THE EMERGING ROLE AND STATUS OF THE DIRECTOR OF HUMAN
RELATIONS IN THE DESEGREGATION OF SELECTED
PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN TEXAS

DISSERTATION

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By

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The problem of this study was to ascertain the role and status of the specialist in human relations in the desegregation of selected public schools in Texas. Its purpose was to review human relations literature in order to compile a list of representative criteria for human relations programs in industry and to describe the human relations programs and roles of the directors in selected schools.

An analysis of available information indicated that industrial organizations have given more attention to human relations programs than have the educational institutions of this country, although their problems have been similar. It was in the workshops of the factories, rather than in the classrooms of America, that social scientists developed human relations skills and techniques.

The social issue of desegregation of the races has been a battle often fought on public school campuses. These racial confrontations, coupled with conflicts spawned by
the rigidity of traditional schools, have signaled the urgent call for human relations programs to alleviate human problems.

The background study included a review of relevant literature, interviews with public school officials, and discussions with state and regional educational administrators. The survey technique was used to collect data for the study. Personal interviews were held with public school officials from five representative districts. The remaining participants responded to mailed questionnaires.

The following procedures were used to develop the survey questionnaire: (1) construction of the initial survey questionnaire, (2) selection of a jury panel to validate the questionnaire, (3) validation of the questionnaire, (4) construction of the final questionnaire, and (5) administration of the validated questionnaire.

The development and findings of the study are presented in six chapters. Chapter I presents an introduction and the procedure taken in completing the study. In Chapter II, a discussion of the evolvement of human relations thought in industry is reported. Chapter III contains a review of human relations programs in industry and in education as well as representative criteria for human relations programs. In Chapter IV, details of the procedures taken in completing the study are described. Chapter V consists
of the findings of the study. The summary, conclusions, and recommendations comprise Chapter VI.

On the basis of the study, several conclusions may be drawn. Public education has begun to respond to the problems posed by racial desegregation and by the demands of education for the masses. Many schools are operating formal human relations programs under the direction of specialists. Results of these programs, according to participants, include lessened tensions, reduced conflicts, increased participation and cooperation between students, parents, and school personnel, and improved school climates. Respondents indicate that the human relations specialist is fulfilling an urgent need in public schools.

On the basis of the study data, several recommendations can be made. All educational institutions should begin positive human relations programs on a planned and continuing basis. There should be a national effort to discover and implement educational activities designed to foster a more humanized school setting. The human relations specialist position should be officially established and should require certification. Colleges and universities should begin human relations training for human relations specialists and prospective teachers or expand existing programs. State and national government should stand ready to provide financial and technical support.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The position of director of human relations in public education is a new one. While some local school districts are beginning to recognize the need for such an individual to direct a definitive program of positive human relations, school officials have not yet determined how to structure the job or how to define the new role. In her 1971 study, Stemnock asserted that

the need for a survey of developments in local school systems with respect to the assignment of a staff member with overall responsibility for human relations became evident when a number of Educational Research Service subscribers asked for help in setting up such a job (22, p. 1).

Complex forces operate on and within educational institutions today that necessitate an ongoing human relations program. With today's newspapers and magazines portraying alarming news of campus violence, teacher strikes, and defeated school tax elections, many individuals are attempting to discover the causes of such educational woes. Cochran (4) stated frankly that the need for "administrative reform is apparent." Many
educators quickly agree with such a statement and follow their agreement by asking how, what, when, and where.

A number of cities and colleges have implemented the "ombudsman concept" in their administrative hierarchical reforms. Some of the larger public school systems have also employed an ombudsman. Recently, Sklar (21) argued that the troubled educational system needs the services of a public school sociologist. There may be a place for all of these roles, but the trend is apparently towards the utilization of a specialist in human relations to perform these and other functions. Sklar's position is apparently in the formative stage, and Stemnock asserts that "no two jobs are quite alike" (22, p. 1). Thus, the role of the director of human relations remains to be explored, and its treatment as an emerging concept seems indicated.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to ascertain the role and status of the specialist in human relations in the desegregation of selected public schools in Texas.

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of this study were the following:

1. To review the literature on human relations programs in industry and in education, eventuating in the
compilation of a representative model or criteria for
human relations programs.

2. To describe the programs and roles of the directors
in selected schools.

3. To compare the programs of the selected schools
with established industrial programs, using criteria
gleaned from the literature.

Background and Significance

The position of human relations director is just
beginning to emerge. Even the formal study of human
relations is relatively new. The first academic course
with the human relations label was offered at Harvard
in 1936. As late as 1961, Davis wrote:

. . . historical evidence shows that human
relations is a rather new area of emphasis.
In this age of science and learning it is
shocking to realize how little we know about
human relations, but it is even more
shocking to observe how little we practice
what is already known. There is a major
need for better communication of human
relations knowledge to overcome the cul-
tural lag in practice (8, p. 9).

The first human relations programs belonged to
industry. Education, it seems, lagged behind. "Early"
educational studies of human relations were made in the
1950's. School superintendents even then understood that
most of their time was spent on human problems, but too
little systematic progress in the area of human relations
in public education has been made (10, p. 13).
One of the more notable exceptions was the experimental work of the Project in Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools sponsored by the American Council on Education during the late 1940's. Hilda Taba, Director of the Project, observed:

While most teachers had some awareness of techniques pertaining to diagnosis of achievement and ability, far less was known about ways of diagnosing such social backgrounds and abilities as values, socially determined meanings, and skills in interpersonal and group relations (24, p. 317).

This certainly does not mean that such skills and attitudes are beyond ordinary teachers, Taba added. Project results pinpointed the necessity for the program to be an ongoing, local one under systematic guidance. Researchers concluded that the changes most crucial to human relations are affected slowly and require steady, cumulative, and comprehensive action.

Numerous studies of the school superintendency have been made and various roles depicted. In one vivid description of the school superintendent's responsibilities, Combs stated that students, parents, and teachers often feel bitterly frustrated over their inability to get the people in authority to pay attention to their problems. Often these frustrated persons rise up and scream in anguish, "Listen to me damn you, or I'll tear the place down!" (5, p. 187). More often now than ever before, they do tear the place down as a means of getting attention.
Seely's introduction related several such protests and threats. He cited five reports from several areas in the United States, beginning with one from Cheraw, South Carolina. Here all public schools in Chesterfield County were "closed until further notice" following protests by both whites and Negroes over a school desegregation plan that called for a completely unitary school system by 1969-70 (19, p. 1). The other four reports were simply repetitious descriptions of similar problems in different locales.

Perhaps one cause for such protests is rooted in what Cuban described as "curriculum and instructional rigor mortis." Almost always part of the problem, according to Cuban, are obsolete curriculums and rigid systems that result in alienated dropouts, who themselves breed another generation of potential dropouts, thus creating a vicious cycle (7, pp. 57, 64).

The climate today, however, will not endure the status quo of inflexible institutions administered by persons who do not want to "rock the boat." Conant sounded such a note at the outset of the 1960's in his study, Slums and Suburbs.

To improve the work of the slum schools requires an improvement in the lives of the families who inhabit the slums. . . . Neighborhood by neighborhood we need to know the facts, and when these facts indicate a dangerous social situation the American people should be prepared to take prompt action before it is too late (6, p. 147).
Public school superintendents and school boards have been buffeted repeatedly by forces they often do not understand. Bewildered to varying degrees by these pressures and beleaguered by a myriad of other pressing problems, they seek guidelines for action for the perplexities they face. Pressing financial questions exist, but now, as always, the most explosive and divisive problems are those concerned with human relations. The questions, "Who will lead?" and "How will he go about it?" may properly be asked.

Since 1954, when the United States Supreme Court rendered the now famous decision requiring racial integration of public schools, the social and educational systems have been in varying stages of doubt, confusion, and disarray. The 1971-72 school year began on a chilling note, as evidenced by a report in Education U. S. A.

Educators across the country are facing a year of unprecedented headaches as the 1971-72 school year begins. Most of them will be confronting a worsening financial crisis, mounting confusion over school desegregation and the ever-present threat of teacher strikes (16, p. 1).

The same was true at the beginning of the 1972-73 school year, and the situation may grow even worse.

According to Morain, "We are living in a time of vigorous protest. We see in many parts of the world agonized efforts on the part of peoples to rule themselves. . . . No sensitive and perceptive student of
American society can deny the seriousness of our current racial problems" (14, p. 9). In recent years, these problems have intensified as blacks and other powerless ethnic groups have taken aggressive actions to liberate themselves from oppression (3, p. 266).

These conflicts and confrontations are as large, perhaps larger, in Texas as they are elsewhere. The superintendent of a large central Texas school district, in announcing a fourteen-point plan to solve problems after racial outbreaks at one of the senior high schools in his city, recently described public schools as a "battleground for the 'social revolution' of integration" (20, p. 17). While ethnic minority groups are making moves toward rejecting old identities, "most minority youths still live in dehumanizing ghettos which tell them that black, brown, and red are ugly and shameful" (3, p. 267). Many middle-class educational practices, oriented to the upward mobile set of values, reinforce those feelings, but there are increasing numbers who insist upon change. Harman argued that planners must realize that the educational system can create the desired society and that they may now choose between a person-centered society or an extension of the current material-centered one (11). Rebellion and dissent provide unmistakable clues regarding the direction education must go--toward people awareness!
Both at the college and university and the public school level, administrators, often becoming embroiled in generation gaps or cultural antagonisms, have rediscovered that seeking answers to problems not thoroughly understood is an exasperating exercise. Attempting to discover solutions to new and disturbing disorders through the application of out-of-date criteria is a frustrating experience. It is also a losing effort and one through which too many educators have suffered.

Realizing that they were surrounded by touchy human problems in an atmosphere of protest and rebellion, many college and university educators recognized the need for a new and specialized program directed by a special kind of person. To bridge the gap between student services and student complaints and thus to defuse explosive student attitudes, they implemented the position of campus ombudsman. Rowland studied the role of the campus ombudsman and found that the ombudsman, if functioning properly, alleviated student unrest by reducing student grievances via the official who was not "establishment."

He concluded that the ombudsman concept almost certainly will undergo alterations, but whatever changes may occur in the position, the concept is not likely to be discarded, since the conditions which brought the campus ombudsman into existence in the sixties will remain and perhaps
intensify in the seventies (17). The meaning seems clear--an urgent need exists for positive human relations.

Public school officials, recognizing that disorders in the public schools resulted from forces with which they could not adequately deal, also sought help from new sources. Title IV, Public Law 88-352, The Civil Rights Act, helped furnish the impetus for local educational agencies to plan and implement programs designed to promote better understanding among local citizens, particularly among different ethnic groups.

During the 1971-72 school year, sixty-three federally-financed programs operated in Texas as Emergency School Assistance Programs (ESAP). The Texas Education Agency Technical Assistance Section reviewed 138 applications and monitored those ultimately approved. The agency expected its work load to triple during the 1972-73 school year, as other districts applied for the program. Some of the 1971-72 programs included a full-time director, whose general task was to direct the program. Specifically how he went about his work, what responsibilities he assumed, and what methods he employed to bring about a meeting of the minds among those who seemed to be polar opposites is not generally known.

With the long and sometimes violent past of segregation and the relatively short but even more volatile history of
integration as the background, the need for a study of human relations programs and the overall role within the school and community of the director of human relations appears justified. Such a study appears especially important in terms of providing assistance to local agencies as they attempt to promote positive human relationships and also in terms of documenting the potentially important concept of a definitive human relations program.

Numerous studies, such as those reported by Levine (13), have attempted to focus on the desegregation problem of schools. In one such study, Bagwell concluded that

the success of school desegregation in a community is largely dependent on support from various factors including a moderate to liberal social climate and public opinion regarding race, good communication and relations between races, community preparation for desegregation by the press and human relations groups (2, p. 413A).

Other studies, such as the one by Sumption and Engstrom (23), concern themselves with the broader problems of total school-community relations. Still other researchers have attempted to expand upon the Intergroup Education studies by turning their attention to in-service education for teachers. More specifically, sensitivity training, particularly the models of short-term intensive exposure courses, have been studied and found lacking. Lee (12), however, found sensitivity training superior to conventional classes in human relations. Moritz (15)
agreed but reported the change in attitudes to be a short-lived one. Finally, Philip Zwerdling summarized his study in the following way:

Reality in urban America requires that students should encounter and interact with persons that truly represent the community and nation. These experiences should be more than the textbook, teaching aid or special program type that are offered by most schools (27, p. 1804A).

The concept of change has long been a major concern to educators. Application of democratic principles, particularly in classroom teaching and in school administration, has also been of primary concern. Kimball Wiles, in his foreword, discussed resistance to change and the need for continual emphasis.

Millions have been and will be spent for equipment and courses of study which lie unused. Propaganda campaigns in the mass media about the effectiveness of new devices impress the reader but procedures in classrooms revert to the old processes as soon as the additional money and the ballyhoo have subsided. Persons, teachers included, can find many reasons for not doing what they do not believe (26, p. iv).

The concepts of change and democratic processes are related. Good human relations is rooted in the same soil, but if direction and continuity are to be achieved, a broad degree of specialization may be required. Grayson studied inter-group relations and concluded that

. . . the "common welfare" of a democracy can best be achieved by the people coming together to build new types of socially
acceptable behavior and that a multiple approach and continued application are necessary to change the attitudes and behavior of adults (9, pp. 58-59).

As with any new trend or innovation, the appearance of the director of human relations and formal human relations programs raises questions. Are we witnessing the emergence of an important new role or merely a fad? How does the community perceive the human relations specialist's role? How does the average citizen feel about current social conditions in relation to conditions before the human relations specialist made his appearance? Could this new role possibly be utilized to prevent a human tragedy such as that of Paul Cabell, Jr., of Flint, Michigan, who took his own life because of the frustrations of attempting--and failing--to achieve racial harmony? Should college and university education departments become more involved in teaching cultural awareness in the education of future teachers? What are the implications for the training of individuals who will direct formal human relations programs?

While evidence is mounting that knowledge of good human relations practices is expanding and that techniques for the effective implementation of them have begun to receive attention, the entire process requires trained direction. Some schools are already employing such a trained individual, as evidenced by Armstrong's study (1)
of the social positions of persons serving schools in human
relations capacities. It is proposed, however, that like
the campus ombudsman, the role of the human relations
specialist should be explored and reported.

Definitions and Terms

For the purposes of this study, several definitions
have been formulated. A human relations program is a
set of strategies used in attempts to enhance human under-
standing and tolerance for those of different races, creeds,
color, and generation, as applied to the desegregation of
public schools in Texas. A director of human relations is
an individual whose job specifications indicate he is
assigned solely or part-time to the leadership of the
program of human relations.

Limitations

This study was subject to the limitations of research
data collected through mailed questionnaires. The scope
of this study was limited to human relations programs in
selected Texas public schools.

Instrument

In order to study the role of the director of human
relations in Texas, a National Education Association
questionnaire was utilized in a modified form (see
Appendix A). The modification consisted of added items
designed to generate information more specific to the proposed study. The instrument was designated Form B, for Specialist. A second modification consisted of deleting items for the purpose of abbreviating the instrument. It was intended that the superintendent or his designee respond only to those items pertaining to the role of the specialist and to those regarding the human relations program. This was done to secure a broader perspective of the human relations role. This instrument was designated Form A, for Superintendent (see Appendix B).

The above-mentioned NEA questionnaire was developed by Susan K. Stemnock, Research Assistant for the Educational Research Service of NEA, with the assistance of Mr. George Woolridge, Human Relations Coordinator for South Bend (Indiana) Public Schools, and Mrs. Ruth Bates Harris, Director of the Department of Human Relations for Montgomery County (Maryland) Public Schools.

The modified questionnaire was submitted to a jury of five persons, one college official, one public school official, one Texas Education Agency official, one Center for Public School Ethnic Studies (formerly TEDTAC) official, and one U. S. Office of Education regional official. The panel was asked to check the instrument for clarity, applicability, and appropriateness. Approval by three
members of the panel was sufficient to include each item on the final instrument.

**Procedures for the Collection of Data**

Data was collected by personal interview and by mailed questionnaire. The interviews were conducted with the Abilene, Chapel Hill, Dallas, Galveston, and Jasper Superintendent of Schools or his designated respondent and with each district's director of the Emergency School Assistance Program or its director of human relations. These five districts were selected from a list of school districts identified by officials of the regional U. S. Office of Education as having ongoing programs of human relations. The final selections were made to provide data from different geographic locales and from different classifications as determined by average daily attendance reported in the 1971 Public School Directory (25).

In April 1971, one copy of each of the final forms A and B of the questionnaire, along with accompanying letters and stamped, self-addressed envelopes, were sent to the remaining fifty-eight of the sixty-three public schools that the U. S. Office of Education identified as having operated Emergency School Assistance Programs (ESAP) during the 1971-72 school year. Approximately fifteen days after the questionnaire was mailed, a follow-up letter and another questionnaire were sent to non-respondents. This procedure yielded a return of more than 60 per cent.
For the interviews, copies of the mailed questionnaires were used as guides. It was hoped that interview data would elicit greater depth and range than responses to mailed questionnaires. Data from the interviews will be reported separately from data generated by the mailed questionnaires.

Procedures for the Analysis of Data

The data from the survey instruments were compiled, tabulated, and reported to show frequencies of responses to each item. Percentages were used when applicable. Conclusions and recommendations were drawn from data collected from the survey instrument, from a review of the literature, and from personal interviews with officials involved in selected human relations programs.

Summary

The development and findings of this study are presented in six chapters. Chapter I presents an introduction and procedures used in completing the study. In Chapter II, the evolvement of human relations thought and philosophy is presented. Chapter III contains a review of human relations programs in industry and education as well as criteria for establishing human relations programs. Chapter IV details the procedures employed in completing the study. Chapter V consists of
the findings of the study. The summary, conclusions, and recommendations are presented in Chapter VI.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER II

THE EVOLUTION OF HUMAN RELATIONS THOUGHT
IN INDUSTRY

The study of human relations has been an inter-disciplinary task. Behavioral science, chiefly through its three primary disciplines, anthropology, sociology, and psychology, has contributed a major portion of the accumulated knowledge of man's behavior in a social or cultural setting. Luthans stated that "as long as man has inhabited the earth, his behavior has been a matter of concern and attempted understanding" (39, p. 45). Those innumerable attempts at understanding have produced material to a voluminous degree in several disciplines. A review of the literature dedicated to this broad perspective would be prohibitively long. In a more narrow, yet still broad sense, a review of the literature directed toward an understanding of man and the world of work would also be impractical to this study. It appears more useful here to trace the evolution of human relations thought in its application to the industrial man through a review of the chronology of events and of the writings of individuals who have been influential in shaping the human relations movement.
A Definition of Human Relations in Industry

Although its origin goes further back, human relations came to the fore in the 1940's and 1950's as the designation of a course, if not a trend or movement, toward consideration of the human aspects of industrial organization. It was not a movement in the sense that a group of people met and organized themselves into a society of human relations specialists. Pfiffner (55) compared the human-relations-in-management movement during the twentieth century to the golden age of Greece as it is identified with the liberation of the human mind. He declared that human relations is a catchall designation for the attempt to devise free institutions for mankind's workday activities. "It is a rebellion against arbitrary power and authority in the bureaucratic milieu" (55, p. 20). In part, this attempt to devise free institutions led Dixon to observe that "since the Renaissance there has been no such upheaval of thought, no such revaluation of values as in the century upon which we have entered" (16, pp. 19-20).

Keith Davis believed that "the term human relations applied broadly to the interaction of people in all types of endeavor: in business, government, social clubs, schools, and homes" (12, p. 3).

The first organized attempts to understand the importance of man's relationships with other men were born of necessity as organizations developed and became more complex. As
Hodge said, "... the status of the worker and the roles and relationships in which he has been involved have undergone, and continue to under, great change" (27, p. 7). The worker rose from a position of servitude to one of status, and in the United States, man climbed from a position of status to one of virtual economic freedom.

These relatively swift-paced changes in the industrial organization, in part, caused industry to seek new techniques in the management of human resources. Social scientists came to the aid of industry in this search, and their efforts were instrumental in shaping the human side of industry in the 1920's. The twentieth century, according to Pfiffner, "will be noted for two great movements: (1) an amelioration of the harsher aspects of the boss-worker relationship and the heavy hand of hierarchy; and (2) the virtual elimination of physical drudgery through mechanization and automation" (55, p. 16).

Early History of the Worker

Before discussing the modern studies of human relations in industry, the historical development of employer-worker relations needs to be traced. Historians have designated several early types of human relationships involving the employer and his subordinates. These types--slavery, serfdom, and the guild system--represent the forebears of the human-relations-in-industry movement.
Slaves were an integral part of man's early economic history. Military conquests were undertaken primarily for bounty, slaves as well as jewels and precious metals. While much value was placed upon slaves as a group because of the services they performed, little regard was paid to them as individuals. Slaves usually worked simply to avoid punishment. They, therefore, had almost no initiative and little interest in their work.

Serfdom reached its peak in Europe during the Middle Ages. Serfs were the lowest order of workers and were bound inextricably to the land. However, they did have certain privileges, generally corresponding to the responsibilities they assumed, and thus their status was superior to that of slaves.

The guild system originated because of the development of crude manufacturing. The term guild refers to an association of people with a common interest. The most important guild was the association of merchants. Within the guild itself, there were clear-cut statuses, the master craftsman, the journeyman, and the apprentice. The master craftsman knew his trade well and was the owner of the shop. The journeyman had learned the trade but not as well as the master craftsman. He was employed at a daily wage by a master. The apprentice was a young man or boy who was learning the trade and usually worked for his board, lodging, and a small allowance (55).
Slavery, the feudal system, and the guild system all represent stages in the early history of labor. As the forces of economic and social change continued to evolve, new organizations and inventions emerged. Old social, economic, and political systems gave way to new ones, and these new concepts precipitated what has come to be known as the Industrial Revolution.

Immediately prior to the Industrial Revolution, the most common form of industrial organization was the cottage system. Work was performed in the homes of the workers in rural areas. The workers were retained by a master craftsman, who was paid by an independent merchant on a piecework basis. Neither the master nor the merchant had personnel problems since self-sufficient workers produced their own food and clothing and so were not dependent upon a money wage.

During the Industrial Revolution, the development of the steam engine led to new tools, processes, and machines. These new inventions, coupled with the economic doctrine of free enterprise, led to the factory system of production. Eventually, mass production processes led to an increased supply of material goods and to extensive and intensive changes in employees' living conditions. According to Pfiffner, "The principal social change brought about by industrialism was the transfer of residence from the villages and countryside to the factory sites" (55, p. 17).
Workers crowded into tenements. Work environments consisted of great concentrations of people among many machines in small, dingy factories. Unsanitary living and working conditions fostered the spread of disease. Psychological problems associated with excessively long working hours, monotony, fatigue, noise, strain, and the ever-present danger of accidents resulted. Large numbers of people worked for an employer group that not only owned all the tools and instruments of production but also supervised and controlled the work of individual employees. The personal relationships of the cottage system were lost, and the gap between the owners of the business and their employees widened. Workers lost the satisfying feeling of being individually important to their jobs.

The nature of the labor force, which often included children in the early years of the factory system, explains the role of the worker as a dependent child. The dependent role of the worker suggested for the manager a corresponding humanitarian role. In the Puritan colonies, the owner-manager was expected to be a pious man. Piety required industry, frugality, devotion to calling, and a measure of charity.

Robert Owen (1771-1858), a British businessman, socialist, reformer, and philanthropist, assumed the role of humanitarian early in his industrial career. He believed that in order to abolish poverty the influences of
a hostile environment had to be eliminated. He believed that the environment not only influenced the physical condition of people but also affected their mental and psychological development, since it determined their thoughts, emotions, and value systems. To improve the individual as a person and as an employee, and consequently to achieve increased productivity, it was necessary either to remove the worker from an adverse physical, social, and economic environment or to change that environment by providing more satisfactory living and working conditions (55).

Setting a pattern for the textile industry in the United States, and to a larger extent for all manufacturing, Francis Cabot Lowell accepted the operating principles of Owen. Lowell's paternalistic policies found their fullest expression in the cotton-mill community of Lowell, Massachusetts. To attract girls from rural areas for work in the mills, rooms and chaperonage were supplied in cottages. Apart from work, the girls' lives were regulated very much as at an academy or finishing school (29, p. 9).

The factory system originated in the textile industry, but the managerial practices that developed were commonly adopted in other industries. These practices probably had no apostle more ardent than Henry Ford. To relieve a condition of high labor turnover and to give himself a choice of the labor market, Ford introduced "The Five-Dollar Day,"
an innovation astounding in 1914. However, in addition to other qualifications, the workers had to be approved by a staff of investigators.

In what amounted to a brief reign of benevolent paternalism, these gentlemen and their house-to-house canvassers imposed on the recipients of the Five-Dollar Day a set of rules which blended good sense with Ford whims and petty Puritan virtues. . . . Their charges were encouraged to start savings accounts and to budget their incomes. They were given elementary lessons in hygiene and home management. . . . Agents became, to some extent, collectors of tales and suspicion. Examined on their doorsteps, wives were called upon to testify against their husbands, children against their parents. Heresay as well as fact found its way into a card catalog where a record was kept of every worker's deviations (71, p. 59).

The same story can be told of most textile plants in the South and of innumerable other plants throughout the nation. Located to make use of water power, most mills in New England and the Southern states were built in small communities or in rural areas. Houses, churches, schools, and commissaries were provided. These features could represent humanitarian motivations, but they might also represent practical considerations. The rented house could become a means of controlling personnel; the employee who resigned or joined a union or committed any act of which the management disapproved might quickly find himself and his family without a roof over their heads. The store erected for the convenience of employees sometimes became a more profitable operation than the factory. Management
had a sizable investment in community property and thus exerted authority in community affairs. The real motivation for services such as houses and commissaries probably falls at all points between the three-fourths humanitarianism ascribed to Robert Owen and the one-fourth ascribed to Francis Lowell. Doubtless some went beyond these estimated limits in each direction.

The abuses arising out of the more sordid practices of industrialism caused many to clamor for social reform. As Pfiffner stated,

Too much credit cannot be given to the muckrakers of the first decade of the century, including such critics of the industrial scene as Upton Sinclair. There can be little doubt but that his description of labor and living conditions in the Chicago meat-packing industry did much to arouse public sentiment with the publication of The Jungle (55, p. 19).

The last half of the nineteenth century became the era of social reform.

The Worker in a Corporate Society

The corporate form of business organization led to a further widening of the gap between workers and owner. Because business consolidation and concentration led to such a domination of the economic environment, Congress passed the Interstate Commerce Act in 1887 to provide federal regulation of railroads. In 1890, when public opinion became so aroused over abuses by certain concentrations, the Sherman Antitrust Act was passed.
With the widening gap between workers and owner, labor organizations grew in popularity. Labor organizations had been active since the beginning of the new republic, but they did not achieve successful growth until much later. In 1881, the American Federation of Labor was organized. In 1886, it was reorganized and remained the predominant labor union until 1955, when it merged with the Congress of Industrial Organizations. By 1914, labor had become so strong that it was able to lobby successfully for Congressional passage of the Clayton Amendment to the Sherman Antitrust Act, whereby labor organizations were exempted from antitrust prosecution.

It was also during the early 1900's that Frederick W. Taylor began conducting experiments which eventually culminated in The Principles of Scientific Management. Known as "the father of scientific management," Taylor wrought changes in management that paved the way for subsequent improvements in human relations in business. His principles included determining the science of each job, selecting the right man, training him to perform the job in a scientific manner, compensating him with a financial incentive, and separating the managerial from nonmanagerial functions (72).

Interest in human relations accelerated during World War I. The demand for labor far exceeded the available supply. The labor shortage was complicated by the emigration
of thousands of Europeans to serve in their homeland's armies, by a decline in the flow of immigrants into this country, and by the increase in the number of men and women who served in the United States armed forces. Although part of the increased demand was met by the million or more women who entered the industrial labor force at that time, the labor shortage greatly strengthened the position of workers and the unions that represented them (50, p. 23). Labor's improved position was exemplified by the soaring wage level that increased 84 percent during the six-year war period and by union membership that almost doubled during the same time span.

During the years of labor shortages, attention also began to focus on the human relations aspects of labor. The National Personnel Association was formed during World War I. Later, in 1923, it became the American Management Association, carrying the subtitle, "Devoted Exclusively to the Consideration of the Human Factor in Commerce and Industry." The first Silver Bay Conference on Human Relations in Industry was held at Lake George, New York, in 1918 and, except in 1945, has been held annually since. The theme of the 1918 conference, "Human Relations and Betterment in Industry," represents one of the earliest uses of the term "human relations."

Slowly the relationship between management and labor was changing. The negative methods used to stifle unionism
before World War I were being replaced by more enlightened and constructive programs. During the early 1900's Whiting Williams investigated workers by working with them, experiencing what they experienced, and talking with them as they worked. He recorded his findings in a diary and, in 1920, published an important interpretation of his experiences, *What's On the Worker's Mind* (81). Williams' study emphasized the mutual goals of management and labor, with the accompanying mutual responsibility of accomplishing those goals. Employee-management cooperation could increase productivity, achieve efficiency, eliminate waste, and settle grievances.

Then came Mayo. As Davis stated it,

> In the 1920's and 1930's Elton Mayo and his colleagues at Harvard gave academic stature to human relations. They applied keen insight, straight thinking, and a sociological background to industrial experiments . . . (12, p. 9).

The Hawthorne experiments conducted by Mayo and his colleagues at Western Electric's Hawthorne Works in Chicago have been credited by many as the impetus for the modern human relations movement. Dowling asserted that "the emphasis on human relations in management stems from Hawthorne, including the major themes in most of the supervisory training classes attended by the past generation and a half of supervisors" (47, p. 7). Hugh Jones agreed that the Hawthorne experiments served as the impetus for improved human relations in industry.
The great significance of the Hawthorne experiments was in their demonstration of the resistances and human wastes which characterized a "scientifically managed" plant, and in their suggestion that the next great gains might be made through a better understanding of the human factors in organization (28, p. 47).

Herman added that "there are those who call Elton Mayo's offspring the single most important development in all social science" (25, p. 11).

Mayo and his colleagues began their research after an earlier series of experiments at the Western Electric Company. Acting in collaboration with the National Research Council, the Western Electric Company had instituted a series of studies in an attempt to determine the effect of illumination upon the worker and his work. Workers were segregated, and the level of illumination was manipulated in one room. Since no significant difference was observed in the measured output of production, the experiment was judged unsuccessful. In April, 1927, Mayo and his colleagues instituted a second series of inquiries. Dickson described the "Relay Assembly Test Room" experiment:

In this study five girls who were assembling telephone relays, agreed to be placed in a separate room and to be submitted to different conditions of work, e.g., to the introduction of work pauses of varying frequency and duration and to changes in the length of the working day and week. Thirteen experimental periods of different working conditions of the above kind were introduced in the first two years. Output was carefully measured; the time it took each girl to assemble a
telephone relay of about forty parts (roughly a minute) being automatically recorded. The purpose of the experiment was to see what effect these different working conditions had on output.

During the first eleven experimental periods, as conditions of work improved, output rose steadily. Here was strong confirmation of the hypothesis that fatigue was the major factor limiting output. But in the period XII (about one and half years later) when the experimenters went back to the original conditions of work (a forty-eight hour week with no rest pauses) average hourly output did not drop appreciably. And in period XIII, when the morning rest period was reinstituted, both output and the morale of the girls reached a new high.

In short, there was no simple correlation between variation in the output of these girls and variation in their physical circumstances. This was confirmed by many other studies made of these girls about whom a great deal of data besides their output and the different experimental working conditions had been collected (15, pp. 21-23).

Because they could not explain the changes in productivity, the results of the experiment left the researchers in a quandary. Consequently, they conducted an interview program to find out what did cause the changes in output. The interviewers found that there was not necessarily a correspondence between what the workers said and what had actually occurred. Interviewers had to distinguish between the manifest and latent content of statements by interviewees. The worker himself could not always describe what was influencing his attitude. The interviewers concluded that an informal group had formed. Teamwork was practiced and the sense of recognition, participation, and
increased self-regard had salutary effects on morale. Improved morale brought about increased productivity (15).

To Mayo, human problems became a broad new field of study. Mayo viewed man as a social and nonlogical being who must be dealt with on his own terms. Since he felt that there was much value in the psychology of Pierre Janet, who dealt with the obsessive personality type, Mayo related the psychopathological theory of Janet to his own conclusions about the importance of social intercourse among employees at work. Thus Mayo and his followers sought to increase productivity by humanizing it. In 1936, they offered the first academic course in human relations at Harvard, and, in 1946, the course became a required subject (12).

An upsurge of emphasis in human relations occurred during the three decades beginning in 1930. Despite the retarding influences exerted during the depression years, wartime demands and economic circumstances during the 1940's revived and increased the tempo of human relations thinking. An unprecedented influx of new employees, scarcity of experienced manpower, hardships in living conditions, and widespread adjustments in wages demanded that greater consideration be given to the human factor in management. Larger firms, in particular, made great strides in the development of human relations programs.
Complex problems of human relations were more predominant in such firms, and their resources were more adequate to deal with the problems to be confronted.

Teachers and researchers in colleges and universities also contributed to the upsurge in popularity of human relations in industry. They found in business management's attention to the subject a source of research funds, a chance to overcome accusations of impracticality, and an opportunity to be both scientists and "do-gooders" at the same time (84). The study of man at work took new directions as industrial psychologists and sociologists undertook additional studies.

In a 1958 study, Calhoon, Niland, and Whitehill wrote:

The current importance of human relations is manifest in many different aspects of our present-day business society. Executives increasingly are becoming aware that research and development in technological, material phases of business have outstripped our knowledge of human relations. In addition, high levels of economic activity have created financial resources to make emphasis on human relations feasible (8, p. 1).

