; Hoffman, 1982; and Morrow Interview, 1990.

The 1960s represented significant change in the country. The growth and need for more school funding continued at a steady pace, and school administrators had to contend with more influences. Dr. Morrow referred to this period as the mad scramble. It involved "everything from the exploding population to exploding knowledge and technology: civil rights crusades, the new math, new science, educational parks, testing, and emphasis on special education" (Morrow, 1967).

Dr. Morrow's relationship with the editorial staff at the Arizona Daily Star did not change until he retired. He referred to the criticism leveled by the top echelon of the Arizona Daily Star and the Tucson Citizen in the following manner. "It seems to come from the pens of frantic, frustrated little men and beneath the dignity of such good paper" ("Tucson's Newspapers Assailed," 1964). Helen Hafley, a governing board member, indicated that "she felt Morrow's retirement eliminated both a personality conflict and a

power struggle over district affairs between Morrow and Mathews” (Hoffman, 1982, p. 7).

The criticism leveled at the governing board continued through the 1960s. Editorials focused on school funding and school growth. Certain governing board members had been excoriated since the early 1950s, and the governing board was seen as a rubber stamp for administrative practices. “The Board of Education seemed to close ranks as the Star’s editorials increased its objection to district one decisions” (Hoffman, 1982, p. 8).

The governing board perspective was that Mr. Mathews was “stubborn, egotistical, power crazy, a very hard-headed individual and very prejudiced against the school system” (Hoffman, 1982, p. 31). Some board members would defend themselves by attending community events and delivering speeches in which they defended their record. The trustees praised the school system and listed the school district’s accomplishments. The issue of school funding was viewed as an investment in the children and the community received what it paid for.

The daily newspapers were influential and widely read in the Tucson community. The level of attacks on the school district and the governing board were especially critical around bond election periods. However, evidence suggests that the community knew and understood the need for more schools and resources. Hence, voters passed bonds on all but three separate occasions.

The educational factors surrounding the issue of growth and finding classroom space were of concern to the district. Double sessions, bussing, and large class sizes were

factors that adversely affected the academic progress of each student. The school district and key members in the community collaborated on school issue elections.

Dr. Morrow believed in comprehensive high schools because they afforded each student opportunities in academic, vocational, fine arts and extra-curricular activities. They defined the middle of the road school he referred to when he was hired in 1941. Dramatic growth and a lack of classroom space restricted the district's ability to maintain a high quality program at a manageable cost.

The financial factors surrounding a school construction program and dealing with student growth of about 2,000 students a year were generally understood by the community as well as by the print media. The debate centered on the steps the school district should take to address these factors. Dr. Morrow was committed to maintaining comprehensive schools that provided multiple programs and services to the students. He also believed in maintaining high quality teachers who were paid at or above the national norms; maintaining quality programs and services; and maintaining quality buildings. Dr. Morrow saw these three factors as critical to a successful school district ("Morrow Defends District 1," 1965). Dr. Morrow intended to build and maintain the premier school district in the nation, (Brooks Interview, 2001; Summers Interview, 2001).

The Star responded that Tucson Public Schools was spending more than it had to in order to fulfill its obligation to the children of the community. They compared Tucson costs with Phoenix costs and found that Tucson spent more money per child and more money per square foot. William Mathews's contention was that the district needed to tighten its belt and practice better housekeeping of district monies.

The rubber stamp status of the present board should be understood thoroughly by the people, and particularly the taxpayers of Tucson. More schools need to be built to keep up with the growth of the community. That fact will be used to gloss over the proven extravagant housekeeping that now goes on under the present board. ("Extravagant Housekeeping," 1963)

The editors of the Star felt that bond elections and property tax increases should be used only as a method of last resort. The school administration believed that growth was a given in the community. The goals of having quality teachers, quality programs and quality buildings enhanced the growth and position Tucson Public Schools as a premier district in the nation. In an address to teachers in 1962, Dr. Morrow outlined his views.

If I am going to be damned, and I rather imagine I shall be, I would rather be damned for a quality product that I know will be good for the kids and for the country, than for a shoddy product of which neither you nor I could be proud—or even feel was acceptable in this community. (Morrow Address, 1962, p. 11)

Political factors and risks existed both for the superintendent and the school board. The significance of school growth and school funding issues was understood by all of the trustees (Hoffman, 1982; Morrow Interview, 1990). Dr. Morrow kept the school board informed about the growth patterns, the budget, and the schools where space was lacking. The evidence suggests that the governing board considered these problems to be matters for the superintendent. "Many board members felt that Dr. Morrow was a professional educator who had devoted much of his life to studying school problems" (Hoffman, 1982, p. 12). Katie Dusenberry, a governing board member, recalled that Dr. Morrow had

. . . a pretty decisive personality and board members got the impression that he put a lot of thought into his recommendations and that it came from years of experience and probably sound judgement . . . to buck him would be difficult. (Hoffman, 1982, p. 12)

Dr. Morrow cultivated his relationship with the governing board, focusing his efforts on recommending the best course of action to take, in addition to listening and implementing the policy decisions of the governing board.

The Arizona Daily Star editor, William Mathews, earned a national reputation as a respected journalist and commentator. Although influential people like Senator Carl Hayden, the governors of Arizona, and others would seek his counsel on matters of local, state and national importance, the district administrators and the school board would not seek his counsel on issues of importance within the local community. This omission on the part of the school district bothered him (Brooks, 2001; Hoffman, 1982; Morrow, 1990). “The editor tried to influence the district in three areas: school board elections, formal votes of the trustees in board meetings, and school bond elections” (Hoffman, 1982, p. 32).

Mr. Mathews attempted to influence school board elections by sponsoring and supporting candidates he knew would oppose the school district, especially in matters concerning school funding and school growth issues. He also increased his editorial attacks in the weeks leading up to bond elections. His attacks were aimed at the school district’s extravagance, incompetence, the rubber stamp mentality of the governing board towards the superintendent, and the arrogance of the school district towards the community (“Extravagant Housekeeping,” 1963; Mathews, 1964; “Soleng Tom,” 1964).

The Superintendent's Approach to the Challenge

Brooks (2001) asserts that Dr. Morrow attempted to provide the best quality education for the children of Tucson. The vision shared with district staff and school sites was that Tucson Public Schools could be "the lighthouse district in the city" (Brooks, 2001, p. 1).

Affecting the necessary changes as per Dr. Morrow's vision was the fact that "the governing board was fiscally independent, set their own tax rate," (Brooks, 2001, p. 1), and agreed with the superintendent on just about every financial matter. The school district costs and Dr. Morrow's ability to keep the governing board unified led the editors to label him the school baron.

Hoffman (1982) reports that the school board closed ranks with the superintendent. The evidence showed that it did not allow these attacks to sway or divide their votes on school district policy. "Analysis of former school board member votes shows that the trustees voted unanimously on district issues 99.36 percent of the time" (Hoffman, 1982, p. 35).

The role of district staff and their function with the print media was through Dr. Morrow. The research data emphasizes a predominance of articles, especially editorials, focusing on the governing board or Dr. Morrow's views and practices. The emphasis of staff was to keep Dr. Morrow advised of critical issues, to research information that the superintendent would use to keep the governing board informed, and to deal with the day to day management of the district.

