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HUMAN RELATIONS IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

By

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

INTRODUCTION

"Two Great Pioneers Whose Names Are Scarcely Known"

The heading is a quotation from Time Magazine, April 14, 1952. The

quotation in context is as follows:

> "Now a second Industrial Revolution . . . is sweeping through
> U.S. industry. Its name: Human Relations in Industry. Its pur-
> pose: to give the American worker a sense of usefulness and impor-
> tance (and thus improve his work). Its goal (stated in one
> sentence): to make life more fun by making work more meaningful."

> "The seeds of this change were sewn by two great pioneers
> whose names are scarcely known--Frederick Winslow Taylor, a one-
> time day laborer, and Elton Mayo, an Australian immigrant turned
> Harvard sociologist. Their work did not seem related but it was.
> Taylor, who died in 1951, was the father of scientific manage-
> ment; he increased industrial production by rationalizing it.
> Mayo, who died in 1949, was the father of industrial human re-
> lations; he increased production by humanizing it."[1]

The "age of human relations" was characterized by one author as

beginning about 1945.[2] Others place the date in the 1920's based on

the Hawthorne studies and the beginning of group studies by Kurt Lewin.[3]

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[1]"Human Relations, A New Art Brings a Revolution to Industry,"
Time Magazine, April 14, 1952, p. 96.

[2]Keith Davis, Human Relations at Work (New York: McGraw-Hill Book
Company, Inc., 1962), p. 9.

[3]John M. Pfiffner and Frank P. Sherwood, Administrative Organization
(Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), p. 101.

The Hawthorne experiments, however, are often cited as providing the documentary threshold over which one steps into the house of human relations.[4] But the history of human relations has been spotty and fragmentary. There must be many "missing links" in the continuum which has led to the sporadic inclusion of varying amounts of human relations in the literature of management. Borrowing from the great economist, Alfred Marshall, natura non facit saltum--nature makes no leaps.[5] There must be evidence at several points in industrial development of human needs and motivation, part of Marshall's "broad constructive movement which had long been in preparation."[6]

The Intermittent Early Development

A typical statement of the spotty sequence in the development of human relations runs something like the following: Robert Owen (circa 1800),

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[4]Human relations in industry began with the work of Elton Mayo and his associates, and developed from their classic studies at the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company. See, for example, Elton Mayo, The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization (Boston: Harvard University Graduate School of Business Administration, 1945) and The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization (Boston: Harvard University 1946); F.J. Roethlisberger, Management and Morale (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1941); T. North Whitehead, The Industrial Worker (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938).

[5]Alfred Marshall, Principles of Economics (ninth variorum edition; London: Macmillan and Co., 1961), II, p. 35. Marshall first introduced this motto on the title page of his first edition in 1890. His comment on the motto in 1910 gave a clear parallel pattern for the development of human relations as it emerged with Elton Mayo. Marshall wrote, "And though an inventor or an organizer, or a financier of genius may seem to have modified the economic structure of a people almost at a stroke; yet that part of his influence, which has not been merely superficial and transitory, is found on inquiry to have done little more than bring to a head a broad constructive movement which had long been in preparation."

[6]Ibid.

Andrew Ure (1835), F.W. Taylor (early 1900's), Whiting Williams (1920), and

Elton Mayo (1933). The Owen approach was actually highly paternalistic and

not really a significant example of human relations in the sense in which

it is used today. Andrew Ure included a section on "Moral Economy of the

Factory System,"[7] in which he concluded that managements and laws which en-

couraged such welfare devices as dressing rooms, fresh air, good light,

schools, and housing resulted in a "cheerful set of industrious people."[8]

From Ure, the time jump usually is about 65 to 70 years to the work

of Frederick W. Taylor. Taylor, though he stressed the individual workman

and his individual economic needs, could not otherwise be included in the

human relations series except as his approach and practiced philosophy

tended to bring about reaction against his system.[9]

After Taylor, the name sometimes encountered, though often omitted,

is that of Whiting Williams. His two books resulting from his experiences

of personal "living-in" with workers in steel mills, coal-mines, ship-yards,

and round-houses, revealed that, ". . . the key to modern human behavior is

to be found less in the effort to save our physiological skin than in the

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[7]Andrew Ure, The Philosophy of Manufacturers (London: H.G. Bohn, 1835), pp. 277-429.

[8]Ibid., p. 429. A clear indication of the relationship between "needs" and "productivity."

[9]This point was brought out in more recent years by Ralph E. Flanders, United States Senator and industrialist from Vermont, who reflected on his early meeting with Taylor and his ideas. He felt, ". . . that only lip service was rendered to the words and that the real development, the real intensity of thought, experimentation, and achievement lay in the area of inert, lifeless materials and machines." See Ralph E. Flanders, The Functions of Management in American Life (Stanford, California: Stanford University Graduate School of Business, 1948), p. 16.

effort to save our social 'face'"[10] Williams further observed a fundamental

in modern human relations, that of, "the unbelievable importance of the

worker's feelings and experiences rather than his logic or reason as a

factor in all his viewpoints and attitudes."[11] The similarity between this

statement and Roethlisberger's famous "X" chart is remarkable.

The gap between Taylor and Williams can be filled with the detailed

works of such men as Gantt, Gilbreth, Redfield, and others. The work of

Elton Mayo and the Hawthorne experiments need only be noted here as they

are well known.

The human relations movement could also be traced on a comparative

basis. Gross has made such an attempt.

The New Beginning:[12]

"Two clearly defined streams of thought developed during the first

century of the 1900's. The first of these can be called administrative

efficiency, more accurately as the gospel of efficiency and the other,

although harder to categorize, as the new beginnings."[12a] Taylor, Fayol,

Gullick and Urwick were the leaders of the former, while Follett, Mayo,

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[10]Whiting Williams, Mainsprings of Men (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1925), p. 146. In a little-known earlier writing, Williams had observed great waste in the "physical, mental, and spiritual 'gasoline'" of workers due to managements' failure to recognize, exploit and apply workers' feelings; and to recognize the workers' second most important need, human association (as Maslow later discovered). See Whiting Williams, "Human Relations in Industry," United States Department of Labor (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1918), 10 pp.

[11]Ibid., Williams, Mainsprings of Men, p. 3.

[12]Here the author has relied heavily on Bertram M. Gross, "The Scientific Approach to Administration" in Behavioral Science and Educational Administration (Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, 1964) pp. 33-72.

[12a]Ibid., p. 34, 44

Roethlisberger, etc, could be characterized as the leaders of the latter movement of thought.