The new direction of research, then, was concerned with the behavior of the individual within the framework of the world of work. Scientists, and then businessmen, began to view man as a social animal whose opportunity to interact with others in the work setting had important implications.
In 1955, Knox discussed the following concepts of social relationships in industry: (1) interaction, (2) mental images, (3) definition of the situation, (4) role, status, group, and culture, and (5) persistence and change of relationships. All human relationships originate with interaction. Beginning with a simple act, to which management responds, an intricate set of relationships are established. As relationships are formed, the interacting persons form conceptions or mental images of each other. The conception formed of a person and the interpretation made of his acts may come from our own experience. But as we meet other people and establish patterns of interactions, there is the tendency to transfer to these relationships conceptions and interpretations of other relationships. The conception one has of another person is the mental image of that person. We do not respond to the person and his act but to our conception of that person and our interpretation of his act. The relationship of worker and manager is not static. As the process of interaction goes on, each party develops a definition of the situation. There are four essential features of the situation: (a) the role assigned to the other on the basis of the conception that one holds of him; (b) the role assumed of one's self; (c) the expectation of certain acts from the other; and (d) the interpretation of the other's acts as they occur. With interpretation of
these acts, there is a continual revision of conceptions and expectations and possibly a redefinition of the whole situation. In his fourth concept of social relationships, Knox defined several terms. Role refers to the functional position a person holds in a relationship. Status is the prestige position relative to that of another person in the relationship. A group is made up of two or more people in continued interaction, while culture is a society's pattern of living. Relationships may be of long or short duration, but for their duration there is a tendency for the principal features to remain the same. That is, patterns of interactions in work groups, community, and society resist change. The adult, then, does not begin each day anew, stated Knox. He arises with a full stock of conceptions, roles, statuses, and expectations. Most of the situations he will face during the day have already been defined, and, to a great extent, they resist change (31, pp. 11-17).

Nyman (53) also advanced some notions of the import of personal relationships. He believed that concepts of human nature and social conditioning allow researchers to suggest conditions essential to constructive human relationships. According to Nyman, three basic conditions are essential, whether between individuals or groups. First, all of those concerned must be assured a status of independence and self-respect in their relationships with each other.
Second, all individuals involved must have a realistic common understanding of their independent needs and interests as well as effective means of developing and maintaining such understanding. Third, administrative development, direction, and control must be provided on the basis of the intelligent application of the principles of integration in resolving conflicts in special needs and interests. All of these conditions are consistent with the principles of psychology and social conditioning underlying constructive behavior and free cooperation. Nyman believed "that men and women must have a sense of personal integrity, that they cannot function constructively if plagued by fears of domination or a sense of guilt" (53, p. 64).

According to Nyman, the main function of the employer or manager is to provide the conditions of human relations consistent with this positive principle of constructive behavior. Like most fundamentals, these conditions are essentially simple in nature. However, they cannot be created by the issuance of instructions, by the formulation of rules and regulations, or by the mere exercise of authority. "Management," stated Nyman, "must contrive or build the conditions for constructive human relations" (53, p. 65).

As the industrial scene became more complex, the individual manager faced ever-increasing pressures. He
looked around him and saw that more and more time and energy demands were being made upon him. He was embroiled in an era of transition and was ill-prepared by education or experience for what was expected of him. Demands that once were simple and straightforward became complicated because of advancing technology and social change. At the same time, contracts, unions, and other pressure centers restricted his latitude of action. Old styles of management came under attack from all directions, and managers needed new competencies to be effective in organizational dynamics.

The concerns of society turned to the individual in industry and to the impact of the organization upon the hopes, aspirations, and values of its members. Subsequent debate focused upon the bureaucratized bigness of business, education, and government, and the concern that personal initiative and inventiveness had been replaced by dehumanizing specialization and routine. Fear that the common man was being devoured by the organization magnified, and individualism in the organized society became the most important issue.

In The Organization Man, William White stated, "The organization man is not in the grip of vast social forces about which it is impossible for him to do anything; the options are there, and with wisdom and foresight, he can turn the future away from the dehumanized collective that so haunts our thoughts. He may not. But he can" (79, pp. 447-448). Industry ownership and management perceived
that they did not have the information to deal effectively with these social fears. Indeed they did not fully understand them and could not, therefore, determine an effective course of action. Social scientists, mainly sociologists and psychologists, responded to the challenge and began to intensify their efforts to better understand the interaction of men and organizations. Sociologists and psychologists, along with anthropologists, are given credit for the current interest in the behavior of individuals and groups as it relates to the world of work.

Social Science in Industry

Sociology was the first discipline to undertake persistent study of the relations of individuals and groups. Although the human relations movement gained its greatest thrust from the previously-mentioned Hawthorne research of Elton Mayo and colleagues, its origins extend to earlier sociological theory. Max Weber, Emile Durkheim, and Vilfredo Pareto form an intellectual triad of nineteenth-century sociological theorists. Concerned with the relationships of economics and society, Weber established sociology as a field of inquiry.

Published in 1893, Durkheim's first book, The Division of Labor, was developed from his doctoral dissertation. Durkheim perceived two primary types of societies—"mechanical," or those dominated by a collective
consciousness, and "organic," or those characterized by specialization, division of labor, and societal interdependence. According to Durkheim, mechanical societies were bound together by friendliness, neighborliness, and kinship, while organic societies, without such solidarity, were in a state of confusion, insecurity, and "normlessness" or "anomie" (42, p. 87). Durkheim's theory, as opposed to Adam Smith's self-interest as the basis for exchange, later influenced Elton Mayo's prescription for industrial solidarity.

Vilfredo Pareto's notion of "social systems" also influenced Mayo and other human relationists. Laurence J. Henderson, who had studied Pareto intensively, was a member of the Hawthorne group and introduced Mayo and the others to Pareto's theory. Pareto's ideas of the social system, of logical and non-logical behavior, of equilibrium, of the functions of language, and of the circulation of the elite were all adopted by the Hawthorne researchers (66, pp. 38-41).

Aside from the pioneering work of Durkheim and Pareto, a major school of sociological theory called "social behaviorism" developed during the scientific management era of the 1920's. This school introduced the idea of the "social person" as the object of study and established social psychology as a fundamental branch of sociology.

Charles Horton Cooley, utilizing William James' concept of
the social self, contributed the idea of the "looking glass self"—the concept that the social self arises reflectively from one's reactions to the opinions of others. Through group experiences, the individual forms his first notions of both self and social unity. The father of social psychology, George Herbert Mead, suggested that one discovers his own self by assuming the role of others in interaction situations. Society affects every person through the process of interaction, and the self is constantly being reshaped by these encounters (42, pp. 339-347).

Early psychology was primarily introspective, based on the premise that man could learn what he needed to know about others by studying himself. However, when Wilhelm Wundt opened his Leipzig laboratory in 1879, he began to examine behavior through controlled experiments. Observation of human behavior, combined with the psychoanalytical theories of Freud, led to a widespread search for instincts to explain thought and behavior (84, p. 196). While the disparities and disagreements among the lists of instincts, such as those of Veblen, James, and Tead (73), soon proved the instinct theory futile, the theory did lead to the recognition of individual differences. The study of man had to study the man, and it was here that psychology allied with scientific management, since both were concerned with the individual.
The Development of Industrial Psychology

Hugo Munsterberg is considered the father of industrial psychology. Educated in Wundt's Leipzig laboratory, he came to America at the urging of William James and established his psychological laboratory at Harvard. He applied his psychological principles to crime detection, to education, to morality, and to philosophy. His *Psychology and Industrial Efficiency*, published in 1913, attempted to effect the establishment of a government bureau dedicated to scientific research in applying psychology to the problems of industry. Though the bureau never materialized, Munsterberg's research efforts sought to answer perplexing industrial questions. As he wrote,

> We ask how we can find the men whose mental qualities make them best fitted for the work which they have to do; secondly, under what psychological conditions we can secure the greatest and most satisfactory output from every man; and finally, how we can produce most completely the influences on human minds which are desired in the interests of business. In other words we ask how to find the best possible work, and how to secure the best possible effects (52, pp. 23-24).

Munsterberg's concern for finding the "best possible man" eventually led to vocational guidance and personnel testing and placement (84, pp. 197-199).

The focus on individual differences by Munsterberg, Taylor, and Person, among others, and the concern for efficiency created widespread interest in the human problems
We must not forget that the increase of industrial efficiency by future psychological adaptation and by improvement of the psycho-physical conditions is not only in the interest of the employers, but still more of the employees; their working time can be reduced, their wages increased, their level of life raised (52, pp. 308-309).

Within the framework of scientific management, concern for the human factor was increasing.

Industrial psychology texts typically followed a distinct pattern in discussing human problems in industry. First, a psychological point of view of industry was developed by pointing out the need to study human behavior. Second, the roots and justification of the industrial psychology movement in scientific management was established. Finally, such recurring subjects as fatigue, vocational guidance, and improved efficiency through testing and placement were examined.

The growth of organizations expressing increased concern for the worker eventually led to the establishment of staff specialists who aided the line manager in finding, testing, and training personnel and in performing other personnel functions, such as administering the wage program. The first employment department was established in 1900 by B. F. Goodrich, and in 1902, National Cash Register established a labor department responsible for wage administration, grievances, employment, sanitary and
working conditions, record keeping, and worker improvement (18, pp. 345-364).

Walter Dill Scott, who studied under Wundt, turned his attention to the psychology of persuasion and to proper personnel selection to enhance industrial efficiency (63). He later turned to a broader view of personnel and pioneered in formalizing the personnel management function. He also helped to devise a system for classifying and testing officer candidates for the Army (66).

The efforts of Henry Ford, discussed earlier, toward solving the problems of a tight labor market and a high worker turnover rate resulted in the formation of a personnel division called the "Sociological Department" (5, p. 33). Though far removed from modern concepts, Ford's sociological department symbolized the idea that concern for the human element represented the best investment a business firm could make. Such concern for the psychological aspects of work was sound practice. Ford's personnel division represented a sophisticated version of the concepts of Robert Owen, who, almost a hundred years earlier, had pleaded with managers to pay as much attention to humans as to their machines (84).

The use and refinement of psychological tests during World War I as well as the tight labor market and growing labor unrest during the post-war period spurred many businesses to follow the personnel department leads of Ford and
other companies. The theme that concern for people would lead to greater prosperity for all became widely accepted, and many industrialists began to express the belief that management's approaches were too mechanistic and relied too heavily on the efficiency engineers. In England, Benjamin Seebohn Rowntree's interest in human welfare led him to employ a sociologist at the York Cocoa Works. The sociologist's function was to supervise company education and health services, housing, and recreational facilities (59).

Interest in the potentialities of personnel administration led to significant changes in assumptions about man in organizations. Ordway Tead (73), whose earlier "instinct" theory had proved futile, regrouped himself enough to co-author an early personnel text with Henry C. Metcalf. Tead and Metcalf concluded that inborn tendencies influenced human conduct but that advances in personnel research were enabling more scientific selection, placement, and training of personnel. "Executives should adopt a 'personnel point of view', which assumed that there was a cause and effect relationship in behavior which could be studied for the purpose of guiding human conduct" (74, p. 9). Tead and Metcalf believed that proper work habits could be formed, that emotions could be controlled, and that creative leadership could lead to reduced conflict and improved morale.
Personnel texts of the period generally discussed such subjects as job analysis, job descriptions and specifications, psychological tests, staff interview and selection, merit rating, promotion policies, and labor turnover analysis (84, p. 202).

The use of psychological testing declined during the 1920's. Psychological testing had proved inadequate to the task of selection, since research had failed to show any positive correlation between tests and success on the job (38). An early employment manager noted that tests were unscientific, were administered by amateurs, were used as a substitute for judgement, and were little better than fortune-telling for predicting human success (20, p. 64). As firms sought quick and simple solutions to human problems, quacks abounded, throwing reputable psychologists into disrepute. With decreased use of psychological testing, there was an upswing in company paternalism. Based upon the view that concern for employee welfare would increase worker efficiency, man became the firm's most valuable asset. Worker welfare schemes were instituted with the hope that workers would express their appreciation through higher productivity.

The Psychology of Motivation in Industry

In 1891, Paul Goehre, a German theological student, took a job in a factory to investigate working conditions.
Goehre observed that the workers took more pride in producing a complete unit of work than an unidentifiable fragment, that higher productivity occurred when supervisors instilled a feeling of group interdependence and teamwork, and that there were informal pressures for adherence to group norms. Poor morale and inefficiency resulted when men were isolated. Whiting viewed Goehre as a missing link between Robert Owen and the more modern human relationists (78, pp. 45-53).

During the scientific management era of the 1920's, many managers saw a clear-cut cause and effect relationship between the quality of the physical work environment and the well-being and productivity of the worker. Surrounded by proper ventilation, correct temperature, adequate lighting, and other desirable physical conditions, the worker would have the optimum environment for working on scientifically-measured tasks, while motivated by some wage incentive scheme. Such impediments to efficiency as fatigue and monotony were believed to be due, in large measure, to improper job design, poor materials flow, strained working conditions, or other factors posing environmental obstacles to workers' efforts. Fatigue, believed to be caused by the buildup of lactic acid toxins in the blood, could be reduced by removing wasted motions and by the introduction of scientifically-determined rest periods (84, p. 275).
During the post-scientific management era, Henri DeMan and Whiting Williams developed some unique ideas on motivation, bringing many of the earlier views into question. DeMan's study involved a limited sample of seventy-eight wage-earners and salaried workers in various parts of Germany who were asked to describe their own feelings about their daily work. DeMan concluded that man naturally inclined to find "joy in work" because of several positive motivations: instincts for activity and self-assertion, the need to be constructive, and a longing for mastery or power. Several negative factors inhibited joy in work. In the job itself, monotony, fatigue, and poor working conditions represented negative factors. Other negative factors included the dependent position of the worker, unjust wage systems, insecurity of livelihood, and lack of social solidarity. DeMan felt that work itself was a motivator and that management's job was to remove the hindrances preventing the worker from finding joy in work (14, p. 9).

To study working conditions firsthand, Whiting Williams quit his job as personnel director of the Hydraulic Pressed Steel Company to become a blue-collar industrial hobo. Williams worked in coal mines, shipyards, iron mines, oil refineries, and other industries to assess the temper of the times. By living and working with his research sample, Williams was able to form the following very definite
impressions about labor-management relations: (1) workers restricted output because they faced scarce job opportunities and because employers tended to hire and lay off indiscriminately; (2) unions arose out of worker concern for security and would have made little progress if employers had evidenced concern for this worker need; (3) long factory hours (twelve-hour shifts in steel) made both workers and foremen feel grouchy and tired, causing interpersonal conflicts; and (4) the workers listened to radical agitators because employers failed to speak of the plans and purposes, the aims and ideals, and the character of the company (81, pp. 283-290).

Later, Williams found that pay was relative in the worker's view. What counted most was not the absolute amount of pay, but the amount in relation to what others were receiving. Therefore, incentive pay plans were less than effective as motivators. The premiere wish of man was to enjoy a feeling of worth as a person among other persons. Williams' experiences taught him that the worker was not the rational economic man many assumed him to be. Instead, the worker acted emotionally, sought to maintain social status, and considered the nature of his job to be more important than mere pecuniary rewards (80, p. 147).

The Hawthorne Researches, to which social scientists refer time and again and to which more than one reference has been made in this study, also cast serious doubt on
many of the beliefs of the scientific management era. The absence of a positive relationship between environmental changes, such as rest pauses, and worker output led the Harvard group to examine the traditional hypotheses of management in an effort to find a new scope and role for management. Five managerial hypotheses were proposed to explain the failings of the original illumination research: (1) that improved material conditions and methods of work were present in the test room, leading to greater output; (2) that rest pauses and shorter days had provided relief from fatigue; (3) that rest pauses had provided relief from the monotony of work; (4) that the individual wage payment incentive had stimulated increased output; and (5) that the changes in supervisory techniques, i.e. improved interpersonal relations, had improved attitudes and output (57, pp. 86-89).

One by one the hypotheses were tested. The first explanation was rejected since some working conditions, such as level of illumination, had been purposely deteriorated, and yet production had increased. Second, rest pauses and length of work day did not explain the results, since output still increased after all of these so-called privileges were taken away. No definite appraisal of the third hypothesis, relief from monotony, was made, since monotony was deemed a state of mind and could not be assessed on the basis of output data alone. Since the
incentive payments struck at the heart of traditional management theories of motivation, hypothesis four merited close examination. Two new groups were formed, and after a number of experiments, the researchers rejected wage incentives as a cause of increased output. They concluded that improved morale, supervision, and interpersonal relations led to greater output.

The new vistas opened up by the Hawthorne work called for supervisors to take a personal interest in their subordinates. This supervisory style had been employed in the experiments. The researchers themselves had removed the workers from the factory floor, placed them in special test rooms, and assumed many of the supervisory functions. This shift in control, it was noted, from the former line supervisor to the experimenters created a new social situation for the workers. Since he was not regarded as the boss, the experimenter-supervisor created a freer and more pleasant working environment (45, p. 78). The change in the quality of the supervisor was not a difference in closeness but in the special attention given to the sentiments and motives of the workers. The experimenter, who became the de facto supervisor, altered the previous managerial practices. Workers were advised and consulted about changes, their views were listened to sympathetically, and their physical and mental health became matters of great concern to the experimenters. In the new social
situation, the workers felt free to air their problems, and new interpersonal bonds were established with co-workers and superiors. Since the studies had demonstrated a close relationship between employee morale and supervision, the researchers set out to re-educate supervisors by teaching them to play the supervisory role as the observer-supervisor had played it.

An interview program was initiated. The initial concept of the interviews was to pose to workers directed questions about management's programs and policies, working conditions, and the like. However, the interviewers found that the workers wanted to talk about things not included in the patterned format. The things deemed important by the company and by the investigators were not necessarily the most important to the workers. When this was realized, the procedure changed to a non-directive technique in which the interviewer allowed the worker to express his mind, whether or not it was considered important to the interviewer. In follow-up interviews, workers expressed the opinion that working conditions had improved, although working conditions had not changed, and that wages were better, even though wages were the same. In short, the opportunity to let off steam made the workers feel better about their situation, even though it had not altered (57, pp. 194-199).
The outcome of the interviewing program was supervisory training in the need to listen to and understand the personal problems of workers. The supervisors were trained to be interviewers, to listen rather than to talk, and to exclude from their personal contacts with employees any moral admonition, advice, or emotion. Supervisory use of this non-directive interviewing technique enabled the supervisor to handle worker's personal problems more intelligently, to locate those factors affecting worker performance, and to remove events or factors in the worker's social or physical environment that were affecting his performance. The new supervisor was to be more people-oriented, more concerned, less aloof, and more skilled in handling social and personal situations (57, pp. 191-194).

The new supervisory role was based on the premises of openness, of concern, and of willingness to listen. The observers had noted that the workers were apprehensive of authority, but once the experimenter became more concerned with their needs, workers lost their shyness and fear and talked more freely both to company officials and to the observers. They developed a greater zest for work and formed new personal bonds of friendship both on the job and in after-hours activities. Their improved morale seemed to be closely associated with the style of supervision and with greater productivity. The link between
supervision, morale, and productivity became the foundation stone of the human relations movement.

Group Behavior

During the final phase of the Hawthorne research program at Western Electric, researchers studied informal group behavior in the bank wiring room. However, the discovery of the informal organization and its machinations does not belong entirely to the Harvard group. Frederick W. Taylor was aware of systematic "soldiering" and group pressures. Whiting Williams related his own experiences of informal relationships and attitudes toward work early in *What's On the Worker's Mind*. Stanley Mathewson made an extensive study of pressures leading to restriction of output (44).

However, the Hawthorne research dealt more extensively with group behavior. The group chosen for study was composed of male operators who assembled switches for central office switchboard equipment. In all, nine wiremen who wired the terminals, three soldermen who solidified the connections, and two inspectors who judged the quality of the work were isolated in an observation room. A group incentive plan was employed in wage payments. This plan rewarded each worker on the basis of the total output of the group and, consequently, stressed the need for collaborative effort. Researchers immediately noted that
the workers had a clear-cut notion of what comprised a "fair day's work" and that the worker valuation was lower than management's standard of output. If output exceeded that informal standard, the workers expected a cut in the wage rate or an increase in the standard upon which the incentive was based. The worker, therefore, faced two dangers. First, high output would lead to rate cuts or increased standards, and second, low output would arouse the ire of the supervisor. Group sentiment prevailed upon each worker not to become a "rate buster" by exceeding the informal output agreement. Nor should the worker injure his fellows by falling below the standard and thus becoming a "rate chiseler." To enforce the group norm, the members engaged in such disciplinary devices as sarcasm, ridicule, and "binging," which involved a rather firm blow upon the upper arm of the object. Avoiding bruises became a motivator, and workers engaged in numerous subterranean devices to maintain informal group membership. For example, workers would hide the surplus of high output days and report only what conformed to the norm; later, they would slow down and turn in the previous surplus units from their cache. The discoveries of the researchers may be summarized as follows: (1) restriction of output was deliberate; the output norm was set by the group regardless of management's notion of expected output; (2) workers smoothed out production reports to avoid the appearance of working too
fast or too slowly; and (3) the group developed its own methods of bringing reluctant members into line.

A second facet of the bank wiring room research assessed interpersonal relations in order to examine social structure or group configuration. Analysis of social relations in the bank wiring room revealed two cliques or informal groups within the formal structure. In analyzing these cliques, researchers attempted to isolate the factors determining clique membership and found that the following sentiments seemed to govern membership:

1. You should not turn out too much work. If you do you are a "rate buster";
2. You should not turn out too little work. If you do you are a "chiseler";
3. You should not tell a supervisor anything that will react to the detriment of an associate. If you do you are a "squealer";
4. You should not attempt to maintain social distance or act officious. If you are an inspector, for example, you should not act like one (57, p. 522).

The relay assembly test room experiment and the bank wiring room research produced opposite results. Researchers faced the problem of explaining the variations in output between the tested groups. In the relay assembly test room, productivity increased, but in the bank wiring room, restriction was the rule. Both groups had been closely observed, but the role of the observer differed. In the relay assembly experiment, the observer took the girls into his confidence, asked for suggestions, and encouraged
participation in decisions affecting employee welfare. In the bank wiring room, however, the observers merely watched impassively, while the workers perpetuated the same informal schemes they had practiced in the past.

The eventual explanation of the differences in output added ammunition to the Harvard group's argument for new managerial skills. Researchers found that the cliques performed two functions for the workers. First, cliques protected them from indiscretions within the group, such as rate busting and chiseling. Second, cliques protected them from the outside interference of management officials, who might attempt to raise standards or cut rates. The group was an instrument for controlling the activities and sentiments of the workers. Regarding the restriction of output, researchers concluded that the fear of depression and layoff was not the only reason for soldiering, since the workers restricted output in both good and bad times. Neither mismanagement nor general economic conditions caused the informal groups to form so far as the Harvard group could determine. Researchers sought an explanation by viewing the bank wiring room as part of a larger social organization. They concluded that workers were disturbed by extra-departmental personnel such as "efficiency men" and "technologists," feeling that their actions might impinge on worker welfare. The technologists tended to
follow the logic of efficiency, which the workers perceived as constraining their activities. Supervisors represented disciplinary power to insure that the worker conformed to management rules. Apprehensive of such authority, the worker resisted supervisory attempts to force patterns of work behavior on him. As researchers saw it, management needed to consider the non-logical behavior and sentiments of workers as well as the logic of efficiency. Researchers admonished management to view every organization as a social system (57, pp. 523-557).

The development of the social system viewpoint is considered the major contribution of the Hawthorne research. The existence of the formal organization with its rules, orders, and payment plans, coupled with an informal organization with its sentiments and human interactions would pose problems for management. However, management should not view the informal organization as bad but as a necessary, interdependent aspect of the formal organization. Viewing the organization as a social system would enable management to attack the conflict between the formal organization's "logic of efficiency" and the informal organization's "non-logic of sentiments." In this view, management should strive for an equilibrium between the technical organization and the human one by securing the economic goals while "maintaining the equilibrium of the social organization so that individuals through contributing services
to this common purpose could obtain personal satisfactions that make them willing to cooperate" (57, p. 569).

The Hawthorne research thus called for a new mix of managerial skills crucial to handling human situations. First, managers needed diagnostic skills in understanding human behavior. Second, they needed interpersonal skills in counseling, motivating, leading, and communicating with workers. Elton Mayo had set the stage for social man by seeking a new leadership endowed with social and human skills capable of overcoming the social disorganization of Durkheim's "anomie" and Ricardo's "rabble hypothesis."

The new leader was to be one who investigated social sentiments, thus furthering collaborative efforts to achieve organizational goals. Since much of man's satisfactions resulted from cooperative effort, managerial leadership needed to focus attention on the maintenance of group integrity and solidarity. The new leader of social man altered his basic assumption about why people work. Money or economic motivation was deemed of secondary importance in stimulating higher productivity. Instead, whether or not a worker would give his wholehearted effort depended substantially on how he felt about his job, his fellow workers, and his supervisors. Thus, the new leader for the new industrial man needed social, not technical skills. By developing listening and human skills, the human-relations-oriented supervisor could overcome the dysfunctions
of anomie and restore group solidarity, thereby achieving the two-fold purpose of satisfying both human social needs and organizational economic needs.

Behavioral Scientists

The Western Electric Research at the Hawthorne Plant provided strong impetus for the study of social man and social systems. Mayo, a trained psychologist, strongly advocated the behavioral school of thought. In his discussion of Mayo, George concluded:

Through Mayo's research efforts (along with those of his associate, F. J. Roethlisberger), knowledge of the behavioral school became widespread. Managers, aware of the importance of his study, gradually turned to this new trend of management thought. Today the behavioral stream is both broad and deep, fully a part of the growing field of managerial study, and rightfully commanding an important position in its totality (19, p. 152).

Although social scientists began to probe human behavior in industry during the early decades of the twentieth century, it was not until the 1930's and 1940's that significant amounts of behavioral research appeared. Whereas the scientific management movement was dominated by the engineer, the human relations movement was interdisciplinary, drawing from the contributions of sociologists, psychologists, and anthropologists. A basic premise in behavioral research was a Gestaltist notion that all organizational behavior involved a multiplier effect.
Each individual, due to his unique genetic composition and his family, social, and work experiences, was highly variable and complex. He became even more variable and complex when placed in interaction with other unique individuals. This multiplier effect meant that new means had to be devised to analyze, explain, predict, and control human behavior.

Two individuals, Jacob L. Moreno and Kurt Lewin, developed the means for analyzing group behavior. Moreno provided the new analytical tool, sociometry, and stated its purpose as follows:

>Sociometry is a process of classification, which is calculated to bring individuals together who are capable of harmonious interpersonal relationships and so create a social group which can function at the maximum efficiency and with a minimum of disruptive tendencies and processes (49, p. 11).

Moreno felt that the psychological activities of groups could be studied through the application of quantitative methods that probed the evolution and patterning of attitudes and interactions. For purposes of analysis, Moreno classified the basic attitudes of people towards each other as attraction, repulsion, and indifference. In Moreno's sociometry, the members of the group to be studied were asked to indicate those with whom they would and would not like to associate. The resulting chart, which mapped the pairings and rankings of the individual's
preferences for other individuals, was called a sociogram. The mutual preferences were considered dynamic, changing as members of the group changed and as problems facing the group changed. For example, in the New York Training School for Girls, where his basic sociometric research was conducted, Moreno found that different pairings appeared, depending upon whether the expressed choice was for a roommate or a workmate. This task-versus-friendship preference formed a foundation for important distinctions in industrial research. In industry, sociometric research has sought to combine work groups that would be superior in quality and quantity of work as well as conducive to higher morale for the participants (49).

Moreno also contributed "role playing" techniques, psychodrama and sociodrama, for the analysis of interpersonal relations. Psychodrama, a method of diagnosing and treating psychopathology, consisted of placing a person "on stage" to act out his deepest psychic problems with the aid of a therapist and other "actors." Sociodrama, an outgrowth of psychodrama, focused on the group as the method of analysis, whereas psychodrama focused on individual therapy. Sociodrama was based on the assumption that the contrived group was already organized by a set of previously-held social and cultural roles. Catharsis and therapy were oriented toward understanding such social and cultural roles as supervisor-worker and Negro-white. Role
reversal, or taking the role of the opposite social or
cultural group, could be used to broaden role flexibility
and to create an understanding of opposite individuals
or groups. In brief, sociodrama was group psychodrama
designed to reduce resentments, frustrations, and mis-
understandings (49, pp. 177-178).

The concept of group dynamics, an important contribution
to group behavioral analysis, is generally credited to
Kurt Lewin (1890-1947), a Jewish psychologist who fled
Nazi Germany in the early 1930's. Lewin studied under Max
Wertheimer, one of the founders of the Gestalt movement.
He referred to his own studies as "field theory." Field
theory held that group behavior was an intricate set of
symbolic interactions and forces, not only affecting group
structure, but also modifying individual behavior. In
developing his field theory, Lewin utilized the geometrical
term "topology" and applied it to the study of groups.
Viewing behavior as a function of the person and his
environment or field, Lewin attempted to find some corol-
laries in psychological topology (33, pp. 101-102). Using
terms such as "life space," "space of free movement," and
"field forces," Lewin and his associates set out to in-
vestigate resistance to change and the effects of leadership
on groups. Lewin, Lippitt, and White examined the effects
of democratic, authoritarian, and laissez-faire leadership
on boys' groups and demonstrated that, while other group
organizational structures improved morale, authoritarian leadership impaired initiative and bred hostility and aggressiveness (35).

In research on changing family food habits during World War II, Lewin found that changes were more easily induced through group discussion than through individual methods. When people thought they had discovered the need for change themselves and were not being told to change, the change itself was facilitated (9, pp. 381-392).

The emergence of group dynamics with the work of Kurt Lewin contributed significantly to a better understanding of group behavior. Lewin, along with Moreno, focused upon the group rather than the individual. Their work, reflecting Gestalt psychology, paved the way for further studies of social control, social change, collective behavior, and the effects of the group on the individual. Research moved from the individual to the dynamic state of the individual in interaction with others.

The Emergence of Human Relations Training

With the great reduction in business activity during the depression years of the 1930's came a sharp emphasis on cutbacks and savings. Management was almost universally interested in doing all it could to reduce costs and to eliminate activities that were not absolutely necessary. The programs of personnel management had some difficulty in justifying their existence. In many companies, it soon
became apparent that they were expendable. In many cases, entire personnel departments were abolished. Those that remained were, in most instances, drastically reoriented and reorganized.

Under the pressures of the depression, however, a number of laws advantageous to labor unions were passed. The National Labor Relations Act of 1935 (The Wagner Act) brought a new emphasis to collective bargaining. The formation of the Congress of Industrial Organizations also aided labor. Morris Cooke considered the environment ripe for a rapprochement between labor and management—a rapprochement that would insure industrial peace and productivity through collective bargaining (11). Industrial harmony would come through collective bargaining with the help of professional industrial relations specialists (68, pp. 338-339). Industrial democracy, or the application of human relations in the industrial setting in conjunction with organized labor, became the popular theme (23). Soon a number of centers began to appear which paved the way for the new "industrial human relations."

The Committee on Human Relations in Industry was formed in 1943 by an interdisciplinary group at the University of Chicago. Its members were Burleigh Gardner from business, William Foote Whyte from sociology, and W. Lloyd Warner from anthropology. Their work characterized the new style of interdisciplinary behavioral research.
Industrial relations centers also appeared. New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations at Cornell originated in 1945. The Yale Labor-Management Center and the Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations at the University of Illinois soon followed. In 1946, Rensis Likert founded the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan. In 1947, a group of academicians and labor leaders interested in advancing the state of knowledge in personnel and industrial relations formed the Industrial Relations Research Association. These centers and associations formed the core around which a growing body of research literature on industrial behavior began to accumulate.

Human relations training, oriented toward overcoming communications barriers and enhancing interpersonal skills, gained favor. To expose hidden talents in leaders, group-oriented techniques such as role playing, non-directive counseling, group discussion, and, eventually, sensitivity training were employed. In the development of his psychotherapy technique, Carl Rogers, a clinical psychologist at the University of Chicago, refined the non-directive counseling techniques utilized by Hawthorne researchers (58). Norman Maier of the University of Michigan, one of the foremost advocates of group-in-action training techniques, advocated what he called "group decision." He described group decision as
A way of controlling through leadership rather than force.
A way of group discipline through social pressure.
A way of being fair to the job and all members of a group.
A way of resolving conflicting attitudes.
Permitting the group to jell on the idea it thinks will best solve a problem

A way of letting facts and feelings operate.
Pooled thinking.
Cooperative problem solving.
A way of giving each person a chance to participate in things that concern him in his work situation.
A method that requires skill and a respect for other people (40, p. 30).

In order to develop human relations skills, technically-oriented supervisors were asked to take on new role dimensions, to consult the group, and to discuss alternative decisions. Industrial and business school educational departments increasingly used case problems for training in human relations skills. Many of these role-playing situations developed interpersonal ability. Harvard pioneered in the use of case problems with its "administrative practices" course under the leadership of Edmund P. Learned (22). Academic institutions were seeking to fill an industrial void that called for both productive and satisfied workers (56).

Founded upon the Mayoist's call for socially-skilled supervisors, human relations training was enhanced by the ideas and techniques of Moreno and Lewin and carried on in
research centers and associations. It reached its zenith in the 1940's and early 1950's.

New Assumptions About Man at Work

Prior views about the nature of man's motivation and the role of the supervisor in securing human collaboration were questioned by the results of the Hawthorne experiments and succeeding investigations. New assumptions about man at work were developed. Ideas about motivation changed. Views about benefits to be derived from the division of labor altered. Ideas about obtaining greater employee commitment to organizational goals through participation in decision-making developed.

New Motivation Theory

Abraham H. Maslow opened up new ways of thinking about motivation with his hierarchy of man's needs. In 1943, he identified at least five sets of basic needs: physiological needs and the need for safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization. These basic needs were arranged in a hierarchy of urgency with the physiological needs as most basic. When these needs were satisfied, they ceased to be urgent, and another set of needs emerged to dominate behavior. In Maslow's theory, a person moved up the ladder of needs as each level was satisfied, or if a lower-order need was threatened, an individual could move back down the ladder until the threatened need was secure again.
Since man was a perpetually wanting animal, all his needs were never fully gratified. The top rung of the hierarchy, self-actualization, represented self-fulfillment or man's attainment of his potential. In a subsistence level economy, physiological needs would predominate, but as the economic level improved, other needs would become more important (43, pp. 370-396).

Human relationists believed that the American economy had, in fact, moved to a higher level of need priority. Therefore, the new focus of motivational efforts was to be on the group and on the social aspects of the workplace. Adhering to the Mayo thesis that industry must promote collaboration and social solidarity, management began to pay individual incentive plans less attention and group plans more.

