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HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE INFLUENCE OF
HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING AND HUMAN RELATIONS
CURRICULA IN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY
EDUCATION FROM 1962-1972.

The University of Oklahoma, Ph.D., 1974
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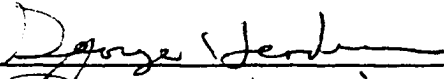
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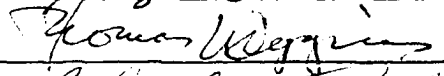
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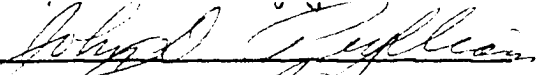
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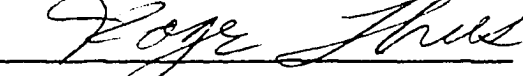
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With the Apostle Paul, we can say:

"I know how to live in lowly circumstances and I know how to live in plenty. I have learned the secret, in all circumstances of either getting 'a full meal' or of going hungry, of living in plenty or being in want. "I can do anything through Christ who gives me strength."
Phil. 4: 12-13.

This work is lovingly dedicated to four beautiful people who have endured much so that this effort could be completed: Anne, Janette, Mary, and Mike.

There are two others who have been supportive of this work and who have added much to the meaning of our lives; my father, Mike Hassen and my Socratic mentor and friend, Dr. Lloyd P. Williams.

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It is my prayer that each one of you will be blessed by God for all of your days. Thank you each and everyone for all your assistance in completion of my studies.

My prayer is that this effort will not cost my children more than the possible benefit.

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HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE INFLUENCE OF HUMAN RELATIONS
TRAINING AND HUMAN RELATIONS CURRICULA IN ELEMENTARY AND
SECONDARY EDUCATION FROM 1962-1972

CHAPTER I

HISTORICAL ANTECEDENTS OF HUMAN RELATIONS
TRAINING IN EDUCATION

Human Relations, an eclectic approach to the study of man and his problems, is evolving from a loosely defined art into a more scientific discipline. This fledgling discipline is at a stage of offering significant propositions which build upon theories found in education, industrial management, behavioral and social sciences, and the humanities. Currently these propositions are being described and historically recorded by students and practitioners utilizing human relations skills. However, a large body of empirically validated research to support human relations propositions in education is lacking. In order to empirically test theories, they must be developed. Furthermore, the emerging field of human relations needs theoreticians who will develop a body of theory which is clearly different from other academic disciplines. In order for

theoreticians to create human relations theories, they must have knowledge of related theories. It is the task of human relations historians to provide such knowledge.

From a study of individuals in groups, it is possible to isolate effective and ineffective means for creating a society which is defined as "good" by the citizens and the philosophers from ancient to modern times. In most instances, well-knit groups are more effective in abutting or resolving problems than individual efforts. Self-actualized individuals are more likely to cooperate in creating a humane society than dehumanized individuals who suffer in areas of race, sex, economics, and religious relationships. The focus of human relations training is upon people and the activities growing out of their interactions. These activities provide clues to techniques that can be used to successfully effect social and environmental change. A twentieth century phenomenon is the emergence of human relations training and human relations curricula in Education. Figure 1 traces the chronology of human relations as a twentieth century concept.

Historical Antecedents of Human Relations Training
Concepts in the Philosophies of Jean Jacques
Rousseau and John Dewey

The French Renaissance educational philosopher, Jean Jacques Rousseau, and the American modern educational philosopher, John Dewey, are important to the study of

Figure 1.--Genesis of Human Relations Concepts and
Training Programs

- 1762 Emile written by Jean Jacques Rousseau. This was a naturalistic philosophy which valued experiential learning.
- 1916 Henri Fayol wrote about his ideas concerning the duties of managers and workers in France.
- 1919 Frederick Taylor wrote about his principles of scientific management in the book by the same title.
- 1924 Mary Parker Follett wrote Creative Experience which discussed the concept of cooperation in business. She felt a science of human relations could be developed.
- 1925 J. L. Moreno introduced psychodrama to the United States.
- 1927-1932 Fritz J. Roethlisberger, Elton Mayo and William Dickson conducted the Hawthorne Experiments at Western Electric Company outside of Chicago.
- 1936 Elton Mayo and Frederick Taylor taught the first human relations course at Harvard University.
- 1944 Dewey wrote his treatise on education, Democracy and Education.
- 1945 First human relations course required at Harvard University.
- Intergroup Education for Cooperating Schools was established and published materials through the American Council on Education.
- One of the first summer workshops which advocated an eclectic approach to human relations studies. This was held at Chicago by the Intergroup Education for Schools.
- 1949 One of the first institutes for teachers at Rutgers. This was one of the first eclectic approaches to teaching human relations for teachers.
- 1946 Institute for Social Research was begun to study industrial relations research.

Figure 1. (continued)

- 1947 National Training Laboratories begun at Bethel, Maine.
- 1948 Herbert Thelen first studied T-groups at Bethel, Maine.
- 1950 Esalen was established at Big Sur, California by Michael Murphy.
- 1954 Brown v. Board of Education. Supreme Court ruling for desegregation.
- 1960 First student laboratory at Bethel, Maine. This was for college students to participate in T-Groups and laboratory method.
- 1961 First conjoint faculty and student laboratory at Bethel, Maine. Later these were educational laboratories (for educators and students) at Lake Arrowhead, California, and Cedar City, Utah.
- 1962 First session at Esalen on "The Expanding Vision." Taught by Aldous Huxley.
- 1964 Civil Rights Act seeking equal educational and job opportunities for all citizens.
- 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act to encourage spending and learning in education.
- 1969 Robert F. Bales devised his interaction process analysis which focused upon social-emotional positive and negative and task dimensions in groups.
- 1970 The Episcopal church developed an eight volume reader in human relations training which utilizes the T-group format and laboratory learning approach.

human relations training groups and human relations curricula. Both philosophers placed a positive value upon the experiential aspect of learning. By examining the two philosophers in terms of their views of (1) the nature of man, (2) the aims of education, (3) the method of education, and (4) the effective teacher, similarities can be drawn between their contributions to human relations concepts in group training.

Before comparing and contrasting the two educational philosophers, both men need to be discussed in terms of the social milieu in which they lived and wrote. Rousseau was born in 1712, and this was in the period of the Renaissance.¹ Youth of this era were apprenticed to various tradesmen, or they were educated to assume their rightful positions of importance in the society. Classical education was didactically instilled into youth. More or less an orphan, the young Rousseau was apprenticed to various trades, but he was not successful at any of them. In 1749, Rousseau won an essay contest at the Academy of Dijon. Later, in 1762 he wrote Social Contract² and

¹Paul Nash, Andreas M. Kazamias, Henry J. Perkinson, The Educated Man: Studies in the History of Educational Thought (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967), pp. 224-246.

²Jean Jacques Rousseau, Social Contract, in Sir Ernest Barker, Social Contract: Essays by Locke, Hume, and Rousseau (New York: Oxford University Press, 1948), pp. 169-307.

Emile.³ Rousseau died in 1778.⁴

John Dewey was born in 1859. After earning a bachelor's degree, he taught in Pennsylvania and Vermont. Following graduate study, he became a college instructor. At the beginning of the twentieth century, he implemented some of his ideas about education in the University School at the University of Chicago.⁵ A prolific educational writer of modern times, his books, How We Think,⁶ Democracy and Education,⁷ Experience and Nature,⁸ and Experience and Education⁹ are comprehensive and major works relevant to this study. Dewey was classically educated, but he was an educational iconoclast, who amplified the concept "experience" to wider philosophical and educational parameters. One would be correct in saying that the concept of experience is not a modern concept, but Dewey's comprehensive

³Jean Jacques Rousseau, Emile (London: J. M. Dent & Sons, Ltd., 1943), pp. vii-442 (some later pages were torn out).

⁴Paul Nash et al., op. cit., p. 224.

⁵Ibid., pp. 304-334.

⁶John Dewey, How We Think (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1910).

⁷John Dewey, Democracy and Education (New York: The Free Press, 1944).

⁸John Dewey, Experience and Nature (Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co., 1926).

⁹John Dewey, Experience and Education (New York: Collier Books, 1938).

discourse on the idea of experiencing knowledge as something both internal and external to a human being added important dimensions to the teaching-learning process. Dewey died in 1952.

It is interesting to note that both Rousseau and Dewey were classically educated, even though they lived in different historical eras. Both men were in the avante garde of progressive educational thought. In fact, some writers perceived them as radical thinkers. Both were aware of the social aspects of education, but they wanted the educative process to be humane, regardless of a student's station at birth or intellectual ability.

Comparison of Ideas in Rousseau and Dewey Relevant to Human Relations in Education

In this section, the focus will be upon a comparison of four areas vital to the development of an educational philosophy for human relations training and curricula in elementary and secondary education. These four concerns are: (1) the nature of man, (2) aims of education, (3) method of education, and (4) effective teacher.

The Nature of Man

Rousseau contended, "In the natural order, men are all equal and their common calling is that of manhood, so that a well-educated man cannot fail to do well in that

calling and those related to it."¹⁰ If the nature of man is to be born equal, what happens to distort this equality? Clearly, man himself brings about various forms of inequality. Man, a sensate being, is capable of interpreting the experiences which are conveyed through the senses and making judgments about them. In other words, man is endowed by Nature with the properties of feeling and thinking, ordering and reordering social conditions. In short, Nature provides experiences and lessons for the maximum development of a mature adult who may or may not strive for freedom:

We are born sensitive and from birth onwards we are affected in various ways by our environment. As soon as we become conscious of our sensations we tend to seek or shun the things that cause them (to be pleasurable or painful) because of judgments formed by means of the ideas of happiness and goodness which reason gives us.¹¹

In the Social Contract, Rousseau exclaimed, "Man is born free, and everywhere he is in chains."¹² Anything which impedes the naturalistic tendencies in man to learn from his environment and to become independent is, according to Rousseau, a link in the enslaving chain. Thus, Rousseau concluded that the nature of man is to be

¹⁰Jean Jacques Rousseau, Emile, op. cit., p. 9.

¹¹Ibid., p. 7.

¹²Jean Jacques Rousseau, Social Contract, op. cit., p. 169.

a thinking and feeling human being who strives for equality and freedom.

John Dewey conceived of the nature of man as a biological being capable of reflective thinking about the experiences which are known. Noting that man experiences things internally and externally through interaction with the environment, Dewey argued:

If biological developments be accepted, the human subject of experience is at least an animal, continuous with other organic forms in a process of more complex organization. An animal in turn is at least continuous with chemico-physical process which, in living things, are so organized as really to constitute the activities of life with all their defining traits. An experience is not identical with brain action; it is the entire organic agent-patient in all its interaction with the environment natural and social.¹³

Dewey differentiated between impression (brain action) and the totality of experiencing through interaction with the natural and social aspects of the environment. Man is capable of experiencing and learning through such a process. "Experience is primarily a process of standing something; of suffering and passion, of affection, in the literal sense of these words. The organism has to endure, to undergo the consequences of its own action."¹⁴ Herein lies the similarity between Rousseau's and Dewey's

¹³John Dewey, Creative Intelligence (New York: Holt, 1917), p. 26.

¹⁴Ibid., p. 10.

philosophies concerning the natural consequences of one's actions and experiences.

The nature of man is not merely physiologically or psychologically defined, but the nature of man is identified in the social context of interaction with human beings and things. Without the social context to provide experiences and data for reflective thinking, man would remain an irrational animal. According to Dewey, the destiny of mankind is to engage in the continuous process of experiencing the human and non-human aspects of the environment in the pilgrimage toward the development of a democratic society.

In summary, Jean Jacques Rousseau viewed man as a sensate and natural being, who struggles for freedom and independence from others in natural and almost isolationistic existence. In contrast, John Dewey viewed man as a social being, who defines the essence of his humanity through interaction with people and things and through the reflection of that experiencing. Following this line of reasoning, the most effective process for developing human beings is experience. Experiencing the consequences of actions (Rousseau) and reflecting upon the data (Dewey) separate man from lower animals.

Central Aims of Education

For Rousseau, the major aim of education is the development of mature man who is capable of living life to the fullest, through an ability to deal with the good and evil of life.¹⁵ The ideal man was one capable of being true to himself. Rousseau defined this man as one who is able to be "something, to be himself, and always at one with himself, a man must act as he speaks, must know what course he ought to take, and must follow that course with vigor and persistence."¹⁶ Ideal man is congruent within the contexts of his self-image, his behavior patterns, his values, and his goals. Building upon Rousseau's comments, one must study the interaction of humans and their environments in order to delineate the natural essences which separate humans from the lower animals. The central aim of education is to help students become congruent with their natural abilities and to develop an appreciation for Nature as the Master Teacher.

Dewey cautioned that one must remember that education does not have aims, only people have aims. An abstract idea like education is incapable of having aims.¹⁷ Dewey offered the criterion for the value of education in

¹⁵Jean Jacques Rousseau, Emile, op. cit., p. 9.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 8.

¹⁷John Dewey, Democracy and Education, op. cit., p. 107.

"the extent in which it creates a desire for continued growth and supplies means for making the desire effective in fact."¹⁸ Growth must be pragmatically applied or the desire for growth is ineffectual. Many people desire personal growth, but are unwilling to develop new skills or to try alternative forms of behavior. According to Dewey, growth is facilitated by social activity of youth and the control exerted upon youth to move in rational and reflective modes of interaction with others.

For Dewey, education has as one of its aims to acquaint the student with his social environment which is "the sum total of conditions which are concerned in the execution of the activity characteristic of a living being."¹⁹ Through human cooperation, conjoint decision-making, and experience with human beings and inanimate things, an "educated" man will learn. The teaching of concepts through the processes of experience and reflection constitute the aims of education. Conjoint development of the individual and society is the primary aim of formal education for Dewey.

By way of summary, Rousseau's major aim of education was the development of an independent and natural man who could survive both the good and evil of life. The

¹⁸ John Dewey, Democracy and Education, op. cit., p. 53.

¹⁹ Ibid., p. 22.

major source of this survival was communion with Nature, so that natural development could be understood and embraced fearlessly. In this context, "aleness" is different from "loneliness." Rousseau advocated the ability to endure aleness with Nature as the Master Teacher. For Dewey, the major aim of education is the development of a social being who can create a democratic society through an understanding of social experience. This interaction is epitomized in the concept of experiencing.

Method of Education

For both Rousseau and Dewey, experience is the key to a proper method of education. Rousseau's concept of experience was different from Dewey's, because he did not envision interaction with people and things as the most important method of education. Nature was important because, as Rousseau reiterated, man's education began at the moment of birth and experience is the most important process for learning.²⁰ Man must practice those things he learns naturally. Actually, Rousseau's student learned through repetition or the practice of the skill and then suffering or enjoying the practical consequences of the application of the skill. Thus, to Rousseau, natural consequences are the most efficient corrective tool in education.

²⁰Jean Jacques Rousseau, Emile, op. cit., p. 29.

Pedagogical method for Dewey is inextricably tied to the idea of experiencing. The principles of "continuity" and "interaction" are essential to the concept of experiencing as a method of education. For Dewey, situations expand or contract the environment, but it is still the same world. The expansion or contraction is just another part of this world.²¹ Dewey delineated between experiences which are educative or growth-producing and miseducative or growth-inhibiting. Positive educational experiences sensitize students to other persons in the environment and allow reflective evaluation of the interaction. This reflection upon experience encourages cooperative establishment of a democratic society.