The latter movement of thought is harder to categorize than the gospel of efficiency. Taylor and his followers over-emphasized the mechanical and physiological character of management. It was inevitable that there would be a reaction from the very beginning, the gospel of efficiency provoked intellectual competition. As a result during the 1950's there was a growing stress on human relations,[13] largely under the leadership of Elton Mayo. Campbell rightly pointed out that one of the most noticeable aspects of the writings in and about educational administration in the last two decades has been the interest in human relations.[14] This fact is evident from the large amount of writing in periodicals and books which deal with human relations in some form or other. During this time, the concept of educational administration has moved from preoccupation with things[15] to an interest in people.[16]

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[13]It may be pointed out here that the new pioneers did not dispute the importance of efficiency as a goal, but they directed the attention to the other goals and emphasized that the other goals must be considered.

[14]Ronald F. Campbell, John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer, Introduction to Educational Administration (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1958), p. 137.

[15]For Taylor an administration is in a position to know what is best for the organization. "Men are to be used, and I have the right to use them as I believe best for the organization." See F.W. Taylor, Shop Management (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1919), p. 133.
Taylor perceived forms primarily and advocated the role of form perceiving leader.
A form perceiving leader will conclude that an organization has a structure somewhat like a machine. In this structure men are productive units to be used by an administrator in a way that he can best achieve the organizational objectives. As he is the operator of this machine, the control is centralized in his authority. And if organization members are reluctant in working toward objectives; they are attracted or shoved along the way by reward or penalties.

[16]Harry E. Benz, "Human Relations in School Administration," Elementary School Journal, L (November, 1949), 135.

This recognition of the human element/or processes[17] in educational administration, although present in some degree previously, has only recently become the object of intensified study by administrators in education. This trend has given educational administration a new orientation whihc has left many of the old foundations of this field no longer tenable. Whereas administrative preparation was long concerned almost exclusively with buildings, curriculum, budgets, etc., now the whole subject of human behavior in the administrative setting must be taken into account. This makes the formulating of administrative principles much more difficult.[18]

Since this new phenomenon in educational administration is concerned with human beings, their behavior, and their values in s special way, it is only logical that this concern must be based on some fundamental ideas of what constitutes the human being and the philosophical ground for his existence.[19] It is this fact that has led the writer to investigate the fundamental philosophical foundation of the theories of human relationships as they are applied to educational administration. Any subject so intimately connected with the thinking and writing of the philosophy of man should be known by the educators.

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[17]Mayo perceives in concepts of process and recommends an "administrative elite." He believes that an enlightened company policy, a carefully devised (and blue printed) plan of manufacture" are not sufficient, and that men are "unlike a machine."
Centralization of authority, for Mayo, is useful only in abnormal situations. See The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization. Op. Cit., pp. 175-176, p. 50.

[18]Jack A. Culbertson, Paul B. Jacobson, and Theodore L. Reller, Administrative Relationships (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), p. 77.

[19]Robert W. Johnson, "Human Relations in Modern Business," Harvard Business Review, XXVII (September, 1949), 523.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to examine the basic philosophy behind

the human relations movement in educational administration as it is em-

bodied in the literature published between 1945 and 1965.[20]

Reasons for Undertaking the Study

My reasons for undertaking this study are as follows:

1. The research available in this field is disjointed and, when considered as a whole, is almost incomprehensible.[21]

2. There has been very little, rather no attempt made to investigate the subject of human relations in educational administration on a philosophical basis.[22]

   The subject of human relations in educational adminis-tration has not been investigated on a philosophical basis before.

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[20]1945 is a very important date in the study of human relations because the preliminary findings of the Hawthorne study were just beginning to appear in book and scholarly journals at this time. The terminal period of 1965 is a rather arbitrary one which the author has chosen mainly for convenience. Literature published during this period seems to be the most reliable source available.

[21]The author has spent many hours engaged in research in libraries in the Washington, D.C. area, including the Library of Congress, the library of the American University, Howard University, and George Washington University. There seem to be very few attempts to apply the theories of the Hawthorne project to the field of educational administration, and those which do attempt are inconclusive and form a very incoherent body of information.

[22]Although this seems to the author a very obvious area of investi-gation, the topic seems to have been studiously avoided by even those authors who seem to be most interested in related areas.

It is this fact that has led the writer to investigate the fundamental philosophical foundation of the theories of human relationships as they are applied to educational administration.[23]

3. Personal reasons for investigating this area include my background in philosophy and human relations in general. I have nurtured an interest in the human relations movement throughout my professional and academic life and I am looking forward to examining in depth its specific relationship to the field of education.

Scope of the Study

The study has been limited to the writings (human relations in educational administration) between the years 1945 and 1965, with primary emphasis on important contents of human relations such as communications, authority, motivation, power, decision-making and leadership.

The content of human relations consists in the specific areas of inquiry. The present study has limited the content of human relations (in educational administration) to important topics and in the present case in the above mentioned six topics.

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[23]It is my contention that any subject so intimately connected with the thinking and writing of the philosophy of man should be considered by all educators. A thorough study of all doctoral dissertations considering this area would reveal that the vast majority of writers stay at the theoretical level, seldom coming down to the basic level of human existence. See for example, Bailey unpublished study, "To become human, man must be communicative, creative, loving and free." Edwin Bailey, "A Theory of Creative Human Relations: Implications for Educational Administration," Ph.D. Unpublished Thesis (Michigan State University, 1961).

My undergraduate major was Western Philosophy and I am a Fellow of the Royal Philosophical Society, an honor earned after submitting a thesis, Cogito Ergo Sum, which has been called a new contribution to the study of Descartes.

Method of Research

In order to carry out the objective, it is necessary to examine first of all just what is meant by human relations. The term is rather nebulous and has meant many different things at different times. Secondly, it is necessary to examine the content of human relations as it applies to educational administration. Only then is it possible to bring forth the basic philosophy behind these writings. The method of research used was that of the documentary survey, finding from the writings of the various authors the underlying foundation for their theories concerning human relations.

Most of the research was, of necessity, conducted at the Olson Library on the Northern Michigan University Campus, although all other available means of research were exploited as fully as possible.

Relation of Present Study to the Existing Study/Studies

Cheung, in an earlier study, has shown that the human relations content of educational administration was derived from other fields, such as business administration and public administration. He traced the transplantation of human relations concepts from other fields to that of educational administration. He did not, however, examine the deeper foundation of these concepts.[24]

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[24]See for example, David C. Cheung, "The Emergence of Human Relations Content in the Literature of Educational Administration," unpublished Master's dissertation, (School of Education, University of Kansas, 1963), p. 116.

It may be mentioned here that Callahan gives a detailed account of the ways schools at the turn of the century, were influenced by business interests. See R. Callahan, Education and the Cult of Efficiency (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1962), pp. 12-13.