The Scanlon plan, named for Joseph N. Scanlon, a steel worker and Union official, utilized employee suggestions and production committees to seek methods of reducing labor costs. No individual awards for suggestions were given. The entire plan was group-oriented. Cooperation and collaboration were stressed over competition, with everyone benefitting from the suggestions of individuals. Rewards were plant-wide or company-wide, encouraging union-management cooperation to reduce costs and share benefits (34).
The Scanlon plan appealed to labor because it explicitly required union participation in the production committees. According to Scanlon, the purpose of union participation was not to create a sense of belonging but to encourage management to assign a definite role to the worker in suggesting improvements. The Scanlon plan was unique in several respects. First, it offered a group reward for suggestions. Second, joint committees were established to discuss problems and to propose labor-saving techniques. Third, the workers shared reduced costs, not increased profits (34).

The Scanlon plan typified the industrial human relations approach to motivation in the 1940's and 1950's. Individual incentive plans were still around, however, and James F. Lincoln of Lincoln Electric in Ohio appealed to the individual rather than to the group in his Incentive Management. Lincoln believed that people were giving up freedom for security and that they were losing their pride, their self-reliance, and their desire to progress. He proposed to return to the intelligent selfishness of individual ambition. Lincoln's plan sought to develop each man to his highest ability and then to reward him with a "bonus" for his contribution to the success of the company (37, pp. 19, 90, 109). Over a long period of years from 1935 to 1950, the average yearly bonus for each factory worker was approximately $2,500.00. Bonuses were paid
over and above the worker's regular wages. At Lincoln Electric, there was no history of work stoppages; labor turnover was almost non-existent; and individual productivity was five times as great as that for all manufacturing. Individual incentive plans such as the Lincoln plan were in the minority, however, and motivational research and advice emphasized non-economic factors and stressed the group as the focal point for managerial efforts.

**Job Enlargement**

A second changing assumption about man at work resulted from the growing revolt against division of labor concepts. Walker and Guest found that the assembly line worker rebelled against the anonymity of his work, even though he said he was satisfied with his rate of pay and with his job security. Workers wished to escape the mechanical pacing of the conveyor belt and the repetitiveness of work. They felt that they were mere cogs in the machine and that they were for the most part unable to influence the quality of work. Because of the mechanical pacing of the assembly line, workers were unable to engage in social interaction and, consequently, were dissatisfied with industrial life (76). The Walker and Guest studies led to a new focus in studies of industrial behavior. Researchers found that job enlargement relieved monotony, enhanced skill levels, and increased the worker's commitment to the
total product. Such findings harked back to Whiting Williams, who in 1925, found that the nature of the job was more important than wages, and to Henri DeMan, who believed that workers search for "joy in work" through the nature of the task itself. Human relationists increasingly searched for ways to overcome industrial anomie through job enlargement.

**Participation in Management**

The decentralization of power or the "power-equalization" thesis represents the third area of changing views about man at work. Human relationists urged management to play down the traditional organizational hierarchy and to give a greater voice to subordinates through participation in the decision-making process. Belief that worker participation would foster a greater commitment to organizational goals and would contribute to increased individual and group satisfaction, researchers advocated work arrangements that would permit subordinates to participate in decision-making. Stressing administrative decentralization, James C. Worthy of Sears, Roebuck, and Company called for "flatter," less complex organizational structures. Decentralized administration, Worthy insisted, improved subordinate attitudes, encouraged individual responsibility and initiative, and provided outlets for individual self-expression and creativity (83).
In his *Bottom-Up Management*, William P. Givens, President of the American Brakeshoe Company, attempted to develop and apply a philosophy of participation to "release the thinking and encourage the initiative of all those down from the bottom up" (21, pp. 3-4). Givens' notion involved widespread delegation of responsibility and authority, liberal managerial freedom in decision-making, a free interchange of ideas at all levels, and acceptance of the idea that managers grow by being free to fail. Recognizing that an occasional "push from the top" was needed, Givens tried to confine "top down" management to setting policy, clarifying goals, and providing training programs for those who needed them.

Empirical research began to challenge undimensional views of leadership such as those espoused by Adorno in his book, *The Authoritarian Personality* (1). Under the direction of Rensis Likert, the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan began a series of empirical studies to determine what kinds of organizational structures and what principles and methods of leadership resulted in the highest productivity, the least absenteeism, the lowest turnover, and the greatest job satisfaction. This research led to the identification of two different leadership orientations: (1) an "employee orientation," in which the supervisor stressed interpersonal relationships on the job; and (2) a "production orientation," in which the supervisor
focused on production and the technical aspects of the job (36). These studies, over a period of years, showed that an employee orientation, coupled with relatively general rather than close supervision, led to superior productivity, greater group cohesiveness, higher morale, less worker anxiety, and lower worker turnover (51, 30, 67). The supervisor who built team spirit, who showed concern for the worker, who utilized a looser, employee-centered, supportive style of leadership obtained higher production than his production-oriented counterpart.

In the 1950's the Ohio State University Bureau of Business Research began a series of investigations that led to the development of a "situational approach to leadership." Emphasizing sociometric techniques, the researchers explored members' perceptions of the organization, group characteristics, group performance, and leadership behavior in various group situations (69, 70, 24).

Charles P. McCormick, President of McCormick and Company, used participation as a training and motivational method with the selection of seventeen promising younger men from various departments to form a junior board of directors. Known as the McCormick Multiple Management Plan, the board was given complete access to all company records, was encouraged to elect its own officers, and was told that "every recommendation they made for the
advancement of the business world would have the serious consideration of the company" (46, p. 6). The junior board met with the senior board once each month and submitted its suggestions at that time. Most of the suggestions were accepted and acted upon to a greater extent than McCormick expected. Success with the junior board led to the creation of two other boards. The sales board and the factory board operated essentially as the junior boards for the sales department and the production department, respectively. The entire system of boards involved several advantages. First, the boards opened communication channels. Second, they involved workers in decision-making. Third, they provided a means for identifying and developing executives. Fourth, they relieved senior board members of a great deal of detailed planning and research. Fifth, they provided for interlocking arrangements between various departments to coordinate and follow-through on company activities (46).

In their work with the Harwood Manufacturing Company, Coch and French developed another aspect of the psychology of participation. While serving as consultants, Coch and French employed three schemes for introducing and overcoming resistance to change: no participation, participation through representatives chosen by the workers, and total participation. Total participation resulted in faster attainment of the new production rate, lower turnover,
and reduced worker aggression. Involving the worker in change lowered resistance, allowed new social structures to emerge, and minimized the costs of change in terms of turnover and re-learning skills (10, pp. 512-532).

In another study involving the group as a target of change, Marrow and French reported a dramatic case study of a manufacturing company that did not hire women over thirty. The company believed that women over thirty were slower, more difficult to train, and more likely to be absent. A psychologist presented statistics to management indicating that this belief was unwarranted. The psychologist's statistics were ignored because they violated accepted beliefs. The psychologist then proposed that management conduct its own analysis. Results substantiated the psychologist, but the figures were now management's rather than those of some "outside" expert. Policy was immediately changed without further resistance (41, pp. 33-37).

Participation in decision-making received greater and greater attention. Seen as democracy in action, participation opened communication channels, diffused authority, and motivated people to a greater commitment to organizational goals (2, pp. 119-127). Participative management challenged organizational hierarchy and unilateral authority and sought to bring group forces into play. Early managerial
thought, which held that success or failure of an enterprise depended upon the traits or characteristics of the manager-entrepreneur-leader who dictated the entire operation, was questioned. Such authoritarianism came to be viewed with increasing distaste (6). Group reinforcement of attitudes was viewed as more effective than appealing to individual instincts.

To summarize briefly, early managerial assumptions were challenged by several postulates: (1) man was primarily motivated by social and group needs; (2) over-division of labor furthered industrial anomie but could be allayed by job enlargement; and (3) a greater commitment to organizational goals could be achieved and satisfactions enhanced by worker participation in decision-making.

The Development of Organizational Humanism

Criticisms of the human relations school of thought escalated during the 1950's, with reference to the corruption and abuses of the "happiness boys." For many, human relations was at best a rather poor effort and at worst an attempt to manipulate people. The human relations movement was accused of equating high morale with high productivity, a position which many theorists believed to be a simplistic view of the nature of man (64, p. 5).

During the late 1950's, a new philosophy of man in organizations appeared. William G. Scott called this
emerging philosophy industrial humanism.

It has both a philosophy and an assortment of practices [he stated] with which it proposes to change the conventional structure of work relationships and the content of work itself . . . with the goal of the restoration of the individual's opportunity for self-realization at work (65, pp. 43, 258).

The advent of organizational humanism coincides with two events in the economic-technological sphere, the recession of 1957-58 and the beginning of the space age. Megginson noted that the human relations philosophy had dominated until the recession, when it had failed to meet the economic criteria of productivity and profitability (48, p. 87).

The orbiting of Sputnik I marked the beginning of the space age and America's race to catch up with the Russians. Large research and development projects were funded which emphasized both the need for more quantitative bases for decisions and the problems of managing engineers and scientists. The professional employees required new assumptions about motivation and leadership, and the task of managing complex, interfacing projects demanded the re-thinking of traditional line and staff structures.

Social values were also in a tumultuous state of flux. While the college student of the 1950's was accused of apathy, the student of the 1960's represented a new activism. With the rapid trend toward a power-equalizing humanism, there was the promise of civil rights and of help for the disadvantaged.
In 1957, Keith Davis of Arizona State University re-defined human relations as "the integration of people into a work situation in a way that motivates them to work together productively, cooperatively, and with economic, psychological and social satisfaction" (13, p. 4). His definition marked the beginning of a modern view of human relations that was empirically more rigorous in understanding organizational behavior and philosophically broader in understanding man's interaction in a more complex network of societal forces. Davis held that modern human relations really had two facets, one concerned with understanding, describing, and identifying the causes and effects of human behavior through empirical investigation and the other concerned with the application of this knowledge in operational situations (84, pp. 445-446).

The writings of several men, following a fairly consistent theme, influenced organizational humanism. In 1957, Chris Argyris expounded his "personality versus organization" hypothesis; in 1959, Fredrick Herzberg published his "motivation-hygiene" theory; in 1960, Douglas McGregor advanced his "theories X and Y"; and in 1946, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton originated the managerial grid. These writers, along with Abraham Maslow, who originated the hierarchy of needs, and Rensis Likert, who
established the linking pin and interaction-influence theories, "captured the imagination of industrial and business managers significantly more than others" (60, "Highlights for the Executive").

In Personality and Organization, Argyris of Yale University advanced his immaturity-maturity theory of human behavior. Argyris believed that from infancy to adulthood, the healthy personality tended to develop along a continuum from immaturity to maturity by moving from passivity to activity, from dependence to independence, and so on. One could determine an individual's self-actualization by plotting his position on the immaturity-maturity continuum. Argyris believed that the basic properties of the formal organization worked against maturity and self-actualization. He proposed to design organizations that would reduce the incongruency between the needs of the healthy personality and the requirements of the formal organization. Argyris advocated job enlargement as a way to give the individual a greater opportunity to use more of his abilities and to give him a greater sense of power and control over his work. He also endorsed participative, employee-centered leadership as a means of decreasing apathy, dependency, and submissiveness and helping the individual achieve self-actualization, while helping the organization to meet its goals. Argyris called upon management to give employees a variety of experiences,
to challenge them by giving them more responsibility, and to rely on employee self-direction and self-control (4, p. 50).

Douglas McGregor made a significant contribution to the human relations way of thinking with his "theory X" and "theory Y" approaches to management practices. To McGregor, theory X represented the traditional view of direction and control, that is, the autocratic approach of threat, punishment, and paternalism. Theory Y, on the other hand, represented major modifications in the management of human resources during the mid-twentieth century. The following were some of McGregor's major assumptions. First, the expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest. The average human being does not inherently dislike work. Depending upon controllable conditions, work may be a source of satisfaction. Second, external control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about organizational objectives. An individual will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed. Third, commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement. The most significant of such rewards, e.g., the satisfaction of ego and self-actualization needs, can be direct products of effort directed toward organizational objectives. Fourth, the average human being learns, under proper conditions, not
only to accept but to seek responsibility. Avoidance of responsibility, lack of ambition, and emphasis on security are generally consequences of experience, not inherent human characteristics. Fifth, the capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population. Sixth, under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized (47, pp. 47-48).

These assumptions indicate the possibility of human growth and development, stress the necessity for selective adaptation rather than for a single absolute form of control, and point up the fact that the limits on human collaboration in the organizational setting are not limits of human nature but of management's ingenuity in discovering how to realize the potential represented by its human resources (47).

McGregor made it clear that he was not advocating the "do-gooders'" notions. As he stated,

Acceptance of Theory Y does not imply abdication, or "soft" management, or "permissiveness." Theory Y assumes that people will exercise self-direction and self-control in the achievement of organizational objectives to the degree that they are committed to those objectives. If that commitment is small, only a slight degree of self-direction and self-control will be likely, and a substantial amount of external influence will
be necessary. If it is large, many conventional external controls will be relatively superfluous, and to some extent self-defeating. Managerial policies and practices materially affect this degree of commitment (47, p. 56).

McGregor's theories are more consistent with the findings of psychology, sociology, and other social sciences during the past twenty-five years than are those of the traditional school of managerial thought.

Fredrick Herzberg is best known in behavioral science circles for his "motivation-hygiene" theory. Businessmen usually associate him with the "satisfiers" and "dissatisfiers" concepts, which are components of the motivation-hygiene theory. The motivation-hygiene theory grew out of a study in which Herzberg and his associates interviewed 200 accountants and engineers to determine what they felt good and bad about in their jobs. Herzberg categorized the job experiences or factors related to good feelings as **job content** and those experiences or factors related to bad feelings as **job context**. "Satisfiers" included achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. "Dissatisfiers" included company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, salary, status, job security, and personal life.

Herzberg called the job context factors "hygiene" factors, because they acted in the same manner as medical
hygiene operates to remove health hazards from man's environment. The job content factors, which led to positive attitudes, were called the "motivators," because they satisfied the individual's need for self-actualization. For Herzberg, hygiene, though necessary, did not lead to positive results. Only the "motivators" led people to superior performance. Motivation came from job enrichment (vertical loading or job enlargement), from more challenging jobs, from opportunities for growth, and from supervisors who were sensitive to the need for recognition and achievement and, consequently, gave employees opportunities for self-actualization (26, p. 141).

Rensis Likert was known for many years mainly for his attitude measurement device, the "Likert scale." But he was also active in conducting research in human behavior, and in recent years, his interests have focused on behavior in organizations. His research led him to conclude that most organizations utilize very little of the resources and potentialities of their employees.

Likert advocated a group type of organization, where the head of a unit deals with his employees collectively and is responsible in terms of the group as a whole. To Likert, the entire organization was an interacting and overlapping pattern of groups. The "linking pin" was the person who belonged to two groups within the organization, usually as the superior in one group and as a subordinate
in the other. The key to the linking pin concept was that the individual was actually a member of the two groups. In the group in which he was a subordinate, he was a member of a peer group, and in the group he led, he was both a director and a working member of the team. In order for a person to become a linking pin, he had to have positive interaction-influence working for him. The degree of influence the linking pin exerted within the total organization depended upon the amount of influence he had upon subordinates. With a positive interaction-influence, the linking pin or manager would be viewed by his subordinates as well able to effectuate solutions to their problems. Likert contended that the participative group system of management was ideal for both profit-oriented and human-concerned organizations (36, pp. 177-183).

The managerial grid, developed by Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, grew out of a belief that an unnecessary dichotomy existed in the minds of managers between concern for people problems and emphasis upon production problems. Blake and Mouton believed that people and production are complementary, rather than mutually exclusive, and that their integration into the management process would optimize both.

To Blake and Mouton, every manager had a discernible style of supervision based upon the degree of his concern for production versus the degree of his concern for the
subordinates who turned out the products or services. At one end of the spectrum was the manager who was interested only in getting out production, and at the other end was the manager who coddled his workers to the detriment of production. In between these two extremes were other managerial styles. The grid itself was an instrument whereby the manager could accurately plot his own style on the chart. When he could do this, he could begin to examine the implications of his style and to identify the personal and organizational changes needed to improve the climate of the organization.

The managerial grid seminar was used to train managers in essential concepts and methods before they undertook a planned program of change. Designed as a personal assessment exercise to give managers insight into their own behavior as a basis of improvement, the seminar concerned interpersonal relationships and aimed to increase the manager's sensitivity both to himself and to the persons who composed his organization. The method employed a face-to-face group that became the vehicle for interpersonal learning. This group encounter had much in common with sensitivity training as practiced in the T-group. The fundamental goals are similar—increased authenticity in interpersonal relationships and increased interpersonal competence; stress on team and group interaction, candid leveling, and feedback. The managerial
grid seminar assumed that any effective organizational development effort must be carried out by the people who are seeking to change the organization from within and, since each organization is unique, must be tailored to the particular climate or culture of the organization (60, pp. 50-55).

Self-actualization is the key word in the modern era of organizational behavior. Social values have changed and change still. The knowledge explosion of the current computer age has placed unheard of quantities of information at industry's disposal. Yet too little is known about man, the author of it all. H. Bruce Palmer, President of the National Industrial Conference Board, put it this way:

That the manager of today is faced with an unprecedented rate of technological change and growing competitiveness in the marketplace is a truism. Of much more significance is the fact that the technology and competition can be more easily managed than the human element of the enterprise. . . . Today's work force lives in a world made smaller by the communication explosion. It is better trained and better educated, more aware, more sophisticated, and certainly less dependent and submissive than its predecessors. It is, indeed, a new work force, and managers have come to realize that many once tried-and-true methods of managing human resources no longer are effective—or even "relevant"—to use a favorite word of the new generation (60, "Foreword").

In the uncertain future of shifting social values, where modern man is more complex than his ancestors and has a
greater need for successful interaction with other men, Davis' conclusion that "organizational behavior and human relations are not almost finished; they have just started" (12, p. 12) seems germane.

Summary

The term human relations applies broadly to the interaction of people in all types of endeavor. The human relations movement began as a result of the famous Hawthorne researches, although it had roots in earlier sociological theory. Elton Mayo, known as the father of human relations, led the Hawthorne studies and offered the first formal human relations course at Harvard in 1936.

Industry's attention turned to social needs of the worker as a result of the human relations movement. As organizations became more complex, human problems multiplied, and the fear that the common man was being devoured by the organization magnified. Businessmen required new understanding to cope with increasingly complex human problems, and the social sciences, mainly sociology, psychology, and anthropology, responded.

New methods of integrating man into organization, of motivating him, and of rewarding him were investigated. New styles of supervision and leadership were discovered and advanced as the study of man's behavior in organizations
gained momentum. Improved research designs led to empirical studies to determine why man worked and how he felt about his job.

The individual in groups became the focal point for study. Sociometry aided in the analysis of group behavior, and group dynamics led to important new concepts concerning the processes of change.

New views about man at work emerged as behavioral scientists expanded their investigations under the auspices of research centers. Industry called for productive and satisfied workers as well as for managers skilled in group leadership.


Social values continue to change. Authoritarian leadership continues to be questioned. The anti-establishment movement is currently in progress. With the future even more uncertain today than it has been, the need for positive human interaction appears more important than ever before.
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CHAPTER III

HUMAN RELATIONS PROGRAMS IN INDUSTRY
AND EDUCATION

One purpose of this study is to review established human relations programs in industry and in education. To compile a set of guidelines or criteria based upon ongoing activities, a representative number of industrial programs will be reviewed and reported in abbreviated form. In addition, two industrial programs embodying elements of all the other programs will be reported in depth so that their underlying philosophies may be seen. Also, the development of human relations programs in education will be reported.

Humanized Work

Richmond (98) stated that the humanized organization provides a climate that stimulates creativity and growth. The humanized organization affords employees the opportunity for recognition and for group membership with the interpersonal relationships teamwork offers. Employees are also afforded opportunities to contribute to the overall concern and to develop their talents (98, pp. 23-29).
DeWitt (30) listed several fundamentals provided by a humanistic organization: (1) good working conditions—ventilation, light, and cleanliness, for example—conducive to getting the job done, (2) pay equitably awarded and fairly distributed, (3) a job in which the worker can attain higher status and training, (4) care in matching the individual to the job, (5) a good working relationship between workers and supervisors, and (6) efforts to show the individual that he is important to the company (30, pp. 1-7).

Charles E. Barry, manager of Grover Cronin, Inc., of Waltham, Massachusetts, wrote that "attention to the individual as a prime factor in the operation and manipulation of business affairs should be given primary consideration" (7, p. 576). According to Barry, this commitment to the individual begins with the initial employment interview, when an attempt is made to find out just what kind of person the potential employee is and if his general attitude is positive. A humane work situation is established by placing the right kind of employee in the right position in a company that has clearly-defined objectives, a complete orientation program, regard for individual differences, and the practice of "keeping in touch" with individuals. Barry concluded, "Hiring people with attitudes in keeping with sound human
relations practices is one sure way of building a sound business structure" (7, p. 576).

Edwin H. Land, President of Polaroid Corporation, agreed with Barry's stress on individual opportunity in the following statement in the company's employee handbook:

We have two basic aims here at Polaroid.

One is to make products which are genuinely new and useful to the public, products of the highest quality at reasonable cost. In this way we assure the financial success of the company, and each of us has the satisfaction of helping to make a creative contribution to society.

The other is to give everyone working for Polaroid personal opportunity within the Company for full exercise of his talents; to express his opinions, to share in the progress of the Company as far as his capacities permit, to earn enough money so that the need for earning more will not always be the first thing on his mind—opportunity, in short, to make his work here a fully rewarding, important part of his life (38, pp. 35-36).

In an article in the Monthly Labor Review, Herrick described several ways in which employers could humanize work:

To "humanize work" is to provide workers with conditions of security, equity, indviduation, and democracy. Security in one's job is a condition which fosters and allows positive work involvement. The fear of working oneself out of a job is a reality to many workers. The condition of equity exists when the worker's share of the profits is commensurate with his contribution to value added, when a reasonable division of the profit between capital and labor occurs, and when compensation
is both internally consistent and at least at the prevailing level. Individuation implies conditions allowing for autonomy, personal growth, craftsmanship, and learning. This condition is best met by a combination of on-the-job and off-the-job opportunities. Democracy is perhaps the most difficult of the four conditions—both to define and to implement. Basically, it involves a situation where workers can collectively influence the conditions of their work and govern their actions, work methods, hours of work, work assignments, and so on during the course of the workday (50, p. 52).

D'Aprix, in his recent book, Struggle for Identity, listed these conditions, about which workers are increasingly insistent, that add up to a humanized organization:

First, they [workers] want a reasonably free society within their companies, a society where they can address problems and where they can speak freely without danger of reprisal. . . . They want a system which is flexible and responsive and one which will encourage rather than stifle the development of their talents and creativity. Second, . . . they want a broadening of traditional corporate goals so that the organization serves society at large as well as itself. Finally, employees want to be dealt with not as inventory that depreciates and can be written off the books, but as autonomous beings with psychic needs. They need to be recognized as members of a human community and as contributors to it. They need to feel reasonably fulfilled by their work. They need to be dealt with as intelligent and mature human beings who can be trusted to contribute to goals they understand (27, pp. 106-107).

Thorsrud and Emery reported that their research revealed the following needs for industrial democracy:
1. The need for job content to be reasonably demanding in terms other than sheer endurance, and yet to provide a minimum of variety (not necessarily novelty);
2. The need to be able to learn on the job and to go on learning (again it is a question of neither too much nor too little);
3. The need for some minimal area of decision-making that the individual can call his own;
4. The need for some minimal degree of social support and recognition in the work place;
5. The need for the individual to be able to relate what he does and what he produces to his social life;
6. The need to feel that the job leads to some sort of desirable future (121, p. 194).

Summarizing the statements of these writers, the humanized organization or work place is one in which the individual is of primary importance. Genuine concern for personal as well as professional needs are given expression, and positive responses are consistently applied. The humane organization provides a work place conducive to getting the job done and seeks to place the right individual in the right situation. It seeks creative workers and strongly attempts to provide workers the opportunity for professional growth on the job. It actively seeks to involve the worker in the total job and in the total company process. It communicates openly and freely with every individual and gives individual recognition to workers' contributions and abilities. The humanized organization assures contributing employees of security
and compensates them with an equitable wage, fairly
distributed. The humane organization displays an atmo-
sphere of concern for people and is responsive to them.
Perhaps the humane organization best exemplifies the
philosophy of a democratic society.

Human Relations Programs in Industry

Recalling Davis' redefinition of human relations
is a useful step toward the study of specific programs.
In 1957, Davis wrote that "human relations is the inte-
gration of people into a work situation in a way that
motivates them to work together productively, cooperatively,
and with economic, psychological, and social satisfaction"
(28, p. 4). A 1971 Industry Week article contended that
employees have not been educated to understand business
but that they need and want to know about it.

You'd be surprised how much that woman
working the sewing machine in the back room
can tell you about such things as cutting
costs and wasted procedures. But management
too often doesn't care about her or doesn't
let her know it cares. The once-a-year
letter from a president is not the way to
get employees to care about their company.
Total involvement is the way. And it's
possible. Give the employee something to
relate to (2, p. 31).

While it seems almost certain that large numbers of
American industrial and business organizations cling to
the old hierarchial model of bureaucratic authoritarianism,
many are responding to the call for humanized organizations.
Perry Pascarella, in an article entitled "Involvement Rekindles Will to Work," quoted Eugene A. Cafiero, Group Vice-President of North American Automotive of Chrysler Corporation:

There is a growing realization in American industry that the time has passed when we could take a worker--one who was relatively unskilled and uneducated--show him what his job was, tell him what time to start and stop work, and walk away from him knowing that's all we had to do (86, pp. 5-10).

Two factors are causing more and more managers to look into the human factors of productivity. First, they realize that they need to utilize all of the talent and intelligence of their workers if they are going to make real improvements in productivity. Second, they are responding to the louder and louder demands of workers that their talents be fully utilized.

A Cross-Section of Programs

In the human relations field of management thought, many writers stress the idea that no one model program will work for all concerns. The potpourri of programs to be briefly reported here substantiates that claim. There are many programs in the literature, and these programs are merely representative. Others, many of which might be of higher quality, could have been selected for use in this section of the study.
Aluminum Company of Canada, Ltd.

Champagne reported several of the main approaches employed by the Aluminum Company of Canada, Ltd., to adapt jobs to human needs. First, the task force approach permits an employee to work occasionally in a field of activity completely different from the one depicted by his official title in the organization. Second, a multi-promotional ladder system permits professional workers to pursue a rewarding career without necessarily switching to management jobs in order to gain more status or more money. Third, formal career planning obtains the employee's inputs in programming possible staff movements. Finally, whenever possible, the company attempts to shape job profiles in accordance with the profiles of individuals available at the time of a reorganization. According to Champagne,

While these approaches permit a better adaptation of jobs to human needs, they require modified personnel systems in the field of compensation, performance evaluation and even selection processes. On the communication side, they require a high degree of interpersonal relations, high trust among members of teams, and a high degree of openness as to the overall objectives of the organization (16, p. 49).

Timken Roller Bearing Company

Markley (72) disclosed that the employee relations program at Timken Roller Bearing Company of Canton, Ohio,
utilizes a positive approach as its foundation stone. The program features (1) continuous intensive communications to employees and their families as well as to the community, informing the public about what is happening at Timken; (2) continual visitations at company request from the community; (3) supervisory training in human relations in which supervisors are taught to settle grievances before they reach the labor union; and (4) employee recognition for special events, such as birthdays. Lack of strikes, increased productivity, higher morale, improved living standards, and more community involvement are credited to the positive program (72, pp. 186-193).

Cars for Commerce, Inc. of Chicago

Fuerst and Wiggins reported that Cars for Commerce attracts and keeps above-average employees through careful selection of personnel. Personnel testing for intelligence, personality, and other factors, supervision according to individual need, and a broad-based employee benefit and incentive plan are the major components of the program (39, pp. 40-46).

The Emko Company

Leathers described Emko's program of management by objectives and procedures for its implementation in the sales force. Steps in the Emko plan include (1) review of the marketing plan; (2) indoctrination; (3) setting of
goals and objectives by individual field supervisors; (4) commitments from the field force; (5) review of goals; and (6) feedback in all directions so that everyone knows exactly what is happening (66, pp. 45-50).

**Armour and Company**

Armour and Company uses program instruction, case study analysis, role play, and group discussion and problem solving to make its foremen more capable in human relations. The training objectives are to increase the foreman's awareness of his responsibility and authority in the labor relations area, to achieve a greater understanding of the intent of the labor contract, particularly in respect to the mutual interests of both labor and management in working toward a fair and effective operation under the contract, and to give the foreman confidence in his knowledge of the contract. Foremen at Armour and Company have evidenced enthusiastic approval of all of the techniques employed in their training and have requested that a continuing program be provided. After some study, Armour officials have concluded that foremen expressed enthusiasm for the program because they felt that management was showing significant interest in them (115, pp. 48-49).

**Tenneco Company**

Tenneco's program, begun in 1958, involves the development of its managers, just as the Armour and Company
Tenneco's management style is called the "manager of situations" and includes several elements. First, each participant is evaluated to determine his needs, strengths, and weaknesses. Step two calls for comprehensive evaluation of middle and upper management training and development. In step three, five definable managerial styles are explored, all of them based upon two ingredients—concern for human needs and organizational goals. Step four involves sessions of two to three hours between individual participants and the training director to analyze the individual's style and to show the participant the areas he needs to strengthen. In step five, group training sessions are held twice each year on various managerial subjects. Step six calls for continual training in conflict management (95, pp. 67-71).

Convair-Astronautics, San Diego

Convair-Astronautics of San Diego, California, utilizes still a different approach to human relations, although the program has some similarity to that of Cars for Commerce, Inc., of Chicago. The Convair-Astronautics program involves a strong testing and interviewing process conducted by a trained, skillful interviewer. First, each job applicant is tested and interviewed. Next, the interviewer writes a thorough report to the supervisor to help him decide whether to employ the applicant, and if employed,
the kind of supervision needed. The interviewer rates the applicant as average, above average, or below average on the following items: maturity, temperament, conscientiousness, adaptability, reliability, perseverance, honesty-sincerity, judgement, self-confidence, and self-reliance. The report also includes the applicant's work history, education, social adjustment, assets and liabilities, and an overall summary. These steps provide managers and supervisors with valuable insights and information about workers (83, pp. 73-77).

Job Enlargement and Enrichment and Participative Management

So many different approaches to human relations give substance to the notion that no one model is right for every company. However, two human relations concepts have perhaps stirred the imaginations of more people than any others. These concepts, inspired by concern of social scientists for such things as worker morale, motivation, and alienation, are job enlargement or enrichment, which actually have different connotations, and participative management.

Job Enlargement and Enrichment

"Job enlargement," according to Rush, "is the expansion of the job from a central task to include other related tasks" (104, p. 12). Tasks that would normally
be done by several employees are combined into a sequence of tasks performed by a single employee. When one employee assumes responsibility for a series of tasks, the time cycle is lengthened, and the degree of specialization is reduced. Proponents of job enlargement point out that research indicates the employee's job satisfaction increases with an increased number and variety of tasks. The altered job content provides release from repetitious tasks that foster boredom and dissatisfaction. Research also indicates that job enlargement results in improved efficiency and increased job interest.

"Job enrichment," wrote Rush, "usually means delegating to the worker some functions generally thought to be managerial" (104, p. 13). Management traditionally plans, organizes, leads, and controls the work of others, while the employee accomplishes the work set out for him by management. In job enrichment, the worker assumes some of the planning of his job. The job content or basic task may remain unchanged, but the worker commands at least partial control over his plans and his performance. Job enrichment usually increases the complexity as well as the number and variety of tasks performed (104, p. 13). Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, which maintains that real motivation results only when a job has the potential to satisfy the upper level needs of achievement, recognition,
responsibility, advancement, and growth is the foundation for job enrichment.

Numerous human relations programs, such as those reported by Clark (21), Cooper (24), Donnelly (31), Evans (34), Greenblatt (45), O'Meara (84), Randall (96), Ricklefes (99), Roche and MacKinnon (101), and Simpson (111), feature job enlargement and enrichment. A discussion of several representative programs follows.

Levinson (68) described the Steelcraft program as follows:

Employees with potential abilities over and above those required in their regular jobs are given cracks at problem solving at Steelcraft Manufacturing Company. For example, market analysis turned up the need for a competitively priced door that was stronger, had wider use, and provided sound deadening features. Instead of relying solely on the research department, the company called upon managers, supervisors, and production people.

Our aim is to get people to break out of their shells. The average person has a day-to-day job to do. It grows tedious in time. When interest lags, an employee becomes disenchanted with his occupation. . . . We try never to overlook an opportunity for an employee to contribute more to the company's--and his own growth (68, p. 100).

Levinson concluded that the job enlargement program at Steelcraft had minimized employee turnover, increased competitive instincts, improved customer relations and employee enthusiasm, and enhanced the training and development program.
Walsh (126) related an electricity board's experiences in job enlargement and enrichment. Creating natural units of work, giving the individual more authority to make decisions within that unit, and introducing more difficult and exacting jobs previously handled at the supervisory level brought about job enlargement and enrichment. Walsh described the long-term benefits of the program:

(1) more contentment in the enriched sections, (2) less supervision, and lower costs, without deterioration in standards of work, (3) the development of a better attitude to the job and much more recognition of the importance of good customer relations, and (4) staffs themselves say they have a better sense of participation in really worthwhile work. Their sense of achievement is greatly enhanced (126, p. 44).

Monsanto Company's Electronics Technical Center in West Caldwell, New Jersey, employs job enlargement to produce greater job satisfaction. The program includes (1) pre-employment training of assembly workers, with hiring dependent on subsequent testing; (2) uniform hourly wage rates for hires with a yearly review and five- to six-cent increases every three months; (3) job rotation of assembly workers giving all women experience on the entire production line; (4) management-worker trouble-shooting meetings; (5) work cubicles with individual name tags; (6) time cards kept by each employee (time clocks have been abolished); (7) name tags for all personnel; and (8) parking spaces on a first come, first
serve basis. According to personnel superintendent Rial Simmons, "all of these ingredients contribute to high morale and productivity. However, training, job rotation, and worker participation in decision-making produce the most measurable results" (120, pp. 68-69).

Thomas F. Patton, President of Republic Steel Corporation, discussed his company's job enrichment program in an article entitled "Our Greatest Asset--People" (88). "Work and life in tomorrow's world will demand the maximum use of human skills, intelligence, and judgement," he stated (88, p. 12). Patton listed three general conclusions around which Republic Steel operates its employee program. First, management, at every level, must learn to respect and to use the differences that make men individuals as well as the similarities that enable men to understand one another and to work together. Second, one of management's most important jobs is to watch for and nourish creativity whenever and wherever it appears. Third, flexibility in management personnel and organization is of ever-increasing importance.