Community involvement related to Dr. Morrow's relationship with the print media consisted of letters to the editor that were favorable to the school district's efforts to improve the quality of educational services. A parent wrote, referring to Dr. Morrow, "I consider it a highly unfair accusation to say that he will spend and spend as long as there is no opposition. I believe he is doing his utmost to provide adequately for Tucson's children" (Durazzo, 1955).

The common refrain from the Arizona Daily Star was that only the school board and the superintendent were involved in the important decisions. A citizen's committee was formed in the early 1960s to study and make recommendations to the school board on school funding issues because Dr. Morrow was aware of the community reaction to school funding proposals. While some parents were supportive, others agreed with Mr. Mathews that there was too much waste in the school district's budget. Dr. Morrow suggested in a speech to school personnel, "We must of necessity be militarily strong, economically solvent, and at the same time spiritually strong and morally solvent. The best assurance for such strength and such solvency is a sound investment in a good educational program" (Morrow, 1962, pp. 11-12).

The Superintendent's Decision-Making Process

The evidence suggests that Dr. Morrow planned ahead and controlled the school district's agenda. The amount of student population growth and the constant need for more school funding were factors that constrained him. Dr. Morrow's relationship with the governing board remained close for the duration of his tenure. His ability to

communicate with them and to keep them informed without attempting to pressure them into making certain decisions contributed to clear lines of power and authority. It was this working relationship that Mr. Mathews attacked when he disagreed with decisions the district made.

The relationship between Dr. Morrow and Mr. Mathews needs to be understood to measure the significance of school population growth and school funding. Both individuals were critical to the financial and political process governing school funding. Dr. Morrow recommended school bond elections to the governing board. Mr. Mathews reported these decisions and commented on them through his editorials.

Soon after Dr. Morrow became superintendent, Mr. Mathews called him up and requested a meeting. When the two met, Mr. Mathews proposed that Dr. Morrow first clear decisions made concerning District One programs and policies with the Star. In return, Mr. Mathews promised to support these decisions. Dr. Morrow told the editor that he felt that as superintendent, he and not Mr. Mathews had the ultimate responsibility to run district affairs. Dr. Morrow therefore refused Mr. Mathews' offer. (Hoffman, 1982, p. 30)

In an interview with The Arizona Historical Society in 1990, Dr. Morrow substantiated this story. Additionally, Dr. Brooks recounted a similar story when asked about Dr. Morrow's relationship with the Arizona Daily Star.

Many observers knew that the Arizona Daily Star was supportive of community improvement projects. The paper was considered instrumental in advancing three central issues: industrial development, school bond elections and hospital expansion. It was also understood that the public school system required the construction of new schools and that funding these schools was the responsibility of the local taxpayers.

The Star's editorials were especially harsh in their depiction of the management of the school system. In 1957 an important bond election for \$7,325,000 was recommended by Tucson Public Schools to be used for new school construction. Officer (1961) stated there had been a meeting with the members of the power structure of the city present, including the mayor, the newspaper publisher, members of the governing board, and one of the county supervisors. The city council was also considering a bond proposal and was concerned that the community would not support two separate bonds. The meeting was not productive and an agreement could not be reached. "The conclave broke up when one of the school representatives called the meeting an inquisition and walked out" (Officer, 1961, p. 98). For the next 6 weeks Mr. Mathews wrote the following editorials which express his feelings about the June 1957 bond election.

School Bond Issue Demands Searching Appraisal.
 Public Questions School Needs.
 Supervisors Should Check Responsibility for School Funds.
 The School Bond Issue, Necessity vs. Desirability.
 Only The Taxpayers Can Rebuke Spenders.
 Is it Classrooms We Want, Or Is It Administration Prestige?
 Taxpayers' Dollar Sought to Bolster Educators' Prestige, Not Youth Needs.
 (Officer, 1961, p. 100)

The bond election failed and two editorials followed, one chiding the school district for failing to live within its budget, and the other questioning the actions of board members and their support of Dr. Morrow's administration.

The district's consideration of information in its decision-making procedures did not include the Arizona Daily Star. The 1957 bond election was only the latest struggle the school district undertook to maintain appropriate school funding. Dr. Morrow and the governing board understood that Mr. Mathews would be against them. "School officials

were among the few influentials interviewed who told me they do not discuss policy with this newspaper publisher any more than with other leading citizens of the community” (Officer, 1961, p. 128).

The research data does not support the categories of openness of process to input or suggestions or preliminary discussions prior to decision making.

The Results of the Superintendent's Decisions and Challenges

During the 1950s the school district was growing by about 2,000 students a year. The strain on the existing resources and an increase in classroom space needs forced the district to run double sessions in some schools, to use numerous portable classrooms and to restrict certain educational services. In 1964 the editor called for the resignation of school board members.

In the 1960s Dr. Morrow began to speak out more against the editor of the Arizona Daily Star. He answered the charge that Tucson's per pupil costs were higher than those in Phoenix. He stated that other school districts did not offer comparable services such as a comprehensive education. He also pointed out to the community that the education their children were getting was excellent. In an address to a community group in 1964 he refers to the editorial staff of the Arizona Daily Star as “the frustrated little men with the omnipotent complex on North Stone Avenue” (“Morrow Defends Schools,” 1964).

The Arizona Daily Star made accusations that the school district administration recruited candidates favorable to their issues in school board elections. These candidates

were said to be rubber stamps for the school superintendent. This “school machine” was said to be designed by the school administration with permission from the governing board to oppose candidates by organizing groups and spreading false information about them in the community (Mathews, 1964).

The quality of education was challenged nationwide in the late 1950s and 1960s. The Russian space exploration ventures, along with a national movement to improve mathematics and science education standards, led to community concerns about educational standards. Additionally, books like Why Johnny Can't Read, and a call to return to the back to basics curriculum material by individuals like Hyman Rickover, navy admiral and father of the nuclear submarine, led people in the community to question the quality of the education they received in Tucson Public Schools.

Dr. Morrow responded to those community concerns by outlining that the Arizona Daily Star and the Tucson Citizen were very critical of the educational efforts made by the school district to maintain a high quality education in the late 1950s and early 1960s.

You can recall that a few years ago, and for several years the papers editorially questioned the quality of education in our schools. Johnny couldn't read, write or figure—then when it was pretty well established by every known criteria that District 1 schools were excellent and that quality education was being provided for the young people in this community a new phrase was coined: A Cadillac School System in a Chevrolet Community. (“Tucson's Newspapers Assailed,” 1964)

The category, consequences with superintendent's staff, is not supported by the research data.

Dr. Morrow wanted the community to know that to provide a high quality education, the community must be willing to support it financially. He believed that the

costs of running the school district were comparable to those of the surrounding districts. The number of program offerings for students and the efforts made by the district to educate special education students drove the costs high, but the return for the community was a high quality education. He also indicated that the district had already cut numerous programs and reduced several others in order for the district to live within its budget ("Morrow Defends Schools," 1964).