Because of the origin of human relations in the field of business and public administration, it is also necessary to examine pertinent writings in these fields, for the foundations would be very similar to those found in the field of educational administration.

The present study is divided into four chapters: (1) a study of the basic meaning of human relations; (2) the content of human relations and the skills of human relations as related to the field of educational administration; (3) the philosophical basis of human relations; and (4) summary and conclusion of the study.

CHAPTER I

What is Human Relations?

The term "human relations" is not a self-explanatory concept. It can

and has been used for many different things both in the writings of educa-

tional administration and in other fields. The very vagueness of the term

has prompted many to either disregard it as unimportant or to assume that

there is no need for a special knowledge to treat of it in a systematic way.

This state of affairs has been the main reason why so many educational ad-

ministrators feel that they know all about human relations and that they

have been practicing its art all along. The lack of a uniform meaning to

this concept has caused much confusion during the past few years.

Inadequate Concepts of Human Relations

To some, human relations means nothing more than the administrator is

a "good Joe" or "nice guy" in his dealings with those around him.[25] This

understanding of the concept would restrict the field of human relations to

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[25]Roald F. Campbell, John E. Corbally, and John A. Ramseyer, Intro-
duction to Educational Administration (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.,
1958), p. 137.
    The human relations approach has been equated with the "happiness
school of management"—every worker and executive a grinning, self-satisfied,
and above all placid, idiot! It has been labelled the "Moo Cow School"
because of its relationship to the slogan, "you get more milk from contented
cows."

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the subjective thinking and acting of the individual administrator.[26] Such
an understanding would not leave the topic open to extensive study and
research. Likewise such a narrow and limited viewpoint would make human
relations only a small and insignificant part of administration.

For others, human relations consists only in a display of "good will"
toward others, or the use of the Golden Rule. As Whyte has pointed out,
"It is often said that the whole secret of good human relations lies in
following the Golden Rule. If people would just follow the Golden Rule,
then there would be no human relations problems."[27] Even Griffiths says
that "the basis imperative of good human relations is good will."[28] He
does not, however, limit the concept to this term. Those who hold this
idea of human relations fall into the same difficulty as those who think
of it in the "good Joe" category. They, too, fail to see the importance of
a knowledge of human relations to the administrator and do not enable the
subject to be studied in an objective manner.

Human Relations as an Attitude

A more adequate concept of what constitutes human relations is first
of all founded in the fact that it is an attitude that people are important.

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[26]Probably one of the important sources of difficulty in talking about
human relations is that the term now means so many different things to so
many different people that one person's brand of human relations may differ
in many respects from another's. See, Donald R. Schoen, "Human Relations
Boon or Bogle," Harvard Business Review, Vol. 35, No. 6 (November-December
1957) pp. 41-47.

[27]William F. Whyte, Money and Motivation (New York: Harper and Bros.,
1955), p. 250.

[28]Daniel E. Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration (New
York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1956), p. 15.

All writers will agree that the core of the human relations concept of ad-
ministration is people. As Berrien says, "the common denominator of prob-
lems in human relations is man."[29] It is the people in the organizations
of which the administrator is the executive that has led to the interest
in human relations. In speaking of the good executive, Wald and Doty
state:

> The good executive is interested in people--particularly in selling
> them on the idea of fundamental cooperation. He is interested in the
> written and spoken word as a means of communicating his ideas. He is
> not preoccupied with the technical phrases of his work, but rather
> with promoting harmonious human relationships.[30]

Whereas the human element in administration was simply taken for
granted or overlooked in the past, it is now given prime importance. As
Benz states:

> The modern school superintendent, because of the nature of his work,
> must be preminently a specialist in the fine art of getting along
> with people, of working with people, of getting things done through
> people. More than anything else, he needs to be a specialist in
> human relations.[31]

This added interest in people in educational and other types of or-
ganizations was prompted by studies, like that of McLaughlin, which showed
that by far the majority of an administrator's time was spent in working
with people rather than things.[32] If an administrator's job was consumed

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[29]F.K. Berrien, Comments and Cases on Human Relations (New York:
Harper and Bros., 1951), p. 17.

[30]Hobert Wald, and Roy A. Doty, "The Top Executive," The Harvard
Business Review, XXXII (July-August, 1954), 53.

[31]Harry E. Benz, "Human Relations in School Administration,"
Elementary School Journal, L. (November, 1949), 135.

[32]Frederick C. McLaughlin, "New Kinds of Statesmanship," Nation's
Schools, LIII (January, 1954), 44.

most of all in his dealings with people, then it was only natural that researchers began to examine the people in the educational organization and their dealings with the administrator. The administrator began to see himself under a new light, and the old ideas of the necessity of having a knowledge and proficiency in the use of the "things" of educational administration came to be viewed as less important.

Human Relations as an Inquiry

Human relations is more, however, than a general interest in people. More specifically, it is an inquiry into the behavior of people in the organizational setting.[33] The administrator does not think of the person as an isolated individual, but rather as a part of the organizational setting. He sees the person as he acts toward and interacts with the people and things around him. Cheung remarks how human relations have been defined "as the interaction of people, the contents in which people inter-influence one another."[34] The human relations content of educational administration has viewed the behavior of people in groups in an objective and systematic way. Getzels and Guba state:

> The process of administration deals essentially with the conduct
> of social behavior in a hierarchical setting....Social behavior may
> be apprehended as a function of the following major elements:
> institution, role, and expectation, which together constitute the
> nomethetic, or normative, dimension of activity in a social system;

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[33]Leander L. Boykin, "Let's Get It Straight: What are Human Relations," The Social Studies, XLVI (February, 1955), 59.

[34]David C. Cheung, "The Emergence of Human Relations Contents in the Literature of Educational Administration (unpublished Master's dissertation, School of Education, University of Kansas, 1963), p. 117.

and individual, personality, and need-disposition, which together constitute the idiographic, or personal, dimension of activity in a social system.[35]

The administrator does not study human behavior simply for its own sake, but rather to discover ways to influence and change it so that the purposes of the organization can be met. Thus the human relations content of educational administration is concerned not only with people and their behavior in the organizational setting, but also with ways to mold and influence this behavior. In this sense, human relations has sometimes been identified almost exclusively with skills in influencing the behavior of others in the organization. Roethlisberger says:

> Two of the most common ways of trying to modify the behavior of others provide the two most popular conceptions (or misconceptions) of human relations. One of these ways attempts to inculcate in others the proper and correct attitudes, values, or beliefs; the other provides people with certain specific techniques by which they can get things done through others. As a result we have two popular versions of human relations. According to the first version, "human relations" is identified with "good human relations," good human relations are associated with "ideal patterns of behavior," and hence "human relations" becomes concerned with how the practitioner should behave in order to achieve these ideals. According to the second version, "human relations" is associated with those techniques by which someone goes about getting other people to do things he wants done and in the way he wants them done, and hence "human relations" becomes concerned with providing the practitioners with more and better techniques for influencing the behavior of others in the direction he wants.[36]

This added ingredient to the concept of human relations is what makes it especially applicable to administration. For it is the task of the administrator to lead the whole organization toward a definite purpose.