These beliefs are implemented at Republic Steel by considering the individual's personality, as well as his skills and training, when assigning him a job. Understanding that a work situation is a compromise between the needs of the individual, the needs of the group, and the demands of the job, the management believes that by matching
differences as well as similarities a smoother, more productive team can be established. According to Patton, the proper environment is necessary. A flexible organization where the worker is encouraged to experiment and where creativity is rewarded is the key (88, p. 13).

Flexibility of management personnel and organization are fostered at Republic Steel by a continuous search for new ways to improve interdepartmental relations. No formal organization chart exists at Republic because "rigid organizational charts and hard-and-fast divisions of function and responsibility at the departmental level stunt individual growth and development" (88, p. 14). To achieve flexibility, Republic begins with a double premise:

1. The individual must assume full responsibility for his work; this carries with it the corollary that he must receive full recognition for work well done.
2. The prime responsibility of every man, whatever his title or rank, is to see that his job is done in terms of the best interests of the company as a whole, regardless of the effect on his individual department, division, or district (88, p. 14).

To enable each man to see all the various aspects of the problem confronting him and to enable him to choose the best solution in terms of the corporation as a whole, Republic provides appropriate training programs. For production employees, one training program gives the new employee work experience under the supervision of older men who teach him methods, point out his mistakes, and
improve his performance. Another program provides special training for key operating and maintenance men to keep them abreast of technical developments in their field. At the supervisory level, a program of basic economics geared to life and work situations is used. In all training programs, "the employee is encouraged to think for himself, to look beyond his present job and grasp its relationship to the department and to the company as a whole" (88, pp. 14-15).

Job enrichment is being introduced by the EnvironTech Corporation, makers of pollution control equipment, at its Salt Lake City manufacturing plants. In its two major divisions, production lines have been taken out and unit shops have been established. In an article entitled "Team Concept Brings Job Satisfaction," Oates quoted EnvironTech President, Berne A. Schepman: "We believe this is the way to build a total team concept between engineering management and the people on the shop floor. They really run that thing as though its their own business" (82, p. 33).

To create the total team concept, EnvironTech abolished job descriptions for the ten-man management team. Performance targets, which cover several jobs and allow a greater degree of interchangeability, replaced the old job descriptions. The management works together in a single "open plan" office immediately adjoining the manufacturing
shop. By dispensing with an organization chart, bureaucratic constraints normally found in larger organizations are avoided. Through consultation, performance standards are set at levels the members of the unit feel they can realistically achieve. Morale is high and team members take pride in their output. In his article, Oates quoted one of the unit managers: "When every fourteen to sixteen weeks a new extractor unit stands, large and gleaming, ready for dispatch, we all cheer because everybody has put something into it" (82, p. 36). Workers from other EnvironTech operations have applied for jobs at the team unit shops, indicating that the type of operating freedom there appeals to them. "You can't argue with the benefits of making a man's job more meaningful and interesting," stated Vice-President Edward B. Robbins, Jr. in an interview with Oates (82, p. 36).

Job enrichment makes workers feel involved in their work, resulting in better work at lower cost and with fewer errors. As Gooding stated,

This is the approach that is being taken by executives in a broad variety of plants and offices, and the results have been striking. Not every new technique or every theoretical idea works when put into application. Some of the executives who anticipated the need for change and dared to explore unfamiliar territory sometimes found themselves on paths that proved to lead nowhere, or even into trouble. Fresh routes had to be hacked arduously through administrative undergrowth,
many of them only to be abandoned, at high cost in energy and treasure. But some of the investigations have been rewarding in the extreme, and have led to higher production, better quality, greater profits, and lower turnover and absenteeism. The other kind of reward, less tangible but equally important in human terms to concerned managements, has been a change in climate in plants where the outlook on work has been altered. . . . Most applications of what has come to be called "job enrichment" are judicious mixtures of the different ingredients, blended to fit the given enterprise, constantly being subtly altered on the basis of experience. . . . The quintessence of job enrichment in a manufacturing setting occurs when the workers can be given responsibility for an entire operation, with control over setting the pace, doing the job, and testing or examining what they have done (42, pp. 92-94).

Perry Pascarello, Executive Editor of Industry Week, asserted that "enriching jobs with decision-making responsibility is proving again and again to be the route to improved productivity" (86, p. 515).

Participative Management

Participative management is the actual physical and mental involvement of subordinates in the decision-making that affects their division or unit. The Scanlon plan, an early venture into participative management, was a group incentive plan with participation on a group basis as its hallmark. Although Scanlon's aim was not to increase employee motivation through participation per se, McGregor
viewed the Scanlon plan as a form of participative management (73, p. 8).

The use of task forces or ad-hoc groups may provide subordinate participation in management decisions. These often temporary groups are formed from several levels of the organization. According to Rush, "They typically have a specific organizational problem or set of problems to attack, and they are charged with analyzing the situation, recommending or taking action, and measuring results in terms of organizational improvement" (104, p. 17). Strauss cited three levels or degrees of subordinate participation in management decision-making: "defining the problem which is the minimum degree of participation; defining the problem and suggesting alternative solutions; and defining the problem, suggesting alternative solutions, and selecting the most applicable course of action which is the maximum degree of participation" (113, pp. 205-206).

Schregle observed that participation has become a magic word in many countries but pointed out that almost everyone uses the term differently.

There are people who feel that worker participation is the panacea for solving most labor-management problems and that it will become the underlying concept of the future society. Some people use the term as a synonym for what they call industrial democracy. Still others use it as a battle cry for uprooting the present system of ownership and management of the economy. Again, for others it is more a tool of
applied psychology to be used to counteract the dehumanization of industrial work. Still others employ the term "participation" with regard for specific procedures, for instance the consultation machinery in an enterprise, negotiation over problems of displaced workers, or profit sharing (108, p. 117).

The fact that people attach many different interpretations to the term "participatory management" is evidence of more than a passing interest.

Contemporary interest in promoting worker's participation in management is extensive—in large measure because of democratic or socialistic ideology, in part because of the desire to advance union power and in part because of beliefs that participation enhances productive efficiency (29, p. 123).

Many believe that the worker's voice in management decision-making will increase in the 1970's (131).

West Germany's contribution to participatory democracy in industry is codetermination. To win trade union support in resisting the dismantling of industrial plants by the Allies at the end of World War II, industrialists offered various plans for labor participation in management. A law, which applied to the coal, iron, and steel companies, was passed. The law stipulated that half the seats on a company's supervisory board, a body roughly equivalent to the board of directors in American companies, should be allocated to employee representatives. It also stipulated that the executive committees should include a "labor director," whose powers should extend to general management
rather than being confined to personnel management. In addition, the law empowered work councils to participate in some major management decisions. The work councils consisted of representatives of blue- and white-collar workers. Most employee members of the supervisory board were recruited from the ranks of such work councils.

Employees in West Germany are convinced that codetermination has been a success. Almost all respondents to a representative survey conducted in 1968 among employees in the coal and steel industries reported that codetermination is providing them with advantages such as better social services, higher wages and salaries, improved working conditions, increased influence in personnel and business policies, and enhanced job security (48, p. 143).

In the United States, interest in participatory management is increasing. Post stated that "good communication, cooperation, and team play are so important to our success and happiness, that any amount of sales effort needed to accomplish these goals is not only justified but necessary" (91, p. 16). In a recent study, Katcher (59) reported that the elements of job satisfaction most often cited among accountants are positive interpersonal relationships, prestige, work variation, salary, work itself, challenge, and independence.
In a society where each material and technological advance seems to be coupled with growing disillusionment and alienation of its members, particularly its youth, it is highly important [Katcher concluded] that efforts on behalf of human betterment is accelerated for accountants as well as for all other occupations (59, p. 321).

In 1969, Tavernier wrote that greater company loyalty develops when management lets employees know that their opinions and needs are of concern to the company. The "experience of large European concerns in allowing more freedom of initiative within small work groups and in urging more individual involvement in decision-making was found to be very profitable," he stated (118, pp. 30-35).

Ross addressed the same issues.

Employee motivation and participation are influenced by techniques used by management, the manner in which management requires people in the organization to relate to each other, and how management communicates these relationships back to people (103, pp. 50-53).

Holder reported that at Yellow Freight Systems, Inc., decisions by consensus take place within various work groups that extend from the top company offices to the dock foreman and his crew (52, p. 63). Jones referred to the human relations program at A C Sparkplug Division of General Motors as the "pride of workmanship" program (57, pp. 74-75). Chaney and Teel described the participative management program at Autonetics, a division of North American Rockwell, as a "practical experience" (18, pp. 8-19).
Numerous other reports (86, 15, 90) of participatory management and the benefits to be derived from its implementation exist.

However, two participative management programs will be discussed. These programs describe the details of industrial democracy in action and the reactions of some management officials to the results. First, Business Week reported on Great Britain's Imperial Chemical Industries (ICI) weekly staff agreement program of participatory management, which has been in operation for four years. In many cases, employees program their own work day and check the quality of their own output, eliminating the need for supervisors. Distinctions between blue-collar and white-collar workers have been lessened by payment of factory workers on a weekly instead of hourly basis. Time clocks have been abolished, and workers take tea and lunch breaks according to their individual work schedules. For added dignity, special rooms have been built where men may smoke, talk, read newspapers, or even sleep. Before, the common resort for a break from work had been the lavatory. Productivity gains of up to 25 percent indicate the extent of higher morale among the 55,000 workers employed by ICI (54, p. 119).

Martin Patchen's (87) description of labor-management consultation at the Tennessee Valley Authority concludes
this study of participatory management in industry. According to Patchen, the co-operative program at TVA is composed of co-operative conferences or committees. A co-operative conference is a continuing series of meetings between representatives of both management and the unions that represent TVA employees. The unit covered by a conference or committee is usually a fairly large one, such as an engineering division or a power plant, although smaller units sometimes have their own conferences. The top executives of the unit concerned represent management, while about eight to ten workers chosen by the men in the unit represent the employees. The employee representatives are members of the union, but they also cover many other topics of mutual interest, such as hospitalization programs, training, and community fund drives. Decisions are usually made by consensus rather than by vote, and management retains final responsibility for accepting and executing decisions. Other employees receive information about conference activities through their representatives and through printed summaries of meetings. Between conference meetings, various committees work on projects initiated by the conference and report their progress back to the conference.

The vigor of the co-operative program differs from one unit to another. Some conferences have the full support
of local management; some have only half-hearted backing. In some units, employees are kept fully informed about what is happening and even instruct their representatives; in other units, rank-and-file employees are poorly informed about conference activities. Conferences may be routine processors of technical suggestions, or they may be true forums for solving broader problems of labor-management cooperation. In all of the units, especially in the power plants, a large number of suggestions for work improvement are processed and implemented by the co-operative committees. For example, in one committee, three suggestions from one agenda were implemented throughout the entire co-operative, and fourteen additional work improvement suggestions from the same agenda remained to be implemented. Employees do not receive cash awards when their suggestions are adopted, but their contribution is publicized within the unit and often in other divisions.

Matchen reached several conclusions regarding the TVA labor-management and joint decision-making program. First, a vigorous employee participation program increases employee feelings of solidarity with the work organization and with management. Second, participation increases employee acceptance of work changes. Third, these effects occur regardless of the degree of general satisfaction which employees feel about their job situation. Fourth,
employees must have their opinions heard and heeded within their immediate work groups as well as in the larger work unit. Fifth, attitudes toward the organization and toward changes introduced by management are affected by what happens on each of several organizational levels. Sixth, changes are viewed as mutual solutions to common problems when employees participate in management (87, pp. 149-174).

Participative management increases productivity because the participants have a personal commitment to their own definition of problems and to their own suggestions for solving them. Participative management produces greater satisfaction because employees are given a psychological outlet for their own ideas, opinions, and abilities. Participative management reduces labor turnover, absenteeism, grievances, and accidents. Because workers get involved in analyzing the nature and need for change, the impact of change, and procedures for implementing it, participative management facilitates improvements in the work environment. A better work climate results from the better understanding between subordinates and managers. Supervision can become general rather than close, thus freeing managers to concentrate on more important matters. In participatory management, group cohesiveness increases and intragroup conflict decreases.

Participative management is thus a powerful tool in the humanization of work. However, certain conditions
are necessary for participative management to work. First, management must endorse it and support it. Second, the manager must have a democratic personality. He must be willing to share information and accept good ideas from others. He must also be able to delegate some of his formal organizational powers to his subordinates without feeling insecure or threatened. Third, workers must be involved in decisions of relative importance. Trivial decisions will not produce the psychological satisfaction of achievement and recognition. Fourth, the total organization should be involved. Fifth, the manager must create the proper work environment. A climate of freedom, mutual trust, and open communication is implicit for such an environment (105, pp. 10-12).

Social Scientists in the Plant

A search through the literature has revealed two other human relations programs that are unusual, if not unique. Each of them includes most of the concepts already discussed, and both of them go a good deal further in their approaches. Accordingly, the human relations programs of General Electric Company and Motorola, Inc. will be discussed in detail.

General Electric approaches its human relations program through research. Conducted by the Behavioral Research Service at General Electric, the research attempts
to answer the question, "How can significant and insightful behavioral research be carried out with reasonable assurance that the results will help all employees understand themselves and their industrial world and reach better solutions to practical operating problems?"

To aid in research, General Electric set up an advisory panel composed of eminent scientists. The original panel included Jerome S. Bruner of Harvard University, Leon Festinger of Stanford University, Mason Haire of the University of California, Donald G. Marquis of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and Carol I. Hovland of Yale University. Later, Herbert A. Simon of the Carnegie Institute of Technology and Rensis Likert of the University of Michigan joined the panel. The panel provided an essential link to professional social scientists at large and helped to identify and evaluate candidates for possible positions in the company. Panel members also provided expertise in

- reviewing possible projects and evaluating proposed research designs, methodology, procedures, and possible outcomes;
- making professional evaluations of completed research from a viewpoint quite different from a company outlook;
- providing consulting help on all kinds of problems that are involved in the startup and maintenance of a new behavioral science venture on the scale planned by General Electric (37, p. 139).
Selecting the Problems

General Electric's managers, research staff, and advisory panel agree that optimum results for both the company and the scientific disciplines are achieved when research efforts concentrate on specific problem areas where there already exists a close identification with explicit company needs, a substantial body of in-depth social science knowledge, and a high level of active research and professional interest.

General Electric discovered that when a proposed study is highly relevant to important and troublesome problems in the company, executive and employee interest, support, and cooperation are more easily obtained. To pinpoint the company problems, a survey of leading managers is made to determine what the managers believe to be the major human relations problems facing them. With this information as a base, company needs are more easily matched with social science competence to obtain the active support and involvement of company personnel (37, pp. 133-143).

Communicating Objectives

A major difficulty in implementing General Electric's program is in learning more about people—the interactions, feelings, and beliefs that influence their effectiveness at their jobs—and in doing this without interference. To overcome this impediment, the social scientists explain
their theories, the purposes of a particular approach, and the reasons for specific requirements to the managers, who may offer procedural suggestions. From their practical experience, managers and workers offer a great deal, and their participation and involvement have produced astonishing improvement in research plans.

**Applying Results**

General Electric makes a full report of all findings to any and all persons who are interested in, or who could benefit from, the information. There are two intermediate steps between theoretical extension and widespread application. First, the development research, most successful in a natural setting, is conducted. Second, a pilot-plant kind of effort focuses on the problems of transfer, acceptance, and utilization.

The purpose of General Electric's behavioral research program is to improve human relationships in industry by reducing or eliminating barriers, unknowingly or inadvertently created, that prevent persons from utilizing their talents more fully.

There seems to be little question that new information which contributes to improved understanding of human capacities, needs, and ways of working together more effectively will greatly strengthen the likelihood that a way of life based on the concepts of individual freedom and opportunity will continue to serve as an example to the rest of the world (37, p. 143).
Human Relations at Motorola

The human relations program at Motorola was reported by its Director of Human Relations, Kenneth M. Piper, in "Good Human Relations Pays Dividends at Motorola" (89). The activities described by Piper approach a model program, if such exists. In his introductory remarks, Piper made the following comments:

We call our management-employee relations program "human relations," not so much to give our philosophy an academic label, but rather to emphasize our idea of the importance of people. This attitude concerning people's importance, combined with our special trust in dealing directly with them, calls for a more dynamic approach than the conventional social and economic methods. Because national labor legislation imposes representation according to majority determination, our human relations program in a very real sense demands political astuteness in industrial life; we consider it a high challenge to skill in practical leadership. If the leadership concept is broad enough to incorporate a bilateral sensitivity to people, it is much easier and more pleasant for everyone to live with (89, p. 30).

Piper referred to the program as a "drama." Key personalities symbolize and merchandise the program for maximum acceptance and solve problems in anticipation of their occurrence. Each member of the supervisory staff is tested for acceptable personality and leadership qualities and is trained and familiarized with the Motorola communications system. Motorola's program has four basic elements:
(1) recognition of the individual, (2) broad participation with indigenous leadership, (3) equal treatment in fringe benefits without regard to income level or plant location, and (4) security earned by sharing in profit success.

Recognition Through Participation

Motorola has a semi-monthly employee publication run by the Press Club. Members in all plants submit articles under their own by-lines. Press Club officers and members determine general policy and hire a professional survey team each year to ascertain the publication's degree of acceptability. When articles in certain categories score below 90 percent in readership acceptability, they are deleted from future issues. Through these surveys, the Press Club has eliminated company "handouts," editorials, Chamber of Commerce "economic lessons," and stories on sales conventions. According to Piper,

This grass-roots publication in Life Magazine style features many pictures and genuine human interest stories of little people who become big in a plant society which recognizes them for their achievements and activities. Employee recognition and participation are a dynamic reality in this kind of indigenous leadership. Thousands of our people enthusiastically support this publication, for it lifts them to new status in the eyes of their fellow employees (89, p. 31).

Recreation at Motorola also develops local leadership and recognition. Employee committees conceive and execute
their own programs. Through engineering clubs, foremen's clubs, sportmen's clubs, firemen's clubs, toastmasters' clubs, "old timers" clubs, and stock investment clubs, there are many opportunities for participation, recognition, and leadership. Coordinated by a director, recreation involves family units. Management attends each function. Recreational activities at Motorola involve 200,000 hours of participation each year.

Employee participants operate all credit unions. Two employees are elected to the profit-sharing fund's governing body in company-wide balloting each year. The elected members participate in decisions concerning fund investments and act on all employee applications for loans.

No social distinctions exist at Motorola. People call each other by first names. Seldom does anyone wear a coat at work. Time clocks have been eliminated at four plants, and the responsibility for punctuality has been placed on foremen and supervisors.

"Atmosphere is of the greatest importance," according to Piper. "People must feel that they are accepted as responsible team members and that they are personally significant in relation to management" (89, p. 32).

Fringe Benefits at Motorola

The partnership idea is basic to Motorola's fringe benefits program. As will be shown, there are educational
benefits as well as a profit-sharing program that provides the following: (1) a savings plan in which the prudence of thrift is rewarded, (2) a liberal retirement plan, (3) a high form of severance pay, (4) home loans at 4 percent interest, and (5) a liberal form of supplemental unemployment benefits.

Educational assistance.--Educational aid is available to all employees. The company pays 100 percent of the tuition cost of courses leading to college degrees and up to $30 for non-degree courses. Other fringe benefits are provided on the principle of mutual participation.

Insurance.--The company pays for a basic life insurance policy ranging from $4,000 to $40,000, depending on salary, and the coverage includes hospital, medical, and surgery benefits. Superimposed on the base plan is a comprehensive major medical plan for the employee and his dependents. The major medical plan is paid for by the employee.

Profit-sharing.--The profit-sharing plan at Motorola is a contributory deferred-distribution trust. The plan is contributory in the sense that each employee must, as a condition of continued employment, contribute from 2 to 5 percent of his annual income, up to a limit of $200 per year. The company annually contributes approximately 20 percent of its net profits before taxes to the trust.
Participants share in the company contribution in direct relation to the amount they individually contribute. The plan is deferred distribution in that it pays off at retirement or termination of employment. Profit-sharing is not a substitute for wages. Profit-sharing is also a high form of severance pay, since the participant takes his vesting at the time of resignation. In the past five years, more than a million dollars in refunds have been paid each year to participants who have resigned before retirement.

**Retirement.**--Motorola's retirement plan affords, by a conservative estimate, individual vestings after twenty-five years in the plan of $50,000. The profit-sharer can take this vesting at retirement, either in a lump sum or in eleven equal annual installments. In many cases, profit-sharers retire on more than their working incomes.

**Home loans.**--The opportunity of obtaining loans for purchasing homes is another feature of the Motorola plan. A profit-sharer may borrow up to 75 percent of his vestings to buy or build a home for his family. The interest rate is a low 4 percent, and the loan is paid by payroll deduction.

**Easing unemployment hardships.**--In the radio and television portion of the Motorola business, there is a marked seasonal buildup of employees in early summer
followed by layoffs in January and February. One of the steps Motorola has taken to deal with the problem is a profit-sharing form of supplemental unemployment benefits (SUB). The three basic features of SUB are a trust fund, a "pay-in" formula, and a "pay-out" formula.

In the "pay-out" formula, a profit-sharer who has two years or more in the fund and is laid off may borrow from his vesting account each week an amount which, when added to the state unemployment benefit, equals 100 percent of his take-home pay. This borrowing may continue until recall and reinstatement, termination of employment, or the exhaustion of the vesting account.

**Keeping in Touch with Employees**

A good communications network is considered the key to bringing the Motorola human relations program to life. Some fifty publications sent to the homes of employees each year are aimed at securing acceptance by the whole family unit. All policy pronouncements are pretested on sample groups before release. "Getting the Motorola story across and accepted in the most palatable and digestible form demands insight and understanding, humility and honesty. As the mouthpiece of management, we must constantly emphasize the integrity of the company," wrote Piper (89, p. 38). For example, the communication system is used to orient and build up the integrity concept during
the orientation period. During the employee's first ten weeks on the payroll, he receives a weekly "Going Our Way--Motorola" letter. This letter explains in simple, folksy language the human relations program in order to gain family understanding and approval. After he has seen the indoctrination film on his first day, the new employee is turned over to a "sponsor." This sponsor is a profit-sharer of five years or more and has several thousand dollars in vestings. He has been trained to be articulate in merchandising the benefits of the Motorola program to the newcomer. With free meal tickets to the cafeteria for himself and the new employee, he operates in the proper setting. Motorola management believes the sponsor's approach is more effective than any means of vertical company indoctrination could be.

Symbolic of the Motorola human relations program is a character called "Prof Sharin," an erudite professor who preaches the philosophy of profit-sharing. His helpmates are a couple of elfin characters called "Johnny and Mary Motorola," who typify what is good and wholesome in Motorola people. These characters appear in all Motorola material and are a trademark of the program. Slogans such as "Profit-Takers must be Profit-Makers" appear in all plants.

In view of the fact that the company Press Club publication is not used as a management mouthpiece,
Motorola utilizes different channels for different audiences in getting the management story across. "Newsgram," a technical magazine, is sent to technical and engineering people, and "Management Newsletter" is sent to all administrative, supervisory, and technical employees. The "President's Letter" is mailed to the homes of all employees, while "State of the Nation" talks by top officers are given to strategic employee groups.

Piper concluded his report on the human relations program at Motorola with the following:

Our human relations program recognizes the individual, stimulates broad participation in our activities with company-identified leadership, provides equal treatment in all benefits, and permits all employees to earn their security by sharing in our profit earnings. The key to our success is constructive and acceptable leadership. We want our people to accept our mutual leadership, for we believe that through dedication to the humanity and integrity of such joint leadership, they have the power to do a better job for themselves than anyone else could do (89, p. 39).

Criteria of Human Relations Programs in Industry

Elements or criteria of human relations programs in industry that are mentioned by such writers as Pascarella (86), Clark (21), and Greenblatt (45) include adequate wages, personal security, equity, good working conditions, and the like. Other writers, such as Richmond (98),
DeWitt (30), Barry (7), Herrick (50), and Ferguson (39), emphasize such things as democracy, open communications, opportunities for group membership, participation in management, and the opportunity for worker creativity.

The following is a statement of representative criteria for sound, ongoing human relations programs in industry:

1. The organization must be clearly understood by all the people who work within it. Employees must be able to "see" what every office is supposed to do, and they must be able to understand where their own job assignments fit into the picture.

2. Modern industrial leadership must recognize that employees have both a need and a right to influence the policies that will affect them and to control, to a reasonable degree, the actual work they are required to do.

3. Industry must provide supportive, employee-centered leadership which encourages initiative, creativity, and a sense of teamwork among subordinates.

4. The practice of human relations in industry must be a disciplined, clearly-established method of dealing with people on all levels of the organization, giving respect to them as individuals and recognition to both their group and individual needs.

5. An essential aspect of the use of human relations in industry is the provision of proper training on all levels.
6. All individuals in the organization must be assured a status of independence and self-respect in their relationships to each other.

7. All of those concerned must have a realistic common understanding of their independent needs and interests and of the circumstances of their whole situation as well as effective means of developing and maintaining such understanding.

8. Administrative development, direction, and control must be provided on the basis of the intelligent application of the principles of integration in resolving conflicts in special needs and interests.

9. There must be a selection process whereby the best individual available will be chosen for a position and thoroughly oriented to the company and the job after selection. Provisions for transfer of an employee, when circumstances indicate that he will be more productive in a different situation, must be made.

10. There must be a wage and payment plan that will give employees adequate compensation, financial protection after retirement, and freedom from worry, and there must be the appropriate machinery to administer it.

11. The total organization must reflect an atmosphere and environment where concern for people is the accepted and expected practice.
12. The organization must reflect a spirit of openness and above-the-table dealings.

13. Open communication lines both up and down the organizational levels are necessary.

14. The employee should have the opportunity to undertake a variety of work and to increase self-direction.

15. A person or a department where employees may receive confidential counsel on any matter of importance to them should be available.

16. The working conditions should include a physical environment conducive to the accomplishment of the job.

17. Opportunities for employees to participate in civic endeavors must be given.

18. Recreational facilities and fraternal encouragement should be available.

19. Within the industrial organization, certain special group-size relationships must be considered, and careful attention must be given to the conflicts that exist in each relationship. Primary relations, the kind of relations that are spontaneous, personal, and intimate, develop most readily in small groups because workers gain incentive by knowing more about their jobs. Small groups provide a better opportunity to develop group loyalty and unite to resist authority. Small groups obviously can be trained more easily and will have a better understanding
of both the result of their work and the production processes involved. Small groups are more loyal to leaders they accept but are difficult for a new leader to control.

20. Contentment on the job should receive consideration through methods of reducing employee fatigue. Effective methods include fairly scheduled hours of work, rest periods, color dynamics, and background music.

Human Relations in Education

The "common school" was the product of a great dream of our ancestors. They hoped for and set out to create a school where all of the children of all the people would be welcome and would find rich and personal fulfillment for their individual lives. In the 1971 yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), John D. Greene expressed concern that our ancestor's dream had grown almost frighteningly large in size. It is analogous to the burgeoning development of the gigantic technological and industrial enterprises the American people know today. That the educational institutions may be like the mechanistic industrial organizations in more ways than growth is an issue of absorbing interest, Greene added.

Perhaps in too many ways ... the institution of the "common school" has taken on the form, the impersonality, the ruthlessness, the centralization, the
worship of efficiency, and other characteristics of commercial and competitive enterprises. In so doing, has the school lost some of the humanitarian and idealistic motivations that sparked its growth and won it unparalleled public allegiance in earlier times (3, pp. v-vi)?

Many people would answer "yes," and the numbers are increasing.

In the preface of the 1969 ASCD yearbook, Muriel Scobey made the following comment:

_Humanizing the Secondary School_ reflects our current and deep concern with forces at work which seem to dehumanize students and teachers. This volume suggests some of the solutions to the problems inherent in making secondary education a more truly humanizing experience. . . . The [Secondary Education] Council and the co-editors, Norman K. Hamilton and J. Golen Saylor, in editing and organizing several significant papers presented during conferences sponsored by the Council, have spotlighted "humanness" as the most critical need in American secondary education (4, p. v).

Voicing a like concern, Muessig and Cogan had this to say:

In far too many places throughout the nation, students and others see the school as a cold, aloof, negative, punitive, joyless, boring, irrelevant, bureaucratic, petrified institution instead of a warm, friendly, positive, rewarding, happy, vital, relevant, flexible, growing human community. . . . Many persons agree that humanizing education in manifold ways is one of the paramount tasks and challenges we face if we want to save and substantially improve the school (76, p. 34).

The industrial revolution and the explosive population increase in the United States at the time seems to be an
important factor, perhaps a causal factor, in the contemporary unstable educational scene. As more and more people left rural homes to take jobs in factories and as the population grew, the schools faced a near impossible task of attempting to keep pace. The crush of numbers alone strained the capability of the school systems, and the challenge of serving the needs of an industrial society left its mark on the school organization. "We have lost the organic community with the living culture it embodied. The loss is directly attributable to the urban centralization brought about by the industrial revolution," wrote Hart (47, p. 20). In the 1971 ASCD yearbook, Haubrich made the following comment:

It may be that the transition to an urban society required more organizational structure than anyone realized; it may be that our 20th century status as a world power demanded exploitation and efficiency in schools; it may be that the corporate structure required certain regulations which found their way into schools. Whatever the reason we confront both a society and a school system which have become bureaucratized and standardized and which seem to grow ever more so (3, p. vii).

Now, American society is in the throes of significant change and the symptoms are well-known. Protests against almost every social-political institution and the established way of life have been made, and both individuals and groups call for reform or revolution as the solution to the problems of American society. Reactions to symptoms of social change are expressed as cries for "law and order" from the
majority and have been manifest in the frenzied searching and trial and error innovations of the institutions.

The technological revolution and the computer age have been accompanied by the so-called knowledge explosion. Mankind has more information available than ever before, and the rate of change is increasing. In *Future Shock* (122), Alvin Toffler pointed out the social implications of our rapidly changing society and recommended a shift in educational emphasis from the past and present to a future of change.

Whatever the reason, it appears that American man has created institutions and activities antithetical to his own goals of individual worth and dignity. Humanism, broadly interpreted as belief in the dignity and worth of the individual, has resurfaced, and it now becomes the challenge of education for the seventies to provide a humane school and schooling.

**The Humane School**

Humaneness is not an easy word to define. It means different things to different people. In the 1970 ASCD yearbook (5), Golden wrote, "I believe that the first requirement for being humane is the recognition of humanity," and Smith added that to become humane is to become different, to become distinguishable, and to become
what we already are, which is the meaning of self-realization and self-fulfillment.

If humaneness means different things to different people, then the "humane school" will also be perceived differently. Sir Alec Clegg provided the following definition:

If humane means the ability to memorize facts, to respond at once to a drill or instruction, to do as others do, to accept that some are successful and others are failures, and to behave well under supervision, then the formal schools are more humane. But if humane means the ability to think for oneself, to initiate, to imagine, to work without supervision, to be sensitive to the needs of others, and to conduct oneself with concern and compassion whether supervised or not, then the informal schools are more humane (22, p. 12).

Wilhelms (129, p. 1) stated that "a humane school is one that allows and assists each young person to grow toward full stature as a human being." Hoy and Appleberry offered the following description:

The humanistic school is conceived as an educational community in which students learn through cooperative interaction and experience. Learning and behavior are viewed in psychological and sociological terms rather than the moralistic terms. The humanistic orientation leads teachers to desire a democratic atmosphere with its attendant flexibility in status and roles; sensitivity to others, open communication, and increased student self-determination. Both students and teachers are willing to act on their own volition and to accept responsibility for their actions (53, p. 28).
J. Lloyd Trump provided the following more lengthy list of points in his definition of a humane school.

A humane school
1. Focuses on options rather than on uniformity in developing and administering policies and practices. In other words, it does not subject every individual to group standards even though it informs him about model behaviors and procedures.
2. Devises a program for each pupil in which he can move forward with success in terms of his own talents and interests no matter how diverse they may be.
3. Makes sure that every pupil is known as a total human being—educationally by a teacher-adviser who helps him personally to diagnose his needs, plan his program, make and change his schedule, evaluate his results and plan accordingly for the future. (This procedure goes far beyond the typical homeroom or the programming by school counselors or assistant principals.)
4. Creates an environment in which each teacher may make maximum utilization of his professional talents and interests, one that recognizes individual differences among teachers and provides differentiated staffing to identify better the role of the professional teacher.
5. Separates curriculum content so that each learner knows what is essential for everyone as distinct from the cognitive skill, and affective behaviors that are important for those learners with special goals in the areas of hobbies and careers. The goal here is to reduce greatly the "required" learning so that each pupil at all ages has more time to develop and follow his special interests.
6. Systematically tries to interest each teacher and student to learn more than he thinks he wants to learn. The technique is through motivational presentations and discussions.
7. Practices accountability with students and teachers, realizing that such procedures show that the school "cares" as opposed to permissiveness or vagueness that indicates that it does not worry about what happens to the individual.
8. Provides a variety of places in the school and in the community where students may study and work with supervision so that each pupil may find learning strategies that suit him best instead of being required to learn in one classroom with one teacher.
9. Has continuous progress arrangements so that each pupil may proceed at his own pace under competent supervision with a variety of self-directing, self-motivating, and self-evaluating materials and locations.
10. Evaluates pupil progress and teacher performance on the basis of the individual's own past record rather than on a comparison with others in the same group, while at the same time provides data that will help each person know what others are accomplishing.
11. Substitutes constructive reports of achievements for the threat of failure as the prime motivational device of the school. The school records the special projects that each pupil completes, no matter how small, that goes beyond what the school requires of everyone.
12. Recognizes that the principal more than any other person creates a humane environment in the school; and, therefore frees him from routine managerial tasks to permit him to get out of the office to work with pupils and teachers to develop more humane programs and procedures for everyone (123, pp. 9-11).

Finally, Funderburk offered the following definition of a humane school:

[A humane school] is one which attempts to stress the ideal psychological atmosphere for each student to learn in school--a place where a student can learn to like himself better, to understand himself better, to fit into society, to be able to work with others, and to be able to learn in diverse ways in different fields. It is a place where he is not only free to learn but learns that freedom is not doing as he pleases--that freedom carries with it grave responsibilities--a happy place where there is order without regimentation, where there are teachers who
have empathy--who do care--where there is curriculum and methodology which stimulate the ability and the disposition to learn, where the student has a feeling of worthwhileness and belonging, and where teachers and administrators "dare to care" and "dare to act" (40, p. 16).