As stated earlier, for Rousseau the best methodology for correcting miseducation of youth is negative education, or suffering the negative consequences of poor judgment. On the other hand, Dewey perceived the best way to learn as being through positive experiences. In summary, while both philosophers agreed that experiences were effective methods of learning, Rousseau emphasized the negative consequence aspects and Dewey emphasized the positive aspects of experiential learning.

²¹ John Dewey, Experience and Education, op. cit., p. 44.

The Effective Teacher

Rousseau envisioned three masters in the process of education: nature, man and things. Rousseau viewed the gift of education as coming:

. . . from nature, from men, or from things. The inner growth of our organs and faculties is the education of nature, the use we learn to make of this growth is the education of men, what we gain by our experience of surroundings is the education of things . . . if their teaching (the three masters) agrees, he (the student) goes straight to his goal, he lives at peace with himself, he is well-educated.²²

For Rousseau, the tutorial relationship is the most conducive to learning. In fact, the ideal teacher-pupil ratio would be one-to-one. In this interaction, the student would become a teacher/learner himself. This would be possible because of the freedom the tutor would give the student to learn for himself. The control the tutor would exercise over the child would be through observation of the natural bent of the child, through an understanding that a child is inherently good, and he is worthy of a tutor of high repute and learning for a model. A gentle tutor would allow the child to bear the negative consequences of his wrong choices and to enjoy the positive consequences of correct choices. Such a tutor would be gentle, well-educated, able to understand the positive qualities of aloneness, and taught by the principles of natural laws as well as classical education.

²²Jean Jacques Rousseau, Emile, op. cit., p. 6.

Dewey was an early proponent of teacher/learner interaction or conjoint pursual of the propositions and evidence in knowledge. There is no clear delineation between the teacher and the learner, except the teacher generally will have had a higher number of experiences. In other words, the relationship is not hierarchical (teacher pontificates downward to the student), but horizontal (teacher and student both sensitively aware of what is happening in the environment). However, even in the horizontal relationship the teacher exercises control upon the student's experience through directness, open-mindedness, and single-mindedness. Also, the teacher can control the social environment in which the child pursues knowledge. Figure 2 (on the next page) contains a comparison and contrast of Rousseau's and Dewey's ideas about (1) the nature of man, (2) aims of education, (3) method of education, and (4) description of an effective teacher. This summarization provides a quick comparison between the philosophies of both men. Many of these ideas can be found in the underlying philosophy of human relations training groups as they are conducted by experienced trainers.

Human Relations Training Groups

There are aspects of both Rousseau's and Dewey's philosophies found in human relations groups. Rousseau pleaded, "What is to be thought, therefore, of that cruel

	Rousseau	Dewey
Nature of Man	Natural and inherently good. Sensate being struggling for freedom and independence.	Biological man who is reflective and inherently good. Experiencing, being, struggling for freedom, interdependence, and conjoint development with society.
Aims of Education	Development of an independent and natural man who could survive good and evil in life and live a natural life.	Development of a social man who created a democratic society through a reflective understanding of social experience.
Method of Education	Negative education through suffering the natural consequences of his own actions.	Positive experiencing of the internal and external dimensions of an experience simultaneously and reflecting upon the data from such experiences.
Effective Teacher	One who has mastered an understanding of the lessons in Nature. One who is willing to allow the child to experience the natural consequences of actions without intervening. One who believes man is good. A teacher who is a good model.	One who has mastered the skills essential to experiencing events and who can reflect upon these experiences. One who is direct, open-minded, and single-minded. A person worthy of respect and who believes man is good. A sociable teacher who works for a democratic society.

Figure 2. Comparison of Ideas of Rousseau and Dewey

education which sacrifices the present to an uncertain future that burdens a child with all sorts of restrictions and begins by making him miserable in order to prepare him for some far-off happiness which he may never enjoy?"²³

Human relations groups are an attempt to have a person deal in the here-and-now in his interpersonal relationships through group experiences, in order to live fuller and more self-actualized lives. There is a growing body of literature which suggests that human potential is enhanced through sensory awareness of physical potentialities which in turn enhance the non-physical aspects of human development. There is an attempt to create unity (Gestalt) in the individual through sensory awareness and focus upon the present. Even though there are therapeutic components to human relations training, the major goals are not therapy.

Group norms of training groups (T-groups) and encounter groups focus upon awareness of interactions within the group. It is important to become aware of one's own behavior and how it affects other members of the group and how other members' behavior affect each one in the group (Argyris, Mann, Schein and Bennis; Bradford, Benne and Gibb). The focus is upon what is happening "here-and-now" within the group rather than introspection and reflection

²³Jean Jacques Rousseau, Emile, op. cit., pp. 42-43.

upon what happened in the past. T-Groups and encounter groups use the laboratory method for group experiences. Gibb sees the definitive nature of the laboratory method in the fact that the various groups spend a lot of their energies upon feeling and perceptions of what is occurring in the group, rather than upon an intellectualizing about the theoretical content of the group members' discussions.²⁴ The major focus is upon experiencing rather than upon analyzing. The general aim is to develop a person who might be described as a prototype of Abraham Maslow's self-actualized person who enjoys physical and psychological freedom based upon a secure knowledge of the parameters of self and environment.²⁵ Educationally, human relations groups focus upon experiencing and growing. It is clear that none of these concepts are completely foreign proponents of Rousseau's or Dewey's concepts.

²⁴ Jack R. Gibb, "Meaning of the Small Group Experiences," in Lawrence N. Solomon and Betty Berzon (eds.), New Perspectives on Encounter Groups (San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1972), p. 2.

²⁵ Abraham Maslow, Toward a Psychology of Being (New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Company, 1968), p. 197.

CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN RELATIONS

TRAINING AS A MODERN CONCEPT

Maslow stated that until the basic survival needs of all citizens are met, the great majority of Americans will not realize their maximum potential.¹ William Foote Whyte noted that people often say the secret of human relations is bound up in the Golden Rule.² This simplistic solution has yet to be adopted by complex societies espousing multiple religious and social ethics. Not even ethnocentric scholars believe that the Judeo-Christian tenets note the difficulty with its implementation.

Thus, there remains room for positive change in the areas of race, sex, economics, and religious relationships. In some communities, humanists and scientists have joined in a common quest for more humane environments. A

¹Abraham Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper and Row, 1954), pp. 35-58.

²William Foote Whyte, "A System for Thinking on Problems of Human Organization: The Golden Rule?" in Keith Davis and William G. Scott (eds.), Human Relations and Organizational Behavior: Readings and Comments (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969), p. 5.

systematic approach to concept-valuing problems of human relationships requires a blending of many disciplines into a tight network of theories and concepts. The historically eclectic nature of human relations not only allows but requires a blending of elements from various disciplines. From this blending may come scientific uniqueness which may add to the growing body of literature focusing upon man's attempt for self-actualization and ways to eliminate social problems. Clearly then, it is a legitimate task for historians to be involved in establishing the authenticity of human relations training.

This chapter will trace the historical development of human relations training as a modern philosophy and practice beginning in industrial relations in the early 1900's, through small group theory and research of the 1930's, 1940's, and the refinement of human relations concepts and methods in the 1950's, 1960's, and 1970's. Figure 3 traces the major events from industrial relations and group dynamics which led to the development of human relations concepts and training.

There is an on-going argument in industrial relations about whether or not human relations is a multidisciplinary approach to human problems, or whether it is a unique art and/or science. It should be noted at the outset that this argument cannot be settled with conclusive evidence at this time. However, based upon the author's

Figure 3.--Historical Development of Human Relations
As A Modern Concept

Industrial Relations

- 1916 Henri Fayol in France wrote his ideas about what constitutes manager and worker responsibilities.
- 1919 Frederick Taylor, an American industrial experimenter, defined principles of scientific management in a book by the same name. This was an early attempt to scientifically improve production of goods through education of workers on the most effective procedures.
- 1924 Mary Parker Follett wrote Creative Experience. This humanitarian businesswoman and educator discussed the concept of cooperation in business. She was an early proponent of the possibility of scientifically examining human relationships in business so that a science of human relations could be developed.
- 1925 J. L. Moreno introduced psychodrama to the United States. He had worked with prostitutes in Vienna and he became aware of the dramatic implications of human relationships.
- 1927-1932 Fritz J. Roethlisberger, Elton Mayo, and William Dickson conducted an experiment at the Western Electric Company at its Hawthorne Works in Chicago, Illinois. The results of the experiment indicated that any attention given to the human element increased production. This is known as the "Hawthorne effect."
- 1936 Elton Mayo and Frederick Taylor taught the first human relations course at Harvard University.
- 1946 Institute for Social Research was begun at the University of Michigan under the direction of Rensis Likert. This institute conducted industrial relations research.

Figure 3. (continued)

Group Dynamics

- 1947 National Training Laboratories began at Bethel, Maine and was co-sponsored by the National Education Association and Research Center for Group Dynamics. It was funded by Carnegie Corporation for \$100,000.
- 1948 Herbert Thelen first studied T-Groups at Bethel, Maine through analysis of tape recordings of his T-group meetings.
- 1950 Esalen was established at Big Sur, California by Michael Murphy and Richard Price. This is a center which encourages self-awareness through T-groups, encounter groups, and therapy groups.
- 1960 First student laboratory was held at Bethel, Maine. It was an early emphasis of T-group for students and educators.
- 1961 The first conjoint summer laboratory for both students and faculty were held at Bethel, Maine. These extended to laboratories in Lake Arrowhead, California and Cedar City, Utah.
- 1962 First session at Esalen on "The Expanding Vision" taught by Aldous Huxley.
- 1969 Robert F. Bales devised an interaction process analysis emphasis for assessing what occurs in groups among people. He examines the social-emotional positive and negative interactions and the task interactions.
- 1970 The Episcopal church developed an eight volume basic reader in human relations training which utilizes the T-group format and the laboratory learning approach.

review of the literature, it seems likely that the field of human relations is moving from an art form to a multidisciplinary scientific approach to man and his problems.

Industrial Relations Origins of Human Relations

Industrial management provides the theories for the early beginnings of human relations as a twentieth century concept. Henri Fayol, a French philosopher of administration, and Frederick Taylor, an American industrial researcher, developed complementary ideas regarding the problems of personnel in industry and industrial development of goods for profit. These two men contributed much to the scientific management approach of industrial relations training.

Henri Fayol explicated his ideas in Administration Industrielle et Generale in 1916. An American translation of this work was made available in 1949.³ Fayol delineated between worker abilities and manager responsibilities. According to Fayol, the worker's most valuable asset is technical ability. By contrast, the manager must be able to (1) plan and forecast, (2) organize, (3) command, and (4) co-ordinate and control. He also felt that remuneration of the workers could be financial, as well as non-financial. Workers could be paid according to time rates,

³Henri Fayol, General and Industrial Management, trans. Constance Storrs (London: Sir Isaac Pittman and Sons, Ltd., 1949).

job rates, or piece rates. He also added incentives of bonuses, profit-sharing, and potential advancement to managerial positions. However, there were other bonuses like ventilation, lighting, cleanliness or food, clothing, shelter, and education.⁴ The underlying concept is that a satisfied worker will be more productive than a dissatisfied one.

Frederick Taylor, an American industrial experimenter, was concerned with methods to eliminate inefficiency in daily activities. He devised his principles of scientific management to accomplish three things:

First. To point out, through series of simple illustrations, the great loss which the whole country is suffering through inefficiency in almost all of our daily acts.

Second. Try to convince the reader that the remedy for this inefficiency lies in systematic management, rather than searching for some unusual or extra-ordinary man.

Third. To prove that the best management is a true science, resting upon clearly defined laws, rules, and principles, as a foundation. And further to show that the fundamental principles of scientific management are applicable to all kinds of human activities . . . through a series of illustrations, to convince the reader that whenever these principles are correctly applied results must follow which are truly astounding.⁵

Because he considered the interests of both the employer and the employee as similar rather than divergent, Taylor

⁴Frederick Taylor, The Principles of Scientific Management (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1919), pp. 27-32.

⁵Ibid., preface.

wanted to maximize the prosperity for both the employer and the employee. His scientific management theory was based upon four duties:

1. Develop a science about man's work.
2. Workers need to be selected, trained, and developed.
3. Managers cooperate with the men so that the work will follow scientific principles.
4. Division of responsibility is almost equal between manager and workers.⁶

Taylor was convinced that cooperative planning of the task was important, but the major responsibility was the manager's. The task to be completed was to be assigned in specific terms of what was to be done, how much time it required, and the most efficient motions for completing the task. Taylor tested these principles at the Bethlehem Steel Company by observing pig iron handlers and furnace shovelers.

Frank Gilbreth developed some short-cut motions for brick-laying which became known as "speed work." He isolated seventeen "therbligs" (Gilbreth spelled backwards) motion techniques:

- | | |
|-----------|-----------|
| 1. Search | 3. Select |
| 2. Find | 4. Grasp |

⁶Frederick Taylor, op. cit., pp. 36-39.

- | | |
|--|-----------------------|
| 5. Position | 11. Pre-position |
| 6. Assemble | 12. Release load |
| 7. Use | 13. Transport empty |
| 8. Disassemble | 14. Wait-unavoidable |
| 9. Inspect | 15. Wait-avoidable |
| 10. Transport loaded,
moving hand or body | 16. Reset |
| | 17. Plan ⁷ |

Gilbreth also created the flow process chart which showed the total operation of a business. Bertrand Thompson suggested to Gilbreth that a large clock be employed to time the motions of workers which were recorded on motion pictures. This, then, facilitated time and motion studies.⁸

Scientific management theorists provided concepts which needed to be tested. Fritz J. Roethlisberger and W. L. Dickson discussed the research conducted at the Western Electric Company at its Hawthorne Works in Chicago in Management and the Worker.⁹ The experiment began with five workers in the spring of 1927. These employees were separated from other workers to study the effects of fatigue and monotony. The environment was manipulated through

⁷Ernest Dale, Management Theory and Practice (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965), p. 119.

⁸Ibid., p. 120.

⁹Fritz J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson, Management and the Worker (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1939).

temperature variation, humidity, hours of sleep, levels of illumination, and other measures of control.

The experiment continued over five years (1927-1932) and involved approximately 20,000 employees over the time span of the experiments. The major focus of this study for human relations was the human organization of the plant. Each individual worker brings his or her own set of expectations, needs, and skills to the plant. One major goal of management was to cause these individuals to cooperate in group activity so that a product can be manufactured and sold. Roethlisberger and Dickson felt that managers must maintain the social system of the plant in a state of equilibrium.¹⁰

These two researchers concluded that this balance can best be achieved by meeting the personal needs of employees to such a degree that they are willing to cooperate. For some employees the incentive must be monetary, for others prestige is adequate, still others seek job satisfaction. The researchers interviewed the subjects as a means of learning what created dissatisfaction with the job situations. They found that dissatisfaction varied with the individuals. Roethlisberger and Dickson stated that if managers desired task completion, they must assess the needs of their employees and somehow create a state of

¹⁰Fritz J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson, op. cit.

homeostasis between what the employee needs and what he or she was willing to do to meet those needs. Indeed, human factor in industry is important; workers are not unfeeling machines--they create their own personal and social environments and work more diligently for rewards they choose.¹¹

Whatever the needs of the individuals engaged in the Hawthorne experiment, they felt that they were selected for some type of preferential treatment and they were operating in a smaller work environment. Human needs for feeling important, effective, and nurtured play an important part in creating a high morale in a plant. With high morale and personal satisfaction operating, workers tend to be productive and long-tenured.