Mr. Mathews continued his editorials against the district's financial practices. In 1967 Mr. Mathews called the district's budget a disgrace and its financial practices extravagant. In 1967 when Dr. Morrow announced his retirement to take effect on July 1, 1968, the governing board responded by increasing his salary during the final year of his contract from \$27,894 to \$36,808, an \$8,914 increase. "Mrs. Helen Hafley, member of the school board, said yesterday that the proposed \$8,914 increase is a testimonial to his years of service to Arizona's largest school system" ("Board Proposes," 1967). The response from Mr. Mathews was

Tucson District No. 1 has a board of trustees of fine men and women, who fail to practice the same prudent housekeeping conduct they have to use in their own daily lives. Why it is they became so lavish with taxpayers' funds passeth all understanding. ("Tucson Board," 1967)

The educational consequences of the relationship Dr. Morrow had with the print media related to growth and school funding resulted in a more cohesive relationship with the governing board. The vision and goals for the district were more defined, and the business practices were more closely scrutinized. The views of the editors of the local newspapers did not affect the decisions of the school district (Hoffman, 1982).

The goal of the superintendent was to provide the best programs, using the best paid teachers who taught in the best run school buildings. Dr. Morrow believed that these three factors held the key to becoming the premier district. The cost of this venture was worth it because the entire community was elevated and the benefits would be felt for years to come (Brooks Interview, 2001; Morrow Interview, 1990; Officer, 1961). He used the Arizona Daily Star statement, "A Cadillac school system in a Chevrolet community" ("Tucson's Newspapers Assailed," 1964), in his speeches as a compliment. It was an indication that his goal of providing the best quality education for the children of the community was understood.

Summary

The leadership style practiced by Dr. Morrow in his relationship with the media related to growth and school funding was situational and transformational. The relationship existed from 1941 through 1968 and was marked by periods of criticism and by conflicting views of how the school district should conduct business.

Dr. Morrow practiced situational leadership. The main characteristic of situational leadership is that the effectiveness of the leader is determined by the situation surrounding the leadership environment. The situations Dr. Morrow faced in his relationship with the media were a period of unprecedented population growth and the need to secure funding for school construction. Additionally, the criticism by the editorial staffs of the two local newspapers regarding these factors represented a new set of situations that influenced the leadership practices of this superintendent.

Dr. Morrow practiced transformational leadership through his relationships with the print media related to school growth and school funding. The characteristics of this style of leadership represent change, a call to high ideals, and moral leadership. The major change was that he moved the school district forward into the modern age. Dr. Morrow managed to keep three, and later five, governing board members unified around three central ideas concerning the growth and development of the school district. The ideas are that Tucson Public Schools must: (a) establish and maintain a high quality educational program that is comprehensive in nature; (b) recruit and retain a qualified, and well-paid teaching staff; and (c) build and maintain quality school buildings for the children of the community (Brooks, 2001; Morrow, 1964). Dr. Morrow held firm to these three ideals in spite of a lack of proper funding, criticism from the editorial staffs of the two local papers, and a period of unprecedented growth in Tucson.

Dr. Morrow served the district during a period of unprecedented growth and faced problems few public school administrators ever have to face. And after 27 controversial and critical years he leaves a school district in which Tucson can take great pride. (Roy, 1968)

The next section includes a matrix of the six questions under consideration and the current and past leadership styles as presented in the literature review.

Section 7:

The Leadership Concepts Matrix

The leadership matrix (see Figure 4.1) shows the questions of the research study used for analysis. The leadership styles listed along the top show past and contemporary

	Benevolent Autocratic	Democratic	Situational	Transactional	Transformational	Moral
How did Robert D. Morrow seek to solve problems within a growing school district?						
1 What type of organizational structure existed within Dr. Morrow's administrative staff?	X	X				
2 In what ways did Dr. Morrow promote a positive and productive relationship with students, faculty, administrative and support staff?	X	X	X			
What personal and professional leadership style and management ability did Dr. Morrow practice within the context of a growing district?						
3 How did Dr. Morrow's decision to promote the desegregation of the elementary schools in Tucson Public Schools affect his status as a leader in the community?					X	X
4 In what ways did Dr. Morrow promote the development of the community through his position as superintendent?				X	X	
How did Dr. Morrow address the challenges and responsibility to move the school district forward in a progressive manner in an expanding city after WWII?						
5 What practices did Dr. Morrow employ in order to acquire public support to build more schools thereby avoiding a shortage of classroom space?			X		X	
6 What kind of relationship did Dr. Morrow have with the print media related to the issue of growth and school funding?			X		X	

Figure 4.1. Leadership matrix.

leadership supported by the research literature. The research data was analyzed, and the results demonstrated which leadership style was dominant and used to support the data from each question. Leadership over time is almost always multi-dimensional. The completed matrix provides evidence of the multi-dimensional nature of Dr. Morrow's leadership.

The systematic framework used to answer the questions of this case study provide conclusions regarding the boundaries of the research design, and demonstrate that Dr. Morrow was proactive and involved in the day to day management of the school district. The completed matrix provides the reader with a descriptive table that shows the leadership styles of a superintendent in a district that underwent dramatic growth in a time of national and local change.

Dr. Morrow's leadership skills spanned the spectrum of the chart ranging from benevolent autocratic through transformational. The forces that shaped the leadership characteristics of this superintendent varied. However, the dominant themes that emerged in this study were his sense of moral values and his standing as the educational expert in the community. His emphasis on specific educational values, an understanding of his duties as superintendent and effective human relations skills were used in a variety of settings. The following paragraphs outline Dr. Morrow's leadership style regarding the questions of the study.

In question 1 the organizational structure of Dr. Morrow's administration was studied. The leadership styles that emerged were benevolent autocratic and democratic. The organization went from a small structure where a hands-on approach was possible to

a large organization where delegated authority was a necessity. Tucson Public Schools then assumed a modern organizational structure that was bureaucratic and designed to accommodate the growth of the school district.

In question 2 the promotion of a positive and productive relationship with the major stakeholders of the organization was studied. The leadership styles that emerged in the study were democratic, benevolent autocratic and situational. Dr. Morrow believed that the combination of quality programs functioning with quality staff who worked in quality buildings was a framework for successful schools. His emphasis on management by walking around and getting to all the school buildings at least once a year contributed to a positive relationship with the sites.

In question 3 the promotion of desegregating the elementary schools was studied. The leadership styles that emerged were transformational and moral. The superintendent acted out of a sense of moral fairness and justice. The result of his leadership led to the school district's being a community model and contributed to Tucson's moving forward into the modern era. The neighborhood concept required all students to attend the schools in their neighborhoods. This action led to integrated schools. However, more needed to be done to end the vestiges of segregation. The political ramifications of moving too quickly to end de jure segregation influenced the actions of this superintendent.

In question 4 the promotion and developments of the community were studied. The leadership styles that emerged were transactional and transformational. The issue of population growth, especially in the 1950s and 1960s, challenged the existing resources

of the district. The evidence suggests that district services and programs were expanded. The superintendent's goals were to be the lighthouse district in the community and to create schools that offered comprehensive programs.