While these five descriptions of a humane school are stated differently, there is little difference in the type of school setting referred to. To summarize the views of the quoted writers, a humane school is an informal organization where each person is cooperatively involved with others on a personal basis in an atmosphere of trust and concern for the individual. It is a place where everyone, pupils in particular, have the opportunity and the freedom to learn about themselves, about others, and about the importance of caring for others. It is a place where everyone can discover how best to find a productive place in society. The humane school provides a continuous progress arrangement of diverse opportunities so that each pupil may find the learning strategies that best suit him and where he can progress with his own special interests at his own pace. Finally, the humane school creates an environment where both teachers and students participate in planning the events which affect them and where each of them has a feeling of worthwhileness, belonging, and security in the knowledge that others do care and will do everything possible to provide for individual achievement and recognition.
Administration in the Humane School

Traditional education displays many of the characteristics of the stereotyped, managerial bureaucratic hierarchy. Hoy and Appleberry characterized such a school as follows:

The custodial orientation school favors a rigid and highly controlled setting concerned primarily with the maintenance of order. Students are stereotyped in terms of their appearance, behavior, and parents' social status. Teachers conceive of the school as an autocratic organization with a rigid pupil-teacher hierarchy: the flow of power and communication is unilateral downward. Students must accept the decisions of teachers without question. Student misbehavior is viewed as a personal affront; students are perceived as irresponsible and undisciplined persons who must be controlled through punitive sanctions. Impersonality, pessimism, and "watchful mistrust" imbue the atmosphere of the custodial school (53, pp. 27-31).

Although all traditional schools are not characterized by the negative atmosphere described by Hoy and Appleberry, too often they may be. Certainly the traditional, autocratic administration cannot nurture a humanistic process to a very great degree. But what are the alternatives to autocratic administration in schools?

In the forty-fifth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Kefauver made the following statement regarding school administration:

The concept of democracy in educational administration is now generally accepted. There are still differences of judgement as
to the desirability of particular procedures, and it must be admitted that practice has not advanced as far as theory. The rise in the standard of preparation of teachers makes possible a more responsible role for teachers. The movement is encouraged by the greater attention being paid to education for democratic citizenship and the belief that the practice of democracy is a more effective teacher than mere talk about it.

A detailed consideration of administrative organization and procedure would show that the question of democratic procedure touches upon many aspects of the life of the school. It affects the role of the administrator and the methods by which he carries on his work. It gives the staff and the individual teacher a larger role. It gives the students a more active role in the life of the school. It calls for a modification of the procedure in the classroom. It provides for a greater degree of co-operation of persons with a spirit of equality with each contributing according to his special experience. It is concerned with the equality of opportunity for all students and with the flexibility required to make adaptation to the special needs of the individual (60, pp. 5-6).

Style of management has been the subject of much study. Many writers find that the style most consistent with the humanistic organization is the democratic one, as defined by Ordway Tead:

Democratic administration is thus definable as that overall direction of an organization which assures that purposes and policies are shared in the making, that methods are understood and agreed to, that individual potentialities are being enhanced, that corporate or group ends are being realized with a maximum of release of shared creative power and a minimum of human friction. It implies further a
periodic, orderly, cooperative review of total performance, of leadership in action, of effectiveness at every point. It brings to pass collaboration as willing, coordination as informed and continuing, personality growth as an actuality and a continuing promise (119, pp. 71-72).

Other writers who have studied school climate and found the democratic administration of schools more conducive to a healthy atmosphere include Bode (10), Anderson and Cohen (1), Bartky (8), and Burns and Hartsoch (13). Prince and others (93) developed a handbook for change. The purpose of the handbook was to encourage and stimulate growth and renewal of the human element within the school environment. Prince and his associates found that four processes are absolutely fundamental: (1) problem solving, (2) shared decision-making, (3) open communication, and (4) accountability (93, p. 108).

Goddard and Koons (41) concluded that many issues involving academic freedom are problems of conflict between the teacher and administrator where democracy is not practiced.

Drummond (33, p. 33) declared that the "single most significant aspect about the school that works toward developing a more humane experience for children is its quality of 'openness'." He described openness as a climate that attempts to bring into focus the individual in the learning process. Drummond argued that one can visit almost any school and witness in practically every
classroom a rejection of the individual taking place. It takes place every time a teacher uses a single book, a single assignment, a single test, and a single standard. According to Drummond, these methods are "the great bulwark of the teacher's convenience and the principal's image" (33, p. 33).

Barnes wrote that "the growing groundswell of concern for humanizing the schools points directly to the administrator" (6, p. 38). Tye added that "given certain conditions, the principal is the most effective agent for bringing about educational change" (126, p. 41). Goodland (43) agreed that the administrator is the key to humanizing the schools. Ample evidence exists that the principal is the key person in the determination of whether or not the school will be a humane one. It is the principal who will set the stage for the kind of processes teachers practice in the classroom.

In a study that focused on the importance of the principal's attitudes in influencing creative teaching, Chester and Lippitt (20) reported the highest number of innovations per teacher (5.2) in schools where teachers perceived that principal and staff support for such creative efforts existed. Summarizing the research effort, the investigators reached the following conclusion:

The principal's perceptions of values and skills of his staff must be as accurate as the staff's awareness of the priority
he places on improved teaching. Principals who had innovating staffs were tuned to their teachers feelings and values and were better informed about their informal relationships. They were also more "professionally" oriented than their colleagues with less innovative staffs. The latter principals were more "administratively" oriented (20, pp. 276-277).

Democracy in classroom activities is fostered when the school is administered democratically and when teachers perceive that the principal places a high priority on such practice. Many writers concur that only in a democratic type of atmosphere can the education of youngsters be humanized. Studies by Scarr (106) and by Sechrist (109) dealt with the authoritarian personalities of teachers and concluded that the needs of children are best served when the teacher is an "unobtrusive" director. Riegle (100) and Cornett (25) found that an open experience in a trustful atmosphere humanizes children. Lane and Beauchamp viewed democracy in the classroom as a group of persons planning and working together to enhance the quality of living for each one of them. "We conceive this to be the heart of the method of education in and for democracy," they wrote (65, p. 14). Finally, Dandes found the teacher characteristics of permissiveness, absence of authoritarianism, and liberalism of educational viewpoints to be associated with student development of self-directedness, personal and social responsibility, spontaneity, and critical problem-solving (26, p. 305).
Teacher Morale

The conclusion of Elton Mayo and his colleagues that morale affects productivity applies to teaching. Koura (63) studied twelve secondary schools in Dearborn, Michigan, and found that student achievement increased under teachers with high morale and decreased under teachers with low morale.

Nelson and Thompson (80) examined the causes for teachers leaving the profession and found that salary was most frequently cited. Other reasons were teaching loads, inadequate supervision, poor assignment during the first year of teaching, discipline problems, and pressure groups.

Dropkin and Taylor (32) undertook a similar study with teachers of first-year students only and found that teachers most often cited discipline, relations with parents, methods of teaching, evaluation, planning, materials, resources, and classroom routines.

Burkett (12) found that faculty morale is related to democratic school administration. Koplyay (62) added that schools using merit salary policies had higher morale. Sweat (116) studied the relationship of morale to the authoritarian-democratic traits of high school principals in Arkansas. He found that the faculties of democratically-administered high schools made the highest scores on the morale instrument, the faculties of the neutrally-administered
schools made the second highest scores, and the faculties of authoritarian-administered high schools made the lowest scores.

A study of how teachers' perceptions of administrative dimensions relate to their morale was conducted by Pryor (94). He concluded that as a teacher's opinion of the administrative function improved, his morale improved. Leiman (67) found that the participation of teachers in administrative decisions was definitely related to morale. Leiman reached several conclusions. First, teachers who participate in school administration have higher morale than those who do not. Second, teachers who participate in school administration have more positive attitudes toward their principals, toward their colleagues, and toward their pupils. Third, teachers who participate in school administration have higher regard for themselves and for the teaching profession. Fourth, female teachers tend to have higher morale than male teachers.

Johnson (56) reported several factors affecting a teacher's satisfaction with his job: achievement, interpersonal relations, recognition, work itself, and responsibility. Strickland (114) cited ten significant factors that tend to raise teacher morale: (1) cooperation and helpful co-workers who share ideas and materials; (2) a helpful and cooperative principal; (3) appreciative and
cooperative parents; (4) adequate supplies and equipment; (5) freedom in classroom teaching; (6) respectful pupils; (7) an adequate school plant; (8) pupils interested in school work; (9) a helpful supervisor; and (10) a well-organized school with formulated policies. According to Napier (77), high teacher morale is associated with the following factors: (1) the administrator's understanding and appreciation of the teacher as an individual; (2) the confidence the teacher has in the administrator's professional competence; (3) the support the teacher receives from the administration regarding discipline problems; (4) teachers' participation in the formulation of policies that affect them; (5) adequate facilities and equipment; (6) adequate teaching supplies; (7) teaching assignments commensurate with training; (8) fair and equitable distribution of extracurricular assignments; (9) professional training through the in-service program; (10) job security; (11) an adequate policy for leaves of absence; (12) a fair and equitable distribution of the teaching load; and (13) salaries comparable to professions requiring equal training.

These studies warrant two general conclusions. First, the administrator's attitudes, his policies, his understanding of individual teachers, and his philosophical approach to problems is a major factor in teacher morale.
Second, how the administrator works with his staff and whether he treats them as individuals with worth and dignity or merely as part of the machine will determine, to a large extent, the morale of the school.

**Human Relations and the School Staff**

An extensive search through professional literature revealed that programs in human relations have been developed under a broad variety of titles. A computer search through Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) yielded fifty-four programs of curriculum units that were almost entirely social studies, eight college programs designed for teacher trainees, and ten programs of in-service education or training for teachers. In addition, a review of educational periodicals revealed a number of programs, most of which relate student and faculty participation. A nation-wide survey by the National School Public Relations Association (79) is perhaps the most comprehensive study to date.

The National School Public Relations Association (NSPRA) reported that one of the major emphases in most school human relations programs focuses on personnel practices. School districts that are committed to incorporating positive human relations into the learning experience have found that they must actively pursue personnel that will reflect the cultural and ethnic
diversity of the community. Furthermore, many districts have found it necessary to train both existing staff members and new employees in human relations to help establish positive attitudes.

**Hiring and Assigning Staff**

In order to obtain a multi-ethnic staff, many school districts have been concentrating their activities on minority recruitment. Most begin by enacting a policy of nondiscrimination in hiring. However, as the U. S. Commission on Civil Rights stressed in its publication, *Equal Employment Opportunity Under Federal Law* (125), deliberate discrimination is but the tip of an iceberg. The body of the iceberg, according to the Commission, is "systematic discrimination," the discriminatory practices or barriers that are built into systems and institutions and control access to employment opportunity.

Recognizing that lip service to the principle of "equal employment" does not assure equality of opportunity in staffing, many school districts, state departments, and boards of education, as well as professional associations, have charted affirmative action programs. These programs are intended not only to comply with the law but to further good human relations by creating school staffs that are racially and culturally diverse.
Leadership is frequently exerted at the state level. For example, the Michigan State Board of Education and the Michigan Civil Rights Commission have pledged to make every effort to prevent and eliminate staff and pupil segregation in the state's public schools. The California State Department of Education holds that "an important aspect of racial and ethnic balance in a school is the employment of teachers, administrators, and other personnel of different racial and ethnic groups in a manner that promotes individual and group dignity, motivation to learn and integration" (79, p. 8).

On the local district level, the Minneapolis Board of Education has adopted a far-reaching set of human relations guidelines including approaches for hiring and assigning staff. Intensive efforts are made to increase the number of competent and qualified minority group administrators, teachers, staff members, and civil service personnel. New minority-group teachers and administrative personnel are assigned to schools throughout the system so that the faculty, as well as the student population, better reflects the racial composition of the total school district's student population. Continuing efforts are made to recruit and maintain a cadre of teaching faculty and staff who are sensitive, competent, and committed to the needs of the inner-city child. Special attention
is given to the recruitment of experienced and successful inner-city teachers. Teacher-training institutions, the Minnesota State Department of Education, and the Civil Service Commission are encouraged to assist minority-group persons to qualify for certification and placement at all levels within the Minneapolis Public Schools. Experienced staff members in schools on the outer edge of the city are encouraged to exchange with teachers in inner-city schools. A reserve cadre of experienced and specially-trained supportive personnel are assigned to inner-city schools (79, pp. 1-10).

The NSPRA study revealed several other schools with human relations programs that included personnel recruitment--Everett, Washington, Clark County School District of Nevada, and Palo Alto, California. The following are some of the approaches employed by these districts: hiring a minimum of one minority-group classroom teacher or administrator in each building; using recruiting teams, advance organizers, and career days; paying expenses of minority candidates to travel to the school district for interviews; and working with various agencies such as the Urban League in finding and recruiting minority staff members (79, pp. 1-10).

An effective human relations program must also consider the assignment and promotion of minority staff. For
example, the California State Board of Education directs all local districts to seek to upgrade the skills of racial and ethnic minority teachers to assure them of an opportunity for promotion to positions of added responsibilities (79, p. 11).

Staff Development and Training

Regarding personnel practices, staff development and training is another important ingredient of human relations programs. NSPRA reported that districts throughout the country are incorporating human relations components into their training and orientation programs with the realization that staff members, especially teachers, play a primary role in shaping children's attitudes. In accordance with this belief, many pre-service and in-service programs in human relations often have a dual purpose. First, the program should develop positive attitudes among new and existing staff members toward themselves and others. Second, the program should help staff members to nurture these attitudes among their pupils (79, p. 12).

NSPRA reported several ways districts used to conduct this kind of human relations training: publications, workshops, seminars, courses, lectures, laboratory training sessions, or combinations and variations of these. School districts having such comprehensive staff development programs include the Montgomery County Schools in Maryland;
Moorestown, New Jersey; Hillsborough County Schools in Tampa, Florida; Santa Barbara, California; Oakland, California; Moore County Public Schools in Ohio; Chicago Public Schools; New York City School System; North Dartmouth, Massachusetts; the Dayton Public Schools in Ohio; and the Columbus Public Schools in Ohio (79, p. 12).

The program of the Columbus Public Schools will be singled out as an example. The Columbus Public Schools found that a variety of informal approaches can be used successfully to promote good human relations attitudes among teachers. These approaches, which are listed in a printed handbook designed for teachers, parents, students, and administrators, include the following: (1) social events where faculty members can become better acquainted on an informal basis; (2) weekend retreats that offer an opportunity for study, discussion, and relaxation; (3) joint elementary-secondary meetings where teachers can compare notes; (4) articulation meetings to aid in the transition of students from one type of school to another (for example, elementary to junior high or junior high to high school); (5) multi-school area meetings devoted to discussing problems of racial understanding; (6) grade level or departmental meetings that permit participants to discuss what is relevant to their grade level or subject matter; (7) forums and discussions held during faculty meetings;
innovative films illustrating new techniques or faculty concerns; (9) committees where teachers can work together; and (10) outside speakers who can deal with specific subjects (79, pp. 13-20).

Human Relations and the Student

The primary goal of almost all human relations programs is to build and promote positive attitudes of human relations among students. There are a variety of ways, both in and out of the classroom, in which school districts are attempting to instill in students the knowledge, experience, and respect that will enable them to live as responsible and responsive adults in a pluralistic society. Shepard and Bennis listed several student-oriented goals of a human relations training program. First, the individual should improve his understanding of the sources of his motivation for acting and responding to other people as he does, and he should be better able to predict and assess the consequences for himself and others of the action he is moved to take. Second, the student should gain an improved understanding of situational or group forces operating when he is engaged with others. Third, the individual should gain increased control of his communication with others. Fourth, an increased repertoire of social action patterns should become available to the student (110, pp. 403-413).
Curriculum Programs

An important element in the development of a multicultural human relations program is the selection of instructional materials that show the contributions of all ethnic and religious groups to American society. In California, the Palo Alto Unified School District has a Multicultural Advisory Committee to aid the district in assuring a curriculum development plan covering all the major instructional areas. Other districts, such as the Neptune Township Public Schools in New Jersey, operate human relations resource centers that supply books, films, tapes, reports, and magazines to schools. Still other schools, such as the Buffalo Public Schools in New York and the Pennsylvania Department of Education, publish handbooks and manuals of activities and materials.

In Syracuse, New York, high school students expressed a need for help in dealing with interpersonal and inter-social relationships. A course was developed based on two main ideas. First, students would do the major planning. Second, they would be involved in presenting the course (92).

In Palm Springs, California, after racial conflict and tension, the school district implemented a summer institute of twenty-two days for forty students, nine teachers, six youth staff members, and two adult staff members. The causes of conflict, both racial and
inter-generational, were studied. A community advisory council was established to facilitate communication. A human relations commission was established on the high school campus and in the city of Palm Springs. The campus commission listens to students in conflict and uncovers the facts by hearing both sides. The commission does not recommend any action. The summer institute participants actively promoted a black student union to explore and disseminate information about black culture and history. For similar purposes, a Mexican-American club was also promoted. Teachers in the summer institute transmitted their increased sensitivity to other teachers through in-service and community meetings. Both students and teachers sponsored a conflict intervention conference on a Saturday for teachers, parents, and students. The Palm Springs program led to several recommendations. First, a school must not have a uniformed staff. Second, repressive administration must give way to responsive administration. Third, a massive effort must be employed to make curriculum relevant to all students. Fourth, conflict is inevitable, but violence is not. Communication is the key (81, pp. 147-149).

Large numbers of school districts are providing extensive class offerings in brown, black, and African studies, as well as classes on such subjects as "Civil
Liberties and Human Rights" and "America's Intercultural Heritage" (79, pp. 27-28). Examples of school districts offering such courses are the Los Angeles Unified District, Winston-Salem High Schools in North Carolina, Clark County Schools in Nevada, Santa Barbara School District in California, and Pontiac City Schools in Michigan.

Activities and Projects
An effective human relations program for students must involve activities and projects. Some of those listed in the NSPRA study are the following: (1) a day's "teach-in" on crucial issues involving all teachers and students; (2) the exchange of assembly and musical programs between schools; (3) participation in tutoring or recreational programs; (4) a speakers' bureau or program for local community organizations; (5) a problem census study among the faculty and students; (6) community education activities; (7) an intergroup orientation day early in September to develop an awareness among new students of the importance of intergroup relations; (8) school camping trips; (9) all-city music groups; and (10) all-city student councils (79, pp. 28-31).

Other school districts are promoting good human relations by changing the school environment and adding diverse opportunities. The Markle Flats Junior High School of Ithaca, New York, as part of a broader effort
to develop a different educational environment, is involved in a program where "the classroom is the community and the world." The purpose of the program is to contribute skills and resources to the community, and the students' programs are individually planned (128, p. 108).

Yorktown High School in Arlington, Virginia, has developed a program called "the diversified school structured plan." The school schedule was extended from six to eight periods per day, and students and their parents select the time of arrival and departure. Students and their parents have the option of selecting the type of program best suited for individual needs and interests. A traditional schedule allowing no unscheduled time during the school day is offered at all grade levels. However, if desired, students may have unscheduled time to manage on their own. Students may select one or none of the two lunch periods, which are full-length periods. Those who have parental permission are issued "off-campus cards" permitting them to leave the school grounds during the lunch period. Special films, lectures, and demonstrations are offered for students during lunch and during their unscheduled time. Principal William R. Kier wrote that

the program is working and we are experiencing a relationship with students, staff and administration that is one of respect and responsiveness to the needs of all. It is an opportunity for learning on a freer basis more in keeping with
individual dignity. We are beginning to treat our young people as adult citizens of our society, with the expectation that they will accept a corresponding degree of responsibility (61, p. 150).

Parent, Student, and Teacher Participation

An integral part of many school human relations programs is the strengthening of school ties with the community. Involvement in school life, sometimes in policy decisions, by parents and other members of the community has become an increasingly important feature of the educational scene in recent years, and many school districts have given this full consideration in the design of their human relations programs.

Community Involvement

Several districts reporting to NSPRA have embarked on ambitious plans for working with their communities, and countless committees and projects have been launched in different parts of the country in efforts to carry the principles of good human relations to communities (79, p. 37). Blumenberg (9) found that community-school advisory councils, when effectively and properly used, can produce miraculous results in improved community relations and program acceptance. The NSPRA study advised that effective school-community relations programs must offer vehicles for two-way communication between the school and the
community and the community and the school. In addition to the transmission of school information to the community, "there is an equal need for a structure whereby school officials can improve their understanding of the community they are serving" (79, p. 37).

A district-wide Human Relations Coordinating Council in the Jefferson County Public Schools in Louisville, Kentucky, works specifically to promote understanding, goodwill, and effective behavior. The committee is made up of students, P. T. A. members, administrators, teachers, and representatives of the local Human Relations Commission. The district-wide council works closely with human relations councils that have been developed at individual schools (79, p. 40).

One of the most comprehensive approaches being used to bring the school and community closer together is known as "community education" or the "community school." The national model for this approach is generally considered to be Flint, Michigan, where funds from the Charles Stewart Mott Foundation are channeled through the Flint Board of Education to carry out the Mott Program of Community Schools.

The Mott Program is a program of community education for all ages. Both children and adults use the existing facilities of the public schools. Shops, classrooms,
pools, gymnasiums, and equipment are made available to the entire city without the cost of providing new buildings. In Flint, there is a school within walking distance of every man, woman, and child. Schools are open summer and winter, five evenings a week, and on Saturday, and serve some 90,000 children and adults annually. The following are some of the special components of the Mott Program: (1) 1200 adult education courses are offered to some 70,000 registrants each year in more than fifty community schools and fourteen other community centers; (2) a community recreation program featuring competition in twenty-eight sports is offered year round; (3) there is police-school liaison with plainclothes juvenile officers working in twelve secondary schools to prevent crime; (4) the Mott Camp for Boys offers five two-week sessions each year for boys between the ages of ten and fifteen; (5) Big Brothers of Greater Flint (the nation's largest Big Brothers program) serves 1200 boys with the help of nearly 900 volunteer Big Brothers and 315 service agencies; and (6) C. S. Mott Foundation Children's Health Center serves underprivileged children free of charge in a broad outpatient service (51, pp. 34-38).

The Mott Program is administered by a community school director, who works closely with the Community Council. The Community Council is composed of the principal, P. T. A.,
Community School director, merchants and clergymen of the neighborhood, and representatives of adult and student school organizations. The Council meets monthly and is assisted by sub-committees and by residents of the community at large. Mott Program officials stated two primary purposes for the program: (1) to discover and demonstrate how a community can use its own resources to solve its own problems and (2) to help make Flint's Community Schools worthy of emulation (51, pp. 34-38).

**Student Involvement**

The involvement of students in the planning and decision-making process is being given increasing attention by educators. Student demands for involvement, often resulting in riots during 1970-71, is one reason for the increased attention of educators. In his *Equality of Educational Opportunity*, Mosteller (75) reported that the attitude of students, whether they felt they could control their destiny, is of paramount importance in student achievement. Such reports have had an impact on educators.

Herman reported on student rights programs in the Lewiston-Porter Central Schools of Youngstown, New York. The programs feature student involvement in planning committees at the board of education level, at the superintendent of schools level, and at the building level.
At the board of education committee level, the students elected their junior and senior high representatives to the Lew-Port System Redesign Committee. This sixty-member committee is charged with the task of assessing the community's educational needs, suggesting methods of improving the ability of the school district to meet these needs, developing a mission statement as well as district goals and general objectives, and recommending the approach to these matters to the board of education.

At the superintendent of schools level, committees have been appointed to act as advisory groups in areas such as district philosophy, student behavioral standards, and others. On each of these committees, students, including in many cases elementary students, have been important contributors to the planning process. In most cases, student membership was broad-based and made up a high percentage of the total membership.

An example of how the committees work is the committee on school district philosophy. The committee spent an entire year developing a tentative statement of philosophy. This statement was widely-distributed to students and staff. Modifications were written. The philosophy was approved by the total teaching staff, by the total administrative staff, and by students. This philosophy was then presented to the board of education with the
recommendation of these groups, and it was officially adopted by the board of education as the statement that would guide all of the district's operational decisions from that point forward.

At the building level of the junior and senior high schools, the traditional student council with its membership largely composed of honor students and well-behaved multiple leadership students, has been replaced with a broad-based student senate. Comprised of approximately eighty-five students, the senate includes honor students, average students, and so-called non-conformists. The senate has been given the authority to address itself to problems that are meaningful to students. The students selected their representatives by a controlled, stratified process. The assistant principal for instruction in each secondary building is assigned a liaison, not a control, function with the student senate. This administrator is available to consult with the student leadership to facilitate the housekeeping chores of the senate and to cut red tape when it exists.

In one example of its leadership role, the student senate worked for several months on the development of a plan for their version of an open campus. The student plan recommended that students, during non-class time, be allowed to visit any other class, the media center, and
the student lounge, or to leave the campus for teacher-guided independent study. The plan also allowed students, with written parental permission, to leave the campus for any reason at any time that they were not involved in an actual class study situation. The students, further, presented guidelines for policing students who misused the privilege and for removal of the privilege from students who continually misused it. The leadership of the student senate presented their total plan to the Lewiston-Porter Board of Education at one of its regular monthly meetings. The plan was approved on a pilot basis with an evaluation to be made by students, staff, and parents. The administration and the staff worked with the students to immediately implement the plan.

A second facet of student involvement at the building level is the student-faculty committee. A group was organized with broad-based student representation and with teacher representation from each department. This group meets at regularly-scheduled times, and it is an open discussion forum for any topic that the teaching staff or the student body wishes to discuss. The committee's purposes are to open communication lines on a frequent and continuous basis and to solve minor difficulties before they grow into major problems or confrontations. "Apparently this committee has served its purpose because there has not
been a single crisis which has arisen during the entire school year," reported Herman. Herman concluded his report on student involvement in the Lewiston-Porter Schools of Youngstown, New York, with the following statement:

Although all the procedures discussed in this manuscript will need to be modified, subtracted from, or added to over time, as the local variables change, Lewiston-Porter has benefitted from an offensive position in the areas of student involvement and student rights. It is much better to recognize that students can be positive contributors to local school district planning than to allow communication lag, irrelevancy, and other negative conditions to build to a crisis stage. Students are intelligent, articulate, service minded, and positively realistic in their approach to problem solving. Involve them. They'll contribute well and you will grow from your involvement with them (49, p. 58).

Other programs of active student involvement have been reported. Lovetere (70) cited an account of students on school committees at Old Orchard Junior High School in Skokie, Illinois. Ferguson (36) reported a similar study of West High School in Iowa City, Iowa. Kraft (64) described a democratic approach to problem solving. Cereghino (14) discussed a program at Rio Vista High School in California that features a planning steering committee. Ostrander, Lindquist, and Shaw (85) reported a program of grievance procedures in a Seattle, Washington, high school. McGuire (74) discussed a student council program in a Palm Springs, California, high school.
Joughin (58) described the role of the student in college and university government. Finally, Rast and James (97) reported a comprehensive plan of student involvement that includes an activities board, finance board, a senate, a house of representatives, a rights and responsibilities board, and an advisory board.

The programs presented here are the total of a fairly extensive search through the literature. While the relative absence of reported programs cannot be construed to mean that very few school systems are involving their students in school planning, a recent study did provide some clue to the scarcity of reports. In a 1970 study, Combs (23) found that less than half of the high schools in California had any student involvement in curriculum development, although 61 percent believed students should be involved. Although some school districts are very profitably involving students in planning and decision-making roles, the practice is not yet widespread.

**Teacher Participation**

Teacher groups during the 1960's and early 1970's have been increasingly active in seeking a participatory role in decision-making, in policy formation, and in altering working conditions. According to Feltner and Goodsell, "The decade of the 1960's forced administrators to re-examine their theories of college governance. The
conflicts were increasingly occurring and established administrative techniques failed to resolve them . . . " (35, p. 692).

A decade ago, the National Education Association's Project on Instruction recommended in its report, Schools for the Sixties, that school faculties should be involved in decision-making.

Local school faculties should have the freedom and the authority to make decisions about what to teach--and how to teach--within state and local requirements. Final instructional decisions should be made by the teacher taking into consideration recommendations from appropriate local, state, and national groups representing the teaching profession, academic scholars, and the public (78, p. 17).

Gould wrote that "the participation of faculty and students in academic and other matters pertaining to the institution is not only to be encouraged but is, indeed, essential for the shaping of essential decisions" (44, p. 129). Weiss (127) stated that "much of what is being done in education today centers on the agreement among many educators that 'involvement' is a potential factor for improving and strengthening our schools." Griffith (46), Young (131), Schimmel (107), and Taba (117) agreed that faculty involvement is necessary to strengthen American educational institutions. Ikenberry, also a proponent of faculty participation in decision-making, wrote that the
involvement of faculty members in institutional planning and governance through committee assignments, task forces, and the like is useful not only because it allows faculty members to influence the course of the institution, but because of the insight faculty members gain about the problems of the institutions (55, pp. 23-24).

Although these and other writers have agreed that the practice of involving faculty in patterns of professional participation is urgently required, the extent of meaningful involvement is debated. While advisory councils have been in existence for a half century or more (17, p. 70), substantive, ongoing programs do not appear in the literature. Manning (71), Singer (112), and Boutwell (11) raised the question of how much change has taken place in practice. Half a century ago, Lewis wrote of the unrest among teachers and sounded a warning note:

There is a growing separation between the classroom teacher, the principal, the supervisor, the superintendent, and the school board. The classroom teachers feel lost in a machine-like organization. School systems are constantly growing in size and complexity. Division of labor has caused further separation. Naturally, educational officers get out of touch with classroom activities. They become "office" officers. The teacher who is forever on the firing line gets to feel that her work is little understood or appreciated. This gives rise to resentment and misunderstanding. Teachers organize against officers: they demand more of a voice in the affairs of the system. The good classroom teacher knows that she is more important to the success of instruction than is the school
board, the superintendent and his staff, the building and its equipment, and all other elements of the system put together . . . but consciously or unconsciously she is often made to feel otherwise. This leads her to organize for her own self-defense. A bloc system of control develops with all its attendant evils (69, p. 13).

Writing fifty years after Lewis, Rosenzweig (102) wrote from experience gained in consulting with school boards across the country. She found that it is as difficult as ever to find a school board that is serious about starting a good human relations program. In urging them to do so, she made the following comment: "You should probably start right now to develop a strong human relations program in your schools--before you're required to get one going" (102, p. 35).

Human Relations Programs in Education--An Overview

While a beginning has been made by many school districts, there is evidence that most are not making a significant effort in humanizing the schools. The rapid growth of teacher unions and a continuing dropout rate of students are indicative that all is not well in the public schools. A disturbing glimpse of a society and an educational system that says one thing and does something else may be seen in the following statement by Dandes:

Our society claims to value democracy and the worth of each individual; yet it often seems as though the school is more
important than the people it serves. Society claims to value open-minded inquiry, critical knowledge, and critical thinking; yet education often stifles the inquiring student. Society claims to value the growth of the individual; yet often educational practices inhibit that growth (26, p. 301).

While some progress has been made toward a more "open," responsive school, there is an urgent need for all schools to make a positive commitment toward providing a warm, humanistic climate for all who enter.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


2. "Are We Losing the Will to Work?" Industry Week, CLXIX (May 3, 1971), 30-34.


CHAPTER IV

COLLECTION OF DATA

The purpose of this study, in addition to discussing the literature on human relations programs in industry and in education, is to describe the human relations programs and roles of human relations specialists in selected schools as those programs and roles relate to the desegregation process. The following procedures were designed to obtain data: (1) construction of an initial questionnaire, (2) selection of a jury panel, (3) validation of the questionnaire, (4) administration of the questionnaire, and (5) interviews.

Developing the Questionnaire

A review of the literature and inquiries to officials of the Texas Education Agency in Austin, the Dallas Regional United States Office of Education, and the Center for Public School Ethnic Studies in Austin preceded the development of tentative items for the questionnaire. Twenty-three multiple-choice and open-ended questions (see Appendix A) were developed to provide specific data upon which to support the study.
A questionnaire developed in 1971 by Susan K. Stemnock of the National Education Association's Educational Research Service was basic to the questionnaire developed for this study. The original questionnaire was used in a study of the human relations specialist in public schools. Additional items designed to provide information more specific to the proposed study were included.

Selection of the Jury Panel

The jury panel was composed of five members selected from several organizations representing the various agencies of educational endeavor. It was considered vital that each jury member be actively engaged in some specific effort to promote the desegregation of public schools and public education. Accordingly, the five members (see Appendix C) selected included one member from a public school that was known to be operating a human relations program; one member from the Texas Education Agency's Technical Assistance Section which monitors desegregation efforts; one member from the staff of the Center for Public School Ethnic Studies (formerly TEDTAC); one college official who was active in desegregation efforts through work with the Center for Public School Ethnic Studies; and one member from the Regional Office of the United States Office of Education.
Each prospective jury member was called by telephone and requested to participate in the validation procedure. His role in approving or disapproving the clarity and appropriateness of items on the questionnaire was explained. All agreed to participate and to return replies as soon as possible.

Validation of the Questionnaire

The initial questionnaire was sent to the jury panel to obtain their approval for validation of the individual items. A copy of the questionnaire (see Appendix D), accompanied by a letter of instruction (see Appendix E) and a stamped, self-addressed envelope, was mailed to each member of the panel. Each judge was asked to consider whether or not each item would provide appropriate information and whether or not it was clearly stated. A validation response was provided in the left margin of the questionnaire with the numbers "1," "2," and "3" preceding each item number. Members of the jury panel were asked to respond by circling "1" if the question was clearly stated and appropriate. If the jury member was undecided on the item, he was to circle "2." If the item was unclear or considered inappropriate to the study, the jury member was asked to circle "3."

A space was provided at the end of the questionnaire for the jury member to submit additions or corrections.
Each jury member was requested to certify the acceptance of the questionnaire as complete with the noted exceptions. It was decided that acceptance of an item by three of the five members of the jury panel would constitute validity and justify inclusion in the final questionnaire.

Construction of the Final Questionnaire

The final questionnaire was constructed from the responses of the jury panel. Twenty-two of the twenty-three items received unanimous approval. The lone exception to unanimity on all items was the marking of "2," which was "undecided," by one member of the panel. Since the other members of the panel accepted this item, it was retained in the final questionnaire. No additions or deletions were recommended. Therefore, all items were included in the final questionnaire.