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[35]Jacob W. Getzels, and Egon G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review, XLV (Winter, 1957), 424.

[36]F.J. Roethlisberger, and Others, Training for Human Relations (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1954), pp. 13-14.

Recognizing the human element is a necessity in order for this to come about.
The administrator must develop skills in relating himself and others to the
social situation in which they find themselves. These skills are improved
and developed by the understanding of the content of human relations. Human
relations as applied to administration or management might then be conceived
as Davis does:

> Human relations as an area of management practice is the integration
> of people into a work situation in a way that motivates them to work
> together productively, cooperatively, and with economic, psychological,
> and social satisfaction.[37]

It has been shown that what might be described as the core of human
relations is the behavior of people in the organizational setting and the
development of skills and techniques on the part of the administrator to
influence and integrate this behavior. It is now necessary to explore the
research method of human relations. For there is more than one way to study
human behavior and develop skills in influencing it. One could proceed
from a purely abstract point of view, for example, wherein he would for-
mulate what the behavior of individuals should be. Likewise he may be-
lieve that the only technique applicable for the influencing of behavior
would be to provide the individuals with information. This, however, is
not the method of human relations.

The method used in the study of the behavior of people in human
relations is that of the social and behavioral sciences.[38] The emergence

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[37]Keith Davis, _Human Relations in Business_ (New York: McGraw-Hill
Book Co., 1957), p. 4.

[38]I.L. Heckman, Jr., and S.G. Huneryager, _Human Relations in Manage-
ment_ (Cincinnati: Southwest Publishing Co., 1960), p. 5.

of the social sciences in the last century was a necessary prerequisite to the rise of human relations content in administration. As Davis says: "The distinguishing feature of human relations is that it looks at man in business from the combined social science approach. In fact, human relations is a young offspring of sociology and psychology."[39]

The human relations approach, as I have known it, is nothing more than another name for the application of the behavioral sciences to the study and understanding of management and organization and human motivation within the business setting. The group at Harvard which hammered out much of the Western Electric research and most of the interpretation of this research was a team of interdisciplinary social scientists. Elton Mayo, who provided leadership for the project from its inception, was trained in psychiatry; he was a student of Pierre Janet,[40] famous French psychiatrist.

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[40]Janet's theory is that active attention of any given moment is the end result of an exceedingly complex mental and organic state. A physically fit person exhibits normality by his ability to turn his attention to a topic or object presented for his consideration. If a person is mentally disturbed his capacity to perform is immediately affected. See Elton Mayo, Some Notes on the Psychology of Pierre Janet (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1948), p. 43.

Mayo saw implications in this theory that related to industrial work situation: A person working alone, deprived of group membership and fellowship cannot communicate or share his experiences with others and so is deprived of the means necessary for social inter-course and emotional outlet. A person so constrained will soon display symptoms of irritability, indecision and loss of interest in his work.

W. Lloyd Warner, an anthropologist fresh from a field study of Australian aborigines, provided much of the sociological and anthropological orientation which gave direction to later developments in the Western Electric study.[41]

As a result, the Western Electric research took on an interdisciplinary character practically from its beginning. The men associated with the research have through the years placed great faith in the notion that men of intelligence who are good observers, accurate recorders, and capable of pursuing theoretical and empirical considerations wherever they might lead are likely to be productive in research and new insights.

They have not typically bound themselves within tight disciplinary boxes but have tended to associate themselves with those academic and business activities which permit a wide range of interest no matter what we established disciplinary lines.

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[41]The entire undertaking was sponsored by the Harvard Business School. It had the enthusiastic support of Dean W. Brett Donham of that institution, who, with his career as a practical businessman as well as that of an educator and head of a major school of business, saw the importance of understanding society and the relation between business and the broader society of which it was a part. The men who were involved in the studies, not only at Western Electric but later in the related "Yankee City" study, were men of diverse educational, social, and geographical backgrounds. Some were trained in engineering and the physical sciences; others, in liberal arts and in the social sciences. There were those from the established New England upper class and those of immigrant parentage. There was even a Wall Street broker. The research was not formally organized to represent various disciplines. There was no attempt to say "we must have represented in this research the viewpoint of the economist, or the sociologist, or the psychologist, or the practical businessman." Instead there were gathered together a group of researchers of varied background but with no formal commitment to the specific concepts of established disciplines.

It can be seen from the foregoing that the so-called "human relations approach" is nothing either more or less than an interdisciplinary social scientific approach to the study of organization and human motivation and behavior within business. Nonetheless, there has been a certain sense of identification among various scholars and researchers in these areas which marks them off as a group. For the most part, this sense of identification has grown out of various academic associations. A kind of cultural diffusion has occurred through the years as various individuals associated either directly or indirectly with the Western Electric research have moved about the country.[42] In addition, the group has developed a sense of identification because it has been highly interdisciplinary in

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[42]W. Lloyd Warner, for example, moved to the University of Chicago in 1935. There he helped establish the Committee on Human Development and the Committee on Human Relations was Burleigh B. Gardner, who worked with Warner at Harvard on the "Yankee City" study, received his Ph.D. in Anthropology at Harvard, and also served in a research capacity in the counseling program at Western Electric prior to his association with the University of Chicago. Gardner moved on to establish Social Research, Inc., which in recent years has become one of the outstanding research firms in the country, specializing not only in organizational studies and executive appraisals but also in motivation research. Others intimately associated with Warner at Harvard include Conrad Arensberg, Solon Kimball, Allison Davis, Eliot Chapple, Paul Lunt, Leo Srole, J.L. Low, and others. William F. Whyte, who also came under Warner's influence at Harvard, followed Gardner as executive director of the Committee on Human Relations in Industry. Whyte, a sociologist, subsequently moved to the New York School of Industrial and Labor Relations at Cornell University. These three men, that is, Warner, Gardner, and Whyte, have been instrumental in the development of an amazing number of people working in the field of human relations—Leonard Sayles, George Strauss, Chris Argyris, James Abeggelen, Norman Martin, Donald Roy, Melville Dalton, David Moore, Margaret Chandler, Edith Lentz, Orvis Collins, to mention only a few who have written widely in the field. Others associated with the Western Electric and "Yankee City" study also served to diffuse the human relations approach but the major point is established.

its approach, representing a kind fo melding of clinical psychology,

psychoanalytic theory, social anthropology, and functional sociology.