Mary Parker Follett (1868-1933) was a scholarly woman who spent much of her career studying government endeavors and business establishments for basic principles. The key concept in many of her writings is cooperation, because through cooperation there was a maximization of human efforts not possible through individual efforts.¹² True individualism and true freedom were found in cooperative organized relations. Relationships were an important

¹¹Fritz J. Roethlisberger, Management and Morale (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1949), pp. 112, 124-126.

¹²Henry C. Metcalf and L. Urwick (eds.), Dynamic Administration: The Collected Papers of Mary Parker Follett (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1940).

factor within business, because good relationships increased productivity and poor relationships inhibited productivity.¹³ Follett was a theorist ahead of her times, because she believed it was possible to develop a science of human relations. She was convinced that human interactions in business could be observed, experiments regarding these relationships could be conducted, and conclusions could be logically reached.¹⁴

Some people believe Mary Follett was responsible for underscoring the human element in business, and other people believe Elton Mayo deserves the credit. Nevertheless, it is correct to say that the emphasis shifted from product awareness to human awareness in the late 1920's and the early 1930's. Following the Hawthorne experiments, other researchers began to focus upon different variables in industry to study. For the purposes of this study, it is important to note the beginnings of concern for the human element in industry in the late 1920's and early 1930's.

Research in industrial relations was given a boost with the genesis of the Institute for Social Research which began in 1947 at the University of Michigan. Human problems of communication, motivation, decision-making,

¹³Henry C. Metcalf and L. Urwick, op. cit., pp. 295-313.

¹⁴Ibid., p. 123.

and leadership were being studied with more sophisticated research methods. The Institute received financial support from the Office of Naval Research, the Rockefeller Foundation, the Carnegie Corporation, the Schwartzhaupt Foundation, and the National Institutes of Health.¹⁵ In 1961, Rensis Likert published a book, New Patterns of Management, which was an outgrowth of research at the Institute for Social Research.¹⁶ He contended that supervision was a relative and integrative process. In order for a supervisor to be effective one must pay attention to the values, expectations, and the interpersonal skills of all the workers. Interpersonal relationships were vital to the smooth operation of any business establishment. When interpersonal concerns were positive, the organization would become integrated and cooperative in its efforts. When there was a breakdown in these relationships, business would suffer.¹⁷

Thus, the scientific management movement evolved into the human relations movement in industrial relations. The field of human relations had moved from an art¹⁸ to a fledgling science. The focus shifted from a concern about

¹⁵Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961), p. 6.

¹⁶Ibid., pp. vii-279.

¹⁷Ibid., pp. 89-96.

¹⁸Keith Davis, Human Relations in Business (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957), pp. 1-18.

production per se to concern about ways to get individuals to work together as employees who contributed to the development of a collective product. Initially, managers were most interested in securing and retaining highly trained workers to produce goods. Research pointed out that the interaction of the workers and the social climate of the organization are important variables in industrial relations.

Not everyone agreed that human relations training in industry is a viable alternative. Malcolm P. McNair was offended by the term "human relations skills." For him, there was a connotation of cold-blooded manipulation in the term.¹⁹ McNair felt that the attention paid to human needs and personality were risky for businessmen, because it encouraged goldbrickers who made excuses rather than work.

Most workers committed to human relations training acknowledge that there might be a cultist aspect to human relations emphasis, but human relations is not sentimentalism. Management theory and scientific research findings of human relations activities indicate that good (well-designed) human relations training is good business. Much of human relations training occurs in small groups.

¹⁹Malcolm P. McNair, "Thinking Ahead," Harvard Business Review, vol. 35, no. 2 (1957), p. 20.

Small Group Origins of Human Relations Training

Social anthropologists Eliot D. Chapple and Conrad Arensberg devised discrete definitions of actions and interactions (timing the exact second when one person's behavior caused some type of change in another person's behavior) led to their definition of action as being "any overt muscular activity of an organism which involves change from its immediately preceding activity."²⁰ This anthropological definition of interactions in terms of units of muscular action or reaction, who initiates and who terminates interaction, and how long the activities effect change upon the participants to the interaction placed the entire body in a human relations context. Much of human interactions are examined in terms of physiological responses or verbal responses.²¹ Quantification of muscular and verbal activity is different from placing a value upon the intangibles which add meaning to the relationship. It is true that meanings are in people, but there is room for both quantification and qualification of variables of interaction.

Why is group theory and research important to this study? Thus far, we have traced the philosophical bases

²⁰Eliot D. Chapple in collaboration with Conrad M. Arensberg, "Measuring Human Relations: An Introduction to the Study of Interactions of Individuals," Genetic Psychological Monographs, v. 22 (1940), p. 24.

²¹Ibid., pp. 3-147.

of human relations training in the educational philosophies of Jean Jacques Rousseau and John Dewey, and origins of human relations as a modern concept in industrial relations theory and research. These are but two aspects of the concept, human relations. Another aspect is to trace the development of a cluster within group dynamics popularly known as "human relations groups."

Groups exert an influence upon educational curricula and methodology, both positively and negatively. It is important to discuss the group-related components of (1) stages of group development, (2) norms developed within the group, (3) roles of group members, and (4) methods employed for accomplishing the group tasks. Following our general discussion of group components, three types of groups will be compared and contrasted: (1) training groups, (2) therapy groups, and (3) encounter groups. Hopefully this will create lines of demarcation among the three types of groups so that they are not all three considered to be one and the same type of "human relations group."

The latter part of the 1930's saw the rise of group dynamics as a more clearly defined field or discipline. Kurt Lewin popularized the term, group dynamics. Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander defined a group as "a collection of organisms in which the existence of all (in their given relationships) is necessary to the satisfaction

of certain individual needs in each."²² A group is different from an aggregate of individuals, because some needs of the individual are being met by the group. Members of the group cooperate to fulfill an agreed-upon goal. There is prolonged, meaningful interaction within a social group. A. Paul Hare discussed the interaction process as conceived by Thomas Zanaiecki in 1939 and Muzafer Sherif in 1954:

1. The members share one or more motives or goals which determine the direction in which the group will move.
2. The members develop a set of norms, which set the boundaries within which the interpersonal relations may be established and activity carried on.
3. If interaction continues, a set of roles becomes stabilized and the new group becomes differentiated from other groups.
4. A network of interpersonal attraction develops on the basis of "likes" and "dislikes" of members for one another.²³

A small group is composed of two (dyad) or more individuals who are interacting with one another in the hopes of meeting personal needs, group needs, and accomplishing some agreed upon task.

According to National Training Laboratories (NTL), the stages of group development were conceptualized as two phases: (1) dependence-power relations phase with sub-phases (a) dependence-submission, (b) counterdependence,

²²Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander (eds.), Group Dynamics: Research and Theory, 3rd ed. (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1953), p. 7.

²³A. Paul Hare (ed.), Handbook of Small Group Research, (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1962), p. 10.

and (c) resolution; and phase (2) interdependence-personal relations with subphases (a) enchantment, (b) disenchantment, and (c) consensual validation.²⁴ Phase one was marked by individual decisions about group membership, authority relationships, leadership/followership roles, goal definition and whether or not this aggregate body would constitute a group. During the second phase of group development, individuals coalesced into commitment to group membership, group roles, and task assignment for goal-fulfillment. When the group task was completed the group normally disbanded.

Group roles can be defined in terms of Kenneth Benne and J. Sheats' (1) maintenance, (2) task, and (3) individual roles,²⁵ or Robert F. Bales' (1) social-emotional positive, (2) task positive and negative, and (3) social-emotional negative components.²⁶ Roles are important to group development of tasks, and to determine

²⁴From Human Relations, vol. 9, no. 4 (1956) published by the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations, London, and the Research Center for Group Dynamics (Michigan) as cited in Joseph Luft, Group Processes: An Introduction to Group Dynamics (Calif.: National Press Books, 1963), pp. 26-27.

²⁵Kenneth Benne and J. Sheats, "Functional Roles of Group Members," Journal of Social Issues, vol. 4, no. 2 (1945), pp. 41-49.

²⁶Robert F. Bales, Interaction Process Analysis: A Method for the Study of Small Groups (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc., 1969).

what the group will allow members to do within the context of the group.

Group norms are one way to exert control over the behavior of group members. Alfred P. Hare defined norms as "rules of behavior, proper ways of acting, which have been accepted as legitimate by members of a group."²⁷ Muzafer Sherif discussed social norms and conducted an experiment to trace the development of norms. Sherif found that reference groups are important imposers of normative behavior upon members.²⁸ Norms assigned to individuals constitute their roles. Fulfillment of norms by each member reinforces group normative behavior. Simply stated, norms are rules by which a group governs itself.

M. E. Shaw devised a four-fold classification of group tasks: (1) "decision verifiability" (can the goal be objectively and correctly achieved?) (2) "goal clarity" (are the goals presented in such a way that everyone understands what is the task?) (3) "goal path multiplicity" (how many ways might the goal be achieved?) and (4) "solution specificity" (have potential solutions been identified?)²⁹

²⁷A. Paul Hare (ed.), Handbook of Small Group Research, op. cit., p. 10.

²⁸Muzafer Sherif, Groups in Harmony and Tension (New York: Harper, 1953).

²⁹M. E. Shaw, Annual Technical Report (Gainesville, Florida: University of Florida, 1962) as cited in Cartwright and Zander, op. cit., p. 360.

From our brief discussion of groups, one can see that there are definable stages of group development, group norms are created, individual roles must be established for governing behavior, and there must be ways for achieving the stated goal.

"Human Relations Groups"

Jacob Lomranz, Martin Lakin, and Harold Schiffman's three-valued typology for groups will provide the definitional framework for this section of the study of three human relations groups: Type A--interpersonal and group-oriented (T-groups), Type B--corrective-clinical (therapy groups), and Type C--personal-expressive (encounter groups).³⁰

Type A--Training Groups

Training groups are interpersonal and group-oriented in their focus. Training groups (T-groups) began in the National Training Laboratory's summer programs at Bethel, Maine in 1947. Kurt Lewin and his followers held the first group because there was a \$100,000 grant from Carnegie Corporation for a three week summer laboratory. National Training Laboratories was a cooperative effort among the groups at Bethel, the National Education

³⁰Jacob Lomranz, Martin Lakin, and Harold Schiffman, "A Three-Valued Typology for Sensitivity Training and Encounter Groups," Human Relations, vol. 26, no. 3 (1973), pp. 339-359.

Association (NEA), and the Research Center for Group Dynamics proponents at the University of Michigan.³¹

A T-group "is to provide diagnostic training and experience relative to group behavior and group problems. The content of training is provided by the experiences the group has as it struggles to form into a group, to define its purposes, and to accomplish them."³² It is a learning laboratory of behavioral and group processes. Chris Argyris defined a T-group as a "miniature social system"³³ which allows the members of the group to become aware, to accept or reject others, to interact with members of the group, to deal in the "here-and-now," and to give and receive feedback about how one's behavior affects and is affected by others. As Edgar Schein and Warren Bennis so aptly put it laboratory groups seek congruence between experiences and symbols for the experiences.³⁴

The stages of group development in training groups

³¹National Training Laboratories, Explorations of Human Relations Training: An Assessment of Experience, 1947-1953, sponsored by the National Education Association and Research Center for Group Dynamics, University of Michigan (no further bibliographic information in the book), p. 1.

³²Ibid., p. 4.

³³Chris Argyris, "On the Future of Laboratory Education," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, vol. 3, no. 2 (1967), pp. 153-183.

³⁴Edgar Schein and Warren G. Bennis, Personal and Organizational Change Through Group Methods (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1955), p. 5.

are similar to other groups, but the movement from the dependence to the interdependence phase is sometimes slow, because group members see non-participation by the "leader" as threatening. The norms of the group are established by the members and the trainer conjointly. Most groups strive for "developing a group rather than individuals," "developing an atmosphere of permissiveness," and "developing effective group use of analysis and experimentation."³⁵

The T-group member roles are assumed by participants with the subtle influence or overt command of the trainer and others in the laboratory setting. There is more emphasis upon interaction. Group norms are expressed in terse words: "grow," "learn," "practice," and "amplify." Specifically, the T-group tasks are to share in mutual learning and growth, to develop human relations skills, to practice these skills, and to make a transfer of these skills back to the "home" environments.³⁶ These tasks are equally divided between the trainer and the participants, but initially the trainer is more highly skilled as a theoretician and practitioner than the participants. The group members offer the content and direction of the work sessions

³⁵National Training Laboratories, Explorations of Human Relations Training: An Assessment of Experience, 1947-1953, op. cit., p. 30.

³⁶Irving Weschler and Edgar Schein (eds.), Issues in Human Relations Training (Washington, D.C.: NTR, 1962), pp. 15-16.

from their interactions within the group. Alfred D. Sheffield concluded that mutual sharing of information is important in the T-group because "all our life-enriching interests--interests of work, culture, recreation, religion --are nowadays sustained by mutual stimulus and enhancement of shared purposes and pooled resources."³⁷

Training groups are an approach to understanding human behavior at both the theoretical and practical levels. This particular type of group is not intended to be a therapy session, even though there often are therapeutic by-products from participation in T-groups. This form of group learning has been dubbed "human relations training" by many individuals and even by groups who engage in T-group training. The Episcopal Diocese developed an eight volume Basic Reader in Human Relations Training.³⁸ Appendix A provides an introductory statement about NTL human relations training and Appendix B provides the Episcopal Diocese description of the objectives of human relations laboratory training at (1) self, (2) interpersonal and group relations, and (3) organizational levels. A T-group member can work on his own feelings, parameters of his

³⁷Alfred D. Sheffield, Training for Group Experience: Syllabus of Materials from a Laboratory Course for Group Leaders Given at Columbia University in 1927 (New York City: The Inquiry, 1929), p. iii.

³⁸Basic Reader in Human Relations, Part I-Part VIII (New York: The Episcopal Diocese, 1970).

behavior, how this behavior affects others, how to give and to receive constructive feedback, and more effective ways to interact with others. Or at the group level one can work on establishing meaningful relationships, one's role in a group, understanding group dynamics, developing diagnostic skills in group dynamics, and helping groups with maintenance problems.³⁹

Research

Research in human relations is problematic. Roger Harrison saw some of the problems as ones of control, measurement, and training outcomes.⁴⁰ People who participate or wish to participate in groups are somewhat self-selected. This biases the sample for the control group. The measurement of change is done by subjective measures such as adjective checklists, attitude instruments, and subjective evaluation of an observer. The dimensions of change are difficult variables to isolate. Training outcomes can be either normative, restrictive, or prescriptive. Harrison sees a movement from normative averages for group and individual behavior to a less clearly defined personal growth dimension.⁴¹

³⁹Basic Readings in Human Relations, Part I (New York: The Episcopal Church, 1970), p. 1.