The questions were typed on thirteen balanced pages and duplicated on a mimeograph machine using regular twenty-pound paper in order to provide an attractive, readily-identifiable questionnaire. This questionnaire was entitled The Human Relations Specialist in the Desegregation of Public Schools, Form B (For Specialist).

A form of the questionnaire that omitted the demographic data concerning the human relations specialist was prepared. The thirteen remaining questions dealing with the role and function of the specialist were then
typed on nine balanced pages and duplicated as described above. This abbreviated questionnaire was entitled The Human Relations Specialist in the Desegregation of Public Schools, Form A (For Superintendent).

Administration of the Final Questionnaire

A letter describing the proposed study (see Appendix F), along with a copy of Form A of the validated questionnaire (see Appendix B), was mailed to fifty-eight superintendents. Also enclosed was a memorandum-type form (see Appendix G) on which the superintendent was requested to indicate the name of the individual, to whom a direct mailing could be made, who had primary responsibility for the human relations program or Emergency School Assistance Program (ESAP). Two self-addressed envelopes, one for the return of the memorandum-type form and the other for the return of the completed questionnaire, were enclosed.

Approximately two weeks after the initial mailing, a follow-up letter (see Appendix H) was sent to non-respondents appealing for their participation in the study. A second questionnaire, memorandum-type form for the name of the human relations director, and two stamped, self-addressed envelopes were again enclosed for the convenience of respondents. These procedures resulted in the return of forty usable questionnaires, or 69 percent. One questionnaire and form was returned with the notation that the
district did not have sufficient staff to participate in the study. The remaining seventeen were unaccounted. This return exceeded the 60 percent standard suggested by the committee.

Thirty-five forms indicating the name of an individual who assumed primary responsibility for the ESAP project were returned. One of the forms was returned with the school district declining to participate. Eleven superintendents enclosed their own name as the person responsible and were thus not usable. Twenty-three of the forms were acceptable.

The validated questionnaire for the human relations director was mailed to the twenty-three specialists. With it was sent a cover letter (see Appendix I) describing the study and a stamped, self-addressed envelope for the respondent's convenience. Approximately ten days after the initial mailing, a follow-up letter (see Appendix J) was sent to non-respondents urging their participation in the study. A second questionnaire and a stamped, self-addressed envelope were enclosed for the respondent's convenience. One of the individuals whose name was enclosed had died, and two others were no longer with the school district. However, fifteen completed questionnaires, or 65 percent, were returned. This exceeded the 60 percent standard by 5 percent.
Personal Interviews

A second procedure used in the collection of data was personal interviews. Officials in the Dallas regional office of the United States Office of Education were requested to provide a list of ten school districts who, in their opinion, were involved in strong, ongoing human relations programs. From this list, five districts were selected on the basis of geographic locale and size, as determined by average daily attendance reported in the 1971-72 Public School Directory (3).

A letter (see Appendix K) describing the study was mailed to the superintendent of the five school districts selected. The letter requested participation by the superintendent or a central office administrator and the director of human relations in a personal interview session. A memorandum-type form (see Appendix L) with space for addresses and telephone numbers of the two individuals was enclosed along with a stamped, self-addressed envelope. All of the districts responded immediately with agreement to participate and with the names of five administrators and five directors of human relations.

The ten individuals were contacted by telephone and conference times were arranged. Interviews were recorded by means of a small portable tape recorder. Copies of
the mailed questionnaires were used as interview guides. Results of the personal interviews will be reported separately.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER V

ROLE OF THE HUMAN RELATIONS DIRECTOR IN SELECTED PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN TEXAS

Records in the regional office of the United States Office of Education in Dallas for the 1971-72 school year revealed that sixty-three school districts received Emergency School Assistance Program (ESAP) funds. ESAP funds were earmarked for providing assistance to institutions in their desegregation efforts. Since these sixty-three districts were known to be involved in efforts to promote better understanding among the different segments of school and community populations, it was decided that these public school districts would constitute the study sample.

Presentation of Findings

The findings presented in this section are results of the survey questionnaire, "The Human Relations Specialist in the Desegregation of Public Schools." The twenty-three questionnaire items were designed to provide data that would describe the role of the person primarily responsible for the human relations efforts of the local school districts. Special emphasis was directed to the following:
(1) training, experience, qualifications, and other personal data of the human relations specialist; (2) the amount of responsibility the specialist assumed in a wide array of human relations functions; and (3) the human relations programs themselves. The data from each of the twenty-three items on the survey questionnaire will be tabulated when applicable.

Summary of Responses to the Study

The data presented in the tables in this section indicate the opinions of school administrators and of those persons primarily responsible for human relations activities who responded to the survey questionnaire. Of the fifty-eight superintendents receiving mailed questionnaires, forty or 69 percent responded, one declined to participate, and the remainder were unaccounted for.

Thirty-five forms indicating the name of an individual primarily responsible for human relations activities were returned. One district declined to participate and eleven of the individuals named were the school superintendent, whose responses to the specialist's questionnaire could not be used for comparative purposes. This left twenty-three individuals, who comprised the sample of human relations specialists. Of the twenty-three specialists, fifteen or 65 percent responded.
A second data gathering procedure involved personal interviews with administrators and specialists from five school districts. All five of the schools are included in the study.

The combined responses received from both mailed questionnaires and personal interviews totalled forty-five or 71 percent from superintendents and twenty or 71 percent from human relations specialists. Both figures are well over the 60 percent needed to support the study.

The first thirteen survey questions concerned such information about the human relations director as his background, training, experience, salary, and work year. These questions were not included in the superintendent's questionnaire, since there was no need to compare responses. Responses of all of the human relations directors, from both mailed questionnaires and personal interviews, will be combined for these questions. For questions fourteen through twenty-three, responses from mailed questionnaires will be tabulated and reported separately from responses taken during personal interviews.

The official title of the person responsible for directing the human relations program of the schools was the first information sought on the questionnaire. Responses are shown in Table I. A study of the data in Table I reveals that the individual who assumed primary
TABLE I
OFFICIAL TITLES OF PERSONS WITH PRIMARY HUMAN RELATIONS RESPONSIBILITIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Distribution of Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Superintendent</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director of Human Relations</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director of Instruction</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director of Special Services</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director of Federal Programs</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinator of ESAP</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselor</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Responsibility for human relations activities did so under a variety of official titles. Five reporting officials, 25 percent, were listed as assistant superintendents and four as directors of human relations. These two titles represented 45 percent of the responses. Two of the respondents, or 10 percent, were referred to as directors of instruction, while two others were called coordinators of Emergency School Assistance Programs. Three each, or 15 percent, were listed as directors of special services.
and directors of federal programs. One respondent, or 5 percent, was listed as a counselor. These data indicate that 95 percent of the respondents were at the director level or above in central office status.

Table II presents information regarding the establishment of the human relations programs. It is immediately apparent that a large majority of the programs, 70 percent,

TABLE II
ESTABLISHMENT OF HUMAN RELATIONS PROGRAMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year Program Started</th>
<th>Distribution of Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

were first established in 1970 or 1971. The responses listed in Table II indicate that the majority of the human relations programs of the sample schools were first
established after federal funds became available to aid school districts in desegregation efforts.

Question three asked, "What is the stated purpose of your program?" Eleven or 55 percent of the respondents indicated that their program was established to promote better racial relations. The following are examples of these responses: "movement of the races together--for common goals," "to ease integration problems," "to solve problems incident to desegregation and communications for better relationship between school and community," and "the board shall maintain an inservice human relations program so as to aid the effectiveness of desegregation facilities." One respondent indicated the program in his district was established "to eliminate direct conflict," while two respondents cited "reduction or remediation of educational deprivation" as the purpose of their program. Two other programs were designed to "change attitudes toward education and the entire community and its inhabitants," while one program emphasized "human and public relations." This question was omitted by three respondents.

The amount of time spent by the director in human relations work was sought in question four. Six or 30 percent of the respondents reported that they worked full time in human relations work, while twelve or 60 percent reported other responsibilities. Two directors failed to
respond. A second part of question four asked those respondents with duties other than human relations work to indicate the percentage of time spent on human relations activities. The responses are shown in Table III. Review of the data in Table III reveals that almost 50 percent of the respondents spent from 40 to 60 percent of their time in human relations activities. In other words, they were half-time. Six or 50 percent of the part-time directors spent from 10 to 20 percent of their time on

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percent of Time Spent on Human Relations</th>
<th>Distribution of Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>12</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
human relations, while one individual spent only 1 percent of his time in human relations work. Table III indicates that 61 percent of all the respondents were involved in human relations activities a substantial percentage of their time.

Question four also asked part-time directors to indicate their other areas of responsibility. Their responses are given in Table IV. The data in Table IV

TABLE IV
OTHER ACTIVITIES OF PART-TIME HUMAN RELATIONS DIRECTORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Other Activities</th>
<th>Distribution of Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum and Instruction</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal Programs</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Administration</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling Activities</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>14</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

indicate that almost 50 percent of the part-time human relations directors spent the remainder of their time in curriculum development and instruction. Fifty percent were divided almost equally between involvement in other
federal programs and in general administrative duties. The remaining individual was responsible for the elementary guidance and counseling program in the elementary schools of his district.

Survey question five concerned the work year of the human relations director. Nineteen or 95 percent of the human relations directors were employed for a full twelve months, including a paid vacation. Only one was employed for less than twelve months, and his eleven-month work year is equivalent to that of many principals, supervisors, and other directors. The twelve-month work year of the human relations director appears indicative of the importance attached to their roles by superintendents, since generally only top-level central administrators are employed for the full twelve months.

Average salary of human relations directors was sought in question six. Nineteen or 95 percent of the directors responded to this question. The information is presented in Table V. Information in Table V indicates a salary range from $9,000 to $17,999 for human relations directors. The highest salaries, those in the $16,000 to $17,999 range, were paid to individuals whose job title was assistant superintendent. In general terms, those individuals with the title director were paid salaries ranging from $10,000 to $15,000 plus. The average salary of all
those persons assuming primary responsibility for human relations programs was $14,132.

### TABLE V

ANNUAL SALARY OF HUMAN RELATIONS DIRECTORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Annual Salary (1971-72)</th>
<th>Distribution of Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17,000 to 17,999</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16,000 to 16,999</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15,000 to 15,999</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14,000 to 14,999</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13,000 to 13,999</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12,000 to 12,999</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11,000 to 11,999</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000 to 10,999</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9,000 to 9,999</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omitted</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|                         | Total  | 100       |

A second aspect of question six was whether or not the director received some expense allowance. Fourteen or 70 percent of the human relations directors reported some arrangement to cover expenses incurred in the performance of their duties. Twelve were paid yearly
dollar amounts ranging from $360 to $1,500. Two of the fourteen were paid expenses for out-of-district travel. Five respondents reported no expense allowance of any kind, while one failed to respond. The average expense allowance for those reporting a yearly dollar amount was $721.

Question seven asked if the respondent reported directly to the superintendent of schools. All twenty responded in the affirmative. Question eight, a related question, asked if the respondent was a member of the superintendent's cabinet or council. Again 100 percent of the respondents answered "yes." These responses indicate the generally high level of the human relations function and of the individual who assumes responsibility.

Respondents were asked in question number nine to indicate whether or not their school system had a formal, written job description and/or statement of qualifications for the position of human relations specialist and, if so, to enclose a copy. Eight or 40 percent of those responding indicated they had written job descriptions and twelve or 60 percent indicated they did not. Seven respondents enclosed a copy of their district's written job description. Three of the seven are reproduced in Appendix M.

Included in the survey instrument was a question seeking personal information about the human relations
director. Respondents were asked to provide information regarding their education, experience, certification, age, sex, and length of residence in the community. Results are shown in Table VI.

**TABLE VI**

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF HUMAN RELATIONS DIRECTORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal Characteristics</th>
<th>Distribution of Response</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education (highest degree attained)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No degree</td>
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<td>Bachelor's</td>
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<td>Master's</td>
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<td>Doctorate</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As teacher</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As supervisor</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>As administrator</td>
<td>17</td>
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<td>As guidance counselor</td>
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<td>Age</td>
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21-25
TABLE VI--Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal Characteristics</th>
<th>Distribution of Response</th>
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<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
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<td>31-35</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>36-40</td>
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<td>41-45</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>46-50</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 60</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race or ethnic origin</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negro</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oriental</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexican-American</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A study of Table VI discloses that fifteen or 75 percent of the human relations directors had attained a master's degree, while five or 25 percent had earned a doctorate. As might be expected, undergraduate preparation was in a wide variety of disciplines, as were major fields in master's work. Of those who had earned doctorates, two were in the field of educational administration, two were in elementary education, and one was in general education. Two other respondents reported that they were enrolled in doctoral programs in educational administration.
All of the respondents were certified as teachers, while seven or 35 percent were certified as supervisors. Seventeen or 85 percent held certification as administrators, and two respondents were certified as guidance counselors.

One-half of the respondents were less than forty years of age. Of the remaining one-half, 50 percent were between forty and fifty years of age, still relatively young in professional life. Five respondents were over fifty years of age. The human relations directors averaged forty-four years of age.

Nineteen of the respondents were male. The lone female served as co-director of a human relations program along with a male and reported in his absence.

Sixteen of the respondents, 80 percent, were white. Two of the directors were Mexican-American, and two were Negro. One other individual, who was ill and was not included in the data, served as a co-director as noted above and was also a Negro.

Nine or 45 percent of the respondents indicated they had lived in the community less than five years. Two others, 10 percent, had lived in the community from ten to fourteen years. Eight had lived in the community for twenty years or longer. The average length of time in the community for all respondents was fourteen years.
Question ten also asked respondents to list their educational experience. The average experience in the human relations position as reported by the incumbents was 3.9 years, indicating that the human relations function was relatively new in the districts. The respondents had an average 7.9 years of experience as administrators or supervisors and reported an average eleven years of experience in the classroom. Other pertinent experience, such as work in educational service centers and public administration, averaged one-half year. The average total experience of human relations directors was 23.3 years.

A review of all the data from question ten reveals the composite of the human relations directors to be a white male forty-four years of age. He has at least a master's degree and holds a valid certificate as a teacher and as an administrator. He has approximately twenty-three years of experience in education, and of that total, he has eleven years in the classroom, almost eight years as an administrator, and almost four years in his present position. He has lived in his present community for fourteen years.

The survey questionnaire asked for the number of full-time and part-time members on the human relations staff. The responses are shown in Table VII. A study of Table VII reveals that nine districts had a total of
TABLE VII
STAFF MEMBERS OF HUMAN RELATIONS DIRECTORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Staff Positions</th>
<th>No. of Districts</th>
<th>No. of Full-Time</th>
<th>No. of Districts</th>
<th>No. of Part-Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clerical/secretarial</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraprofessional (for example, com-</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>munity aide)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home-school counselors</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary coordinators</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary coordinators</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communications specialist</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselors</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-community coordinator</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social workers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ten full-time clerical or secretarial staff and that seven districts employed a total of eight part-time clerks or secretaries. Five of the districts had a total of twenty-seven community aides, an average of more than five per
district. For professional personnel staff, one district reported six home-school counselors, and one district employed a part-time elementary coordinator and a part-time secondary coordinator. Still another district utilized the services of a communications specialist, while two districts reported a total of eleven special full-time teachers. In yet another district, four counselors were used part-time in the human relations activities, and two other districts employed a total of eleven full-time school-community coordinators. Finally, one district's professional staff was comprised of two full-time social workers. Generally speaking, the human relations staffs were composed of non-professional secretaries, clerks, and community aides and professional teachers and school-community coordinators.

Question twelve asked school officials to specify the activity in which they spent the greater proportion of their working day. The activities listed were regular in-office administrative work, meetings with other central office administrators, meetings with principals, meetings with students and student organizations, and meetings with community groups and social agencies. Space was provided for another activity if needed, and respondents were asked to specify the activity. Data for question twelve is shown in Table VIII. The data in Table VIII
TABLE VIII
ACTIVITIES OF HUMAN RELATIONS DIRECTORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Distribution of Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>Regular in-office administrative work</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>Meeting with other central office administrators</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>Meeting with principals</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th</td>
<td>Meeting with students and student organizations</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th</td>
<td>Meeting with community groups and social agencies</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6th</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

indicate that the majority, 65 percent, of the respondents spent more time performing regular in-office administrative work than anything else. Two or 10 percent of the respondents spent most of their time in meetings with principals, while meetings with community groups represented the major activity for an additional 10 percent of the
directors. Meetings with other central office administrators, meetings with students or student organizations, and other meetings represented the major activity for a total of 15 percent of the respondents. These data indicate that the function of the human relations directors in this sample might be characterized as primarily administrative in nature.

The questionnaire asked each respondent to indicate how much time a week, on the average, he spent in activities that were necessary to the job but had to be done outside the normal working day (such as attending evening meetings, student activities, consulting with parents). The responses ranged from a low of none to a high of twenty-five hours, with all but one respondent indicating extra time over regular office hours. The average "overtime" work was seven hours per week.

A list of forty-four human relations functions compiled from a study of related literature, from another research study, and from recommendations by various officials was included in the survey questionnaire. Human relations officials were asked to indicate the degree of responsibility they assumed for each function as they perceived their job role. Superintendents were asked to indicate their opinion of the human relations official's responsibility for each function as they viewed the director's job role. Ratings are shown in Table IX.
TABLE IX

THE OPINIONS OF HUMAN RELATIONS DIRECTORS AND SUPERINTENDENTS REGARDING DIRECTOR'S RESPONSIBILITY FOR EACH FUNCTION LISTED*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Relations Function</th>
<th>Director's Responsibility</th>
<th>TR</th>
<th>PR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Student-related functions**

a. Plan and provide programs designed to assist students, faculty, and administration to better understand and relate to one another in the school setting.

| 5 | 33.3 | 10 | 66.6 |

b. Liaison with student organizations on human relations matters.

| 2 | 13.3 | 8 | 53.0 |

c. Pupil personnel problems of a racial nature.

| 2 | 13.3 | 8 | 53.0 |

d. Assist students in establishing communication with community organizations.

| 2 | 13.3 | 7 | 46.6 |

e. Assist students in communicating concerns and/or problems to school administration.

| 1 | 6.6 | 10 | 66.6 |

f. Provide leadership in the development of a channel of communication for students.

| 2 | 13.3 | 7 | 46.6 |

g. Insure that school personnel are kept informed regarding students' hardships.

| 5 | 33.3 | 9 | 60.0 |
TABLE IX--Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opinions</th>
<th>Superintendent's Opinions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LR</td>
<td>NR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE IX--Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Relations Function</th>
<th>Director's</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Visitation of schools on a regular basis.</td>
<td>5 33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Assist student groups to plan activities designed to foster a spirit of cooperation and understanding among students.</td>
<td>1 6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. Nurture and promote an open attitude of school personnel toward awareness of student problems and concerns.</td>
<td>2 13.3 11 73.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k. Assist student groups in activities designed to promote a spirit of cooperation and understanding between students and adults.</td>
<td>2 13.3 7 46.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

School staff functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Director's</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Cooperate with all members of the school staff in identifying, researching, and seeking solutions to problems involving human relations in the educational context.</td>
<td>6 40.0 8 53.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Consult with the school administration and faculty to identify and isolate particular human relations problems.</td>
<td>2 13.3 10 66.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Work with local school staffs in planning and implementing practicable solutions to local problems.</td>
<td>4 26.6 9 60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinions</td>
<td>Superintendent's Opinions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LR NR TR PR LR NR</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Relations Function</td>
<td>Director's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Provide educational materials and assistance in the area of intergroup education.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Originate printed and other audio-visual materials for the purpose of developing better understanding of human relations problems.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Attend faculty meetings and other meetings if requested by principal.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Work cooperatively with school staff to maintain open channels of communication between faculty members, between faculty and parents and other school personnel.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Provide assistance in organizing human relations committees and meetings for the teachers and for parents.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Actively recruit teachers of ethnic minorities.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. Aid minority organizations in bringing in outside experts for consultative purposes.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k. Train local professional personnel as group leaders for continuing in-service in human relations.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE IX--Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Opinions Superintendent's Opinions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Relations Function</td>
<td>Director's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Teacher human relations program.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m. Orientation of new teachers in the human relations program and awareness of the various cultures of the community.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n. Continuously seek to provide new materials for a resource center to support studies of current patterns and conditions of ethnic groups.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community-related functions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Liaison with community service groups on human relations matters.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Public relations on human relations problems and activities</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Receive and process community complaints.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Liaison to area citizens advisory councils.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Develop and disseminate information about the services in the community such as employment offices, neighborhood service centers, service agencies and organizations.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE IX--Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opinions</th>
<th>Superintendent's Opinions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LR</td>
<td>NR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>33.3</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE IX--Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Relations Function</th>
<th>Director's</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Compile and disseminate information and background material relevant to the general area of human relations and to specific school problems.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Assessment of the human relations climate of the school community area at all times in order to create a more favorable and effective school program.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Assist in planning more effective programs encouraging cooperation and understanding between the school and the community.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Actively seek better involvement of parents and other community citizens in the school community councils.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. Work to enhance more effective parent participation in school programs.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k. Develop and/or coordinate a program of volunteer service involving interested parents and women's groups whose members may assist in a number of school programs.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE IX--Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opinions</th>
<th>Superintendent's Opinions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LR</td>
<td>NR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N %</td>
<td>N %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 40.0</td>
<td>0 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 33.3</td>
<td>0 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>0 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>1 6.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>0 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>3 20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Relations Function</td>
<td>Director's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Serve as liaison between the central office administration and the Community Relations Committee of the Board.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m. Advise parents on school policies such as lunch programs as well as transportation, physical examinations and the like.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n. Provide welfare assistance to families so that they may secure the benefits available to them such as dental, medical, food, and clothing.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o. Liaison with local law enforcement agencies.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p. Adult basic education program.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q. Development and evaluation of programs for the culturally-deprived.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r. Development and evaluation of programs for bilingual persons.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s. Planning to achieve racial and cultural balance in schools.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*"TR"--total responsibility, "PR"--partial responsibility, "LR"--little responsibility, "NR"--no responsibility, "N"--number.*
TABLE IX--Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opinions</th>
<th>Superintendent's Opinions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LR</td>
<td>NR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
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<td>26.6</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>6.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Table IX, directors and superintendents rated the director's degree of responsibility for each function as "total," "partial," "little," or "no" responsibility. The purpose was to compare the perceptions of the human relations director and the superintendent regarding the director's job and his role in the desegregation process.

A study of Table IX reveals that human relations directors and superintendents generally agreed on the role of the human relations specialist as it pertained to the forty-four functions. No major disagreement existed between the groups on thirty-six or 82 percent of the items. The two groups did have differing views concerning eight or 18 percent of the functions.

One-third of the directors believed it was their total responsibility to "plan and provide programs designed to assist students, faculty, and administration to better understand and relate to one another in their school setting." Only 17.5 percent of the superintendents viewed this function as a total responsibility of the human relations director.

In the perceptions of human relations directors, 33.3 percent said they had "little" responsibility for "providing leadership in the development of a channel of communication for students." Superintendents' responses
disagreed, as 72.5 percent indicated that the human relations director should share this responsibility.

Eleven or 27.5 percent of the superintendents believed it to be the total responsibility of the human relations director to "assist student groups to plan activities designed to foster a spirit of cooperation and understanding among students." Only 6.6 percent of the directors saw this function as their total responsibility.

Almost one-half, 47.5 percent, of the superintendents believed it was the human relations director's total responsibility to "consult with the school administration and faculty to identify and isolate particular human relations problems." Only 13.3 percent of the directors saw this function as their total responsibility. As might be expected, this disparity of responses was also reflected in the two groups' perceptions of how "little" responsibility the human relations director had for the function. Twenty percent of the directors felt they had little responsibility, while a miniscule 2.5 percent of the superintendents regarded the director's responsibility as "little."

Over one-half, 55 percent, of the superintendents, as compared with 26.6 percent of the directors, considered it the total responsibility of the director to "attend faculty meetings and other meetings if requested by the principal."
At the same time, only 37.5 percent of the superintendents viewed this function as a partial responsibility of the human relations director, while 73.3 percent of the directors felt it should be a shared responsibility.

An almost identical degree of disagreement was shown concerning the function of "working cooperatively with school staff to maintain open channels of communication between faculty members, between faculty and parents and other school personnel." Twenty percent of the directors saw this as their total responsibility, while 73.3 percent regarded it as the director's partial responsibility. On the other hand, twice as many, 45 percent, of the superintendents viewed this function as a total responsibility of the director, while 52.5 percent of the directors saw it as shared or partial.

In the opposite direction, exactly twice as many human relations directors, 20 percent, as superintendents, 10 percent, believed it was their total responsibility to "actively recruit teachers of ethnic minorities." This disagreement was perhaps more importantly shown in the "no responsibility" responses of the two groups. None of the human relations directors felt that they should have no responsibility for recruitment of minority staff, but a rather significant 25 percent of the superintendents expressed this view.
Forty percent of the human relations directors regarded the "development and evaluation of programs for bilingual persons" as their total responsibility, but only 15 percent of the superintendents agreed. In fact, 22.5 percent of the superintendents indicated that the human relations director had little responsibility for this function, a figure with which only 6.6 percent of the directors agreed.

Finally, more than twice as many human relations directors, 26.6 percent, as superintendents, 12.5 percent, thought they had total responsibility for "planning to achieve racial and cultural balance in the schools." The two groups were reasonably close in their perceptions as to "shared" and "little" responsibility for the function but, again, differed in the "no responsibility" response. None of the directors felt that they had no responsibility, but 12.5 percent of the superintendents felt this to be the case.

In general terms, human relations directors and superintendents expressed agreement in their perceptions of the human relations specialist's role. The eight functions in which disparities were shown may, however, be considered sensitive areas in which gaps in the assumption or lack of assumption of responsibility by the human relations director might prove troublesome. Disagreement on a relatively few functions and an attending
inactivity in those areas could conceivably outweigh the corresponding role perceptions evidenced by the groups.

Question fifteen (question six for the superintendents) asked, "Has your school system entered into a cooperative arrangement with a nearby college or university whereby the college provides some services in the area of human relations in your system?" Three of the specialists, 20 percent, answered in the affirmative. One district utilized the Center for Public School Ethnic Studies at the University of Texas at Austin in many human relations activities, which the respondent did not enumerate. For the second district, Pan American University at Edinburg, Texas, provided consultant services to school administrators, courses on black culture for professional advancement of public school personnel, and in-service training of personnel. The third district did not have a continuing arrangement with any single university, but contracted for consultant service or other assistance on an individual basis. The numbers and percentages of answers are reported in Table X.

As Table X indicates, ten superintendents stated that their districts had arrangements with colleges for assistance in their human relations programs. Four school districts were assisted in providing in-service training, extension courses, and general consultative services in
TABLE X
HUMAN RELATIONS SPECIALISTS AND SUPERINTENDENTS REPORTING SUPPORTIVE ARRANGEMENTS WITH COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arrangements with Colleges and Universities</th>
<th>Distribution of Responses</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Specialists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools with arrangements</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools with no arrangements</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

human relations by the University of Texas at Austin. One superintendent, in addition to the University of Texas, listed East Texas State University at Commerce, Sam Houston State University at Huntsville, and Stephen F. Austin University at Nacogdoches as having provided assistance with in-service education. Two other districts reported arrangements with Stephen F. Austin University. One district received assistance in project planning and in helping to solve problems as they arose, while the second school system noted general consultative aid. East Texas State University was listed by a second school district as providing consultants for a seminar in human relations.
for the teachers. One district reported an arrangement for general consultative service with Bishop College in Dallas, and another district utilized West Texas State University at Canyon for consultation and for workshop leadership in the area of human relations. Finally, one district had an arrangement with North Texas State University at Denton for assistance with workshops for teachers.

Question four on the superintendent's form and question sixteen on the director's questionnaire asked if additional services from colleges and universities were needed by local school districts. Two of the three human relations directors who reported current arrangements with colleges listed additional services needed. One asked that colleges "train teachers to be facilitators with students' and parents' groups," and the other expressed the need for additional "consultative assistance." Three other human relations directors, who did not report current arrangements with a college or university, listed the following services as needed by school systems: (1) make prospective teachers more aware of the different traditions of ethnic groups that they might encounter in the classroom; (2) provide "real life-like" in-service programs; (3) be able to provide more teacher workshops; and (4) provide more consultants trained in human relations.
Of the ten superintendents who reported arrangements with a college or university, four listed additional services needed by school districts. One suggested "special assistance as the need arises," and another noted that colleges "need to supply us prospective teachers that are aware of the problems we face." Two other superintendents expressed the need for the provision of courses in human relations for graduate credit, and one of those respondents listed human relations training and an advanced degree in human relations as additional needs. Six of the superintendents who did not have an arrangement with a college or university responded with suggestions. While they are not unlike some of those noted above, they are listed as follows: (1) offer special human relations programs geared to assist new teachers with adjustment; (2) make human relations training a part of the teacher training program; (3) provide resources for local staff development; (4) provide resource people for adult classes; and (5) provide in-service programs for professional staff members.

The human relations specialists' questionnaire asked respondents to express whether or not they were satisfied with their titles and, if they were not satisfied, to indicate what they thought their title should be. Three of the specialists, 20 percent, were dissatisfied. One of those believed the title, "Assistant Superintendent
for Administration and Community Relations," would be more indicative of the functions he carried out. A second specialist felt that the title, "Administrative Assistant for Human Relations," would be more applicable to his duties, and the third respondent would change his title to "Assistant Superintendent for Instruction."

Both forms of the questionnaire asked how the efforts of the human relations director had been accepted at the local level. All of the specialists responded and described their acceptance with terms ranging from "lukewarm" to "good." Six of the responses, 40 percent, could be categorized as somewhat less than desirable, as specialists employed such words as "adequate," "fair," and "fair to good," to describe their feelings. Three of those six declared that brown and black reception was good, but white acceptance was less than hoped for. Six other specialists, 40 percent, felt that their efforts were very well received by the local district and offered descriptions such as "fine," "good," and "very well." Overall, a majority, approximately 60 to 70 percent, of those who responded appeared pleased with the acceptance of the efforts of the human relations directors at the local level, while the remainder saw acceptance as "mixed" and leaving something to be desired.

Both groups of respondents were asked to "list improvements in human relations directly attributable
to the human relations program." Ten of the directors, or 66.6 percent, responded, but one individual stated that specific improvements were "unknown, since human relations basically is not objectively measured." The other nine respondents listed the following improvements:

1. Recruitment of seventeen minority teachers (there were only three before the human relations program); increased student participation as evidenced by two Mexican-American cheerleaders and one Negro cheerleader where all six were formerly white and by the election of a black male athlete and a Mexican-American female to top honors ("this kind of participation had never prevailed in the high school before the human relations program").

2. No community unrest the last two years; the community, for the first time in its history, elected a black man to the Board of Trustees.

3. This third year, suspensions have decreased, dropout rates are lower, and attendance is higher, and all of this while the student population is growing.

4. Fewer fights at school; students feel free to come to the counselors and talk about any problem.

5. A noticeably better adjustment by minority students to school situations.

6. Open and free communications between the director and all the teachers, principals, parents, and students have created a warm atmosphere in a small school.
7. Improved performance level of students; improved self-image of students.

8. Improved programs and facilities.

9. Improved discipline; fewer dropouts; interracial extracurricular activities.

Superintendents listed the following improvements directly attributable to human relations programs in their districts:

1. Awareness of the problem—better understanding of contributions to this country by all citizens; recognition of Cinco de Mayo and other important ethnic holidays; mitigation of racial tension.

2. Better understanding concerning minority group problems; better evaluation of minority group characteristics; clarification of human values in relationship to different ethnic groups.

3. Good, effective communication with clubs and all community groups.

4. Successful student-to-student interactions; well-received orientation programs; courses in black history and culture.

5. Successful implementation of a desegregation plan which includes bussing of students between twenty-three schools.

6. Definitely better community-school understanding.
7. Very few "incidents" in schools the past two years; absolutely no problems with personnel who participated in human relations workshops.

8. More cooperation between students of different ethnic backgrounds; more cooperative and productive relationships fostered among parents, especially among the adult advisory groups; improved teacher awareness of student differences directly attributable to ethnic differences and their human qualities.

9. Many more children are receiving needed services through human relations activities.

10. Reluctant movement toward recognition of minority group needs by teachers, administrators, and board of education.

11. Improved minority group participation on advisory committees.

12. Improved affective learning, though this is difficult to measure.

In general, those responses given by both specialists and superintendents indicate improved awareness and consideration for members of different races and cultures. Many of these districts are apparently experiencing improved cooperation and participation in school activities by all segments of the community. In short, it appears that people have been pulled together by a conscious and concerted effort to improve their relationships.
Few of the respondents expressed second thoughts about their human relations programs. Both forms of the questionnaire asked, "What, in retrospect, would you do differently should you be responsible for planning and implementing another human relations program?" Two or 13.3 percent of the human relations directors offered suggestions. One specialist would solicit "more student advice and concentrate on better home-school communications," while the other "would begin the annual human relations program in the summer with teacher, parent, and administrator in-service programs." Six of the forty school superintendents, 15 percent, suggested changes. One superintendent would "set specific dates, times, and places for adult advisory meetings rather than general." Another would "try some way to point out the importance of human relations (in a better way)--insist on total support, and set up a resource center so that it is centrally located." Two of the superintendents would intensify and extend the scope of the training phase before implementing the program, and one respondent would plan a more extensive program of community meetings and home visitations. Finally, the sixth respondent would "intensify the entire effort" and would plan a definite program of follow-up sessions in the human relations training phase.

Table XI indicates the groups that respondents considered most resistant to desegregation efforts and the
human relations program. There was no intention to imply that all school districts had experienced overt resistance to desegregation, but it was known that many had had various signs of discord. Two of the reporting districts indicated that they had experienced little difficulty.

**TABLE XI**

**GROUPS DEMONSTRATING MOST RESISTANCE TO DESEGREGATION***

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Group A</th>
<th>Group B</th>
<th>Distribution of Responses</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Specialists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Citizens</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Administrators</td>
<td>Brown</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Students</td>
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</tr>
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<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*"N"--number.

Both the human relations directors and the superintendents rated white citizens as the most resistant, with 60 percent of the directors and 45 percent of the superintendents assigning this group the number one. There was minor
disagreement, however, between directors and superintendents as to the second and third most resistant groups. Twenty percent of the human relations directors indicated that administrators and the brown population were most resistant, while superintendents saw teachers and the black community as the second most resistant groups. Both groups of respondents agreed that students and other minority community members were least resistant to desegregation efforts and human relations activities.