Finally, there has been a sense of identification because of the concern

of the group with the discovery and understanding of our emergent, present

society. All of these factors—the personal associations, the inter-

disciplinary, somewhat clincial approach, and the interest in our emergent,

on-going society—have helped to create an image of a "school" of thinking

which is often referred to as the "human relations school."

Thus, human relations in administration looks at the behavior of man

from the combined approach of all the social sciences. This includes the

knowledge about man gathered in such fields as sociology, anthropology,

psychology, semantics, and group dynamics. All of these disciplines use

the scientific method to answer questions about human behavior.[43] The use

of the scientific method to the study of human problems was long thought

to be an impossibility, and indeed it was according to the rigid view in

which the scientific method was held for many years. But it is now re-

cognized that, although the findings can never be as accurate as in the

physical sciences, nevertheless the use of the scientific method in the

social sciences is a valid method of procedure. As Good states in his

review of educational research in the last quarter of a century:

> This review of educational research during the past fifty years is
> based on the premise that the term "scientific mehtod" is much broader
> in application than at the beginning of the century or even twenty years
> ago, since we now see no essential conflict between the problem-solving
> procedures or thought processes of science, philosophy, logic, history,

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[43]Stuart Chase, The Proper Study of Mankind (rev. ed.; New York:
Harper and Row, 1963), p. 9.

statistics, and case-clinical study. Perhaps these approaches are complementary techniques of different aspects of general purpose of a discipline of inquiry, in the development of problem or concept, and in the gathering of evidence with which to test to modify the concept.[44]

But one must refrain from making the impression that the statistical and experimental studies in these fields play the same role that they do in the physical sciences. For the social sciences represent not only the scientific aspects of a problem, but also the judicial, personal, and legislative aspects. It is, however, true to say that the human relations approach to educational administration is the application of the scientific method to the investigation and limited prediction of human behavior in the school organizational setting. As Getzels and Guba say:

> The application of systematic concepts from social science to a real situation will help the administrator to sort out problems confronting him, to examine them in appropriate contexts, and to understand something of their internal dynamics.[45]

The use of the scientific method in any discipline demands complete objectivity. The scientist puts down what he sees and not what he wants to see. Ideally, a scientist investigating a situation, even one involved with human beings, is free of all prejudice and preconceptions about what he is observing. This ideal is difficult to achieve, but nevertheless the true scientist can imitate it to an adequate extent. The findings of the scientist also must be objective. Another researcher must be able to make the same statistical and experimental observations if the findings are to be valid. As Chase says:

> The scientific investigator puts down what he sees, not what he wants to see. He puts it down in such a way that other observers can verify

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[44]Carter V. Good, "Educational Research After Fifty Years," Phi Delta Kappan, XXXVII (January, 1956), 145.

[45]Getzels and Guba, p. 440.

his findings. Without a situation where the findings or one observer can be checked by other competent observers and agreement reached, we must surrender the idea of scientific method.[46]

The scientific method has traditionally been presented in a series of five steps. Its difference from the other methods of inquiry into problem situations, such as appeal to the supernatural, appeal to worldly authority, intuition, common sense, and pure logic is readily apparent. Good gives an enumeration of the steps in the scientific method:

1. Recognition and determination of the status of the phenomenon to be investigated;
2. Collection of data relating to the factors or circumstances associated with the given phenomenon;
3. Diagnosis or identification of causal factors as a basis for remedial or developmental treatment;
4. Application of remedial or adjustment measures;
5. Subsequent follow-up to determine the effectiveness of the treatment applied.[47]

It is evident from this enumeration of steps that there are no a priori considerations in the use of the scientific method. The man who is unconditionally committed to its use in all circumstances will see no other criteria as of any value. Such an attitude is seen in a man such as Frank, who says:

Every aspect and element in culture, predicated upon assumptions about the universe and how it operates, including man and his functioning, will require critical examination in the light of recent scientific advances. Since the ongoing march of scientific research will continue to bring new knowledge and understanding, this process of revision must go indefinitely.[48]

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[46]Chase, p. 9.

[47]Good, p. 150.

[48]Lawrence K. Frank, Nature and Human Nature: Man's New Image of Himself (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutger's University Press, 1951), pp. 105-106.

Human relations in educational administration, therefore, brings to
the realm of administration the concepts, findings, and method of the
behavioral sciences. This represents a new source of knowledge for the
school administrator in which he must become proficient if he is to be
successful. Such a state of affairs would not have been evident as short
a time as two decades ago. It might still be argued that the use of the
scientific method is not revelant to the field of school administration.
But administration, like any aspect of social life, ought to be subjected
to study which will increase the understanding of its dynamics, and enable
a limited amount of predictions to be made concerning its successful use.
Tyler gives some ways in which the behavioral sciences have been helpful
to education, especially in the field of research:

> The behavioral sciences have been and will continue to make impor-
> tant contributions to educational research. In general, they are
> contributions to the conceptualization of the problems, contri-
> butions in the form of research techniques, and, to a lesser extent,
> contributions of useful findings. Although the behavioral sciences
> are not providing direct answers to important educational questions,
> they are proving of great assistance in the development of a
> soundly-based program of educational research.[49]

Since human relations has largely been derived from other fields of
administration and then applied to educational administration, it might be
argued that such a transfer of concepts is not valid since school adminis-
tration has a different purpose than does business and public administration.
The school administrator is not interested in making a profit as is the
business administrator. Nor is he specifically interested in administering
a public organization of some form or another. The school administrator

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[49]Ralph W. Tyler, "The Contribution of the Behavioral Sciences to
Educational Research," First Annual Phi Delta Kappan Symposium on Educa-
tional Research (ed. Frank W. Banghort; Bloomington, Ind.: Phi Delta
Kappa, Inc., 1960), p. 70.

is primarily concerned with the education of children, and some would say

that such a difference in purpose places school administration in a category

all its own. But this difference in purpose does not make the application

of the science of human relations to it unwarranted. As Tompkins says:

> Therefore, although schools differ in purpose from industry, politics,
> army, labor, and business, they do not differ in factors relating to
> human collaboration and group co-operation, either at the classroom
> or school-wide level. Many teachers, supervisors, and administrators
> are learning a lot from the significant experiences of industry and
> other noneducational organizations.[50]

Indeed it is more likely that the science of human relations applies

in a more fitting way to educational administration than to other forms of

administration. Whereas the product of business administration is a

material object for consumer use, the product of school administration is

a human one, the education and development of a human being.[51] Likewise

the personnel who make up the organization in educational administration

exert much more direct influence on the finished product than does the

personnel in a business organization. The material good will be the same

irregardless of the caliber of human relations in the plant. But such is

not the case in the school. As Windsor says:

> School administration is much more specifically dependent upon good
> human relations than is the administration of an industry or business.
> School administration has greater social responsibility for the
> development of values as well as skills in human relations. In a
> cultural setting where full expression of self-directing citizens is
> to be encouraged through the organizing of, or cooperation with,
> other human beings, skill and appreciation in this field must charac-
> terize educational administration. Mastery of the art of adminis-
> tration rests primarily upon command of the basic principles involved

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[50]Ellisworth E. Tompkins, "Organization is Primarily People," Clearing
House, XXX (December, 1955), 211.