⁴⁰Roger Harrison, "Research on Human Relations Training: Design and Interpretation," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, vol. 7, no. 1 (1971), pp. 74-77.

⁴¹Ibid.

Chris Argyris was concerned with the future of laboratory education. He discussed four implications of laboratory training: (1) man possesses self-awareness and groups tend to enhance this, (2) a focus upon openness among all participants and the trainer(s), (3) laboratory learning needs to be positive rather than damaging, and (4) self-confirmation is the goal of laboratory education.⁴²

T-Groups are learning groups which utilize the laboratory model. This provides for learning experiences in small groups. These groups are usually cultural islands which allow one to focus upon group goals. Roger Harrison postulated four hypotheses about group composition: (1) a supportive group climate is essential, (2) group climate can be manipulated by selection procedures, (3) inactive members can learn in supportive groups which offer alternatives for change, and (4) models and research are important to laboratory groups. All four of these are important considerations when designing a laboratory training event.⁴³

Stages of Group Development

In an attempt to create a science of human relations training, social scientists began to conduct research.

⁴²Chris Argyris, "On the Future of Laboratory Education," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, vol. 3, no. 2 (1967), pp. 153-180.

⁴³Roger Harrison, "Group Composition Model for Laboratory Design," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, vol. 1, no. 4 (1965), p. 431.

As early as 1948, Herbert Thelen made tape recordings of his training group's fifteen two-hour sessions. He found that the problem of authority and leadership arose in the first phase of the group, trainer rejection of conventional directive roles in leadership created uneasiness in the second phase, and there was a thrust for harmony (almost at all cost) in the third phase. In 1948, Kurt Back studied the development of T-groups by looking at the communication patterns of the participants. The first phase was marked by more negative feelings than in the second phase. In his study of the development patterns of the two groups, he found that one group was less task-oriented than the other group.⁴⁴ A study by Margaret E. Barron and Gilbert K. Krulee supported the findings of Back that groups tended to resist leadership roles and task-orientation in phase one, but attempted goal-fulfillment in phase two.⁴⁵ In a study by William F. Hill, the task-orientation remained about the same in both phases of the group.⁴⁶ Many of the

⁴⁴Kurt Back, "Interpersonal Relations in a Discussion," Journal of Social Issues, vol. 4 (1948), pp. 61-65.

⁴⁵Margaret Barron and Gilbert Krulee, "Case Study of a Basic Skill Training Group," Journal of Social Issues, vol. 4 (1948), pp. 10-30.

⁴⁶William Hill, "The Influence of Subgroups on Participation in Human Relations Training Groups," as cited in Leland P. Bradford, Jack R. Gibb, and Kenneth D. Benne, T-Group and Laboratory Method (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964), p. 399.

studies in the late 1940's and 1950's focused upon stages of group development.

Individual Changes

Changes in individuals within the group were studied as early as 1950. Jeanne Watson studied four hundred participants at NTL laboratories from 1950-1954. She dichotomized the participants into those oriented to the "world" and those who were oriented to "self." This was an attempt to predict participant behavior in groups.⁴⁷ H. L. Burke and Warren Bennis studied self-perceptions in 1961. Participants were to rate themselves on how they behaved in groups and how they would like to behave in groups. After training, there was more congruence between desired behavior and actual behavior.⁴⁸ Bernard M. Bass studied mood changes of participants in 1962. He indicated mood changes throughout training, but the changes were more positive than negative.⁴⁹ Changes in laboratory environments did occur. Trainers were important factors in group members' changes.

⁴⁷Jeanne Watson as cited in Bradford, Gibb, and Benne, op. cit., pp. 411-412, and 441.

⁴⁸H. L. Burke and Warren Bennis, "Changes in Perception of Self and Others During Human Relations Training," Human Relations, vol. 14 (1961), pp. 165-182.

⁴⁹Bernard Bass, "Mood Changes During a Management Training Laboratory," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, vol. 3 (1962), pp. 361-364.

Trainer Role in Change

Gary Cooper postulated the hypotheses that member attitudes and behavior would change in the direction of the desired outcome, if the trainer was perceived as a congruent and integrated individual. Subjects were 107 participants and 16 trainers of 12 English T-Groups. Measure of trainer congruence was by the Relationship Inventory-Congruence Scale of Barrett-Lennard. Measure of behavior change was through analysis of T-group sessions' tape recordings. Schutz's FIRO-B was the measure of attitude change. When a trainer was seen as congruent and attractive, the group members moved toward more congruence in their attitudes and behavior.⁵⁰

Lee Bolman tested the relationship among trainer behavior, members' reaction to trainer, group climate and participant learning. Subjects were 118 participants and 20 trainers in a two week residential laboratory at Bethel. Trainer characteristics were affection, conditionality, empathy, openness, and security. The more the members identified with the trainer the more member behavior changed.⁵¹ Trainers helped establish norms of dealing in "here-and-now," trying new behavior and means of transferring feedback

⁵⁰Gary L. Cooper, "The Influence of the Trainer on Participant Change in T-Groups," Human Relations, vol. 22, no. 6 (1969), pp. 515-530.

⁵¹Lee Bolman, "Some Effects of Trainers on Their T Groups," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, vol. 7, no. 3 (1971), pp. 309-325.

learnings to "back-home" environment.

Samuel Culbert developed a phase progression model for moving members through phases of group and personal development. There are four parts to his progression model: (1) commitment to specific goals, (2) predetermined or specified phases of group development, (3) means of dealing with each aspect of the phase processes (within each phase and on to next phase), and (4) a method for shifting the group focus from one phase to another. This latter point or method was greatly enhanced by commenting on the past, present, and future of the phase progression.⁵²

From these studies one can become aware of the importance of the group, group norms, group members' group roles, and trainers to specific learning tasks in T-Groups. Now, another type of group will be examined.

Type B--Therapy Groups

Some groups are corrective-clinical in orientation. They are led by professional clinical psychologists, psychiatrists, and school or religious counselors who are certified by some agency. But these groups are also led by well-meaning teachers, housewives, students, and outright charlatans. Many of the trained professionals base their

⁵²Samuel Culbert, "Accelerating Laboratory Learning Through a Phase Progression Model for Trainer Intervention," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, vol. 6, no. 1 (1970), pp. 21-39.

programs around traditional theories of Freud, Jung, and Adler; others use a Gestalt therapeutic approach. The emphasis in the group is upon a one-to-one therapist-client confrontation witnessed by the total group.

There has been a trend for many psychotherapeutic groups which use the laboratory training method to emphasize Gestalt techniques drawing upon the theory and techniques developed by Fritz Perls. Gestalt is based upon a phenomenological orientation which focuses on wholistic experiences which unite the figure-ground perceptions of an individual into a discernible whole.⁵³ This process is facilitated by pragnaz or "grouping toward simplicity, balance, and good form."⁵⁴ Wolfgang Kohler amplified the fundamental concepts of figure-ground perceptions of an individual into a striving for equilibrium through understanding certain rhythms, balances, and tensions in an individual's perceptual field and interactions. The rhythms, balances, and tensions in an individual's perceptual field and his relational alignments and activities tend to repel or to attract others.⁵⁵

⁵³Frederick Perls, Gestalt Therapy Verbatim (Lafayette, Calif.: Real People Press, 1969b), and F. Perls, Gestalt Therapy (New York: Dell, 1965).

⁵⁴"Gestalt Theory," Encyclopedia of Social Science, vol. 6, p. 168.

⁵⁵Wolfgang Kohler, Gestalt Psychology (New York: New American Library, 1947).

Gestalt therapy groups are offshoots of NTL-type training laboratories and became popular at growth centers on both coasts and throughout the country. Two examples of these centers are Easlen at Big Sur, California which was founded by Michael Murphy and Richard Price in 1950.⁵⁶ Another center on the west coast is the Center for Democratic Studies of the Person at La Jolla, California. Other organizations throughout the United States offer therapy/encounter groups. Several colleges and universities, including the University of California at Davis, offer encounter group courses in psychology. The class at Davis was described as follows:

The main focus of Psychology 3 will be small group experience. You will meet with a group of 8 to 10 fellow students once a week for approximately two hours . . . in a kind of interpersonal laboratory in which personal encounter and sensitivity to self and others will be emphasized. . . .⁵⁷

Psychodrama therapy groups are Gestalt-type groups which employ spontaneity theater techniques, role-play techniques of J. L. Moreno, and role-play theory. Psychodrama provides an opportunity for protagonist (patient) to act-out his relationships with significant others in on-stage dramatic setting. Group members assume therapeutic roles through doubling (attempting to physically and

⁵⁶Kurt Back, Beyond Words (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1972), pp. 65-66.

⁵⁷Arthur Burton (ed.), Encounter (San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1969), p. 193.

psychologically mimic the feeling-tone of the patient), and auxiliary roles. An auxiliary role could be to assume the role of a significant other e.g. mother. The audience is an important source of feedback and support to the patient. The director is the therapist who must be aware of all the interactions upon the stage, in the audience, and in himself. These five instruments: (1) stage, (2) patient, (3) doubles and auxiliaries, (4) audience, and (5) director are vital to the therapeutic process in psychodrama.⁵⁸

Before engaging in a psychodrama, warm-ups are instruments which allow the director to identify potential protagonists and auxiliaries in the audience. Michael Klassman, Director of Psychotherapy at Crossroads Hospital in Van Nuys, California is a certified psychodrama therapist who studied at a Moreno Institute in California. He teaches psychodrama techniques at his institute in Van Nuys, California.

There are other types of therapeutic groups, but identification of this genre of groups is essential to a comparison of groups according to stages of group development,

⁵⁸J. L. Moreno and David Kipper, "Group Psychodrama and Community-Centered Counseling," in George M. Gazda (ed.), Basic Approaches to Group Psychotherapy and Group Counseling (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1968), pp. 55-56.

roles, norms, and task. Therapy groups focus upon individual (patient) and task (therapy) more than maintenance of group. The norms of participation-non-participation, focus upon the here-and-now (acting out feelings), feedback (from the audience and director), and process-analysis or de-briefing of the techniques. The therapist attempts some measure of closure for the patient. The roles assumed by the group can vary from response to the events on-stage to actual participation as a quasi-therapist through doubling and auxiliary roles for helping the patient dramatize his dilemma. The task is the process of assisting the patient to become aware of solutions to his psychological dilemma(s).

The major task of a therapy group trainer is to facilitate behavior change in individuals who are having difficulty coping in some area of their lives. Therapy group members represent a wide range of people problems-- they may be lonely, lacking in self-esteem, harried, or dissatisfied with one or more aspects of their interpersonal behavior. The importance of therapy group therapists is underscored by Robert J. Smith. The therapy group leader is responsible to the group for protecting the psyche of the participants as they:

1. Articulate constructive feedback
2. Define important aspects of the situation
3. Open themselves up for scrutiny in a climate of psychological safety

4. Learn that anxiety can be important to learning
5. Transfer their learnings from the "cultural island" to the back-home situation⁵⁹

Therapy groups focus upon one-to-one relationships and face-to-face dialogue. One reason therapy groups can be very dangerous is if a non-professional conducts the group. According to two medical doctors, Steven Jaffe and Donald J. Scherle, psychoses were precipitated by therapy group experiences.⁶⁰ One of the participants was a "white married, Catholic, junior executive" who realized overtures had been made to him by homosexuals when he was a child. He also recalled a homosexual experience which disturbed him seriously. Another person suffered hallucinations after participating in a therapy group.⁶¹ The wisdom of professional training for therapy group leaders is much debated. Because there is much argument over the qualifications of a therapist, it is difficult to standardize the process for leaders of encounter-sensitivity groups which are dedicated to providing therapy for the group members. There are other types of groups which also use the laboratory method for learning.

⁵⁹Robert J. Smith, "A Closer Look at Encounter Therapies," International Journal of Group Psychotherapy, vol. 20 (1970), pp. 192-209.

⁶⁰Steven Jaffe and Donald Scherle, "Psychosis Precipitated by Participation in T-Group," General Psychiatry, vol. 21 (1969), pp. 444-446.

⁶¹Ibid.

Type C--Encounter Groups

This type of group is personal-expressive. There is much confusion about whether or not these types of groups are T-groups, therapy groups, or encounter-sensitivity groups. There are encounter groups which are designed to enhance creativity, to develop new sensory awareness procedures, and to provide experiences for people who are "more normal" in their behavior patterns than those who overtly seek therapy groups. These are often instrumented laboratories which utilize concepts like Schutz's FIRO-B which attempts to help a person become aware of his inclusion, control, and affection needs.⁶² Or to deal with the dimensions of trust, openness, realization, and interdependence (Jack Gibb's TORI),⁶³ There are values-clarification groups which help people to understand why they value the things they do and offer possible alternatives to the value system.⁶⁴

There are other groups which utilize games and exercises for sensory awareness in encounter groups. Al Rabinowitz from Van Nuys, California developed a list of

⁶²William Schutz, FIRO: A Three Dimensional Theory of Interpersonal Behavior (New York: Rinehart, 1958).

⁶³Jack R. Gibb, Notes on TORI Theory and TORI Community (A Pamphlet from Amherst, Mass.: New England Center, 1972), pp. 1-9.

⁶⁴Sidney Simon, Leland W. Home, and Howard Kirschenbaum, Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students (New York: Hurt Publishing Company, 1972), pp. 28, 36-44.

games and exercises to be used in such groups. These games enhance sensory awareness.

Many college campuses see the upswing of discussion groups which focus upon human problems. These groups are more exploratory than they are therapeutic. It is a time to allow the curious, exploratory, animated and natural aspects of your childhood to re-emerge briefly in a relaxed environment. Many times churches have such groups for singles and other portions of the population who are not legally or medically adjudicated mentally ill, psychotic, and neurotic. These are individuals who need some diversion to escape the monotony of a dull existence or who want to re-educate themselves into encountering the physical aspects of their environment through the sensory modalities.

Reviewing the literature on various types of groups is most interesting. There seems to be some confusion over what type of groups are T-groups, therapy groups, and encounter groups. All three of these groups use the laboratory method of learning, but the major element which separates them is the goal of the training (task). Figure 4 is a charting of Type A, Type B, and Type C groups according to (1) stages of group development, (2) group roles, (3) group norms, and (4) group task for comparison.

Variations of these types of human relations groups have been implemented into public education. We have discussed the philosophical background of human relations

	Type A - Training	Type B - Therapy	Type C - Encounter
GROUP DEVELOPMENT			
Phase I-Dependence-Power	Uses both Phase I & II	Uses Phase I	Uses Phase I briefly
Phase II-Interdependence-Personal	Uses both Phase I & II	May not get to Phase II	Major emphasis on Phase II
ROLES			
1. Maintenance - Individual - Task (MIT) 2. Social-emotion(+)-Task-Social-Emotion(-)	<u>M-I-T</u> (1) Bales Categories (2)	1. Focuses upon M less; Focuses upon Individual and Task more 2. Much Task-social(-)	1. Individual Needs-Task Needs 2. Task-Social Emotion (+)
NORMS			
1. here-and-now 2. voluntary participation 3. Feedback	All norms apply	1. Applies 2. Therapist may manipulate 3. Applies	All norms apply
TASK			
1. Grow interpersonally 2. Learn how to grow 3. Practice HR skills 4. Apply them "back-home."	Any one task or tasks on any order could apply	1. Important 2. Important 3. Encouraged 4. Assumed	1. & 2. Grow interpersonally in awareness--focus is upon sensory awareness 3. & 4. Apply skills now and "back-home."