In question 5 the acquisition of public support for more schools was studied. The leadership styles that emerged were situational and transformational. Dr. Morrow recognized the significance that population growth would have on Tucson Public Schools. His decision to purchase undeveloped land demonstrated foresight and saved the community millions of dollars in future land costs. The communication with the community regarding the necessity of bond elections to keep up with the growth contributed to consistent support from parents and the business community.

In question 6 the relationship with the print media was studied. The leadership styles that emerged were situational and transformational. The editor of the Arizona Daily Star was consistent in his criticism of the superintendent and the school board about alleged extravagant business practices, costly bond elections and a governing board he believed was a rubber stamp. The governing board and the superintendent remained steadfast with the goals of their educational program, and their relationship remained strong in spite of the strong criticism in the editorial pages.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the (a) summary, (b) conclusions, (c) implications, and (d) suggestions for further study. The following is a summary of the major leadership themes of chapter 4.

Summary

This research case study reviewed the leadership styles of Dr. Robert Morrow. The researcher applied six questions and a framework of 18 categories under four main subheadings to systematically review the historical literature of his tenure as superintendent of Tucson Public Schools. The review of the scholarly literature in chapter 2 emphasized research on past and current leadership styles. In this case study six major leadership styles were used to determine Dr. Morrow's dominant leadership style, given a set of questions and categories.

Chapter 4 was a presentation and analysis of the research data following the design of the case study. The following is a summary of the major themes of the data for each of the six sections analyzed.

Section 1 was a review of the organizational structure of Dr. Morrow's central staff. The research data suggests he was a democratic leader. The manner in which

meetings were run and the value placed on participation during meetings suggest a democratic leadership style, but the application of leadership practices also shows a benevolent autocratic leader who insisted on being the arbiter of information presented by his staff. He made the decisions about what information the governing board was presented.

Dr. Morrow revealed that he would rather associate with dreamers and idealists as he was problem solving or creating ideas for the school district. However, his approach to procedures was very structured and orderly. He relied on bureaucratic structure and a formal approach to tasks.

In section 2 the promotion of the positive and productive relationship that Dr. Morrow established with various stakeholders was analyzed. Four main ideas surrounding Dr. Morrow were studied. They were his: (a) status as an educational leader, (b) role as promoter of the school district, (c) strong relationship with schools, and (d) strong vision and direction of schools.

The evidence suggests that Dr. Morrow was committed to a practice of quality programs, using a quality staff who taught in quality buildings. The educational programs in Tucson Public Schools were comprehensive based.

Dr. Morrow established relationships based on the practice of site visitations. The data demonstrates that he visited every employee in the district, talked with individuals regularly about their jobs, supported their needs, and fostered a positive work climate in which finger pointing was prohibited.

The research data suggests that Dr. Morrow's leadership style in the establishment of relationships with the various stakeholders of the organization was democratic, benevolent autocratic, and situational.

In section 3 a review of the promotion of desegregation of Tucson Public Schools was completed. The analysis of the research suggests that Dr. Morrow assumed a leadership position in the struggle to desegregate Tucson Public Schools because he was morally opposed to a dual school system. He believed in moving the district toward becoming a modern school district. According to Dr. Morrow, the practice of segregation hindered the goal to become modern. He also had a thorough understanding of the power structure within the community and considered the act of desegregating the school district an acceptable political risk.

Once the elementary schools were desegregated, the students of Dunbar that had been segregated were directed to attend the schools in their neighborhoods, a practice known as the neighborhood concept. At the time this practice was considered to be the best solution for effectively integrating the schools. However, Judge Frey, in his ruling on the Fisher/Mendoza court case, ruled that the neighborhood concept alone was not sufficient to create an integrated school district. Judge Frey found that the school district had not eradicated all vestiges of segregation and issued an injunction imposing on the district the burden of designing plans to rid the district "root and branch" of segregative practices.

The analysis of the research data suggests that Dr. Morrow practiced transformational and moral leadership in the process of desegregating the elementary schools in the district.

In section 4 the research data regarding the promotion and development of the community was analyzed. The evidence suggests that Dr. Morrow set high standards and equated them with a quality educational program. He worked with his staff to promote the establishment of a variety of programs for children of poverty, for the mentally disabled, and for alternative programs for pregnant teens.

Dr. Morrow expanded program offerings for students at a time when growth was demanding more of the existing budget and district resources. The research study suggests that he equated a high quality educational program that served all the students in the school district as indicative of a modernized and proactive community. He believed that a quality school district was a hallmark of a quality community.

Dr. Morrow's active role in the community and his willingness to be proactive in city and county political affairs as an advocate for the school district enhanced his ability to influence the development and progress of the local community. The evidence suggests he practiced transactional and transformational leadership in his efforts to promote the development of the community in his role as superintendent.

The research data in section 5 regarding the acquisition of public support for more schools suggests that Dr. Morrow understood the ramifications of future growth on the progress and standing of the school district within the community. The dramatic growth

that took place in Tucson in the 1950s and 1960s challenged the ability of the school district to keep up with the educational needs of a changing community.

The evidence suggests that Dr. Morrow demonstrated foresight and was proactive in his efforts to keep up with the dramatic growth. His assignment of Herb Cooper as Coordinator of Auxiliary Services was an indication of the value Dr. Morrow placed on keeping the district in pace with the population growth curve. Land acquisition, boundary recommendations, and population planning are complex practices. The district saved millions of dollars by purchasing land when it was undeveloped and waiting for the developers to plan their subdivisions around the school site, thereby integrating the school district's needs with the development of the community.

The research data suggests that the acquisition of public support for more schools demonstrated the use of situational and transformational leadership styles.

In section 6 Dr. Morrow's relationship with the media was analyzed using a variety of data sources. Three issues strained his relationship with the editors of the local newspapers: (a) the school district was a powerful political machine, (b) the school district practices were perceived as extravagant and out of touch with the needs of the community, and (c) the newspaper editors considered themselves as elite power brokers within the community. Dr. Morrow did not consult them on important decisions. This caused the editors to resent Dr. Morrow and the governing board.

The issues that generated the most conflict were the editorials against school bond elections and the relationship between the superintendent and the governing board. The evidence suggests they closed ranks in making decisions and did not allow the editors to

weaken their commitment or to influence their plans for educating the students of the district.

Dr. Morrow practiced situational and transformational leadership. Population growth and school funding issues created the situational leadership practices relevant to the school district. The major transformational leadership practice was his ability to maintain a focus on a high quality education. Dr. Morrow expanded services and programs for the students of the school district at a time when school funding was limited. He remained committed to the educational plan adopted by the governing board on his recommendation even when the editors of the local newspapers continually excoriated them.

Statement of the Problem

This case study seeks to understand the implications of Dr. Morrow's leadership and management practices and their effect on the direction of Tucson Public Schools and the educational practices of the community.

Conclusions

The following conclusions with regard to the implications of the leadership and management style of Dr. Robert Morrow are warranted as a result of the findings of this case study. Six questions were reviewed using a framework of 18 supporting categories that systematically assessed the research data. The reviewed data was then used to determine the type of leadership style Dr. Morrow practiced with regard to the questions

of the research design. The conclusions are listed in order of the questions from the research design framework.