[51]Eugene C. Kim, "Five Realities Important to Faculty Human Relations
in School Administration," National Association of Secondary School
Principal's Bulletin, XLVI (April, 1963), 121.

in directing human relations effectively. It may be good business
for the industrial executive to use democratic procedures, but it
is a must for the school administrator to make democracy work in his
organization through his own practices as well as his precepts.[52]

Human Relations as a Practice

Human relations, then consists in the interest in people, in their

behavior in the organizational setting, examined from the scientific

methodology of the behavioral sciences. But something more must be added

to complete the picture. Just what does the administrator do with this

new knowledge which he has received? Is this knowledge used just to ease

tensions among the members of his staff, or is it used in the very core of

the administrative process? The administrator uses this knowledge for the

intelligent guidance of human behavior for the specific purposes of the

school organization.[53] Thus he uses it in the very functioning of the

administrative process itself. This requires one to look at administration

as the art and science of applying scientific knowledge to the problems of

the institution. It makes administration something objective and scien-

tific rather than intuitive and personal. As Griffiths says:

> Administration is now thought of as the direction of living in the
> social organization which is the school system. With this orien-
> tation, it can be seen that what is taught to educational adminis-
> trators shoule be a synthesis of the knowledge we have concerning
> the behavior of human beings.[54]

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[52]A.L. Windsor, "Exemplify Democracy at Work," Nation's Schools,
LIII (January, 1954), 47.

[53]Robert A. Walker, "Political Science and the Educator," Educational
Leadership, XIII (May, 1956), 478.

[54]Daniel E. Griffiths, "Greater Emphasis on People," Education Digest,
XXIV (January, 1959), 26.

Hence, through his understanding of human behavior gathered from all the behavioral sciences, the administrator influences and leads this behavior toward the specific objectives of the organization. Walker gives some explanation of this:

> The psychologist, sociologist, and anthropologist have thrown new light on human motivation, on the influence of the small group on individual conduct, on the nature of leadership, and otherwise have exposed some of the geotropic roots of human behavior in organization. Since intelligent guidance of such behavior for specific purposes is the essence of administration, it is inevitable that the student in public administration should have given these influences an increasing amount of attention.[55]

From this point of reference, administration becomes more of a science than an art. The process of administration is looked at as the integration of the goals of the organization and the needs of the individual in the light of the scientific knowledge of human beings and their behavior in the organizational setting.[56] When administration is looked at in this way, it is felt that significant predictions can be made of what behavior will result from this or that action of the administrator. With this knowledge in his hand, the administrator would not have to depend upon his personality or intuition in bringing about the desired behavior of those under him. Knezevich gives a good critique of this way of looking at administration in discussing the controversy concerning administration as art or science:

> Thus, one school of thought proclaims that through experimentation and/or observation, what type of administrative behavior will lead

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[55]Walker, p. 478.

[56]One scholar of administration feels that administration is a process that integrates/systematizes various other processes which might possibly be in congruence. Administration integrates at least three other processes: Power/expertise; Individual/organization and clientele. Complete theory of administration must take into consideration all the above three processes. See Dr. Melvin Cheesman, Attempts Towards Meaningful Theory of Administration (Lectures: Fall 1967)

to what type of outcomes under what set of conditions will be ascertained....The ultimate goal of scientific administration is the prediction of outcomes in institutional operations. As a result administrative behavior, it is claimed, will be less intuitive.[57]

And it is precisely here where again the skills to be developed by

the administrator to achieve this task are encountered. These skills are

not simply the manipulation of techniques. Every school organization is

unique in some respect, and the administrator must recognize this. He will,

therefore, need to view his organization in a scientific manner to see what

specific behavior is required of him to solicit the desired response on the

part of those beneath him. Just what these skills are can be seen from

the following words of Griffiths:

What is an administrator like when he has a highly developed set of human skills? First of all, he knows himself—his strengths and weaknesses. He is aware of his own attitudes and assumptions. He has an inner security which enables him to consider new ideas and can work to bring about orderly changes in both the system and the people in the system. He is skillful in understanding other's words and behavior because he accepts viewpoints, perceptions, and beliefs which differ from his own. He works to create an atmosphere of approval and security for all in his organization. He knows that all that he does or fails to do has an effect on his associates. Human skills have become an integral part of his whole being.[58]

This use of the skills of human relations is not an impersonal acti-

vity. Using the science of human relations does not make the administrator

less interested in people. As Kelby says:

The science of human relations as applied to the superintendency has many implications. It means having sensitive awareness of people. It means taking sincere and positive interest in teachers as people,

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[57]Stephen J. Knezevich, Administration of Public Education (New York: Harper and Bros., 1962), p. 15.

[58]Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration, p. 10.

their needs, their aspirations, their social climate, and their
physical environment....It means indicating a willingness to discuss
problems, to reduce variances, to alleviate tensions, and to make
adjustments whenever and wherever such action is feasible and pos-
sible....It means understanding the principles of democracy in action
and exerting leadership worthy of the democratic frame of reference.[59]

Human Relations and Personnel Administration

The distinction between human relations and personnel administration

has been a sore spot with the student of administration.

Basic writings in personnel speak of something that is "practiced

by everyone in the organization" yet are filled with policy and procedures

for employment, training and rest of the basic personnel functions. One

might assume, then, that these authors advocate training all managers/

administrators[59a] in the organization in the procedures of personnel ad-

ministration.

In order to understand the functions of human relations it is

essential that we see the distinction between the functions of human re-

lations and those of personnel administration.

The functions of personnel administration are concerned with the

relationship of the individual to his job while human relations is con-

cerned with the relationship of the individual to other individuals in

the organization. It is the application of all the behavioral sciences

and the use of the scientific method in the study of people in the or-

ganizational setting.

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[59]M.R. Kelby, "Human Relations and the School Superintendency,"
American School Board Journal, CXXXII (October, 1953), 30.

[59a]The words "managers" and "administrators" are used inter-
changeably here.