Figure 4. Human Relations Groups

training in Jean Jacques Rousseau and John Dewey, origins of human relations training in industrial relations and in group dynamics, and the evolvement of human relations groups. This has narrowed the focus to what are some of the salient characteristics of human relations groups. Next, forces which led to implementation of human relations training in public education will be examined.

CHAPTER III

FORCES WHICH LED TO HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING IN EDUCATION

Human relations is concerned primarily with the study of man in his social group relationships. Experiences within a group context are vital to the development of an integrated human being who can function within a social milieu. The combination of ability to reason abstractly and to experience concepts through sensory awareness constitute a viable approach to learning. The process of education is designed to develop a whole person, not a fragmented being.¹ After World War II, there was a focus in education upon "the dynamics of human relations-- as a fundamental aspect of democracy, as essential in good teaching, as a crucial element in cooperative curriculum improvement, and as a part of the research process."² There were multiple forces which led to the implementation of human relations concerns into educational processes.

¹William H. Kilpatrick, Modern Education and Better Human Relations (Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith: Freedom Pamphlet, 1951), p. 14.

²Margaret G. McKim, "Curriculum Research in Historical Perspective," in Research for Curriculum Improvement, 1957 Yearbook (Washington, D.C., ASCD, 1957), p. 27.

For the purpose of this inquiry, two forces will be discussed: (1) focus upon intergroup relations and/or human relations, and (2) federal court decisions and legislation designed to desegregate schools.

Intergroup Education

Focus upon intergroup education was given a positive emphasis through the establishment of the Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools project which was a joint venture of the American Council on Education and the National Conference of Christians and Jews. As a response to riots and other national problems which were creating disunity in America, this project worked "to develop new materials, new approaches, new techniques, and new ways of mobilizing school and community resources for improving human relations and fostering intergroup understanding."³ The project began on January 1, 1945 and ended on September 1, 1948. After the project was completed, the National Conference of Christians and Jews funded the Center for Intergroup Education at the University of Chicago which developed materials similar to the ones developed by the American Council on Education Experiment.⁴

³Hilda Taba and Deborah Elkins, With Focus on Human Relations (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1950), p. v.

⁴Ibid.

This project was an early multidisciplinary approach to human social and educational problems. The consultants who worked cooperatively were specialists in "child development, literature, social psychology, social studies, school-community relations, curriculum, and evaluation."⁵ There is no need to discuss the project in totality, but some of the publications will be examined as examples of focus upon intergroup relations and human relations.

Some of the educational objectives developed by these cooperating experts were the following:

1. to generate growth of concepts and ideas from a narrow to a more broad focus
2. to extend the feelings and awareness (sensitivities) of students toward other individuals
3. to develop positive social skills⁶

These three objectives would enlarge the vision of students from an ethnocentric viewpoint to a multicultural broadness which would greatly enhance human relationships. It is far easier to develop an appreciation for people who are similar in race, creed, and religion. But what are the responses to people who are different? These educators

⁵Hilda Taba and Deborah Elkins, op. cit., p. v.

⁶Hilda Taba, "Human Relations in Educational Programs," Claremont Reading Conference Sixteenth Yearbook, 1951 (Claremont, Calif.: Claremont Curriculum Laboratory, 1951), pp. 55-58.

were trying to develop an inclusive approach rather than an exclusive approach to dealing with all students.

One way to generate growth of concepts and ideas would be to shift the focus of social studies classes from the narrow perspective of only American customs and values to the level of appreciation of cultural differences. Awareness by itself will not generate appreciation for differences, but it is an essential first step. Students can be provided positive interactions through a banquet of nations, or music from many lands, or building housing structures from many lands, or sharing religious beliefs. These activities could develop new appreciation for peoples from many lands. Social skills hinge upon an understanding of how one's behavior affects others and is affected by others. Social norms are not absolutes, but they are culturally relative. What is a social skill in one society might be a social detriment in another. Role-play living in another country could help students learn about others.

Literature is another tool for learning about others. Reading Ladders for Human Relations was the first pamphlet published by the Work in Progress series developed by the Intergroup Education Cooperation Project. This book was an enlargement of the original pamphlet. This was a list of books and literature which would increase appreciation of one's own cultural contributions in literature and

the contributions of other nationalities.⁷ School Culture was the last publication of the project. This was a study of social clubs at Westlake High School which had 1,700 students.⁸ The study revealed an interesting irony. In a school system dedicated to democratic principles and the education of youth for a democracy there were people being rejected and isolated from meaningful activity. This rejection and isolation were negative components of the social clubs and the autocratic educational processes inherent in traditional schools. There were other studies conducted under the auspices of Hilda Taba as Director. These can be found in the bibliography of this study.

This project is one example of intergroup emphasis in education. It substantiates the intergroup dimension in education through an example. This was also an early attempt to deal with problems from a multidisciplinary perspective, to define the objectives of human relations education, and to conduct human relations research in schools. These were important elements of the intergroup focus in education for human relations.

⁷Hilda Taba, Reading Ladders for Human Relations (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1947).

⁸Hilda Taba, School Culture (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1955).

Court Decisions and Federal Legislation

Another force which turned attention to racial problems in schools was federal legislation. The foremost federal court ruling which provided the groundwork for a human relations emphasis in public education prior to the 1962-1972 period was the United States Supreme Court's May 17, 1954 Brown decision which concluded segregation in the public schools is unconstitutional.⁹ School systems which had devised social studies curricula aimed at fostering understanding and good will between members of the different ethnic and religious groups of the community prior to the Brown decision contended desegregation was less of a problem. In 1945, the American Council on Education invited the St. Louis schools to become a part of an experimental study of intergroup education. Participation in this experiment had a positive effect upon the schools in terms of desegregation:

This experiment had contributed greatly to the development in the St. Louis Public Schools of a more comprehensive human relations program. The basic aim of that program had been discovering and utilization of effective means of promoting good will among the groups of people living in St. Louis by teaching (1) respect for the worth and dignity of the individual regardless of the group to which he belonged, and (2) appreciation for the religious contributions of the differing ethnic, racial, and religious groups to American life. . . . It had not exclusively or

⁹347 U.S. 483, 347 U.S. 497, United States Reports, Vol. 349, Cases Adjudged in the Supreme Court at October Term, 1954, p. 298.

even primarily focussed (sic) its efforts on Negro-White relations. It had, in fact, been inaugurated with other objectives in mind.¹⁰

University of Miami's School Desegregation Consulting Center conducted a survey which summarized national desegregation trends with the following results for the period from 1968-1972:

In Florida, Broward, Duval, Hillsborough and Pinellas counties have fully desegregated . . . Dade County has a way to go. . . . Miami (is) half desegregated . . . Tampa, St. Petersburg, Daytona Beach and Panama City have continuing problems. . . . Dallas, Fort Worth and Houston . . . Memphis, Atlanta and New Orleans remain most segregated. . . . In the border states, . . . the situation remains a depressing one, with six of seven large city school systems still segregated. Only Oklahoma City has begun to desegregate. . . . Detroit, under a recent ruling by a Federal appellate court, has been ordered to create a massive 780,000 student combined school district with 52 suburban cities. . . . U.S. District Judge Stephen Roth's decision in the Detroit case . . . may become the model for future court decisions to desegregate the nation's largest school systems--New York, Chicago, Los Angeles and Philadelphia--where little if any progress toward desegregation has been made.¹¹

The Supreme Court ruling of 1954 was not being obeyed by many American School Districts. As a by-product of the Brown decision, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was passed. Even though this federal legislation was intended to permeate all of the social institutions of the United

¹⁰Philadelphia Board of Public Education, "Education in Human Relations," October, 1967 (Microfiche ED 020-952-A), p. 10.

¹¹Tom Morganthau, "Integration Advances in the South" (Miami Herald, January 11, 1973), Update (Microfiche 5, F-11).

States, there were sections which focused upon public education. Title IV of Public Law 88-352 (Civil Rights Act) identified three types of help available to the schools in the process of desegregation.

Section 403 provides technical assistance:

The Commissioner is authorized, upon application of any school board, State, municipality, school district, or other governmental unit legally responsible for operating a public school or schools, to render technical assistance to such applicant in the preparation, adoption, and implementation of plans for the desegregation of public schools . . . and making available to such agencies personnel of the Office of Education or other persons specially equipped to advise or assist them in coping with such problems.¹²

For example, the publication of A Curriculum Guide for Human Relations Education in Oklahoma Schools was made possible by funds from Title IV, Section 403 of Public Law 88-352 (Civil Rights Act) through the Oklahoma State Department of Education.¹³ This is one example of how legislation can aid the implementation of human relations training in public education. This section of the act also provides for the development and consultation of desegregation specialists in the United States Office of Education to assist public schools in the process of desegregation.

Section 404 provides training institutes:

¹²Public Law 86-350-July 2, 1964, U.S. Activities at Large, 88th Congress 2nd Session, 1964, Vol. 78, p. 247.

¹³Oklahoma State Department of Education, A Curriculum Guide for Human Relations Education in Oklahoma Schools, 1971 (Microfiche ED 068-487).

The Commissioner is authorized to arrange, through grants or contracts, with institutions of higher education for the operation of short-term or regular session institutes for special training designed to improve the ability of teachers, supervisors, counselors, and other elementary or secondary school personnel to deal effectively with special education problems occasioned by desegregation. Individuals who attend such an institute on a full-time basis may be paid stipends for the period of their attendance at such institute in amounts specified by the Commissioner in regulations, including allowances for travel to attend such institute.¹⁴

On August 11-14, 1968 a human relations institute was held at West Virginia Wesleyan College, Buckhannon, West Virginia, to explore the positive and negative aspects of integrated multiracial education. This institute was funded under Section IV of the Civil Rights Act.¹⁵ In the Ypsilanti, Michigan Public Schools a human relations project was developed under the above provisions, in order to modify teacher attitudes toward Black children so that desegregation would be smoothly implemented. The workshops, which included stipends for the teachers, were more effective than those which did not provide stipends.¹⁶

Section 405 provides training grants:

¹⁴Public Law 88-351, op. cit., p. 247.

¹⁵West Virginia Wesleyan College, "Institute on Human Relations and Attitudes in West Virginia as These Affect School Education," August, 1968 (Microfiche Ed 056-104), p. 2.

¹⁶Ray W. Barber, Ypsilanti Public Schools, "Ypsilanti Human Relations Program," 1967 (Microfiche ED 016-740), pp. 1-2.

(a) The Commissioner is authorized, upon application of the school board, to make grants to such board to pay, in whole or in part, the cost of --

(1) giving to teachers and other school personnel in-service training in dealing with problems incident to desegregation, and

(2) employing specialists to advise in problems incident to desegregation.¹⁷

In 1964, the Springfield, Massachusetts Public Schools secured funds for a lecture series focusing on "Human Relations and the Culturally Disadvantaged."¹⁸ In 1965, the New York City Public Schools Advisory Committee on Human Relations recommended development of materials and teacher in-service training for teaching human relations and intercultural education.¹⁹ These were examples of early attempts to comply with the legal requirement for school desegregation.

Thus far, we noted that the Supreme Court ruling of May 17, 1954 and the Civil Rights Act of 1964 were instrumental in implementing human relations training in the public schools. There is still another important law, Public Law 89-10 (the Elementary and Secondary Education

¹⁷Public Law 88-35, op. cit., pp. 247-248.

¹⁸Dr. T. Joseph McCook, Superintendent of Schools, Springfield, Massachusetts, "A Committee Report Based on Staff Discussions Following a Series of Lectures on Human Relations and the Culturally Disadvantaged," 1964 (Microfiche ED 001-514), p. 1.

¹⁹New York City Public Schools, "Blueprint for Further Action Toward Quality Integrated Education," March 6, 1965 (Microfiche ED 002-067-A), Cover sheet and p. 68.

Act of 1965).²⁰ Title III of this act is designed to provide supplementary educational centers and services so that supplementary educational services could be offered to students such as:

1. programs to assist the student through counseling or medical referral so that he may remain in school
2. adult education provisions
3. new educational programs (innovative education)
4. centralized education for preschoolers or the handicapped
5. modern educational equipment and fine arts practitioners on loan to public schools, organizations, and institutions
6. multi-media programs for schools
7. methods to reduce isolation in rural education through technology or visiting teachers
8. other programs which meet the above-mentioned needs.²¹

The Buffalo Public Schools developed "A Guidebook to Learning Activities" covering various curricula in human

²⁰Public Law 89-10-April 11, 1965, United States at Large Containing the Laws and Concurrent Resolutions Enacted During the First Session of the Eighty-ninth Congress of the United States of America 1965, Vol. 70 in One Part, p. 27.

²¹Public Law 89-10-April 11, 1965, op. cit., p. 27.

relations.²² The University of California produced a motion picture for the in-service training of human relations teachers.²³ These are two examples of how federal legislation assisted in the implementation of human relations programs into schools. Without a doubt, federal legislation has been an important factor in turning the attention of educators, parents, and students to human relations as a viable concept in the process of education.

The Brown decision was the first major thrust to end segregation in the public schools, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 reinforced the concept of the Supreme Court decision, and the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965 provided the funds and impetus for new programs to meet the instructional needs of students and teachers. These federal activities encouraged curtailment of social injustices like prejudice, discrimination, and segregation. But this encouragement did not eliminate these social ills. In short, the laws provided a momentum for human relations training in education. Whether or not this momentum is pervasive throughout public education is a question to be explored.

²²Buffalo Public Schools, N. Y., "Human Relations Education: A Guidebook to Learning Activities, 1969" (Microfiche ED 041-841), pp. 1-152.

²³Henry S. Breitrose and Janet K. Voelker, "Production of a Motion Picture for the In-Service Training of Teachers in Problems of Human Relations in Teaching the Socio-economically Disadvantaged and Evaluation of the Motion Picture. Final Report," April 1967 (Microfiche ED 013-277), pp. 1-24.

Two forces: (1) focus upon intergroup relations and/or human relations in education, and (2) impact of court decisions and federal legislation facilitated entry of human relations as a modern concept into public education. Desegregation is not the same thing as integration. Yehuda Amir tested the contact hypothesis of members of different racial groups.²⁴ Contact alone will not produce change in attitudes sufficient for integration to occur. People can deal with others on a semi-integrated basis. This semi-integration can give the appearances of integration in the work situation, but this is not transferable to the social milieu away from work. One interesting note of the study is that contact does create change (either positively or negatively) which is different from being ignored by another person. Segregation is negative human relations. Almost thirty years after the Brown decision, there is still lack of integration in education. But, there are attempts to meet human problems with development of human relations skills for teachers and students.

²⁴Yehuda Amir, "Contact Hypothesis in Ethnic Relations," Psychological Bulletin, vol. 71, no. 5 (1969), pp. 319-342.