As a result of this investigation, the data supports the following conclusions:

1. The organization and structure of Dr. Morrow's central staff reflected a multi-dimensional approach to leadership and management. Dr. Morrow desired to work with dreamers who had idealistic thoughts about how a school should function in a community. However, his management practices were bureaucratic, and he applied formal procedures to the issues and problems he sought to resolve.
2. Dr. Morrow applied democratic principles to his leadership and management practices. However, he reserved for himself the decision-making role once the information and data were gathered. He was the arbiter of the information, and he determined in what fashion that information would be shared with the governing board.
3. The promotion of a positive and productive relationship was most evident by Dr. Morrow's practice of management by walking around. He visited each school site twice a year and met everyone on campus. This practice created a supportive and rewarding work experience and was characteristic of a leader with strong human relations skills.
4. Dr. Morrow's practices were centered on the direction and guidance set by the governing board with his input. The members of the governing board accepted his recommendations in education matters on more than 95% of the issues. He brought ideas to the governing board and made recommendations based on both his research

and the alignment with district goals of producing quality programs with quality teachers and quality buildings.

5. Segregation was institutionalized in Tucson Public Schools at the time Dr. Morrow became superintendent. His leadership and vision led to the elimination of a dual school system.
6. The desegregation efforts were closely related to the pending growth of the school district. Dr. Morrow recognized that in order to become a modern school district, the practice of segregation had to be eliminated.
7. Tucson Public Schools was a national leader in the effort to desegregate the school district 3 years prior to Brown v. Board of Education. The school district did not eliminate all of the vestiges of a segregated school system. Legal segregation continued due to the mobility restrictions of African-American families in the 1950s and the transfer policies used by some Whites to exit schools with high minority populations. The neighborhood concept was not sufficient by itself to successfully lead to an integrated school system.
8. The decision to desegregate the district's elementary schools was an exercise in transformational and moral leadership because it changed the direction of the organization and was based on a moral sense of fairness.
9. The promotion and development of the community was based on the premise that the school district could demonstrate community leadership by (a) providing a quality educational program with well paid teachers and attractive and functional school buildings; (b) providing educational programs which were accessible to all students

regardless of race, ability or economic status; and (c) committing to a comprehensive school program where elective offerings, fine arts and vocational trade skills were included with the academic program.

10. Dr. Morrow expanded school programs and extra-curricular offerings at a time when student population growth threatened to overwhelm existing district resources. He believed the community supported the growth of the school district in more ways than just in building more schools. The expansion of school district offerings at this critical time period was a commitment to all the students of the community. It also demonstrated that Dr. Morrow would not sacrifice a quality education to a program he did not believe in and could not support. The school district created educational programs for which all students would have access and equal opportunity.
11. School site acquisition was formalized into administrative practice. Dr. Morrow envisioned a school district that would grow faster than the district could accommodate. The process of land acquisition was a proactive leadership strategy that kept the district growing with the community. The practice of buying land when it was still undeveloped also saved the district millions of dollars.
12. The acquisition of public support for more schools centered on Dr. Morrow's ability to communicate with the community about the quality of educational programs offered in the schools. He positioned the school district as an equal partner with city leaders and planners, who in turn equated the growth and development of the district with that of the city.

13. The local print media supported public schools and the forward development of the community, but they challenged the governing board's assertion that Dr. Morrow was a professional educator. The editors' accusations that the business practices of the district were extravagant, wasteful and inefficient were widely read by the community.
14. The print media and Dr. Morrow involved themselves in the politics of school board elections. Each accused the other of recruiting candidates that would support their stand on issues. These political battles shaped the make-up of the governing board. The progress of educational programs such as comprehensive schools and inclusion of all students weighed in the balance of these elections. The print media were successful with only two candidates they endorsed, and they were elected for different terms.

Implications

After analyzing the findings and conclusions of this study, the researcher proposes the following implications:

1. The organizational structure of Dr. Morrow's administration was designed to keep the district functioning in an efficient manner and to make sure that the vision and goals of the district adhered to the wishes of the governing board. Dr. Morrow's longevity is attributed in part to his understanding of his role in the district. He cultivated his relationship with each board member and communicated in an honest and forthright manner to the members of the board. Dr. Morrow understood that his relationship

with the governing board kept him credible and employed. Throughout the duration of his tenure, Dr. Morrow worked with numerous board members. He understood the power structure of the district, rarely reached beyond his authority, adhered to the basic principles of communication, and applied his expertise in school administration in a consistent manner.

2. Dr. Morrow was steadfast in his adherence to a few basic principles of education. He believed that if one produced a quality education program and then staffed it with well-paid and well-qualified teachers that worked in attractive and functional buildings, then the achievement level of the students would increase. Additionally, he believed in a comprehensive program of education where a variety of programs from academic, fine arts and vocational skills would best meet the needs of the community. He was inclusive of all students and believed that the school district existed to serve the needs of all its students.
3. Dr. Morrow was ahead of his time on the issue of race relations. He desegregated the elementary schools in 1951, 3 years before Brown v. Board of Education. He understood that the school district could not move into the modern era under a dual system of education. His morality and sense of justice guided him as he managed the process of desegregation. First, he convinced the governing board that segregation was a dead end educational practice. Second, he calculated his political risks regarding this issue and integrated the schools. Third, he understood the political backlash of applying practices designed to root out the vestiges of segregation that Judge Frey referred to in his conclusions of law. The implications are that he was

courageous and desired to be a leader in the community to end this divisive form of discrimination. However, he was cautious and understood the political ramifications of his practices. He moved swiftly to end the public segregation of students in the district but proceeded slowly in rooting out the vestiges of past discriminatory practices.

4. Dr. Morrow believed that a quality educational program best served the promotion and development of the community. The community was best served if an inclusive environment existed. Programs for the mentally disabled, for pregnant teenage girls, and for children of poverty enhanced the standing of the district in the community and reinforced the legitimacy of schools for a needy population in the community.
5. The acquisition of land and the organizational planning surrounding the growth of the school district was visionary, demonstrating extraordinary leadership on the part of this superintendent. Herb Cooper was assigned to collaborate with the city and county planning and zoning commissions at a time when the school district began to grow by about 2000 students per year. The school district saved millions of dollars by purchasing land before it was developed. These actions permitted the school district to stay ahead of the population growth curve. Dr. Morrow solidified the standing of Tucson Public Schools within the structure of the community through his leadership and management of the population growth.
6. Dr. Morrow was excoriated by the print media for extravagant spending practices, for ill-timed bond elections, and for his close relationship with the governing board. He remained consistent in his application of those educational principles he believed

would benefit the students of Tucson Public Schools. His relationship with the governing board did not change, nor did they permit the local print media to unduly sway how they conducted school district business.

7. Leadership over a period of years is almost always multi-dimensional in nature. Dr. Morrow exhibited a variety of leadership styles as superintendent. The evidence suggests that situational factors such as legal and budgetary constraints influenced his decisions. Timing, environmental factors, political agendas, and human relation issues influenced the leadership and management style of this superintendent.