Summary

Like the word "management," the word "human relations," is a portman-
teau term packed with a variety of meanings by generations of practitioners
and scholars.[60]

The term "human relations" as it is used in the writings of educa-
tional administrators, is fundamentally a deep interest in people. It is
likewise both an inquiry into the behavior of people and a way of acting
toward people on the basis of knowledge gained. It is the application of
all the behavioral sciences and the use of the scientific method in the
study of people in the organizational setting. In summary, it can be
said that human relations in educational administration has a threefold
origin, (1) an attitude (that people are important); (2) an inquiry
(into the behavior of human beings scientifically studied); and (3) a
practice (using the knowledge gained in the inquiry on the basis of the
attitude to modify the behavior of the people in the organization).
Because of this threefold origin, human relations has at some time or
another been used by authors to mean any one of the three. All three
aspects, however, must be taken into account if one is to understand the
full reality of human relations.

The human relations movement is a phenomenon of this century. It
originated in the business world and was later applied to educational

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[60]For the past twenty years there have been few terms more frequently
used, more badly twisted, and more misunderstood than the term "human
relations." Indeed, these two words have been subjected to such a variety
of uses by so many different people that one wonders whether the term has
any common meaning whatsoever.

administration. Cheung has made a detailed study of this transferal from

business to education.[61] It will not be necessary to give a detailed

account of this transferal here, but a short summary of this development

will be presented.

Human relations was born in the 1930's with the work of Elton Mayo

and his colleagues at the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company.[62]

In a study to determine the reason for an increase in output by a group of

girls on an assembly line of telephone "relays," it was discovered after

many changes in wages, rest periods, piecework, etc., that the ultimate

reason for increased production was in the girls themselves.[63] The

mysterious reason was in the way the girls felt about their work. Their

attitudes had changed. The important thing was not so much the change

itself but the meaning of the change.[64] Thus the worker himself was seen

to be the most important element in business production. As Roethelisberger

states, "A human problem to be brought to a human solution requires human

data and human tools."[65] Further research by Mayo, Roethlisberger, and

their colleagues further substantiated the importance of human relations in

business.

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[61]Cheung, p. 116.

[62]William H. Knowles, "Human Relations in Industry: Research and Concepts," Human Relations in Management, ed. I.L. Heckman, Jr., and S.G. Heckman, Jr., and S.G. Huneryager, p. 738.

[63]Chase, p. 162.

[64]F.J. Roethlisberger, Management and Morale (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1947), p. 15.

[65]Ibid., p. 9.

Although originally suspect of this new way of looking at the business

organization, businessmen eventually came to see the validity and importance

of the new findings from the research conducted by these men. As a result,

beginning about 1945, or the end of World War II, there came to be what

might be described as the "age of human relations."[66] Business administration

was not being taught, especially at the Harvard Business School, as the

science of human relations applied to the business organization.

The rise of human relations in educational administration could not

have come about apart from all the previous work done in business adminis-

tration. Nor would it have come about so quickly were it not for a series

of events in 1947 which were to prove revolutionary in character. At the

1947 convention of the American Association of School Administrators, a

group of university professors of school administration met to discuss

common problems. Because the time was limited at this convention, the

group decided to set up a committee to explore new programs. After two

meetings, they decided to form a permanent association known as the

"National Conference of Professors of Education." In 1949, the W.K. Kellogg

Foundation provided funds for the NCPEA to hold its meeting. With evidence

that leading educational organizations were wishing to make moves toward

improving educational administration, the Foundation appropriated $20,000

for a series of exploratory conferences. Eventually this resulted in in-

creased support by the Foundation and a selection of eight centers to

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[66]Davis, p. 7.

conduct research in the improvement of training of school administrators. These eight centers were the following: Teachers College, Columbia University; Harvard University; University of Chicago; George Peabody College for Teachers; University of Texas; Ohio State University; University of Oregon; and Stanford Univeristy.[67]

Thus both money and manpower were put to work to find means of improving educational administration. The programs were later extended to other universities, and also to Canada. It was from the combined work of all these parties that human relations content began to be applied to educational administration. This was not the sole outcome of these Kellogg sponsored projects, but it is the outcome that concerns us. For it explains how administrators came to recognize the human relations content of business and public administration as applicable to educational administration as well.

It is now necessary to examine the content of human relations. It has been shown that human relations is basically an attitude, an inquiry, and a practice. But in order to understand any of these three aspects, it is necessary to understand the content of human relations as it applies to school administration. The following chapter will be an examination of this content.

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[67]W.K. Kellogg Foundation, Toward Improved School Administration: A Decade of Professional Effort to Heighten Administrative Understanding and Skills (Battle Creek, Mich.: Sequoia Press, 1961), pp. 10-13.

CHAPTER II

Content of Human Relations

The administrator must not only be aware of the reality and

definition of human relations; he must also understand the content of

human relations if he is to be successful. The content of human re-

lations consists in the specific areas of inquiry concerning man and

his behavior in the educational setting. The present study has

limited the content of human relations to six areas of inquiry. There

is neither science nor magic to the choice of six. Six seems econo-

mical and manageable: enough to say what needs without redundancy.

The study is designed to touch the major content of human rela-

tions. Six major contents of human relations in educational adminis-

tration are: Communications, Authority, Motivation, Power, Decision-

making and Leadership.[68]

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[68]Some scholars will argue vociferously against such a selection.
Many school administrators will want to use Griffith's synthesis of
human relations into nine topics: communication, authority, motivation,
power, perception, morale, group-dynamics, decision-making and leader-
ship. See, for example, Daniel E. Griffiths Human Relations in School
Administration (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1956), pp. 17-19.
    However, the content of human relations in the present study is
restricted to six areas as mentioned above. The purpose of these
selections is to show what was and had been done and to highlight the
richness in diversity of many contributions to six areas selected.
Economy again, however, defined the number of studies selected.

Communication

Communication is so interwoven in our daily life that few people
realize how much time is devoted to such activity. A study showed that
an average American spends approximately 70 per cent of his active hours
communicating verbally - listening, speaking, reading or writing in that
order. This amounts to ten or eleven hours a day.[69] Another study states
that one-sixth of the waking hours of children six to sixteen is filled
with television-viewing; seventy-five per cent of the average person's
mass communications time is occupied by radio and television.[70]

Communication is also an important aspect of organization dynamics
for a number of reasons. First, the co-operative nature of planning
process requires extensive communication among executives and others.
Second, communication is important in executing a company program.
Third, information about subordinate performance is necessary to deter-
mine whether planned goals are being achieved. And fourthly, no decision
can be made without communication (information) about alternative path-
ways. Furthermore, the decision to be implemented must be communicated.
"A decision occurs upon the receipt of some kind of communication, it
consists of a complicated process of combining communications from
various sources, and it results in the transmission of further communi-
cations."