CHAPTER IV

HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING IN EDUCATION

Public schools are important institutions for teaching the science of human relationships. Ashley Montagu argued:

Without neglecting the important influence which the home constitutes, I believe that the science of human relationships is best taught and learned in the schools. We must shift the emphasis from the three R's to the fourth R, human relations, and place it first, foremost, and always in that order of importance as the principal reason for the existence of the school. It must be clearly understood, once and for all time, that human relations are the most important of all relations. Upon this understanding must be based all our educational policies. We must train for humanity, and training in reading, writing, and arithmetic must be given in a manner calculated to serve the ends of that humanity. For all the knowledge in the world is worse than useless if it is not humanely understood and humanely used. An intelligence that is not humane is the most dangerous thing in the world.¹

Montagu has captured the essence of how important human relations education is to society. Humane interaction benefits society, but inhumaneness exerts a negative influence. The differential effects of an Albert Schweitzer and an Adolph Hitler are serious enough for consideration by

¹Ashley Montagu, Education and Human Relations (New York: Grove Press, Inc., 1958), p. 22.

parents and educators. People with trained intelligence can develop high level technology which either will enrich or impoverish mankind. The effects of technology are contingent upon the moral, ethical, and philosophical commitments of those who apply the technology to human endeavors.

Patterning of human interactions are by-products of what is taught and how it is taught. Individuals tend to treat others the same way they have been treated. Humane or inhumane relationships are developed in schools. Teachers are vital to the development of individuals with positive human relations skills of communication, decision-making, leadership, and change-agentry. The focus of this chapter is upon the following questions. When did human relations education begin for educators? What were the processes employed for this education? What were the effects of human relations training and curricula upon teachers?

Human Relations Training for Teachers

The first recorded course in human relations was taught by Frederick Taylor and Kurt Lewin at Harvard University in 1936. Dr. L. J. Henderson taught a human relations short course for supervisors and foremen at Harvard University in February, 1943. The case-method approach was utilized and the content for the cases came

²Keith Davis, Human Relations at Work: The Dynamics of Organizational Behavior, 3rd ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957), p. 9.

from the practical experiences of the participants in the class. This course proved effective in increasing human relations skills of the participants.³

Methods of Human Relations Education for Teachers

In 1945, the case method approach to human relations was implemented into an undergraduate general education course at Harvard University. This course was entitled Social Sciences 112--Human Relations.⁴ This is the earliest recorded course in human relations for college students. The genesis of human relations courses can be traced to Harvard University and the activities of people like Wallace B. Donham, L. J. Henderson, and Elton Mayo.

While universities were developing college-level courses in human relations, the Intergroup Cooperative Education project was conducting summer workshops in 1946 as an experiment in modifying educational attitudes and techniques. The question was whether negative attitudes could be mitigated through human relations education. The first workshop was held at the University of Chicago. Data from this workshop revealed that a combination of sociodrama,

³Wallace B. Donham, Education for Responsible Living (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1944), pp. 103-105.

⁴Hugh Cabot and Joseph A. Kahl, Human Relations: Concepts and Cases in Concrete Social Sciences, Volume I: Concepts (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1953), p. vii.

community experiences, and group processes were most effective in generating attitude changes. The data was not sufficient to isolate which one of the techniques was most effective in re-education of teachers. But, workshops were found to be an effective tool for human relations training.⁵

Another approach to human relations education was a summer institute for teachers held at Rutgers University in 1949. This course was entitled, Foundations of Human Relations Education, and it was designed by Max Birnbaum and Leon B. Wolcott. This course was a multidisciplinary approach to human relations education for teachers. The bases for the course came from four areas: (1) child development, (2) sociology, (3) social psychology, and (4) curriculum development. This institute was an early eclectic approach to human relations training for educators.⁶

Still another approach to human relations education was the laboratory training experience. In 1958 elementary principals attended a summer lab at Bethel, Maine. In 1960 NTL held its first college summer training session.

⁵Hilda Taba, Leadership Training in Intergroup Education (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1953), p. 3.

⁶Max Birnbaum and Leon B. Wolcott, "Human Relations Education for Teachers Through the Institute Type Course," Journal of Educational Sociology, vol. 23, no. 2 (October, 1949).

This session excluded faculty and was limited to college students. In 1961 the 1960 training population was expanded from students only to both students and faculty in simultaneous laboratories. From these early beginnings a new focus of summer laboratories for educators was established at three locations: (1) Bethel, Maine; (2) Western Training Laboratories at Lake Arrowhead, California; and (3) Intermountain Laboratories in Group Development at Cedar City, Utah.⁷

In 1968, the Evanston, Illinois School District 65 conducted an in-service training program which not only sensitized the teachers to the value of effective interpersonal relationships for integration, but also generated a series of resource manuals, film shorts, and unipacs (self-instructional material) for students. The resource manual was entitled "Sensitivity to Interpersonal Relationships."⁸ Many of the in-service training programs were designed for teacher acquisition of human relations skills,

⁷National Training Laboratories and National Education Association, "Twentieth Annual Summer Laboratories in Human Relations Training," (Microfiche ED 011-909).

⁸Evanston School District 65, Evanston, Illinois; "Sensitivity to Interpersonal Relationships: Resource Manual. An In-Service Training Program Which Focuses on Assisting Educators of School District 65 to Develop Some Common Understandings about Crucial Integration Issues: School year 1968-1969," (Microfiche ED 041-090), pp. 1-94.

but some also provided practical materials to be used in the teaching situation.

In 1969 a consortium of San Francisco and Oakland, California public schools, a unit of the University of California, the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, and KOED, the area's educational television station, developed a TV series on human relations. The major focus was upon behavior which alienated students, teachers-students, student-student, and teacher-teacher relationships. The format was one-half hour telecasts to be used for discussion in public schools. The development of script lines and the actual televising of the scripts was successful. Miscommunication (stemming from ignorance or misunderstanding) and aggressive communication (accurate conveyance of indifference) both reduce positive interpersonal relationships within the educational milieu.⁹

Another approach to education of teachers in human relations skills was the development of a motion picture for use in learning methods for teaching culturally disadvantaged students. The film, "For All My Students," was a 33-minute black and white sound film which compared and contrasted poor and effective techniques for teaching in

⁹Paul Hood and James Johnson, "The Development and Evaluation of a Television Workshop in Human Relations," April 1969 (Microfiche ED 033-173), pp. 1-119.

an integrated classroom.¹⁰ The production of this film was a learning process, and the film itself provided hints for effective ways to deal with students.

Methods for teaching human relations skills to educators included development of bibliographies, ideas, and guidebooks for use by the teachers. One example of a bibliography is Reading Ladders by Muriel Crosby.¹¹ Other bibliographies were "Selected Bibliography on Human Relations," by Harry Ritchie¹² and "Human Relations in the Classroom: An Annotated Bibliography, ERIC-IRCD Urban Disadvantaged Series, Number 22."¹³ Both of these are microfiche recorded sources of information with large sections devoted to the Negro in America.

In fact, many of the information sources entitled human relations are actually sources of information on race relations or ethnic studies. Other sources are ideabooks developed by agencies, or associations. The National

¹⁰H. S. Brietrose, H. S. Voelker, and J. K. Stanford, "Production of a Motion Picture for the In-Service Training of Teachers in Problems of Human Relations in Teaching the Socioeconomically Disadvantaged and Evaluation of the Motion Picture, Final Report," 1967 (Microfiche ED 013-277), pp. 1-24.

¹¹Muriel Crosby, Reading Ladders (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1963).

¹²Harry Ritchie, "Selected Bibliography on Human Relations," 1964 (Microfiche ED 002-465-A), pp. 1-58.

¹³Raja Jayatilleke, "Human Relations in the Classroom: An Annotated Bibliography, ERIC-IRCD Urban Disadvantaged Series, Number 22," 1971 (Microfiche ED 051-315), pp. 1-65.

Education Association Center for Human Relations in Washington, D.C. developed a "Human Relations Ideabook"¹⁴ which listed games, exercises, contests, small group discussion topics, and role-plays for learning about human relations. Some of the methods for learning about interpersonal skills were sources of information, didactic instruction, case-methods, summer workshops, summer institutes, laboratory training experiences, in-service workshops, consortium approaches to the development of television tapes, and production of movies.

Laboratory Training Research on Educators

Of all the methods for providing opportunities for developing human relations skills, the laboratory training format proved to be the most popular with participants and researchers. A sampling of this research will be reported in this section.

In 1958, Matthew Miles studied 34 elementary school principals who attended a two-week human relations training laboratory at Bethel, Maine. The measures were the Ohio State Leader Behavior Descriptions Questionnaire, Group Participation Scale, and an open-ended perceived change measure. The perceived change measure was designed to check participant perception and on-the-job perceptions of change reported by participants associates. Other instruments were given to diagnose sensitivity, diagnostic

¹⁴Jean McRae, "Human Relations Ideabook," 1971, (Microfiche ED 064-058).

ability and action-skill of participants. The results indicate that some degree of confidence can be placed upon the positive results of laboratory training upon participants.¹⁵

In 1959, 54 elementary school teachers from Nashville and/or Davidson County participated in laboratory education. There were 25 assigned to the experimental group and 29 in the control group. The treatment consisted of two summer laboratories to accommodate the 25 experimental participants. The first workshop had 14 teachers and the second workshop had 11. These were NTL-type designs with theory sessions, skill practice, and T-grouping. Instruments were objective measures of teacher-pupil classroom behavior and questionnaires. Those teachers who had attended the three week treatment sessions did measure some changes in behavior.¹⁶

In 1965, Leonard Lansky et al. studied 12 school administrators from Oregon. They underwent 10 days of laboratory training from July 25 to August 4, 1965. The instruments were administered from May 1965 through May 1966. The results indicated laboratory training was not

¹⁵ Matthew B. Miles, "Changes During and Following Laboratory Training: A Clinical-Experimental Study," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, vol. 1, no. 2 (1965), pp. 215-242.

¹⁶ Norman Bowers and Robert Soar, "Studies of Human Relations in the Teaching-Learning Process," 1961 (Microfiche ED 002-880-A), pp. 1-226.

effective in initiating and maintaining significant behavior changes.¹⁷

In 1968, Avis Brenner studied 208 elementary teachers from six suburban districts near New York City. They were members of self-directed T-groups established for the purpose of helping teachers become more innovative in the classroom. The treatment was mimeographed sheets to take the teachers step-by-step through exercises designed to establish cohesion in the group (affiliation), awareness of creative and innovative ideas of co-workers, develop norms of innovation, and encourage use of these innovations. The meetings were held once a week for six weeks. The results indicated that the treatment groups had been more innovative in their classrooms. But followup measures indicated these early results did not persist over time.¹⁸

In 1959 Carolin Keutzer, Fred Fosmire, Richard Diller, and Mary Smith studied 35 strangers who would become the teaching staff of a new high school in Portland, Oregon. All the staff attended a two-week summer workshop of laboratory training. An instrument was devised to allow the participants to predict their behavior in terms of

¹⁷Leonard Lansky, Philip J. Runkle, John Croft, and Coleen MacGregor, "The Effects of Human Relations Training on Diagnosing Skills and Planning for Change, A Technical Report," 1969 (Microfiche ED 032-652), pp. 1-62.

¹⁸Avis Brenner, "Self-Directed T-Groups for Elementary Teachers: Impetus for Innovation," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, vol. 7, no. 3 (1971), pp. 327-341.

openness, candid responses, risking, and conflict-management. Students were given instruments to measure the same things. Also, the experimenters observed the behavior of the staff with the students. There were positive changes in the educators which were long-term. In fact, it persisted for a whole school year.¹⁹

In 1969, J. L. Khanna studied 150 educators to assess the effect of human relations training. The instruments employed were Personal-Orientation Inventory, F-Scale, Semantic Differential, Leary's Interpersonal Checklist and Motivation Analysis Test. Other instruments were Ryan's Rating Scale, the Michigan Picture Test, and Leary's Interpersonal Checklist. The results indicated that educators became less authoritarian and more self-actualized as a result of the training. Other skill improvements were in the areas of self-insight and leadership.²⁰

In 1970, Terry Thomas studied 28 elementary school principals who attended a five day laboratory to see the effects of changes due to laboratory training. The

¹⁹ Carolin Keutzer et al., "Laboratory Training in a New Social System: Evaluation of a Two-week Program for High School Personnel," 1969 (Microfiche ED 046-124), pp. 1-52. See also Carolin Keutzer et al., "Laboratory Training in a New Social System: Evaluation of a Consulting Relationship with a High School Faculty," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, vol. 7, no. 4 (1971), pp. 493-501.

²⁰ J. L. Khanna, "An Evaluation of the Human Relations Training Program," 1969 (Microfiche ED 032-965), pp. 1-113.

hypotheses predicted changes in the interpersonal areas and social-emotional climate of the principals' schools. Responses from 204 questionnaires sent to teachers indicated changes in the principals' interpersonal relationships and in the social-emotional climate of the principals' schools.²¹

Walter S. Lee studied 51 public elementary school teachers. The treatment groups were divided into sensitivity training group of 10 teachers, and classroom training group-10 teachers. There were 20 teachers in the control group. The instruments were the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTAI) and Q-sort administered as pre-post tests. Teachers in sensitivity (T-group) improved on the MTAI more than the control group. Teacher attitudes toward children, personal relationships, teaching as a career and about themselves improved.²²

In 1971, Russell Dobson, Sue Hawkins, and Bill Bowman studied 80 elementary school student teachers and the effect of laboratory training upon their perception and treatment of behavioral problems in elementary schools. The 80 student teachers were divided into two groups of 40 each. The experimental group of forty was divided into

²¹Terry Thomas, "Changes in Elementary School Principals as a Result of Laboratory Training," 1970 (Microfiche ED 041-368), pp. 1-22.

²²Walter S. Lee, "Human Relations Training for Teachers: The Effectiveness of Sensitivity Training," California Journal of Educational Research, vol. 21 (1970), pp. 28-34.

four 10-member groups. Two instruments: (1) the Behavioral Problems Inventory and (2) the Behavioral Problems Treatment Sheet were administered. The results indicated changes on perceived level of seriousness on 22 of the 37 behavioral problems while control group changed on 4. There was a change to more positive student teacher attitudes toward behavioral problems, but there was no significant difference between selection of desirable treatments. Human relations training did have a positive effect on changing the perception of the teachers toward what was a serious and less-serious behavior problem. But the choice of desirable treatments to the behavior problems were very similar.²³

The evidence is not conclusive at this time regarding the effects of laboratory training upon the behavior of teachers, and the development of human relations skills. There seems to be an indication of change, but this change does not persist over time without reinforcement. From about 1965 to the present research has increased in the area of human relations training for teachers.

Esther P. Rothman described an ideal human relations-oriented teacher as one who understands students, their needs, motives, strengths, weaknesses, and prejudices; as

²³ Russel Dobson, Sue Hawkins, Bill Bowman, "The Effect of Intensive Laboratory Experiences upon Student Teacher Perception and Treatment of Behavioral Problems of Elementary School Children," Educational Leadership, vol. 29, no. 2 (1971), pp. 159-164.

well as being aware of all those things in herself.²⁴

Ashley Montagu envisioned human relations teachers as

"temperamentally fitted for his profession, and he should himself be an exemplar of the art of living and the practice of human relations."²⁵

Hilda Taba listed the practice of human relations skills as the ability to diagnose problems, to engage in decision-making, to provide leadership, and to implement conflict resolution.²⁶

A teacher who understands herself and her students, who is temperamentally fitted to teach, who is a good model of human relations, and who possesses diagnostic, decision-making, leadership, and conflict-management skills would be almost too good to be true. Teacher education and human relations training are designed to facilitate the development of this type of teacher.