Suggestions for Further Study

The following studies are suggested in order to develop a better understanding of leadership and management practices for school district superintendents.

1. The framework and design of this study could be applied to the study of other superintendents in districts where the growth of the school district was historically parallel to Tucson Public Schools.
2. School superintendents in large urban districts with declining enrollment could be studied to determine the strategies they use to maintain educational services, the constraints that restrict program offerings, and the leadership and management styles that would be predominant under these circumstances.
3. A case study of superintendents who move from small district settings to large district settings should be conducted. Factors such as leadership styles, age and maturity, and the district size and resources would influence their decision-making strategies.

4. A research case study should be conducted which parallels the development of a city with the development of a school district. Factors such as the influence of growth on the allocation of resources for the city and the district, the collaboration between school district officials and city officials, and the public support for both the city and school district could be analyzed.

Concluding Statement

Robert Morrow's leadership and management style was multi-dimensional and influenced by multiple factors. The record of his leadership was characterized by a strong sense of values coupled with a strong vision about what constituted an educated child in a literate community. He maintained a steadfast consistency to those education principles he valued most. His leadership record affected the hearts and minds of a community that changed from a small town into a modern metropolis.

APPENDIX A

DR. ELBERT BROOKS INTERVIEW

Dr. Elbert Brooks – Former TUSD Administrator 1939-1970
Interviewed by Mr. Abel Morado
Feb. 27th, 2001

The purpose of this interview was to ask him some questions about the leadership style of Dr. Robert Morrow.

A.M.: Good Afternoon, Dr. Brooks.

E.B.: Good Afternoon. It's nice to see you here.

A.M.: Thank you. What was your general impression of Dr. Morrow as a person?

E.B.: Dr. Morrow was a friendly person. He liked people, he liked to talk to people. I recall that he visited every school. He knew every principal by his first name and I'm sure he knew most of the teachers. He liked to get out, liked to mix. But most of that was of a professional nature. I don't think he had a great social life. He spent all of his time working day and night.

A.M.: And you were able to see him at work, is that correct?

E.B.: Right. Anytime you could see him. He was happy to talk with you and his door was always open.

A.M.: Based on your personal experiences, how would you describe Dr. Morrow's leadership and management style? Can you characterize it and expand on examples you remember?

E.B.: Dr. Morrow appointed people that he had confidence in, and he assessed to them not only the leadership opportunity but the responsibility as well. And he was not one to dictate how you do things; he accepted different leadership styles. But he expected the job to be done and the job to be done right.

A.M.: Thank you. Question 3: What do you remember as being the major issues with which the superintendent dealt? In the time that you saw him at work.

E.B.: I think that the major issue year after year was trying to be sure that we had money for the budget that he wanted to set forth for the educational program. He was, I think, his ambition was not only to provide the best quality education as he could for the children of Tucson, but he wanted Tucson to be the lighthouse district in the city. In doing this, of course the Board was fiscally independent, set their own tax rate, and

editors of the two papers took issue frequently with Dr. Morrow on the matter of school costs to the point that Editor Mathews of the Star called him the "School Baron."

A.M.: Can you discuss the issues of protocol, procedures and habits regarding the meetings that he held? And I'm referring to, maybe, cabinet meetings or meetings that were generally called as a matter of just getting together. I know that the district was growing.

E.B.: He didn't dwell on large group meetings. Of course, we had the opening of school meetings, getting all the teachers together, but he worked . . . he liked a great deal of small groups, and I would say, probably (. . .) one on one, individual discussions. He did try to set forth the major goals that he had in mind for the district. But he left to his staff the nuts and bolts of carrying out that agenda. But he expected them to be on the job and do the job right.

A.M.: Dr. Brooks, please explain Dr. Morrow's views on the integration of students, the desegregation of those students, and his approach of minority populations.

E.B.: I didn't realize at the time, because I was a teacher, of course, when he first came to the district. He came the year after I did actually. But I didn't realize then the significance of his position on integration. It was true that we had elementary and secondary, or I should say elementary school desegregation and the middle school or junior high school desegregation. We had integrated high school. Everyone went to Tucson High School, at that time the only high school in the district. But then, I think, almost at the same time as the national lawsuit he desegregated the schools. He didn't wait for the court to tell him . . . he desegregated the elementary and junior high schools as well. He was a leader in the nation in desegregation.

A.M.: What do you think led him to that decision?

E.B.: I think his built in feeling of fairness, and I think also showing that everyone had a good education. It was true that at that time they had some outstanding black leaders in our educational system and later two or three schools named after black educators, Morgan Maxwell. And he was the principal of, I guess it was called Dunbar originally, then they changed the name. And he named the school John Spring Junior High. I don't think he considered the Anglo vs. Mexican American populations as separate. I think his feeling was that they were already integrated, but realized that the location of where people lived tended to have a built in a desegregation effort. But when he appointed me principal of Pueblo High School that was one of the things we looked at was the boundaries of the school. There was an integration effort at that school.

A.M.: That was discussed with you specifically. You set up a variety of programs to meet the needs of your students at Pueblo. And the recruitment of the staff and everything, can you describe these programs?

E.B.: For that specific purpose. We had an integrated staff, and this was with Dr. Morrow's blessing. He was put under some pressure when our program at Pueblo was crafted to be significantly different than other high schools. We felt the needs of one's introduction of first year or freshman social studies, which approached historically the U.S. from the West Coast rather than the East Coast. I remember our staff put together a book called "Putting On the C's" (?) was one of their texts for that program. And of course, we had a "Dryden" centered school. And that was again, trying to help our students, and I recommended to him that I wanted Maria Urquides for Pueblo High School. She was a first grade teacher. He said, "You can't have her. She's needed at the elementary schools." And I said, "I need her. She's the one . . . I want her to deal with girls. I don't want her teaching, I want her with girls." Because I felt that was extremely important at our school. And by the way, when I said that to him, and he said, "Let me think about it." And then he said, "Fine."

A.M.: He came back and let you know that that was okay. Question 6: Tucson was growing dramatically in the 1950s and '60s. How were Dr. Morrow's leadership practices influenced by that phenomenon?

E.B.: Truthfully, I'll just mention one . . . acquisition of school sites. I've been in education a long time, and I don't know any administrator . . . I don't know of any administrator that had the foresight that Bob Morrow had and Herb Cooper was his manager . . . gave him the responsibility of carrying it out. He went out into the greater Tucson area, far beyond the population of that time, to acquire school sites. He was criticized in two areas: One, we had downtown, same one that he had taken property off the tax rolls. Another one was "Well, we'll never need them." Too far fetched. But all you have to do is look at Tucson now to see how those school sites acquired 40 years ago, 50 years ago, now are right in the middle of the population. I can only remember one that didn't pan out. There may have been more, but then they sold it for a lot more than they paid for it.

A.M.: And the last question: What influence did he have on you as a person?