It is a truism that each school district in each community has its own uniqueness and that the term human relations means different things to different people. With this in mind, school officials were asked to "describe briefly any specific technique that you discovered that had especial appeal and/or unusual effectiveness in the implementation of your program." More than one-half of the human relations directors and one-third of the superintendents listed some things which they had found to be especially helpful and which might be of value for others. These may be thought of as "things to do." All of the responses are listed below. While the school districts are not identified, their enrollments are included so that the size of the school system where each technique had been successful is apparent. The suggestions given by the human relations directors are given first.
1. School number one with an enrollment of 7,527: involve students in planning, involve teachers in planning, and treat human relations program as a total process, not black versus white or white versus brown.

2. School number two with an enrollment of 1,725: have all teachers visit in the homes of their students.

3. School number three with an enrollment of 4,600: make a public pronouncement that fairness to everyone and favoritism to none will be the first consideration and rigidly practice that philosophy.

4. School number four with an enrollment of 7,000: have "rap" sessions between whites and blacks, have superintendent meet regularly with student groups, and implement a plan to insure black student participation in extracurricular activities (cheerleaders, majorettes, etc.).

5. School number five with an enrollment of 3,200: practice "really listening" to people's complaints, have "rap" sessions between students, teachers, and parents, provide tutorial service for students, and assist students who want to go to college to obtain information and necessary aid.

6. School number six with an enrollment of 3,200: give assurance that all will receive fair treatment and emphasize treating students as individuals.
7. School number seven with an enrollment of 1,500: make pictures of children involved in school activities and concentrate on making children like school.

8. School number eight with an enrollment of 6,900: provide social gatherings for parents, teachers, and administrators.

The successful human relations techniques reported by superintendents are listed below.

1. School number one with an enrollment of 1,219: treat everyone with dignity and understanding, realize that there are some worthwhile characteristics in each individual, and try to be color-blind in relationships.

2. School number two with an enrollment of 3,321: involve parents and students in the functioning of adult and student advisory committees and mutual respect and understanding will result.

3. School number three with an enrollment of 3,251: treat all students as humans first and show an interest in each one of them and the rest will take care of itself.

4. School number four with an enrollment of 4,089: effectiveness will be enhanced by grass-roots student and teacher participation in planning the program from the very beginning.

5. School number five with an enrollment of 3,179: involve students in athletics.
6. School number six with an enrollment of 5,997: involve parents in training sessions on communication skills and cultural awareness.

7. School number seven with an enrollment of 1,565: have the Director of Federal Programs visit the public at their places of business and have every teacher visit in the home of every student through released time by using substitute teachers.

8. School number eight with an enrollment of 198,238: black students will find especial appeal in information on black students, brown students will find especial appeal in information on brown students, white and other community groups will find especial appeal in games which require the cooperation of all.

9. School number nine with an enrollment of 74,309: without approaching it from a black-white standpoint, help teachers learn to see other people as human beings rather than as stereotypes.

10. School number ten with an enrollment of 1,701: treat all students alike both in privileges and responsibilities. The treatment of a separate group better than another widens the gap of understanding.

11. School number eleven with an enrollment of 25,912: train teachers to train other teachers and staff.

12. School number twelve with an enrollment of 7,167: plan early, involve teachers and students in planning,
and do not treat human relations as black versus white
or white versus brown, etc.

Summarizing the statements of human relations
directors and superintendents, the key to successful
human relations endeavors appears to be the involvement
of students, parents, and teachers in the total process.
Equally important, it seems, is the conscious effort,
through educational and training programs, to under-
stand the differences between people. A third technique
both specialists and superintendents mentioned again and
again is the need to emphasize the individuality of
students and to express an active interest in each of
them. Finally, many of the respondents suggested the
provision of information about the contributions of
different racial and ethnic groups in the history of
America.

Techniques that have proved to be especially important
to the success of human relations programs should be con-
sidered. Equally important, perhaps more important, are
those events, procedures, or climates that should be
approached with caution. These could be viewed as things
"not to do." With the idea that practitioners who have
experienced the hard-knocks of program implementation
would have something to report, respondents were asked
to relate those items about which they would caution
others to give careful attention. Human relations directors listed the following admonitions to others in their positions:

1. "Be sure all your principals and teachers are involved in the planning and decisions."

2. "Don't try to gain the favor of minority races by doing favors for them."

3. "Be cautious about your selection of staff members and unilateral administrative or board decisions without consultation with citizen and/or student groups."

4. "Approach with caution the solicitation of help from the Anglo community with your program, the discussion of events with board members, and be responsible to only one person."

5. "Be careful about the way you sell the program to teachers and students."

6. "Be cautious about the way you promote cultural awareness."

7. "Keep parents and Board of Education closely and fully informed."

Superintendents cited the following points that they would encourage their counterparts in other districts to approach with caution:

1. "Try to include black students in all activities such as cheerleaders, school government, school favorites, etc."
2. "Be careful about night activities involving students and out-of-town overnight trips."

3. "Programs with large groups seem to generate most resentment."

4. "Be cautious about the way you approach cultural awareness."

5. "Think carefully about forced participation."

6. "Be careful about showing favoritism in treatment or privileges."

7. "Be careful about the use of lay citizens."

8. "Take plenty of time in planning your program--involve all races or minority groups in your planning!"

9. "Very few people can work out in the community and in the schools without creating as many problems as he solves."

Finally, one superintendent stated that one would be well-advised to be cautious in the "whole area." Although it is perhaps an over-simplification, this statement may be the best summary of the views expressed by human relations directors and superintendents. It seems to sum up the thoughts of both groups with the idea that utmost sensitivity to the needs of a wide range of individuals is essential to a successful human relations program.

As programs are implemented and progress through various malfunctions, many efforts are often re-directed.
The relatively brief history of human relations programs and the desegregation of schools prompted the request for respondents to list additional things needed to improve the human relations climate in their schools. Over 50 percent of the human relations directors and 25 percent of the superintendents listed needs. The following responses were given by the directors:

1. Adult and community groups such as clubs and churches need to be desegregated.

2. More good minority race administrators and counselors are needed.

3. Housing within the community needs to be integrated.

4. The board of trustees and citizen groups need a broader understanding of administrative problems.

5. More cultural awareness on part of Anglo teachers and administrators is needed.

6. The school board needs to be better educated regarding necessary changes that will alter the course of school through human relations.

7. Community pride needs to be built in black and brown citizens.

8. The role of minority citizens in school and community life needs to be promoted.

9. Interactions between teachers and students, teachers and parents, and teachers and administrators need support.
10. More time is needed because many of the problems encountered are going to take time to resolve.

11. More money is needed to finance human relations programs.

12. More expertise is needed in helping school personnel to work with students from different ethnic groups.

Superintendents listed a number of the same needs to improve the human relations climate in their schools. An overriding concern, however, seemed to be for better education and training for school personnel and citizens. Superintendents listed the following needs:

1. An expanded human relations training program for teachers and administrators is needed.

2. More parental involvement in human relations activities is sought.

3. Better trained teachers are required.

4. Improved education for all school personnel in the area of human relations is needed.

5. Greater home-school interaction through planned activities is needed.

6. More money is required for the human relations programs.

7. A better education of school personnel as to minority group characteristics and culture is necessary.

8. All concerned need a better understanding of human relations concepts such as group cohesiveness.
9. More interaction is needed between all involved groups, such as teacher-student, teacher-teacher, teacher-staff, and parent-teacher.

10. Teachers and administrators need a better acceptance of human relations ideas.

11. All concerned should pay more time and more attention to home conditions in understanding attitudes.

12. An increased clarification of human values is needed.

13. Better physical facilities such as small rooms for small groups and places for students to relax and socialize are needed.

14. More and better cultural awareness programs are needed.

15. Required human relations training should be available for all school personnel.

Some writers in professional literature have reported negative reactions to human relations programs, particularly in training activities as they relate to desegregation. School officials participating in this survey were asked if their human relations activities had produced any negative results and an overwhelming majority, 87 percent of the directors and 95 percent of the superintendents, replied "no." Two directors reported negative results. One stated that the "community is still embittered over the fact
that they had to desegregate. Most of the bitterness has been placed on the doorstep of the administration." The second director commented that the "Anglo population is dissatisfied because of the help to minority children, and the school board members classify this [human relations office] as another welfare office." Two superintendents expressed negative results from their human relations programs. "Human relations is a dirty word in our district. The reaction is that we have over killed," wrote one superintendent. The other superintendent stated that "people here have not liked the implication that they are prejudiced." A fair conclusion drawn from these reports seems to be that most of the school districts' human relations activities related to desegregation have been favorably received and have produced positive results. At least they have not created negative reactions.

The school districts selected for this study were all participants in federally-financed desegregation activities under the Emergency School Assistance Program. It was assumed that all components of those programs, including the staffs, were paid for from federal funds. Recognition that relatively few school systems can financially afford many staff positions in excess of those allocated under the state minimum foundation program, superintendents were asked if, in their opinion, a human
relations specialist position should be included in the minimum foundation program allocation. Respondents were asked to mark "yes," "no," or "undecided." The information is reported in Table XII.

### TABLE XII

HUMAN RELATIONS POSITION AS A MINIMUM FOUNDATION PROGRAM ALLOCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Relations Specialist As a Minimum Foundation Program Position</th>
<th>Distribution of Response</th>
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<td>Number</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>No--should not be a MFP allocation</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>40</td>
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</table>

Review of the data in Table XII shows that a majority, 60 percent, of the participating superintendents believed that a human relations specialist should be included in the state allocation of professional personnel. Should this be done, it would have important implications for teacher training colleges and universities in providing preparation programs and certification requirements.
Personal Interviews

In order to further investigate the perceived role of the human relations director in selected public schools in Texas, personal visits were made to five school districts. These districts were selected from a list of schools provided by officials in the regional United States Office of Education in Dallas. These schools operated some of the top, ongoing human relations programs according to U. S. Office of Education officials, who had field monitoring and review responsibilities for ESAP activities.

The school districts and school officials visited are as follows:

1. Abilene Independent School District--A. E. Wells, Superintendent, and Nano Ortiz, Director of Human Relations.


3. Dallas Independent School District--Rogers Barton, Associate Superintendent for Development, and Alfred L. Roberts, Director of Community Relations.


5. Galveston Independent School District--Eli Douglas, Superintendent, and Frank Windom, Coordinator of Community and Human Relations.
The information gained from these interviews consistently substantiated the information collected from the mailed questionnaires. In every instance, the school officials visited seemed to be highly informed about their programs and were ready and eager to discuss their human relations activities.

Regarding the responsibility of the human relations director for the forty-four functions listed in the questionnaire, the interviewed officials corresponded more closely in their responses than their counterparts who reacted to mailed questionnaires. Interviewed officials consistently viewed the director's responsibility as "shared" or "partial" for the vast majority of the functions, and all indicated that getting everyone involved was a key issue in their success. In each of the districts, this philosophy seemed to be a source of pride to those who participated in the study.

The director in four of the five districts assumed total responsibility for three functions: providing educational materials and assistance in the area of inter-group education, originating printed and other audio-visual materials for the purpose of developing better understanding of human relations problems, and continuously seeking to provide materials for a resource center to support studies of current patterns and conditions of
ethnic groups. In addition to the functions for which the directors assumed total responsibility, there were two functions for which all of the directors assumed no responsibility: the adult basic education program and development and evaluation of programs for bilingual persons. In one of the districts, no adult basic education program was offered, and the district did not have any Mexican-American or other non-English-speaking students enrolled.

One district did not employ a single individual to coordinate the human relations program. While the district was involved in a broad range of human relations activities, the responsibilities were charged to, and assumed by, various members of the superintendent's executive team. Those activities which involved personnel development were the responsibility of the personnel division. Functions which consisted of program materials, techniques, and procedures were handled in the program development division. Those activities which sought to involve parents and other segments of the community were coordinated through the communications and community relations division. In many instances, these responsibilities overlapped, and the coordination of them was handled during the regular executive team meeting.

All the districts had either entered into a cooperative arrangement with colleges or universities, whereby the college provided some services in the area of human
relations to the district, or had contracted for specific services. One school district utilized the services of Texas Agricultural and Mechanical University and the local community college for consultative services and human relations seminars. Another district received consultative services, program development services, seminar services, and extension courses from Southern Methodist University, Dallas University, Bishop College, North Texas State University, Texas Women's University, and East Texas State University. Two districts extensively utilized the Center for Public School Ethnic Studies of the University of Texas at Austin. The other district had an agreement with Tyler State College and with East Texas State University for extension courses and for seminar-type programs for human relation specialists and administrators.

Four of the five districts listed additional services in the area of human relations the local school district needed from colleges and universities. Three of the schools indicated additional needs for sensitivity seminars, and one school official noted the continuing need for more assistance in the psychological and the sociological areas of human relations. One district needed additional human relations extension courses, and another wanted more expert technical assistance in human relations programming. Four of the human relations directors and three of the superintendents emphasized the need for colleges and universities
to more thoroughly train prospective teachers in human relations skills and sensitivities.

Four of the superintendents and four of the human relations directors were highly pleased with the local reception of the efforts of the human relations director. They used such terms as "excellent," "well-received," "excellent support," "highly favorable," and "extremely well" to describe their acceptance. One superintendent said the efforts were "accepted in varying degrees." One human relations director said, "only in crisis--otherwise many people did not care for suggestions." In this last case, the superintendent in the corresponding district responded that the director was "well-received," thus indicating different perceptions of the response to the director's efforts as viewed from different vantage points.

Both groups of respondents were definite in their attitudes that the human relations program had positive results. Directors listed the following "improvements in human relations directly attributable to the human relations program":

1. Excellent relations between the faculty, administration, and the PTA.

2. Acceptance of black teachers, who are now actively participating in school activities.

3. Good human relations in the entire community.
4. Social and other interrelationships between black and white teachers and administrators.

5. Good input from black faculty members in all areas of school operation.


7. The addition of twenty-five professional staff members, many of them minority race members.

8. Week-end workshops for students and teachers, thus improving the understanding of others and providing more harmony.

In their responses to the same question, superintendents listed the following improvements in human relations which they attributed to their human relations program:

1. More relaxed and congenial school atmosphere.

2. Improvement in total school relationship, including community, parents, students, and staff interactions.

3. Better Anglo understanding of minority cultures.

4. The establishment of tri-ethnic student organizations on secondary school campuses.

5. "Operation Involvement" beginning with needs assessment and involving everyone from central office staff to building level in planning and also involving representatives of teachers and students who meet with the executive team for purposes of discussions and recommendations.
6. The placement of counselors in elementary schools.
7. The addition of resource teachers and nurses in Title I schools which were heavily populated by minority students.
8. The addition of community aides in schools for the purpose of liaison between home and school.
9. Immediate improvement of children's attitudes toward school.
10. Elimination of most of the problems of discrimination against minority pupils.
11. The establishment of community advisory groups and student advisory groups that drastically improved school atmosphere.
12. Fewer disturbances at school.
13. Increased knowledge of people about how the schools operate, how the school board of education functions, and how the school administration is carried out.
14. Almost no militant groups appearing before the board of education with unreasonable demands.
15. Very little hostility directed toward principals of schools that were predominantly white by black students who are being bussed to the schools.
16. A significant increase in attendance at schools that historically have had poor attendance.

This rather lengthy list of improvements that administrators and human relations directors regarded as directly
attributable to their human relations programs has several implications. First, the improved atmosphere has important connotations for the teaching-learning process. Second, the increased community understanding of the schools and the citizen's sense of importance to the educational process would have a great deal to do with the support for proposed programs. Third, the increased holding power of the schools would have immediate financial impact through increased average daily attendance allocations and would also produce a more stable, self-supporting generation of graduates.

Two of the directors and three of the superintendents responded to the question, "What, in retrospect, would you do differently should you be responsible for planning and implementing another human relations program?" One human relations director said he would carry the philosophy, purposes, and activities of the human relations program to the community service clubs and organizations and to the churches on a broader and continuing basis. "I would try to do a better job of keeping everyone, from the board of education to the least of the minority groups, fully informed," he stated. The second director indicated that he would like to see more released time, more opportunities provided for principals to attend a continuing series of workshops in human relations, and additional recruitment of minority teachers.
The superintendents cited several changes they would make in their programs. One superintendent indicated that he would provide differentiated staff training experiences so that a staff member could choose what he specifically needed. "You should not send everyone to a T-group when some have already been through such a training session," he declared. Other alterations were allowance for flexible planning so that an individual campus faculty could determine its needs and enter into a program designed for those specific assessed needs, a stronger attempt to break down feelings of resentment toward the specialists through more thorough training for the specialists before they go into the field and through a better communication of the program to the people, and the selection of at least one member of each of the major racial or ethnic groups to serve as a human relations specialist in the program.

Both specialists and superintendents seemed to agree that a thorough communication of the human relations program and activities to the total community was essential. They also indicated that more training for the human relations director, his staff, and other personnel would be desirable.

Responses of administrators and human relations directors substantiated those of the larger group in
regard to the groups most resistant to desegregation and human relations activities designed to alleviate problems. Both groups ranked citizens as most resistant, teachers second, administrators third, and students fourth. White, black, brown, and other ranked one, two, three, and four in terms of racial groups resisting the changes necessary for total integration.

The final question, which evoked considerably more in-depth responses from interviewed respondents, requested that respondents "list those circumstances, events, procedures, etc. that you would encourage others in your position to approach with caution." One human relations director declared, "Don't rush into a bunch of quick changes. Most people over twenty-one years of age have set ways and abrupt changes can cause trouble." A second director warned, "Beware of people who want to build better black schools and use the best teachers you have to do the job." A third director stated, "Be cautious about board elections during the implementation of a program especially if there is tenseness or feelings of distrust in the community. These feelings tend to be magnified at times like this."

Superintendents listed a number of items or procedures that other superintendents would do well to approach with caution or should be sure to emphasize thoroughly in
planning. The following quotations are responses of the superintendents:

I would not select someone for the human relations position who knew nothing about the particular political problems involved in a given town—in other words, I would use someone who had been there, who knew a lot of people on a first-name basis, knew how they lived, where they lived, and why they lived that way—someone who had developed the respect of a large segment of the population. I would make sure the individual was capable of communicating with all the races, that he was involved in various community affairs, that he wasn't a know-it-all type but a down-to-earth, concerned, dedicated individual.

Don't make everyone take the same courses. Don't put a college professor up there on television and have him talk about human relations. Don't use "canned" kinds of things—grow your own or else adapt yours from something else someone else is having success with.

I think the trouble that we all have, as superintendents at times when we're starting a new program in the school—we hear about a program in another school and we think that this is the type of program that would be a wonderful program to install in our own system, and yet we do not know enough about the details of the program, and the problems that might come from the program, to really put the program in immediately without doing a lot of study. [For] any new program that we put in the school... we should not go all out the first year. Let the program grow—start the program and then as you see needs develop, add to the program.
Be sure your board of education is together on the proposed program. Be sure to emphasize fairness to everyone. Be careful that you don't appear evasive or less than "open" in your actions, and be careful about lack of communication even when you think you have good communication with everyone.

Be certain that your public is fully informed about your program and be alert to half-truths and telephone campaigns among dissidents.

Superintendents and human relations directors agreed that thorough planning, open and continuous communication, a variety of human relations activities, a deliberate beginning, and continuous assessment of the climate and atmosphere with a resultant re-direction or re-alignment of programming are elements of the human relations program that would help to avert troublesome issues. More than that, however, they agreed that all of these activities need to be led by a person who is known and respected by a large segment of the total community, one who can meet everyone on their home grounds and communicate effectively with them.

Summary

In order to study the role of the director of human relations in selected Texas schools, a survey questionnaire, "The Human Relations Specialist in the Desegregation of Public Schools," was devised. The questionnaire was validated by a panel of experts selected from colleges,
public schools, the Texas Education Agency, the Center for Public School Ethnic Studies, and the regional United States Office of Education. The questionnaire was mailed to superintendents of fifty-eight school districts who received desegregation assistance through the Federal Emergency School Assistance Program and to the individuals named by the superintendents as primarily responsible for human relations activities. Special emphasis was directed to the following: (1) training, experience, qualifications, and other personal data about the human relations specialist; (2) the amount of responsibility the human relations specialist assumed in a wide array of human relations program functions; and (3) the human relations programs themselves.

In order to investigate more fully the role of the human relations director in the desegregation efforts of the selected school districts, personal visits were made to five school systems, and interviews were conducted with the superintendent or his representative and with the human relations director. The comments and opinions of these officials, while more detailed through discussion, generally confirmed results gained from the use of the mailed questionnaire.
CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has been primarily concerned with the emerging role and status of the director of human relations. Chiefly, it has been an investigation of the evolvement of human relations thought, the development of human relations programs in industry and in education, and the role of the human relations specialist in the desegregation of selected public schools in Texas.

Summary

Human relations thought and philosophy had its beginning as a formal movement with the Hawthorne studies conducted by Elton Mayo and his colleagues in cooperation with Western Electric Company. While these investigations signalized the advent of a strong surge of interest in the social side of man at work, the beginning of human relations was rooted in earlier sociological theory. Mayo became known as the "father of human relations" as a result of his research efforts directed toward the relationship between the worker's morale and productivity. Mayo's findings led industrial leaders to become concerned with the social needs of workers. Many industrialists,
misunderstanding the full significance of Mayo's tenets, confused the human relations concept with laissez-faire procedures. Others returned to the earlier paternalistic activities of such individuals as Robert Owen, the nineteenth-century British businessman and philanthropist, and Henry Ford, his twentieth-century counterpart.

As industrial organizations grew larger and more complex, human relations problems multiplied, and there was widespread fear that the common man was being devoured by the organization monster. In the face of federal legislation designed to protect the rights of individuals and groups employed in the giant factories and business concerns, industrialists recognized that they required new techniques and methods of supervising workers.

The social sciences, namely sociology, psychology, and anthropology, responded to the needs of industry, and an ever-increasing number of investigations of the individual in groups ensued. New methods of integrating man into organizations, of motivating him, and of rewarding him were discovered. The human relations movement was absorbed in the studies of organizational behavior. Behavioral scientists such as Maslow, McGregor, Argyris, Herzberg, and Likert embellished Mayo's philosophy with a more modern approach to the understanding of the sophisticated contemporary worker, and their theories
and methods are widely-known and practiced by many of the leading industrial establishments today.

Less has been done in the field of education than in industry, notwithstanding the efforts of educators such as John Dewey and the plans of the founders of the "common school," where equal educational opportunity for all was envisioned. The growth of the American school is analogous to the development of the industrial empires, and the resulting mechanistic organizations charged with the massive task of educating all of the multitudes has been viewed by increasing numbers as inhuman, bureaucratic enterprises, where the individual became lost in the system. Segregation of the races was practiced in schools across the country, and discrimination against minorities was more often than not perpetuated by well-intentioned educators, citizens, and governmental agencies.

The Civil Rights Act of 1954 made it unlawful for schools to segregate students because of race and signalled the beginning of two decades of turmoil and confrontations between the races as the schools became battlegrounds of social conflict. The plight of minority students has been vividly depicted by writers such as Charles Silberman and Jonathan Kozol. The cold aloofness of the traditional school has been pictured by educators such as Goodland, Combs, Taba, and Wiles. Many professional groups such as
the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development have begun to concentrate their efforts toward humanizing the schools, and such groups as state teachers' associations are increasingly concerned with human relations.

The federal government, as it has sought to enforce civil rights legislation, has recognized the need for additional support for local school districts in their desegregation efforts. Amid the campus riots of 1969 and 1970, federal support was forthcoming on several fronts. One area of federal aid was the Emergency School Assistance Program (ESAP), whereby federal funds earmarked for desegregation efforts were made available to schools. Many school districts utilized these funds to begin human relations programs.

To study these human relations programs and the role of the program directors in desegregation activities in Texas, an extensive questionnaire was directed to the superintendents of schools receiving ESAP funds and to the individuals named by those superintendents as having primary responsibility for the programs. While it was not known how many of the districts were in fact engaging in human relations programs per se, the fact that these schools were actively promoting desegregation efforts was the basis for their selection as participants in this study. The questionnaire, with accompanying directions,
was mailed to the superintendents of fifty-eight school districts in Texas. A total of forty usable returns were received. This represented 69 percent of the total. Thirty-four superintendents responded with the name of an individual who directed the human relations activities of the district. Two individuals were no longer employed by the district, and eleven of the superintendents indicated that they assumed responsibility for the human relations program in their districts, leaving a total of twenty-three specialists. A different, more lengthy form of the questionnaire was mailed to the twenty-three specialists, and fifteen usable returns were received. This represented 65 percent of the total. These questionnaires were designed to provide data concerning the training, experience, qualifications, and other personal data of the human relations director, the amount of responsibility the specialist assumed in human relations functions, and the role of the specialist and the programs. The data from these questionnaires are summarized in Chapter V.

In order to further investigate the role of the human relations specialist and the human relations programs and to confirm the data collected from the mailed questionnaires, personal visits were made to five participating districts whose programs were rated among the top ten in Texas by
monitoring officials from the regional United States Office of Education in Dallas. Interviews were conducted with superintendents or their representatives and with the human relations directors or coordinators.

In this study, both the historical and descriptive methods of research were employed in developing the background and approach to the study. The survey technique was used to secure data and information.

Findings

A review of the data secured from the mailed questionnaires and from the interviews revealed the following general facts concerning the human relations director or specialist in the selected schools:

1. The person who directed human relations efforts did so under a variety of official titles. The two most prevalent titles were Assistant Superintendent and Director of Human Relations.

2. The majority of the programs were implemented in 1970 or 1971. The earliest ones were started in 1965.

3. Most of the human relations programs were implemented for the purpose of easing integration problems and for resolving resultant conflict.

4. One-third of the directors worked full time in the area of human relations, and the remainder had other responsibilities, generally in curriculum and instruction.
areas. About one-half of the part-time directors spent approximately 50 percent of their time on human relations.

5. Almost all the directors worked a full twelve-month year, including a paid vacation.

6. Human relations directors were paid an average annual salary of $14,132, and the majority received yearly dollar amounts (averaging $721) for expenses incurred in performing their duties.

7. All the directors reported directly to their superintendents and were members of the superintendent's council or executive team.

8. Less than half of the directors were operating under formal, written job descriptions.

9. A composite picture of the human relations director revealed a white male forty-four years of age. He held at least a master's degree and had valid certificates as a teacher and as an administrator. He had approximately twenty-three years of experience in education, and of that total, he had eleven years in the classroom, eight years as an administrator, and almost four years in his present position. He had lived in the community for fourteen years.

10. The human relations director had, on the average, a full-time secretary, a part-time clerical worker, five community aides, a home-school counselor or coordinator, and a resource human relations teacher.
11. The majority of the human relations directors spent over one-half of their time in regular in-office administrative work.

12. Human relations directors averaged seven hours per week on activities that had to be done outside their regular office hours.

13. Human relations specialists and superintendents generally expressed agreement on their perceptions of the role of the director in forty-four human relations functions. There were eight functions on which there was disagreement. In general terms, most of the functions were shared, but the director was expected to "head-up" the efforts in all of them.

14. Twenty percent of the schools had arrangements with colleges or universities, whereby the college provided assistance in human relations.

15. The type of services provided by the colleges and universities could be categorized as consultative, in-service training, workshop leadership, and extension courses.

16. Additional services districts would ask of colleges were more human relations training for prospective teachers, more consultants trained in human relations, advanced courses in human relations for teachers, and better resources to assist local staff development.
17. Directors of human relations were generally satisfied with their present titles. One-fifth, however, would change their titles to Assistant Superintendent for Human Relations.

18. A majority of the directors and their superintendents believed the efforts of the human relations director had received excellent local support.

19. Improvements in human relations that were attributed to the human relations programs can be broadly summarized as improved school climate, better communications between all groups, better understanding of different cultures, improved attendance, increased participation of all (particularly minority) students and parents, and a dramatic lessening of tensions between racial groups.

20. White citizens of the community were the most resistant to desegregation and human relations activities, and students of all racial groups were the least resistant.

21. The key to success in the human relations programs was the involvement of students, parents, and teachers in the total process from planning to decision-making. This was accomplished through the formation and operation of student advisory groups, adult advisory groups, and teacher advisory groups in matters of importance.

22. Superintendents and human relations directors should be cautious and alert to plan fully and carefully,
to exercise care in the way the program is promoted, to be sure all groups are represented, and to be sure the right person is selected to direct the human relations activities.

Conclusions

Within the bounds and framework of this study of the role of the human relations director and human relations programs in the desegregation of selected public schools in Texas, the following conclusions may reasonably be stated:

1. Industrial concerns have led the way in providing human relations programs. Educational institutions have lagged in comparison. To a large extent, this occurred because industry had the financial resources, while educational institutions did not.

2. As schools attempt to comply with desegregation mandates, there is an urgent need for organized human relations programs designed to promote increased understanding and consideration of different racial and ethnic groups.

3. More schools would mount a concerted human relations effort, if financial and technical assistance were available.

4. Although many school districts are operating formal human relations programs and are utilizing the
services of an individual to coordinate those efforts, the findings support the general conclusion that programs need the services of a director rather than a coordinator.

5. The fact that program coordinators are operating under a wide variety of official titles and with a wide range of training and experience suggests that an official position with a minimum job description should be added to the state educational program.

6. In conjunction with the establishment of a human relations specialist position, a definitive program of training and preparation would greatly enhance the success of human relations programs.

7. Human relations activities in public schools have suffered, or failed to materialize, under the weight of sheer numbers. The stresses of mass education have left classroom teachers with little time for individual, human relationships with children.

8. There is a definite need for colleges and universities to begin or to enlarge their programs in the human relations area, so they can provide for the training of human relations specialists and for a wider range of training for prospective teachers.

9. Human relations directors are assuming responsibility for a wide array of human relations functions. While a majority of these functions are assumed on a
"shared" basis with other professional personnel, the director is, nonetheless, expected to lead those efforts.

10. The human relations programs of the selected school districts are succeeding as evidenced by lessened tensions, reduced conflicts, improved school climates, and increased cooperation and participation by students, parents, and school personnel.

11. The opinion that more school districts, particularly those with large populations and several racial or ethnic groups, should have human relations programs and a trained individual to direct them is shared by many of the participating school officials.

Recommendations

On the basis of data from this study of the role of the human relations director and human relations programs in the desegregation of selected public schools in Texas, the following recommendations are made:

1. All educational institutions should begin positive programs of human relations activities if they have not already done so. Based upon the successes of the participants in this study, the benefits to be derived are substantial.

2. A human relations specialist position should be officially established and made a part of the state minimum foundation program.
3. The human relations specialist position should require certification by the Texas Education Agency.

4. The necessary study to determine certification requirements for the human relations specialist position should be undertaken by the Texas Education Agency in cooperation with colleges and universities.

5. Colleges and universities in Texas should increase their efforts to provide programs designed to qualify the human relations specialist for certification. Those efforts should include extensive training for prospective teachers in human relations as it applies not only to different racial and cultural groups but also to every child.

6. The humanization of the educational process should be made the focal point of improvement efforts by local, state, and national organizations. Overwhelming evidence from professional literature and from local experience indicates the necessity for a warm, interpersonal relationship between pupils, teachers, and administrators.

7. The classroom teacher unit (CTU) allocation formula of the minimum foundation program should be reduced from twenty-six to a number that will permit the classroom teacher to form the kind of close, personal relationship with each student that will provide the child with the sense of emotional security necessary to make the school experience rewarding to him.
APPENDIX A

THE HUMAN RELATIONS SPECIALIST IN THE
DESEGREGATION OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Form B (For Specialist)

School System ____________________________________________

Address ________________________________________________

                Street or Box       City

Name of respondent _______________________________________

District enrollment ______ Approximate ethnic distribution
of pupils:

American Indian _____ %; Black _____ %;

Brown _____ %; White _____ %

Other (please specify) ____________________________________

1. What is your title? _____________________________________

2. When was the human relations program first established?

   _______________________________________________________

3. What is the stated purpose of your program? _____________

   _______________________________________________________

4. Do you spend full time in the area of human relations?

   YES ________________________ NO _______________________

   If not full time approximately what percentage of your
   time is devoted to human relations activities? ______ %

   If NO, in what other area(s) do you function? ________

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5. Are you employed for a full 12-month year (including paid vacation)?
   YES ____________ NO ____________
   If NO what is the length of your work year __ mos.

6. What was your 1971-72 salary? $________________________
   + $________________________ for expenses.
   (if applicable)

7. Do you report directly to the superintendent?
   YES ____________ NO ____________
   If NO to whom do you report? (Please give official's full title.) ____________________________

8. Are you a member of the superintendent's cabinet (council)? YES ____________ NO ____________

9. Does your school system have (a) a formal, written job description and/or (b) a statement of qualifications for the position of the human relations specialist?
   (a) Job description: YES _____ NO _____
   (b) Statement of qualifications: YES _____ NO _____
   If YES for either (a) or (b) above, please enclose a copy.

10. Please give the following information regarding the person presently in the position:
    (a) EDUCATION: Bachelor's degree in _________________
        Minor in _________________
        Master's degree in _________________
        Minor in _________________
        Doctorate in _________________
        Minor in _________________
        Other pertinent education __________________
(b) EXPERIENCE:  Years in present position: __________

Years in educational administration or supervision (other than in present position): __________

Years teaching experience: __________

Other pertinent experience: __________

(C) CERTIFICATION:  Teacher ________ Supervisor ________

Administrator ________ Guidance counselor ________

Other (please specify) ________

(d) OTHER QUALIFICATIONS (please describe): __________

(e) PERSONAL DATA:

Age:  21-25 _______ 26-30 _______ 31-35 _______

36-40 _______ 41-45 _______ 46-50 _______

51-60 _______ Over 60 _______

Sex:  Male ________ Female ________

Race or ethnic origin:  White ________ Negro _______

Oriental ________ Mexican-American ________

American Indian ________

How long has the incumbent lived in the community?