²⁴ Esther P. Rothman, "Needed: The Teacher as a Specialist in Human Relations," High School Journal, vol. 49 (1966), pp. 266-270.

²⁵ Ashley Montagu, op. cit., p. 23.

²⁶ Hilda Taba, Intergroup Relations (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1952), p. 175.

CHAPTER V

HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING AND CURRICULA IN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

The first recorded academic class in human relations was taught by Kurt Lewin and Frederick Taylor at Harvard University in 1936. The first non-university human relations class is not a matter of literary record. To many elementary and secondary teachers and students inter-group relations, race relations, or learning to get along with others is human relations. Edward G. Olsen noted a shocking realization many teachers must face--the sudden awareness that they too are prejudiced. "There's no racial, religious discrimination in our school. We treat all the children the same--blondes, brunettes, and redheads; tall, short, and average; Negroes, whites, Orientals; Jews, Catholics, all religions and none--everybody."¹ Many of these prejudiced teachers may have taught social studies, English, government, social science, humanities, or other courses in all-white classrooms, prior to the 1960's. With

¹Edward G. Olsen, "Higher Horizons in Human Relations," Illinois Education, vol. 54 (May, 1966), p. 388.

desegregation emphases, awareness of cultural differences were important.

For many children of minority groups it is better to engage in head-on confrontation with bigots than to be discriminated against or ignored by others. In many ways, it is as if some prejudiced individuals draw a circle about themselves which excludes those who are different and includes those who are similar. Since prejudice, bigotry, hatred, and violence are learned, then it follows that good human relations must be learned also. Mary Ellen Goodman wrote: "The idea--and the ideal--in human relations is to choose one's associates on a person-to-person, not a group-to-group basis. The person himself, his qualities as a human being, should determine whether we accept him as a friend, an employee, or an employer, or on some other basis."² The school age years can be the most meaningful or the most painful years of a young child's life. Children tend to be colorblind where other children are concerned. They must be taught there is something wrong with being culturally or racially different.

Lloyd and Elaine Cook reported that when teachers talk about "human relations in school thought centers first of all on so-called minority-group children--a Negro

²Mary Ellen Goodman, "A Primer for Parents Educating Our Children for Good Human Relations," 1963 (Microfiche ED 001-988), pp. 1-33.

boy who got a raw deal, a Jewish or Catholic child, a youngster of alien parentage, . . . a faculty may pull itself around to the point where it comes to operate on a very simple formula, namely to hate the person who hates others."³ How does one combat this inhumaneness in education? Muriel Crosby offered a philosophy consonant with principles of human relations. "The earth is man's home. Unless man inhabits it with dignity, self-respect, regard for others, and respect for the human potentialities of himself and his fellow man, degradation and despair are his lot."⁴

What is human relations education? Joan Moyer defined this type of education as "a development of understanding among all peoples."⁵ This understanding does not seek homogenization of the cultures, but an appreciation for the differences in one's self and in the differences in others. A multicultural mosaic is much more interesting than the blandness of a single cultural (narrowness) perception of the world.

³Lloyd and Elaine Cook, A Sociological Approach to Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1950, p. 338.

⁴Muriel Crosby, "Concept Building: Human Relations," Education, vol. 84, no. 1 (1963), p. 39.

⁵Joan Moyer, "Bases for World Understanding and Cooperation: Suggestions for Teaching the Young Child;" 1970 (Microfiche ED 048-030), p. 4.

Muriel Crosby reported that Wilmington, Delaware Public Schools were early pioneers in attempting to design curricula to meet the needs of disadvantaged children: "Under the sponsorship of the National Council of Christians and Jews, the Three Year Experimental Project on Schools in Changing Neighborhoods was initiated in September, 1959."⁶ The three basic premises of the curriculum designers were: (1) human relations education is a process, (2) human needs must be satisfied before a child will be motivated to learn, and (3) what one learns in school must have pragmatic applications in his other social environments. Since much of public school education is designed to eliminate environmental coping problems, this type of curriculum--one which sought ways to deal with real-life problems of students--was not unique.⁷ Rather, human relations activities complement and supplement other school programs. Thus, human relations education is designed to provide techniques for the development of effective interpersonal skills, it is a process to be experienced, and must be relevant to human problems outside the classroom.

There is sometimes confusion about what is human relations education, because it is similar to humanistic

⁶Muriel Crosby, "Curriculum Implications of Human-Relations Education," Theory into Practice, vol. 1 (1962), p. 191.

⁷Ibid.

educational philosophies and curricula. In Amherst, Massachusetts, a task force conceived of human relations training as skill-development in the affective areas of education. Allen Ivey and Stephen Rollin developed behavioral objectives which focus heavily upon the affective dimension in education.⁸ Stephen Alter Rollin developed a human relations curriculum which contains objectives for four skill areas: (1) relaxation, (2) non-verbal behavior, (3) attending behavior, and (4) decision-making skills. There is much similarity between the Ivey and Rollin's curricula.⁹ Ivey and Rollin developed humanistic curricula.

Humanistic psychology is similar to phenomenology in its focus upon man's perception of events and things, and to existentialism in acknowledging man is responsible and capable of behaving in a responsible manner. Humanistic psychology: (1) cares about man, (2) values meanings, (3) underscores human validation, rather than scientific validation, (4) accepts no absolutes in knowledge, and

⁸Allen Ivey et al., "Human Interaction: A Behavioral Objectives Curriculum in Human Relations," 1970 (Microfiche ED 051-113), pp. 1-76. See also Allen Ivey et al., "The Human Relations Performance Curriculum, A Commitment to Intentionality," 1970 (Microfiche ED 043-060), pp. 1-15.

⁹Stephen Alter Rollin, The Development and Testing of a Performance Curriculum in Human Relations, University of Massachusetts, 1970.

(5) is phenomenological in orientation.¹⁰ The major focus is upon man himself, rather than upon man in interaction with others at the group level. Bugental offers five postulates about man: (1) man is different from sub-humans, (2) meaning is more important than method in understanding man, (3) primary concern is man's subjective experience, (4) looks for things to enrich man's experience, (5) man is individual, exceptional.¹¹ Humanistic education attempts to underscore Bloomfield's typology in the affective domain. In fact, many of the exercises and techniques in humanistic education are aimed at sensory awareness and acceptance of the affective responses as valid learning processes.¹²

Human relations experts and teachers need to be aware of the psychology of man and to understand the affectual component. But this is a prerequisite for effective human relations activities, not the goal. The difference is in emphasis, because humanistic psychology underscores the intrapersonal and subjective dimensions of man and human relations underscores the interpersonal and

¹⁰James F. T. Bugental, "The Third Force in Psychology," Journal of Humanistic Psychology, vol. 4 (1964), pp. 23-24.

¹¹James F. T. Bugental, "The Challenge That Is Man," in James F. T. Bugental (ed.), Challenges of Humanistic Psychology (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), p. 9.

¹²Gerald Weinstein and Mario Fantini (eds.), Toward Humanistic Education: A Curriculum of Affect (New York: Praeger, 1970).

observable interactions of man in groups, both large and small.

A study of man in groups can be the focus of a social studies class, an English class, a psychology class, a sociology class, a history class, and almost any class offered to students. A review of teachers' guides revealed that much of what is considered human relations is actually ethnic or race relations. For example, the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction introduced intergroup concepts in 1951 and 1955, the Committee on Human Relations was not formed until May 1, 1958. Integration of intergroup techniques into curricula was a major goal of the group. Richard B. Anliot, the chief editor of a guide to implement an intergroup curriculum into the Pennsylvania schools, coordinated the efforts of 161 individuals (of whom 75 were educators). The Pennsylvania guide was offered free to interested school personnel and patrons.¹³ The guide can be summarized into (1) positive attitudes, (2) awareness of cultural differences and respect for them, and (3) problem-solving skills.

In 1969, the Buffalo (New York) Public Schools developed a human relations guidebook. The basic concepts

¹³Richard B. Anliot and Neal V. Musmanno, "Our Greatest Challenge--HUMAN RELATIONS (sic)," Pennsylvania School Journal, vol. 111 (1962), pp. 96-97, and 113. See also Harrisburg, Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, "Our Greatest Challenge: Human Relations Guide to Intergroup Education in Schools," 1962 (Microfiche ED 001-035), pp. 1-55.

were similar to the Pennsylvania curriculum, involving: (1) positive attitudes toward others so that one treats another with respect, (2) refusal to stereotype an individual with negative "minority group" characteristics because all humans are worthwhile and worthy of respect, and (3) learning how to communicate and to solve problems.¹⁴

The early 1970's brought an increase in the development of human relations curricula. The Oklahoma State Department of Education defined "good human relations in the schools" as understanding basic human needs, characteristics, and behavior patterns. Basic human needs include proper emotional and social development. Thus from this perspective, human characteristics are improved with the removal of hostility, indifference, mistrust, prejudices, and hatred of one student for another. It is aimed toward understanding cultural and social backgrounds of others.¹⁵

It has been interesting to note the change in terminology from "Negro" (1960's) to "Afro-America" and "Black" (1970's) in elementary and secondary curricula dealing with interpersonal relations, ethnic relations, and race relations. Much of the literature in human relations,

¹⁴Buffalo, New York Public Schools, "Human Relations Education: A Guidebook to Learning Activities," 1969 (Microfiche ED 081-841), p. 4.

¹⁵Oklahoma State Department, A Curriculum Guide for Human Relations Education in Oklahoma Schools, 1971 (Microfiche ED 064-487), pp. 16-17.

bibliographies, guidebooks, curricula, and audiovisuals deal with black-white relationships. Many of the guidebooks were designed and implemented by dedicated educators committed to humanizing the educative process and eliminating prejudice and discrimination from their own school systems. Needless to say, the 1960's and 1970's are replete with failures in human relations training programs.

Human Relations Elementary Education Curricula

At the elementary level there is an identifiable human relations focus emerging from the area of social studies.

Discussing the challenges of social studies, William Crowder identified a major objective as the development of "democratic relationships among divergent religions, races, ethnic backgrounds, and social classes."¹⁶ The study of history and/or citizenship should lead to understandings, attitudes and sensitivities which develop appreciation for people living in a democratic society.

In 1964, the Pittsburg Board of Education¹⁷ created a social studies curriculum which focused upon: (1) friends and helpers, (2) families at school and home, (3) man's

¹⁶William Crowder, Education, vol. 86, no. 6 (1966), p. 325.

¹⁷Pittsburg, Pennsylvania Board of Education, "Social Studies Course of Study: Kindergarten, Grades 1, 2, 3," (Microfiche ED 002-211), p. 1.

interdependence, and (4) Pittsburgh Pennsylvania as a home-town.¹⁸ This curriculum was based on the belief that a child must begin to understand how interdependent people are for survival--both physical and mental.

In Littleton, Colorado, a teaching guide for kindergarten through twelfth grade was developed which encompassed the following purposes or objectives:

1. respect for the rights of others
2. ability to work in groups
3. ability to effectively participate in many social settings
4. commitment to good citizenship
5. commitment to self-actualization
6. ability to think critically and creatively
7. understanding of social studies concepts
8. ability to function as a producer and consumer
9. awareness of world resources
10. understanding of the importance of interdependence in our society.
11. belief that change is inevitable and can be positive.¹⁹

¹⁸Pittsburg Board of Education (Pennsylvania), "Social Studies Course of Study, Kindergarten, Grades 1, 2, and 3," 1970 (Microfiche ED 002-211-A).

¹⁹Arapaho School District 6, "A Teaching Guide and Experience Units K-12, Social Studies Grade One," 1968 (ED 054-007), pp. 1-83.

Dorothy M. Feeley, teacher in the Stoneham Public Schools, Massachusetts, devised an elementary school reading series entitled, "Learning to Live in Today's World," for grades one, two, and three.²⁰ The major objectives of these readers were to encourage the child to appreciate his own uniqueness and the cultural differences of other races, religions, and societies.

Hilda Taba conducted much research into elementary educational needs and she found that reading lists, studies about other cultures, and sociometric measures were helpful in teaching children about people of other races.²¹

Another approach to teaching human relations for elementary school children is the use of sensory awareness techniques to teach children to become aware of the affective component of their being. There are exercises from sensitivity groups which were implemented into public education at Cleveland, Ohio. Joyce S. Enterline reports elementary students going on a blind walk, and utilizing other mechanisms for developing trust and cohesion among the students. The format of this educational program is experiential rather than didactic.

²⁰ Dorothy M. Feeley, "Learning to Live in Today's World--Grade One," 1970 (Ed 053-009), Grade Two (053-010), and Grade Three (Ed 053-011).

²¹ Hilda Taba, With Perspective on Human Relations, op. cit. See also, Hilda Taba, With Focus on Human Relations, op. cit.

²² Joyce S. Enterline, "Project Insight." Grade Teacher vol. 88, no. 3 (1970), pp. 32-36, and 53.

Barbara Long devised a series of lessons about children and the skills they acquire in human relationships which are positive and what inhibits interpersonal interaction. These lessons underscored the affective domain and definitions of what is human.²³ Another lesson plan on feelings was designed by Wellesley Public Schools in Massachusetts.²⁴ School districts in Illinois, California, and Canada have also developed human relations-oriented curricula for teaching children to respect themselves and others. These social studies units are designed to create awareness of multicultural differences, and to have the students place a positive value on cultural differences.

Robert E. Bills argued that education is human relations when it strives to open the student's awareness to a point where he is willing to experience new things. He viewed the teacher-student relationship as a helping relationship. Out of this interaction the goal of education is to provide a continuum of experiences for the students which may prove meaningful to them.²⁵

²³ Barbara Long, "Who Am I? Grade Teacher, vol. 89, (1971), pp. 119-122. Other units can be found in Grade Teacher issues from October, 1971 through May/June, 1972.

²⁴ Wellesley Public Schools, Massachusetts. "Unit on Human Feelings and Relations," 1970 (Microfiche ED 065-407), pp. 1-30.

²⁵ Robert E. Bills, "Education Is Human Relations," in Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, New Insights and the Curriculum, 1963 Yearbook, pp. 165-187.

Elementary school children are very active and many of them enjoy role-playing grown-up parts (roles). This provides an opportunity for the teacher to seek classroom activities which will (1) create an awareness of the nature of man, (2) generate appreciation for individual differences, (3) provide practice in humane interaction with other individuals, (4) develop skills in communication, problem-solution, leadership, conflict-management, and diagnosing human interaction in groups.

Human Relations Secondary Education Curricula

In the mid-1960's a new emphasis upon sensitivity training as a viable educational process was being questioned by educators. With the upsurge in human relations training groups in academic and non-academic setting, educators began to wonder whether the laboratory method of learning was applicable in the classroom. One issue of Educational Leadership was devoted to sensitivity training.²⁶ Arthur W. Combs argued that the educative process needs to be humanized and he felt that sensitivity education had some promise.²⁷ Stephen M. and Elinor Corey defined sensitivity education as learning

²⁶ Educational Leadership, vol. 28, no. 3 (1970), pp. 235-270.