E.B.: He had tremendous influence. I got to know Dr. Morrow when he . . . I got to know him well right after I came back from the service. In 1946, because I had the leadership role among the teachers' group here, and so I talked frequently with him in the matter of teacher salaries, etc. . . . And I found him to be a very good listener. He didn't always agree with you, but he was a very good listener, and I came to respect, more and more, his leadership in so far as staff selection, teachers, hiring of teachers, and the idea that he was out there in the schools and knew what was going on. He was implementing school programs that other districts had not seen fit to move on. I just think that he had the insight and the courage because it took money to do the things he wanted to do, lowering class size for instance. And instituting at that time an additional year for non English-

speaking students, which was controversial, but it was one that he thought that would help out. Another was his emphasis on the development of comprehensive high schools. And this was way back before others were doing it. I happen to believe very strongly in that, because it meant that you didn't have to have magnet schools, you had programs in high schools, that schools were comprehensive so that students who were oriented toward college or who were going out to work could get the programs they needed. And Tucson High School was a tremendous example. I don't know of anything that you wanted to take that you couldn't get at Tucson High School.

A.M.: That's correct. It still does have everything.

E.B.: And so, when they built Pueblo, it became a comprehensive high school. It led me when I went to Nashville; they had no comprehensive high school. And that was something that I instituted, and I was influenced by Dr. Morrow. And I could see the reason for that. Now, a lot of effort, a lot of focus is on magnet schools now, and I have reservations about it. Unless they furnish transportation to any student who wants to go to a magnet school, and most districts do not do that. That automatically excludes youngsters who cannot afford transportation to a magnet school. I thought that this, to me, I thought that this was the old leadership, and it's still a controversial thing. A lot of people want smaller schools. But you have to adapt a school program as we tried to do at Pueblo by having a homeroom where students get to know their teacher. I think I mentioned that to you before, and that was an effort to take a large school and break it up into little communities.

A.M.: That concludes the question portion of the interview. Is there anything else that you'd like to state?

E.B.: No, I think I was fortunate to know him. Well, yes. I was a fortunate person too, I think, to be in the district with Bob Morrow, and he contributed very much to my professional development and my professional assignments. I was a teacher when I was working on my doctorate at Stanford, actually, when he called and said, "The Board approved you to be principal at Pueblo High School." Well, that was two years away. "So, next year, you're going to be Dean of Boys at Tucson High School. Get out of the classroom, next year you're going to be assistant principal at Tucson High School." That was a huge school then. So that was a training program, giving me an opportunity to work on the program, get the staff organized. Then he came down one day, and said, "I need help in the central office." So he had a tremendous influence on my career and professional development. And this I appreciate so much.

A.M.: Thank you.

AM:sgc

The Morrow Years – Dr. Elbert Brooks Interview

APPENDIX B
DR. MARY BELLE MCCORKLE
INTERVIEW

Interview with Dr. Mary Belle McCorkle, Site Principal, 1967
Interviewed by Abel Morado
March 2, 2001

A.M. What was your general impression of Dr. Morrow as a person?

M.M. A role model, he was a father figure. He held a vision that was true. I just believed he was a fine man, morally, spiritually and intellectually. I looked up to him. He was my mentor.

A.M. Based on your personal experiences, how would you describe Dr. Morrow's leadership and management style?

M.M. Well I would say he was a transformational leader, although I really like the descriptor relational leader better for Dr. Morrow. He was able to relate personally to the group. He related to teachers, he related to administrators. The community loved him. Kids loved him. And he did fight a battle with the newspaper editor but actually he modeled good things from that too because he was able to take a stand for what he believed in was best for kids. So he was all those things. He had a vision, that he could align people to his vision.

A.M. What do you remember as being the major issues with which the superintendent dealt?

M.M. The major issues were the huge growing school district. We were building schools constantly, we had double session schools. He had to pass bond issues to get this done. The other major issue of course was the desegregation, the beginnings of desegregation. He did desegregate of course our segregated schools, Dunbar and John Spring. More was to come because they weren't truly desegregated because the African-American population lived close to those schools. Those were the two big issues.

A.M. Quick question on Spring. When that school was desegregated, actually it was Dunbar, but Spring had the junior high African-American kids. When they went to their neighborhood schools, did white children come to Spring?

M.M. No, Spring was closed.

A.M. Can you discuss the issue of protocol, procedures and habits regarding meetings that Dr. Morrow held?

M.M. I couldn't discuss that because actually I remember very few meetings I was in with him. I heard him speak largely when I was in small meetings with him, where it was just very informal, but I never was in an administrators meeting with him because I was appointed just prior to his leaving. So I don't remember really any business type meetings.

A.M. Were the meetings held by the Assistant Superintendent when you became principal?

M.M. No, he had the meetings. He did the general meetings and actually at that time we had no Assistant Superintendent. We weren't evaluated either very well. The Assistant Superintendent for elementary and there was an Assistant Superintendent for secondary, there weren't a lot of meetings. I just don't remember hardly any meetings. We were just very **** actually. You only had a meeting if you got into trouble.

A.M. Can you explain Dr. Morrow's views on the integration of students and the desegregation of the schools and his approach of the minority populations?

M.M. He was totally open to it. You know he had a background with challenged kids. He came out of the Arizona State Schools for the Deaf and Blind.

A.M. You think that is where the decision came from to be so inclusive with students?

M.M. It couldn't have hurt. I think he was just raised that way. I think he must have had parents that were inclusive. I really never felt like he had prejudicial bone in his body. I'm sure he did, we all do. Always open, always caring. It didn't matter, and I think his record of appointing principals at that time, we had a lot of African-American and Hispanic people as principals, it didn't matter to him. It was just who could do the job.

A.M. Tucson was growing dramatically in the 1950s and 1960s or it did grow dramatically, how were Dr. Morrow's leadership practices influenced by that phenomenon?

M.M. Well he had bought lots and lots of land for the district. He had an Assistant Superintendent who was very good at that. So he invested wisely in that way. I don't what else to say except he was right into it. I know one thing I needed to say, he didn't build cracker box schools. The schools that Dr. Morrow built were always very high quality because he looked at what was needed and got the money for it. It wasn't a half-good school, he built them of brick and mortar and beautiful patios and landscapes, playground equipment. They're still beautiful old

schools. He was building Wheeler, Palo Verde, Pueblo, Catalina, probably not Santa Rita, may be, when was it built?

A.M. In 1968-69, he had purchased the land and it was Lee who mainly took over for Santa Rita. Dr. Morrow was very influential with Sahuaro.

M.M. Yes, that's right.

A.M. What influence did Dr. Morrow have on you as a person?

M.M. He made me want to be that type of leader. I think he influenced me a lot in terms of being out there with people, visible in the schools, visible in the district, being a lover of TUSD. He loved TUSD. He made me always proud to be a part of it. I think he instilled that, its family. We all had our jobs to do, with the team. I was intensely loyal to the district.

A.M. Thank you Dr. McCorkle.

APPENDIX C
MR. HUBERT SUMMERS
INTERVIEW

Interview with Mr. Hubert Summers, Business Manager, 1960-1982
Interviewed by Abel Morado
January 11, 2001

A.M. Mr. Summers, what was your general impression of Dr. Morrow as a person?

H.S. He was a very fine gentleman. You couldn't ask for a better gentleman as far as I am concerned.