All his life ________ Less than 5 years _______

5-9 years ________ 10-14 years _______

15-19 years ________ 20 years or more _______
11. How many persons are on the staff of the human relations specialist, excluding the specialist:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No. of full-time</th>
<th>No. of part-time</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clerical/secretarial</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraprofessional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(e.g. community aide)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional (please give titles)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>

12. On the average, in which of the following activities do you spend the greatest proportion of your working day, excluding unusual or crisis situations? Rank in order of importance, giving # 1 to the most time-consuming.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Activity</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regular in-office administrative work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meetings with other central office administrators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meetings with principals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meetings with students and student organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meetings with community service groups and social agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other (please specify)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. Approximately how many hours a week do you spend outside your regular working day in activities which are necessary to your job, but which must be done outside the normal working day? (e.g., attending evening meetings, students activities, consulting with parents)
14. How much responsibility do you have for each of the following areas?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STUDENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Plan and provide programs designed to assist students, faculty and administration to better understand and relate to one another in the school setting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Liaison with student organizations on human relations matters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Pupil personnel problems of a racial nature.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Assist students in establishing communication with community organizations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Assist students in communicating concerns and/or problems to school administration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Provide leadership in the development of a channel of communication for students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Insure that school personnel are kept informed regarding students' hardships.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Visitation of schools on a regular basis.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
14. continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Partial</th>
<th>Little</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

i. Assist student groups to plan activities designed to foster a spirit of cooperation and understanding among students.

j. Nurture and promote an open attitude of school personnel toward awareness of student problems and concerns.

k. Assist student groups in activities designed to promote a spirit of cooperation and understanding between students and adults.

SCHOOL STAFF

a. Cooperate with all members of the school staff in identifying, researching and seeking solutions to problems involving human relations in the educational context.

b. Consult with the school administration and faculty to identify and isolate particular human relations problems.

c. Work with local staffs in planning and implementing practicable solutions to local problems.

d. Provide educational materials and assistance in the area of intergroup education.
14. continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Partial</th>
<th>Little</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

e. Originate printed and other audio-visual materials for the purpose of developing better understanding of human relations problems.

f. Attend faculty meetings and other meetings if requested by principal.

g. Work cooperatively with school staff to maintain open channels of communication between faculty members, between faculty and parents and other school personnel.

h. Provide assistance in organizing human relations committees and meetings for the teachers and for parents.

i. Actively recruit teachers of ethnic minorities.

j. Aid minority organizations in bringing in outside experts for consultative purposes.

k. Train local professional personnel as group leaders for continuing in-service in human relations.

l. Teacher human relations program.
m. Orientation of new teachers in the human relations program and awareness of the various cultures of the community.

n. Continuously seek to provide new materials for a resource center to support studies of current patterns and conditions of ethnic groups.

COMMUNITY

a. Liaison with community service groups on human relations matters.

b. Public relations on human relations problems and activities.

c. Receive and process community complaints.

d. Liaison to area citizens advisory councils.

e. Develop and disseminate information about the services in the community such as employment offices, neighborhood service centers, service agencies and organizations.

f. Compile and disseminate information and background material relevant to the general area of human relations and to specific school problems involving these relations.
14. continued

g. Assessment of the human relations climate of the school community area at all times in order to create a more favorable and effective school program.

h. Assist in planning more effective programs encouraging cooperation and understanding between the school and the community.

i. Actively seek better involvement of parents and other community citizens in the school community councils.

j. Work to enhance more effective parent participation in school programs.

k. Develop and/or coordinate a program of volunteer service involving interested parents and women's groups whose members may assist in a number of school programs.

l. Serve as liaison between the central office administration and the Community Relations Committee of the Board.

m. Advise parents on school policies such as lunch programs, transportation, physical examinations and the like.
14. continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n. Provide welfare assistance to families so that they may secure the benefits available to them such as dental, medical, food and clothing.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>o. Liaison with local law enforcement agencies.</td>
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<tr>
<td>p. Adult basic education program.</td>
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<tr>
<td>q. Development and evaluation of programs for the culturally deprived.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r. Development and evaluation of programs for bilingual persons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s. Planning to achieve racial and cultural balance in schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t. Other (please specify and check)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. Has your school system entered into a cooperative arrangement with a nearby college or university whereby the college provides some services in the area of human relations in your system? YES ________ NO ________
15. continued

If YES, please name the college and briefly describe the services provided:

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

16. What services or additional services does the local school district need from the college in the area of human relations?

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

17. Does your school system have a board policy and/or guidelines in the area of human relations?

NO ________ YES ________

If YES, please enclose a copy.

*******

In answering the following question, please feel free to speak your mind. Your responses will not be identified with you or your school system.

A. If you could change the designation in your title (not the administrative level), what would you make it? Or are you satisfied with the title as is?
17. continued

B. How do you feel you and your efforts are accepted at the local school level?

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

C. Please add any other comments or information which you feel would expand or clarify your other responses in this questionnaire. Use additional sheets if necessary.

___________________________________________________________________________

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D. List improvements in human relations directly attributable to the human relations program.

___________________________________________________________________________

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___________________________________________________________________________
17. continued


18. What, in retrospect, would you do differently should you be responsible for planning and implementing another human relations program?


19. Which group demonstrated most resistance to change for better understanding and human relations? Rank in order of resistance, giving # 1 to the most resistant group. Rank each group separately.

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<th>Rank</th>
<th>Group A</th>
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20. Please describe briefly any specific technique you discovered that had especial appeal and/or unusual effectiveness in the implementation of your program.
20. continued


21. List those circumstances, events, procedures, etc. that you would suggest others in your position to approach with caution.


22. List additional things that are needed to improve human relations climate in your school. Assign top priority the number one, etc.


23. Has the human relations program, or activities produced negative results? (e.g., individual expressions of dislike for the activity) Please list.


REMINDER: Please enclose one copy of each of the following:

(a) Job description for human relations specialist and professionals on his staff

(b) Board policy and/or administrative guidelines on human relations

RETURN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE, TOGETHER WITH THE ABOVE MATERIALS, TO:

Bill G. Newman
725 South Hampshire
Saginaw, Texas 76079
APPENDIX B

THE HUMAN RELATIONS SPECIALIST
IN LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS
Form A (For Superintendent)

School System

Address

Street or Box City

Name and title of respondent

1. Does your school system employ a person who has either full-time or part-time responsibility in the area of human (intercultural) relations, integration or urban problems (as opposed to public relations)?

   YES    NO

If YES, please check the list of responsibilities below as your staff member now assumes them.
If NO, please check the list as you believe a person in the position of human relations director, coordinator or specialist should assume them.

2. Please check only one column for each item.

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STUDENTS

a. Plan and provide programs designed to assist students, faculty and administration to better understand and relate to one another in the school setting.

   ___   ___   ___   ___

b. Liaison with student organizations on human relations matters.

   ___   ___   ___   ___
2. continued

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c. Pupil personnel problems of a racial nature.  

d. Assist students in establishing communication with community organizations.  

e. Assist students in communicating concerns and/or problems to school administration.  

f. Provide leadership in the development of a channel of communication for students.  

g. Insure that school personnel are kept informed regarding students' hardships.  

h. Visitation of schools on a regular basis.  

i. Assist student groups to plan activities designed to foster a spirit of cooperation and understanding among students.  

j. Nurture and promote an open attitude of school personnel toward awareness of student problems and concerns.  

k. Assist student groups in activities designed to promote a spirit of cooperation and understanding between students and adults.
2. continued

SCHOOL STAFF

a. Cooperate with all members of the school staff in identifying, researching and seeking solutions to problems involving human relations in the educational context.

b. Consult with the school administration and faculty to identify and isolate particular human relations problems.

c. Work with local school staffs in planning and implementing practicable solutions to local problems.

d. Provide educational materials and assistance in the area of intergroup education.

e. Originate printed and other audio-visual materials for the purpose of developing better understanding of human relations problems.

f. Attend faculty meetings and other meetings if requested by principal.

g. Work cooperatively with school staff to maintain open channels of communication between faculty members, between faculty and parents and other school personnel.
2. continued

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h. Provide assistance in organizing human relations committees and meetings for the teachers and for parents. 
   |

i. Actively recruit teachers of ethnic minorities. 
   |

j. Aid minority organizations in bringing in outside experts for consultative purposes. 
   |

k. Train local professional personnel as group leaders for continuing in-service in human relations. 
   |

l. Teacher human relations program. 
   |

m. Orientation of new teachers in the human relations program and awareness of the various cultures of the community. 
   |

n. Continuously seek to provide new materials for a resource center to support studies of current patterns and conditions of ethnic groups. 
   |

COMMUNITY

a. Liaison with community service groups on human relations matters. 
   |

b. Public relations on human relations problems and activities. 
   |
2. continued

c. Receive and process community complaints.

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d. Liaison to area citizens advisory councils.

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e. Develop and disseminate information about the services in the community such as employment offices, neighborhood service centers, service agencies and organizations.

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f. Compile and disseminate information and background material relevant to the general area of human relations and to specific school problems involving these relations.

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g. Assessment of the human relations climate of the school community area at all times in order to create a more favorable and effective school program.

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h. Assist in planning more effective programs encouraging cooperation and understanding between the school and the community.

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i. Actively seek better involvement of parents and other community citizens in the school community councils.

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j. Work to enhance more effective parent participation in school programs.

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k. Develop and/or coordinate a program of volunteer service involving interested parents and women's groups whose members may assist in a number of school programs.

l. Serve as liaison between the central office administration and the Community Relations Committee of the Board.

m. Advise parents on school policies such as lunch programs, transportation, physical examinations and the like.

n. Provide welfare assistance to families so they may secure the benefits available to them such as dental, medical, and food and clothing.

o. Liaison with local law enforcement agencies.

p. Adult basic education program.

q. Development and evaluation of programs for the culturally deprived.

r. Development and evaluation of programs for bilingual persons.

s. Planning to achieve racial and cultural balance in schools.
2. continued

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3. Has your school system entered into a cooperative arrangement with a nearby college or university whereby the college provides some services in the area of human relations in your system? YES ______ NO ______

If YES, please name the college and briefly describe the services provided:

______________________________
______________________________
______________________________
______________________________
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______________________________

4. What services or additional services does the local school district need from the college in the area of human relations?
4. continued


5. Does your school system have a board policy and/or guidelines in the area of human relations?

NO _______ YES _______

If YES, please enclose a copy.

a. How do you feel the efforts of the human relations director has been accepted at the local school level?


b. Please add any other comments or information which you feel would expand or clarify your other responses on this questionnaire. Use additional sheets if necessary.
5. continued

c. List improvements in human relations directly attributable to the human relations program.

6. What, in retrospect, would you do differently should you be responsible for planning and implementing another human relations program?
6. continued

7. Which group demonstrated most resistance to change for better understanding and human relations? Rank in order of resistance, giving # 1 to the most resistant group. Rank each group separately.

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8. Please describe briefly any specific technique you discovered that had especial appeal and/or unusual effectiveness in the implementation of your program.

9. List those circumstances, events, procedures, etc. that you would encourage others in your position to approach with caution.
9. continued

10. List additional things that are needed to improve human relations climate in your school. Assign top priority the number one, etc.

11. Has the human relations program, or activities produced negative results? (e.g., individual expressions of dislike for the activity?) Please list.

12. If you do not now have a staff member with primary responsibility in human relations do you feel that such a role would benefit your district.

   YES  NO

   UNDECIDED

13. In your opinion, should the specialist in human relations position be one of the professional group in the Minimum Foundation Program from which local schools could select to fit local needs?
13. continued

YES _______ NO _______

UNDECIDED _______

PLEASE RETURN TO: BILL G. NEWMAN
725 South Hampshire
Saginaw, Texas 76079
APPENDIX C

FIVE-MEMBER JURY FOR THE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Mr. Tom E. Kendricks
Senior Program Officer--Title IV
United States Office of Education
1114 Commerce Street
Dallas, Texas

Mr. Aureliano Ortiz
Director of Human Relations
Abilene Public Schools
Post Office Box 981
Abilene, Texas

Mr. Gilbert Conoley
Educational Program Director
Technical Assistance Section
Texas Education Agency
Austin, Texas

Mr. Percy Moorehouse, Director
Center for Public School Ethnic Studies
The University of Texas at Austin
Austin, Texas

Dr. Waymon Dever
Professor of Education
North Texas State University
Denton, Texas
APPENDIX D

THE HUMAN RELATIONS SPECIALIST IN THE
DESEGREGATION OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

School System _________________________________________

Address _____________________________________________

Street or Box City

Name of respondent __________________________________

Validation Response

1 2 3 District enrollment ________________________________

1 2 3 Approximate ethnic distribution of pupils:

   American Indian _____ Black _____ Brown _____
   White _____ Other _____

1 2 3 1. What is your title? ____________________________

1 2 3 2. When was the human relations program first
   established? ______________________________________

1 2 3 3. What is the stated purpose of your program?

1 2 3 4. Do you spend full time in the area of human
   relations? YES ________ NO ________

   If not full time approximately what percentage of
   your time is devoted to human relations
   activities? __________ percent

   If NO in what other area(s) do you function?

1 2 3 5. Are you employed for a full 12-month year
   (including paid vacation)?


YES ________ NO ________

If NO what is the length of your work year?

__________ months

1 2 3 6. What was your 1971-72 salary? $__________ +

__________ for expenses.

(if applicable)

1 2 3 7. Do you report directly to the superintendent?

YES ________ NO ________

If NO to whom do you report? (Please give official's full title.)

1 2 3 8. Are you a member of the superintendent's cabinet (council)? YES ________ NO ________

1 2 3 9. Does your school system have (a) a formal, written job description and/or (b) a statement of qualifications for the position of the human relations specialist?

(a) Job description: YES ____ NO ____

(b) Statement of qualifications: YES ____ NO ____

If YES for either (a) or (b) above, please enclose a copy.

1 2 3 10. Please give the following information regarding the person presently in the position:

(a) EDUCATION: Bachelor's degree in _________

Minor in _________

Master's degree in _________

Minor in _________

Doctorate in ________________

Minor in _________
Other pertinent education

(b) EXPERIENCE: Years in present position

Years in educational administration or supervision (other than in present position):

Years teaching experience:

Other pertinent experience:

(c) CERTIFICATION: Teacher

Supervisor

Administrator

Guidance counselor

Other (please specify)

(d) OTHER QUALIFICATIONS (please describe):

(e) PERSONAL DATA:

Age: 21-25  26-30  31-35

36-40  41-45  46-50

51-60  Over 60

Sex: Male  Female
Race or ethnic origin: White __________
Negro ____ Oriental _________
Mexican-American ____ Indian _______

How long has the incumbent lived in the community?
All his life ____ Less than 5 years ____
5-9 years ____ 10-14 years ____
15-19 years ____ 20 years or more ____

1 2 3 11. How many persons are on the staff of the human relations specialist, excluding the specialist:

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<td>Clerical/secretarial</td>
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<td>(please give titles)</td>
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Please enclose a copy of the organization chart for the human relations department and job descriptions for each type of professional listed above (if available).

1 2 3 12. On the average, in which of the following activities do you spend the greatest proportion of your working day, excluding unusual or crisis situations? Rank in order of importance, giving # 1 to the most time-consuming.
123 Activity

____ Regular in-office administrative work
____ Meetings with other central office administrators
____ Meetings with principals
____ Meetings with students and student organizations
____ Meetings with community service groups and social agencies
____ Other (please specify)

Approximately how many hours a week do you spend outside your regular working day in activities which are necessary to your job, but which must be done outside the normal working day? (e.g., attending evening meetings, student activities, consulting with parents)

_____ hours a week (estimate)

123 14. How much responsibility do you have for each of the following areas? (Please read entire list before checking and check only one column for each item)

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STUDENTS

123 a. Plan and provide programs designed to assist students, faculty and administration to better understand and relate to one another in the school setting.
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1 2 3  j. Nurture and promote an open attitude of school personnel toward awareness of student problems and concerns. ____ ____ ____ ____

1 2 3  k. Assist student groups in activities designed to promote a spirit of cooperation and understanding between students and adults. ____ ____ ____ ____

SCHOOL STAFF

1 2 3  a. Cooperate with all members of the school staff in identifying, researching and seeking solutions to problems involving human relations in the educational context. ____ ____ ____ ____

1 2 3  b. Consult with the school administration and faculty to identify and isolate particular human relations problems. ____ ____ ____ ____

1 2 3  c. Work with local school staffs in planning and implementing practicable solutions to local problems. ____ ____ ____ ____

COMMUNITY

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<td>e. Develop and disseminate information about the services in the community such as employment offices, neighborhood service centers, service agencies and organizations.</td>
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<td>f. Compile and disseminate information and background material relevant to the general area of human relations and to specific school problems involving these relations.</td>
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<td>g. Assessment of the human relations climate of the school community area at all times in order to</td>
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<td>Responsibility</td>
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<td>create a more favorable and effective school program.</td>
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<td>h.</td>
<td>Assist in planning more effective programs encouraging cooperation and understanding between the school and the community.</td>
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<td>i.</td>
<td>Actively seek better involvement of parents and other community citizens in the school community councils.</td>
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<td>j.</td>
<td>Work to enhance more effective parent participation in school programs.</td>
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<td>k.</td>
<td>Develop and/or coordinate a program of volunteer service involving interested parents and women's groups whose members may assist in a number of school programs.</td>
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<td>l.</td>
<td>Serve as liaison between the central office administration and the Community Relations Committee of the Board.</td>
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<td>1 2 3</td>
<td>m. Advise parents on school policies such as lunch programs, transportation, physical examinations and the like.</td>
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<td>1 2 3</td>
<td>n. Provide welfare assistance to families so that they may secure the benefits available to them such as dental, medical, food and clothing.</td>
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<td>o. Liaison with local law enforcement agencies.</td>
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<td>p. Adult basic education program.</td>
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<td>q. Development and evaluation of programs for the culturally deprived.</td>
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<td>r. Development and evaluation of programs for bilingual persons.</td>
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<td>s. Planning to achieve racial and cultural balance in schools.</td>
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<td>1 2 3</td>
<td>t. Other (please specify and check)</td>
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1 2 3 15. Has your school system entered into a cooperative arrangement with a nearby college or university whereby the college provides some services in the area of human relations in your system?
YES _______ NO _______

If YES, please name the college and briefly describe the services provided:

_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________

1 2 3 16. What services or additional services does the local school district need from the college in the area of human relations?
_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________
1 2 3 17. Does your school system have a board policy and/or guidelines in the area of human relations?

NO _______ YES _______

If YES, please enclose a copy.

*******

In answering the following question, please feel free to speak your mind. Your responses will not be identified with you or your school system.

1 2 3 A. If you could change the designation in your title (not the administrative level), what would you make it? Or are you satisfied with the title as is?

1 2 3 B. How do you feel you and your efforts are accepted at the local school level?

1 2 3 C. Please add any other comments or information which you feel would expand or clarify your other responses on this questionnaire. Use additional sheets if necessary.
17. continued

1 2 3  D. List improvements in human relations directly attributable to the human relations program.

1 2 3 18. What, in retrospect, would you do differently should you be responsible for planning and implementing another human relations program?
1 2 3 19. Which group demonstrated most resistance to change for better understanding and human relations? Rank in order of resistance, giving #1 to the most resistant group. Rank each group separately.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Group A</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Group B</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>___</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>Black (Negro)</td>
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<tr>
<td>___</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>Brown (Mexican-American)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>___</td>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>White (Anglo)</td>
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<tr>
<td>___</td>
<td>Citizens</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>Other (Specify)</td>
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1 2 3 20. Please describe briefly any specific technique you discovered that had especial appeal and/or unusual effectiveness in the implementation of your program.

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

1 2 3 21. List those circumstances, events, procedures, etc. that you would suggest others in your position to approach with caution.

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
1 2 3 22. List additional things that are needed to improve human relations climate in your school. Assign top priority the number one, etc.

_____________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________

1 2 3 23. Has the human relations program, or activities produced negative results? (e.g., individual expressions of dislike for the activity?) Please list.

_____________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________

REMINDER: Please enclose one copy of each of the following:

(a) Job description for human relations specialist and professionals on his staff

(b) Board policy and/or administrative guidelines on human relations

(c) Organization chart for the human relations department

(d) Evaluation of the program

RETURN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE, TOGETHER WITH THE ABOVE MATERIALS, TO:

Bill G. Newman
725 South Hampshire
Saginaw, Texas 76079
VALIDITY STUDY

After reading and responding to the validity of the items on the questionnaire, I find it complete with the following corrections or additions:

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

Signature ____________________________________________
Date ___________________________
APPENDIX E

April 20, 1973

Mr. Tom E. Kendricks
Senior Program Officer-Title IV
United States Office of Education
1114 Commerce Street
Dallas, Texas

Dear Mr. Kendricks:

I am grateful for your assistance in establishing the validation of this questionnaire which is to be used as a part of a Doctoral Dissertation at North Texas State University. The dissertation is under the direction of Dr. Jack Cross, Chairman, Division of Secondary Education.

The study will involve a survey of human relations programs and functions of the individual who has the role of directing human relations activities as they relate to school desegregation. These questions seek to establish the status of human relations programs in selected schools of Texas and the emerging role of a human relations specialist. A valid questionnaire will be sent to 63 school superintendents and human relations directors in districts that were involved in school desegregation activities with the aid of Emergency School Assistance Programs during the school year, 1971-72.

You are requested to react to the 23 questions in the questionnaire in terms of deciding if each item provides information appropriate to the study. If an item is appropriate and clear, circle number 1 in the left margin; if you are undecided, circle number 2; if the item is inappropriate or unclear, circle number 3. At the close of the questionnaire there is a place for your comments, corrections and deletions.

It is the researcher's intent that the final questionnaire be an efficient and effective instrument. Your assistance in this study is appreciated. A self-addressed, stamped
envelope is enclosed for your convenience in returning the instrument. Thank you for your time and efforts.

Sincerely,

Bill G. Newman
725 South Hampshire
Saginaw, Texas 76079
Your help is requested in a study of the role and status of staff members who serve as part time or full time directors of human relations as it relates to the desegregation of selected public schools. The study is being done as a part of a doctoral dissertation under the direction of Dr. Jack Cross, Chairman, Division of Secondary Education, North Texas State University. The questionnaire is being sent to schools identified by the regional office of the U. S. Office of Education, Dallas, Texas, as having programs under Emergency School Assistance Program II (ESAP) during the 1971-72 school year.

The role of the human relations specialist in public schools is a relatively new one. Many districts, however, apparently are becoming aware of the need for a specialized person to direct efforts of district personnel in matters related to human understanding of others of different race, creed, color, age, social position and the like. It is the purpose of this survey to determine how selected school districts in Texas view this role, to compile a representative model of human relations programs in operation during the 1971-72 school year and to compare those programs with the criteria gleaned from a review of the literature of human relations programs in industry and other institutions.

A response from you or your designated representative on Form A of the instrument and from the staff member who had the key human relations responsibility on Form B of the instrument will be an important contribution to the study. The completion of the questionnaire should require no more than thirty minutes of your time. Your consideration in the completion and return of the enclosed form in time to enable me to effect a mailing directly to the
individual by May 11, will be greatly appreciated. A stamped, self-addressed envelope is enclosed for your convenience. Thank you for your time and assistance.

Sincerely,

Bill G. Newman
725 South Hampshire
Saginaw, Texas 76079
APPENDIX G

Memorandum

To: Bill G. Newman
From: ____________________

The name of the individual who had primary responsibility for the human relations program or the Emergency School Assistance Program during the 1971-72 school year is:

Name ____________________
Address ____________________
City ____________________

You may contact him directly for assistance in your research.

_________________________  ________________________
Date                      Signature
May 23, 1973

Dear

Several days ago you were sent a questionnaire concerning the role of the human relations director or specialist in the desegregation of selected public schools and a form requesting the name of the person who had the primary responsibility for such program. To date almost sixty percent of the questionnaires and forms have been returned and this is most encouraging.

I feel, however, that it is of utmost urgency that as many as possible of the selected districts be included in the study. Certainly the data will not be complete without your professional thoughts and those of the individual who worked in this important area of your school program. Perhaps the findings may make a significant contribution to the humanization of the education process and to other social processes.

I know you are extremely busy preparing for the closing of the school year. But if you will, please take a few minutes and fill out the attached forms today and return them in the enclosed self-addressed envelope.

Thank you very much for your professional cooperation. I am indebted to you.

Yours sincerely,

Bill G. Newman
Doctoral Candidate
APPENDIX I

May 14, 1973

You have been suggested as a participant in a study of the role and status of staff members who serve as part time or full time directors of human relations as it relates to the desegregation of selected public schools. The study is being done as a part of a doctoral dissertation under the direction of Dr. Jack Cross, Chairman, Division of Secondary Education, North Texas State University.

The role of the human relations specialist in public schools is a relatively new one. Even so, many districts seem to be aware of the need for a specialized person to direct the efforts of school personnel in matters related to better understanding of others of different race, creed, color and the like. It is the purpose of this survey to determine how selected school districts in Texas view this role, to compile a representative model of human relations programs in operation during the 1971-72 school year and to compare those programs with criteria gleaned from a review of the literature of human relations programs in industry.

Your cooperation in this study will be greatly appreciated. The information obtained from this research could have implications for future legislation and perhaps be helpful to other school districts as they seek to implement this concept in their operations. You will receive a report of the findings through personal reply.

A self-addressed, stamped envelope is enclosed for your convenience. Thank you very much for your professional help and for an early reply.

Yours sincerely,

Bill G. Newman
Doctoral Candidate
June 29, 1973

Several weeks ago suggested your name as a participant in the study of the role and status of staff members who serve as part time or full time directors of human relations in the desegregation of public schools and you were sent a questionnaire. To date I have not received your response and I hope you will not mind this follow-up letter.

Your completed questionnaire is vital to this research! I know you have been very busy with the closing of school and I regret having to ask this favor of you but I must if I successfully complete this study. I have received approximately fifty percent of the questionnaires, but for a valid study I must receive a minimum of sixty percent.

Will you please give me the benefit of your professional thoughts and assistance by filling out the questionnaire and returning it today? I shall be indebted to you and who knows, I may be able to return your kindness one day.

Thank you very much.

Sincerely,

Bill G. Newman
Doctoral Candidate
APPENDIX K

May 6, 1973

Your help is requested in a study of the role and status of staff members who serve as part-time or full-time directors of human relations. The study is being done as a part of a doctoral dissertation under the direction of Dr. Jack Cross, Division of Secondary Education, North Texas State University. The questionnaire is being sent to schools identified by the regional office of the U. S. Office of Education, Dallas, Texas, as having programs under Emergency School Assistance Program II (ESAP) during the 1971-72 school year and to fifty-eight other districts randomly selected.

The role of the human relations specialist in public schools is a relatively new one. Many districts, however, apparently are becoming aware of the need for a specialized person to direct efforts of district personnel in matters related to human understanding of others of different race, creed, color, age, social position and the like. It is the purpose of this survey to determine how selected school districts in Texas view this role, to compile a representative model of human relations programs in operation during the 1971-72 school year and to compile and report both negative and positive aspects of change resulting from local districts' efforts toward improved human relations.

Your school district is one of five districts selected in which data is being sought by interviews with the superintendent of schools, or his designated representative, and with the individual who had the primary responsibility for directing the human relations program. Your consideration in naming these two individuals on the attached form and in granting me permission to contact them directly for the purpose of scheduling the interviews will be greatly appreciated. A stamped, self-addressed envelope is enclosed for your convenience. Thank you for your time and assistance.

Sincerely,

Bill G. Newman
Doctoral Candidate
MEMORANDUM

To: Bill G. Newman
From:

I will be glad to cooperate with you in your study within the limitations listed below (if any):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Superintendent or representative</th>
<th>Human relations director:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Name</td>
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<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>Position</td>
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<td>Address</td>
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<td>Telephone</td>
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Date _______________  Signature _______________
APPENDIX M

SCHOOL DISTRICT A

Enrollment: 3,165

Geographic Location: East Texas

Suggested Categories for Problem Areas

I. Cultural differences and implications for intellectual growth.
   1. Teacher adjustment to different culture.
   2. Pupil achievement.
   3. Problems of grading--pupil evaluation.

II. Cultural differences and motivational considerations.
   1. Pupil motivation.
   2. Techniques for dealing with people's feelings.

III. Desegregation and curriculum considerations.
   1. Selection of texts and teaching materials.
   2. Fitting curriculum to specific needs.
   4. Role of classroom teachers in curriculum and policy questions.
   5. Research findings--availability to teachers.

IV. Desegregation and organization for instruction.
   1. Student attendance.
   2. Transportation--bussing, etc.
   3. Assignment of students to particular schools.
   4. Bridging gap of individual students.
5. Techniques for dealing with people's feelings.
6. Use of orientation and workshops and teacher preparation.
7. The legal relationships.

V. Desegregation and counseling and guidance.
1. Pupil adjustment—acceptance by Negro and white.
2. Emotional problems.
3. Disciplinary problems.
4. Knowing individual students personally.
5. Guidance and counseling problems.
6. Techniques for dealing with people's feelings.
7. Techniques for dealing with pupils' feelings.
8. Leadership role of school administrators and other professionals.
   a. Educational Guidance.
   b. Vocational Guidance.
   c. Social Guidance.
   d. White counselor—Negro students.
   e. Negro counselor—white students.

VI. Desegregation and social life of the school.
1. Social functions—extra curricula.
2. Techniques for dealing with pupils' feelings.

VII. Desegregation and instructional staff.
1. Principal—Teacher relationship.
2. Integration of professional associations.
3. Emotional problems.
4. Knowing individual students personally.
5. Selection of teachers--personal relations.
6. Teacher displacement--Teacher-Principal evaluation.
   a. Teaching multi-racial groups.
   b. White teacher--Negro student.
   c. Negro teacher--white student.
   d. White principal--Negro students.
   e. White principal--Negro teachers.
   f. Negro principal--white students.
   g. Negro principal--white teachers.

VIII. Desegregation and Effective Communications--Folk-way Systems.
1. Parent-Teacher relationship.
2. Communication between races.
3. Community education.
5. Attitudes of school board members.
6. Improving the image of Negro schools.
7. Role of citizens and other community organizations.
   a. Mass media.
   b. Business.
   c. Municipal government.
   d. The local power structure.
SCHOOL DISTRICT B

Enrollment: 12,485

Geographic Location: South Texas

Coordinator of Community and Human Relations

Guidelines for Position of Coordinator of Community and Human Relations:

This staff member will assist the Superintendent, Assistant Superintendent for Administration, Principals, Parents and Teachers in helping students in making a satisfactory adjustment in school, home and community. In order to do the above, it will be necessary to work with the following organizations:

1. SCHOOLS
   a. Re-Ed Center [Recreation-Education Center]
   b. Environmental Center
   c. P. T. A.'s
   d. Principals
   e. Title 45

2. COLLEGES

3. POLICE DEPARTMENT
   a. Juvenile Court
   b. Probation Officers
   c. Judges
   d. County Officials
Considerable travel will be involved in the performance of responsibilities. This is a permanent full-time position.

QUALIFICATIONS:

1. Age--25 years and over.
2. Master's degree or better is desirable.
3. The individual's record should show that he or she is able to get along with all people.
4. Successful experience in public schools is preferred.
5. Experience in working with local, state and national education associations.
6. Experience in working with local civic, social, labor, governmental, P. T. A. organizations.

7. Good health and a sense of humor.

8. Ability and experience to meet the public.

9. Ability to speak effectively and to consult with groups of all sizes and ethnic backgrounds.

10. An understanding of the role of the professional association in education.

11. An understanding of the role of education in a democracy and the need for public support of education.


13. Ability to recognize and develop leadership.

14. High degree of motivation and enthusiasm.

15. Willingness to travel.

16. Sincere desire to provide a service.

GENERAL STAFF CONSULTANT RESPONSIBILITIES:

1. Serving as an information data collector to provide the Superintendent, Assistant Superintendent of Administration and the Board, when requested to do so by the Superintendent, with reliable assessments of strengths, weaknesses, needs, issues, trends, etc. in this work.

2. Serving as a liaison consultant between the Superintendent and organizations.

3. Serving as a talent scout, evaluating abilities, attitudes and competencies of local citizens and organizations to assist the superintendent and school board in getting citizens to help improve education in our city.

4. Stimulating growth, innovation and improvement in professional programs, and contributing to the United Fund.
SPECIFIC STAFF CONSULTANT RESPONSIBILITIES:

1. Coordinate community and human relations programs, projects and activities in the elementary, middle and high schools, P. T. A.'s, educational organizations, civic, social, and governmental agencies.
   a. This will be implemented by organizing Human Relations Committees in each school.
   b. Each ethnic group will choose its members to serve on the committee.

2. Work with each principal, professional organization, P. T. A., Civic, Social and Governmental Agency in setting up workshops in Human Relations.

3. Assist in developing action programs, to be implemented at local levels in areas other than education--fair housing, jobs, employment, etc.

4. Become directly involved with minority groups. Encourage them to get at least a high school education, seeking teaching as a career, and assist in solving area problems which exist.

5. Help or assist in eliminating defacto segregation and assist in developing guidelines for integration if needed.

The Coordinator of Community and Human Relations should be skilled in Human Relations as it pertains to working with people. It will be necessary that this person develops rapport required to work in areas which involve integration.

Other assignments will be made by the superintendent or assistant superintendent for administration.

This department will require a secretary from the pool of secretaries in the office.

A budget of $50.00 for paper, pencils, etc., will be needed.

Salary: The salary is ($15,121) fifteen thousand one hundred twenty-one dollars. Travel log is to be kept and the monthly fee for same is not to exceed $20.00 per month for car allowance. Travel out of town is 10¢ per mile plus the regular rate per diem for all employees for trips.
SCHOOL DISTRICT C

Enrollment: 20,000

Geographic Location: West Texas

Director of Human Relations

The Director of Human Relations, under the direction of the Assistant Superintendent for Administrative Services, shall be responsible for programs that bring about a mutual respect between the ethnic groups of our schools and community.

DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES:

1. Establish and maintain an on-going teacher awareness program emphasizing teacher-pupil, teacher-teacher, and teacher-parent relations.

2. Train local professional personnel as group discussion leaders for continuing professional growth programs in human relations.

3. Establish rapport between the ethnic minority groups and the Board of Education.

4. Establish better communications between ethnic minority groups and school administration.

5. Bring in outside consultants to present programs in the area of human relations.

6. Work with new teachers in a cultural awareness program as they enter the District.

7. Visit homes of ethnic minority students to interpret school programs to parents and students.

8. Serve as a consultant to assist teachers in presenting ethnic minority history and culture to help create positive image of minority groups.
9. Investigate the student handbook to be sure that all groups have equal opportunity to participate in all school activities. Work with principals, counselors, coaches and other school personnel to insure that all ethnic groups have equal opportunities to participate in all school activities.

10. Work cooperatively with Director of Personnel in recruiting and selecting teachers of ethnic minorities.

11. Assume such other duties as may be assigned by the Assistant Superintendent for Administrative Services.
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