²⁷ Arthur W. Combs, "Sensitivity Education: Problems and Promises," Educational Leadership, op. cit., pp. 234-237.

process which creates awareness of how one's behavior affects others. This awareness is most effective when developed in a group. A group is composed of two or more persons.²⁸ For some people sensitivity training and human relations are synonymous. Elements of this educational technique (sensitivity training) were defined by Harold C. Wells as: (1) feelings, (2) values and attitudes, (3) concerns, (4) process and (5) self-actualization.²⁹ This training legitimizes feelings and behaviors in the classroom. Affect and behavior are important to the development of individuals in groups. Society is a composite of individuals attempting to live and to work together peacefully. The socialization process in the schools has majored on the cognitive aspect of man to the minimization of the affective.

For many educators the laboratory training format of T-group exercises and skill development might be implemented into the classroom. The goals of this training were development of skills in (1) personal, (2) interpersonal, and (3) group processes. Stuart Marshall listed some of these skills as: (1) to be aware of others as resources, (2) to accurately perceive how one reacts to people,

²⁸ Stephen M. and Elinor Corey, "Sensitivity Education," Ibid., pp. 238-240.

²⁹ Harold C. Wells, "To Get Beyond Words . . .," Ibid., pp. 241-244.

(3) to become aware of other people's behavior, (4) to be aware of defense mechanisms used by oneself and others, (5) to give and to accept feedback, (6) to be aware of group processes, and (7) to identify roles and to develop a continuum of alternative roles.³⁰ Dr. Thomas Wiggins offered some suggestions for improving human relations training through: (1) elimination of the term, sensitivity training, and replacing it with a more clearly defined human relations training, (2) development of clearly defined goals for this training, (3) research which is empirical to provide direction to the training, (4) establishment of professional standards for trainers, and (5) creation of models to evaluate human relations training.³¹

In 1965, sensitivity training was provided for a select group of twelfth grade social studies students in New York City. The students were asked to subjectively evaluate the training sessions. As part of the evaluation, they were asked to bequeath information for future generations. The training had created a sense of closeness with the participants and they were more willing to select things to be placed into a time capsule than students who were

³⁰ Stuart Marshall, "Sensitivity Training: A Report," Educational Leadership, op. cit., pp. 250-253.

³¹ Thomas Wiggins, "Sensitivity Training: Salvation or Conspiracy," Ibid., pp. 254-257.

not in the training group.³²

Springport, Michigan developed a Human Relations Training Student Notebook which explained the skill development the training hoped to achieve (it used the same information as in Appendix A of this study). It delineated between content and process and provided exercises for diagnosing what is content and what is process. This was an effective approach and supplement to human relations training.³³

In 1967 a human relations class was created through the request of students. The class was designed to meet the needs of students in their interracial relationships. The objectives of the class were the following:

(1) to be able to communicate with others empathetically (role-play was a technique used to accomplish this objective)

(2) to respond to various situations (e.g. friendliness, hostility) and to become aware of his affect and his roles in response

(3) to become aware of stereotyping processes

(4) to analyze prejudice in himself and others

³² Julian Roberts, "Human Relations Training and Its Effect on the Teacher Training Process in the Social Studies, Summary of the Final Report, 1966-1967" (Microfiche ED 0150145), pp. 1-23.

³³ Springport High School, Michigan, "Human Relations Laboratory Training Student Notebook," 1967 (Microfiche ED 018-834), pp. 1-61.

(5) to identify human relations issues in literature.³⁴

This class was an attempt to experientially teach human relations to students. It was not highly effective, but it did create interest in human relations and race-relations issues at the school.

In 1967 a group of high school teachers in Cleveland, Ohio were asked by Program for Action by Citizens in Education (PACE) to develop methods for teaching human relations in public schools. The Human Relations Curriculum Project was an outgrowth of this request. The high school units of this project are: (1) Individual and Tolerance, (2) Prejudice, Justice, Poverty, and Religion, and (3) White and Black Race Issues. The teachers attend summer workshops and in-service programs to learn how to teach this curriculum. The methodology of audiovisual materials and discussion were used for this project.³⁵

Another human relations training program was entitled "Project Insight." There is no town named in the report. In 1969-1970, 811 students who were completing the course and 949 students who were about to begin the

³⁴ Yeshiva University, New York, "Human Relations Training and Its Effect on the Teacher-Learning Process in the Social Studies Class," 1967 (Microfiche ED 001-145-A), pp. 1-23.

³⁵ Program for Action by Citizens in Education (PACE), "A Human Relations Curriculum Development Project," 1970 (Microfiche ED 045-557), pp. 1-7.

course in human relations were tested and compared. The subjects were students in grades 9-12 who had or were going to enroll in a human relations class. The objectives of the course were (1) to increase the student's awareness of his own attitudes, values and ideals, (2) to promote the growth of an empathic, tolerant individual, especially with regard to other racial and religious groups, and (3) to increase the student's knowledge of social problems in one's community and one's society. A major focus was upon stereotyping of races. After the class, there was a reduction in stereotyping and negative attitudes toward other races.³⁶

Another approach was a human relations club at Theodore Roosevelt High School in New York. Two students were sent to a National Conference of Christians and Jews. They returned to their school and instituted a human relations club. The first meeting had only 15 students and it grew to 80 students. This club engaged in activities to share cultural backgrounds through speakers, meals, music, and visiting churches. This club was effective.³⁷

There are not large numbers of human relations curricula in secondary education, but there appears to be more approaches than in elementary education. At the

³⁶Ronald R. Besel et al., "Evaluation Report: Project Insight, 1969-1970" (Microfiche ED 048-463).

³⁷Leo Lieberman, "High School Human Relations Clubs," High Points, vol. 46, no. 1 (1964), pp. 52-54.

secondary level there are training groups, clubs, and development of notebooks for teaching human relations. Both elementary and secondary education in human relations attempts (1) to increase awareness of one's behavior and how it affects others, (2) to create an appreciation for cultural differences, (3) to provide skills for dealing with ethnic problems, (4) to promote activities to reinforce these new awarenesses, and (5) to provide guidebooks and informational sources to teachers who teach human relations at the elementary and secondary levels.

There is a need for development of uniquely human relations-oriented curricula built upon a multidisciplinary approach to man, his social problems, and humane solutions to social problems.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The historical development of human relations training has been established on order to assess the influence of this form of education for living has exerted upon elementary and secondary students, teachers, and their curricula. Antecedents for human relations were established in the philosophies of Jean Jacques Rousseau and John Dewey. Both educational philosophers placed a high value upon the inherent goodness of man, the importance of the experiential learning process, and a commitment to here-and-now orientation and feedback (natural consequences of actions or reflective assessment of occurrences). Rousseau's natural man was more of a self-contained person who could commune alone with nature. Dewey's pragmatic social man found meaning to his existence within the context of the social milieu. These philosophers left a wealthy legacy to educators and students of the twentieth century.

From industrial relations evolved the modern concept of human relations training as a learning process and subject for research. Even though the early theorists and researchers hoped to predict and manipulate the worker's behavior, most of the modern emphasis is upon humanizing the workers' environment. Good human relations is still good business. From group dynamics the process of experiential learning was reinforced with the content being provided by the concerns of group members. Human relations groups were trichotomized into T-groups, therapy groups, and encounter groups. These groups utilize many of the same methods, but the end-result is acquiring an increased personal awareness level, group diagnosis skills, and intervention skills. Psychotherapy groups strive for behavior change through readjustment of the psyche and/or overt behavior patterns. Unless a qualified therapist is in charge, psychotherapy groups are the most dangerous to the participants. Encounter groups are less threatening to the participants, but they provide a format for meeting new people, trying new dramatic and/or sensory awareness techniques. Even though there is a danger in group "bumming" which allows individuals to avoid dealing with reality, groups are important to the establishment and maintenance of society. Human relations has become more clearly defined through industrial relations and group dynamics.

Federal court decisions and legislation were extremely important to the implementation of human relations training and human relations curricula. These federal activities capitalized upon the intergroup emphasis in education as a means of desegregating schools. Without legislation, the people may or may not have worked for more positive interpersonal relationships. It is true that legislation and intergroup emphases are not the only two forces which led to the implementation of human relations into education, but they did provide an impetus. A real thrust in education toward race-relations emphasis and human relations skills emphasis can be isolated during the 1966-1972 period. It would be incorrect to say that this thrust is pervasive throughout public education. But there is a beginning. It appeared that the major emphasis in human relations education is geared toward the educators. More money and training programs were invested in the educators than in the students, possibly because if the educators' attitudes are changed they can teach the students new attitudes. From what one knows about attitude theory, the earlier a child establishes new values and beliefs the less likely he is to change them.

Human relations did in fact exist in curricula, but more often under intergroup relations or race relations. The focus of the curricula were upon increasing self-awareness, respect for others, and experiential learning as a viable change process for individuals. Attitudes and behavior

are modified by training groups (Watson, 1950; Bass, 1962; Burke and Bennis, 1961). Trainers were important in the change process. (Cooper, 1969; Bolman, 1971). The influence of human relations is found more often in personal change than in system change. One might infer that this type of change might occur in public education if the teacher became the trainer and the students became the participants.

Limitations of the Study

There were not many sources of human relations curricula for examination. There are many examples of intergroup and race-relations curricula. The focus of many of these is geared toward awareness rather than toward change in attitudes and behavior. There is empirical data related to human relations training in industry and other social settings, but very little related to education. There are some models for human relations education, but they have not been empirically tested. The evidence is inconclusive, at this time, but there is an indication of a gradually emerging focus upon human relations skills of personal awareness, communication, problem-solution and conflict management.

Significance of the Study

Historical antecedents for experiential learning processes as viable variables in public education were established in the educational philosophies of Jean Jacques Rousseau and John Dewey. Evolution of human relations as

a modern concept which draws heavily upon industrial relations and group dynamics theory and research was validated through examination of primary sources and empirical research data. Many of the empirical studies related to human relations training and human relations curricula were found in management and group dynamics theory and research.

There is no conclusive evidence that human relations exerted a strong impact upon public education, but there has been an emerging trend for human relations activities to be introduced through intergroup, interpersonal, and race-relations emphases in classrooms. Much of the impetus for human relations training has been contingent upon a need created by federal court decisions and attempts at desegregating public schools. There has been some training for teachers and administrators, but not much for students. Many people still view human relations as race-relations, multicultural education, and a skills approach to human problems. It is not perceived as a science, but rather as an art. The inquiry resulted in the following findings: (1) human relations does not exert a pervasive influence upon public education, (2) there is a tentative attempt to define human relations as something other than race-relations, and (3) there is a scarcity of empirical research about human relations in education.

Suggestions for Further Emphases

There is a need for the development of uniquely human relations theories to be recorded, described, and empirically tested. There is a need for theoretical bases to be established for this emerging discipline, in order for it to mature into a science. Curricula which utilize

modern technology need to be developed so the principles of human relations education can be disseminated throughout the public school systems. The premises of the new theories and curricula need to be empirically tested.

Epilogue

For some writers, a commitment to human relations is founded upon a desire to sit in an ivory tower and to seek theoretical explanations which might provide the answers to human problems. To other writers, a commitment to human relations is a commitment to effect change. To still others a commitment to human relations is based upon a willingness to riot in the streets and to engage in violence to force society to become more humane. Whatever type of commitment to human relations one embraces, there is an underlying element of humanism and change pushing and pulling individuals and group members to create a society which values human beings over human-made things.

Dissemination of human relations-oriented curricula into public education is one method of creating a nurturing society which will value self-actualizing human beings. Perhaps more educators of the future will follow Rousseau's suggestion: "Men be kind to your fellow-men, this is your first duty, kind to every age and station, and to all that is not foreign to humanity."¹ Pedagogically, human potential is a valuable resource which must be preserved and shared with society, rather than destroyed through destructive uniformity.

¹Jean Jacques Rousseau, *Emile*, op. cit., p. 43.

To this writer, a commitment to human relations involves collecting historical data so that trends relevant to human relations can be recorded. Data about human relations will lead to the recognition of human relations as a legitimate educational emphasis in public education. The strengths and weaknesses of existing human relations training programs and concepts need to be shared with educators if they are to develop more effective curricula.

Describing and teaching human relations skills to educators and students is one method of bringing about humanistic change. This type of commitment is where the interests of this writer continue to remain, and the new project is the development of a human relations curriculum with role-plays, video-tape vignettes, cassette tapes, artistic explanations of human relations concepts, short plays, poems, etc. It is hoped that a complete package of human relations curricula for specific grade levels will benefit those educators who need materials for teaching human relations.

APPENDIX A: Description of National Training Laboratories
From one of their brochures.

A FEW WORDS ABOUT NTL INSTITUTE

NTL Institute was organized in 1947 to apply what behavioral scientists have learned in the last half century about man, organizations, and social systems to the problems of individuals, families, schools, businesses, service organizations, churches, industry and government. It does so by educating men and women to recognize and develop their potentials in response to the dazzling array of alternatives in life styles, careers and patterns of interaction available to them in the 1970's.

The Institute works toward keeping change from becoming chaotic by promoting flexibility and innovation and by providing help in planning. NTL offers no blueprint for the future but extends leadership in developing alternatives and making choices.

An NTL founding principle is to serve as a focal agency in developing the laboratory method of learning group dynamics. From the beginning, the organization has grown rapidly in the areas of services, programs, consultations and publications. It is now organized into five centers: Development of Individual Potential, Professional Development, System Development, Black Affairs and Macro System Change. All are located in Washington, D. C.

THE NTL APPROACH

Process NTL Institute's training approach for human systems differs from traditional educational processes, which are developed on a basically mechanical model of receiving and repeating information. NTL training programs are based on observation and analysis, and are therefore called laboratories. Each program includes a learning pattern which can be described as follows:

- Studying the effects of present behavior of an individual, a group, or an organization
- Comparing the actual results of behavior with

the results expected

- Increasing skill in observing behavior and its consequences, thereby shortening the time required to adapt to or affect a new situation
- Learning a method of continually expanding competence in understanding human behavior.

Design The training group experience comprises several designs which include role playing, nonverbal activities, theory presentations, intergroup exercises, unstructured processes and other experience-based learning activi-

ties. Members of groups get a better view of their own ways of handling problems of human relationships and can learn, perhaps for the first time, how others see and are affected by their methods of dealing with people. Participants work together over an extended period of time and almost continuously share feelings, reactions and perceptions about their process of interaction. Their work may be simply the formation and development of the group itself, or it may concern itself with a common need of the occupation, role or special interest of the group members.

APPENDIX B: Description of skills to be developed in training
laboratory format as described by the Episcopal
Diocese, Basic Reader in Human Relations Training
Part I, op. cit., p. 1

<u>Self</u>	<u>Interpersonal and Group Relations</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Own feelings and motivations	Establishing meaningful interpersonal relation- ships	Understanding organizational complexities
Correctly per- ceiving effects of own behavior on others	Finding satisfying place in group	Developing and inventing appro- priate new pattern and procedures
Correctly under- standing effect of other's be- havior on self	Understanding dynamic complexities in group behavior	Helping to diagnose and solve problems between units of the organization
Hearing others and accepting helpful criti- cism.	Developing diagnostic skills to understand group problems and processes	Working as a member and as a leader.
Appropriately interacting with others.	Acquiring skills of helping the group on task and maintenance problems	

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