A.M. And for how long had you known him when you were in the district?

H.S. Well I came to the district back in the fifties, and then I knew him until he passed away.

A.M. And just for the record, for the time that you were working directly with him, what was the title of your position?

H.S. Well I first started as a business manager in around 1960 I believe, and then later on I was promoted to Assistant Superintendent.

A.M. Based on your personal experiences, how would you describe Dr. Morrow's leadership and management style? Can you characterize it and expand on examples you remember?

H.S. Well he was a great leader. He admired people and he recognized talent. He recognized your ability, and he also congratulated you on accomplishing things. In other words, he recognized one's tasks rather than try to downgrade the individual.

A.M. The next question, what do you remember as being the major issues with which the superintendent dealt?

H.S. Well one of the major issues was the fast growing community and the fast growing student population, and he had to deal with those and I am speaking of it from the business angle. He was willing to move ahead and keep ahead of the population growth.

A.M. Can you explain sir, how the budget was established?

H.S. The budget was established by securing information from each individual school and department of the district, and that was assembled and then we had to compare this with what was requested with regard to what the state legislature

would give us. When we would have to make adjustments in certain areas, some went up, some went down, but most of them went down, because their requests were generally greater than what the state was allowing us. And of course the final decision was the board's decision.

A.M. How involved was Dr. Morrow in that process?

H.S. Oh he was very involved. Very involved with the fact that he'd have to recommend what he could do with regards to salaries. Salaries were always one of the major items of the budget because 90% your budget, operating budget, went for salaries.

A.M. Once it received approval from the Governing Board, what happened to that budget?

H.S. Once it was approved by the Governing Board then that was the operating budget for the year. It was up to us to see that it was carried out.

A.M. Did the County Board of Supervisors have to approve that budget?

H.S. No the County Board of Supervisors did not have to approve the budget. The only thing the County Board of Supervisors got involved with and that was if you had to make an adjustment or to request an increase in a budget. They also were the ones who took your budget and then established a tax rate for the school district.

A.M. Did they ever challenge the budget that was approved by the Governing Board?

H.S. I'm sorry, I didn't catch that.

A.M. Did they ever challenge the budget that was approved by the Governing Board?

H.S. Not to my knowledge.

A.M. Can you explain how the state legislature changed this, because there seemed to be a change from the fifties into the sixties as to the state legislatures involvement with the budget process.

H.S. Well in the fifties the budget was more or less controlled by the school, always was controlled by the school board, but the tax rate had some bearings on how much we increased the budget from year to year. There were no limitations at that particular point of time. And then the state legislature came in and put up a per capita cost, your budgeting process, so they restricted the amount of growth that you could have in your budget.

A.M. What effect did this have on the school district?

H.S. Well I'm sure the school district would have moved ahead in certain areas, and they were restricted from the standpoint that naturally the salaries came first. And that didn't give you much leeway for some of the other major tasks. At that particular point in time, transportation and everything else was part of the limitations. I understand now that transportation and some of the other items are outside the limitations.

A.M. In relation to school planning and site acquisition, how important was Herb Cooper?

H.S. Oh very important. He did a marvelous job of keeping abreast of the group in the district. He was always out there looking for property. When he saw an area was developing so he would be able to acquire property before somebody developed it.

A.M. That ended up saving the district millions of dollars didn't it?

H.S. Oh I presume it did.

A.M. What was your relation to Herb Cooper in reference to the organizational structure?

H.S. Well he was employed under the superintendent the same, as I was an employee under the superintendent.

A.M. So Herb answered directly to Bob Morrow?

H.S. Yes.

A.M. Next question, can you discuss the issues of protocol, procedures and habits regarding the meetings that he held? Referring to Bob Morrow.

H.S. Well I think I understand what you are looking for, is the fact that the board meetings are always held under the Robert's Rules of Order. And any meeting that we had as a staff, well everybody was able to express his viewpoint.

A.M. And did you express it directly to Bob Morrow?

H.S. To the staff meeting and also directly to him, yes.

A. M. Did he ever meet with you regularly individually?

- H.S. Well we seemed to have contact just about everyday. Maybe not from the standpoint of having a specific topic to discuss, but we were very close in the operations.
- A.M. Mr. Summers, can you explain Dr. Morrow's views from your standpoint on the integration of students and the desegregation of the district that occurred in 1951, and his approach to minority populations?
- H.S. Well the desegregation came before I was in the district so this was already in place before I became involved in the central office, my first job with the district was bookstore manager. And I certainly had no connection and no relationship, direct relationship with Dr. Morrow at that particular point in time. But he was always out there treating everybody polite.
- A.M. The next question, Tucson, and you alluded to this earlier, Tucson was growing dramatically in the 1950s and 60s, how were Dr. Morrow's leadership practices influenced by that, by that phenomenon, that growth issue?
- H.S. Well he showed very good leadership, because he had to certainly recommend to the board that we conduct bond elections and have bond sales so we could move ahead with the construction, you have classroom space for the upcoming students. He was a very good leader in that respect.
- A.M. Mr. Summers, what influence did Dr. Morrow have on you as a person?
- H.S. Well I thought very highly of Dr. Morrow and I think that through his actions that we wanted to make sure that what we did was for the best interest of the children in the district.
- A.M. Is that something that was discussed by him or in those staff meetings?
- H.S. Well I would presume indirectly, I don't recall any meeting unparticular.
- A.M. That concludes the question portion of the interview. Mr. Summers, is there anything else you would like to state?
- H.S. Well I don't think that there has been a better gentleman and a better person to serve the district and I think his popularity proved that. That's about all I have to say.
- A.M. Thank you.

APPENDIX D
LETTER FROM THE SUPERINTENDENT

TUCSON UNIFIED SCHOOLS
TUCSON, ARIZONA

Office of the Superintendent

May 9, 1951

Desegregation of Negro pupils in the Tucson Schools this fall will be a real step forward in the social relationship of our students and of the people in this area. The Negro boys and girls will gain a great deal from desegregation over a period of years, although they may lose some of the prestige that they have built up through their fine chorus and championship teams at Dunbar during the past few years.

In at least two and possibly in three elementary schools the Negro boys and girls will be the majority while in all other schools, including the junior high schools and the high school, they will be greatly outnumbered. We know that the boys and girls in all our schools are good citizens and believe in fair play.

We are confident that all of you will work together to make desegregation a reality rather than something superficial, and that all of you will continue to help us make the Tucson Schools among the best in the nation. Teachers as well as boys and girls will need to adjust to their new schools and new environments. With mutual understanding and respect, all of us should be able to work together more effectively.

As I have stated before, we shall at all times consider all teachers as fellow citizens and fellow Americans and all boys and girls as American boys and girls rather than as American Indians, Anglo-Americans, Negro-Americans, Spanish-Americans or Chinese-Americans.

We realize that most people have prejudices of one kind or another. We also realize that any change, no matter how good that change may be, will necessitate a revision of present practices. These problems will be a challenge to all of us, but I have every reason to believe that the challenge will be met in a fair, reasonable, and sensible manner.

Robert D. Morrow
Superintendent

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