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[69]David K. Berlo, The Process of Communication (New York: Holt,
Rinehart and Winston, Inc. 1960), p. 1.

[70]W. Schramm, "Mass Media and Educational Policy" Social Forces
Influencing American Education, 16th Yearbook of the National Society of
the study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961).

[71]John T. Dorsey, "A Communication Model for Administration,"
Administrative Science Quarterly (1957), p. 309.

The subject of communication has been given a great deal of attention in recent years by mathematicians, physicists, social scientists etc. Compared with other schools, the classicists placed relatively little emphasis on communication, perhaps because their essentially rationalist point of view gave them little insight into many of its problems. Thus, neither Gulick, Urwick, nor Fayol included communication among their "principles" and key activities. Their nearest approximation was to include command - that is, communication downward, a process also implicit in their principle of hierarchy.[72]

Compared with its treatment by the classicists communication received much greater emphasis from C.I. Barnard, "spiritual father" of the Social System School. "The need of a definite system of communication," wrote Barnard, "creates the first task of the organizer and is the immediate origin of executive organization."[73] Barnard saw communication as a major shaping force: one that linked people and purpose together in any co-operative system.

A number of writers have expressed the view that a human organization is best described as a communication system. Bavelas and Barrett take issue with those who regard communication as merely a secondary or helper function. "Rather, it is the essence of organizational activity and is the basic process out of which all other functions derive."[74]

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[72]See, for example, Luther Gulick, "Notes on the Theory of Organization" Papers on the Science of Administration (New York: Columbia University, 1937), pp. 35-36; Lyndall F. Urwick, The Elements of Administration (New York: Harper and Brothers 1944), p. 125; Henri Fayol, General and Industrial Management (London: Pitman and Sons 1949).

[73]Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press 1938), pp. 82, 89-91.

[74]Alex Bavelas and Dermot Barrett, Personnel (1951) pp. 27, 366-71.

Dorsey has devoted an entire article to expounding the thesis that administration is primarily communication; "if administration," he reasons, "is defined as a process consisting elementarily of decisions and if decisions are essentially communication phenomena, it follows that administration can be viewed as a communication process. He also conceives of a decision as occurring upon the receipt of some kind of communication and consisting of a complicated process of combining communications from various sources."[75]

The recent insights and emphasis in the study of communication has led to the development of a field of study commonly referred to by the terms "information theory" and "cybernetics." Norbert Wiener and Claude E. Shannon formally launched "the new-science" in 1948 with separate publications on the theory of information and communications.[76] Wiener viewed information and communication as primary elements in man's efforts to control himself and his environment. He was concerned with the development of techniques that have general applicability in solving communication problems. His fundamental theory is helpful in understanding communication difficulties in the central nervous system, computing machines, organizations, and society. Shannon dealt with the problem of information and communication from the perspective of electronic

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[75]John T. Dorsey Jr., Op. Cit., pp. 309-310.

[76]Norbert Wiener, Cybernetics. Control and Communication in the Animal and the Machine (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1948). Shannon's theory, originally published by the Bell System Technical Journal in 1948, has been reprinted in: Claude E. Shannon and Warren Weaver, The Mathematical Theory of Communication (Urbana: The University of Illinois Press, 1949).

communication systems. He was concerned with such problems as increasing
the information potential of communication channels, more efficient en-
coding and decoding, and the elimination of channel noise. However, in
spite of differences in perspective, the theories of Wiener and Shannon
are closely related conceptually and approach the communication problem
with similar analytical techniques.[77]

Communication and the Administrator

Perhaps the most frequent activity an administrator engages in con-
sists in communication, either talking or listening to others. As Benz
says, "The first problem under the general heading of human relations
which the school administrator should consider is the problem of communi-
cations."[78] The verbal atmosphere which surrounds the administrator
demands that he be an expert in communication. By an examination of gen-
eral semantics, the administrator can receive much help in solving his
communications problems. Griffiths gives a good explanation of general
semantics:

> General semantics, then, is an attempt to deal with human problems
> through the use of the methods of science. Through the application
> of scientific methods to human problems many of the language

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[77]Both theories are founded on the idea that information is charac-
terized by entropy similar to that found in the physical sciences. As
used in information theory, entropy may be roughly defined as the ten-
dency for a system to become more and more disorganized over a period
of time. The concept of entropy is used to measure the efficiency with
which given quantities of symbols, such as the English language or a
cryptographic code, can be used to construct and transmit particular
messages. The greater the entropy, the greater the information poten-
tial of a language system. This idea gives emphasis to the statistical
character of information and the importance of probability in con-
structing message systems.

[78]Harry E. Benz, "Human Relations in School Administration,"
Elementary School Journal, L (November, 1949), 136.

problems we now face will be remedied. . . . General semantics is
concerned with pointing out errors of fact, opinion, and logic in
communications, that is, improving verbalizations. It is, how-
ever, much more concerned with what is back of a person's ver-
balizations, that is, his pattern of reaction. The founder of
general semantics believed that the metaphysics of man, his philo-
sophies, his theories of knowledge end up in his nervous system.[79]

General semantics is concerned with all the problems of communication.
This includes what exactly words are. For almost all of communication is
carried out by the use of words. Words do not always mean the same thing
to everyone and the administrator must be aware of this.[80] Words are
really maps of territories, representing something rather than being
something. They are essentially symbols, signs of something that lies
beyond them. That something that lies beyond has been called the refer-
ent by the general semanticists.[81] Some words have merely one referent,
while others have several. Likewise one referent may be expressed by
several different words. And some words have no referents. It is not
surprising, therefore, that many problems arise in the use of words.

When one uses words of which he knows the referent, he is using the
extensional meaning of the word. The meaning of such a word is seldom
ambiguous. The problem arises, however, in what is called the inten-
sional meaning of the word. These are words which have hidden meanings,
either to the person speaking or the one hearing. These hidden meanings
are often associated with the emotions. These words cause a great deal

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[79]Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration, p. 76.

[80]Benz, p. 137.

[81]Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration, pp. 77-78.

of trouble in human relations. As Berrien states: "The central problem for human relations in the communication process is to understand the speaker's intensional meaning in what he says rather than just the facts or logic of his utterance.[82]

The administrator, in attempting to understand the intensional meaning of words, takes into account the particular meaning the culture of his environment has given to the word. He also takes into account the context in which the word was used.

Another concept which must be taken into account to understand communication is that of projection. Griffiths explains what is meant by this term:

> To the general semanticist, projection takes place whenever an individual observes or evaluates or participates. . . . This means that as we describe any situation, state a fact, or react or evaluate, we are injecting ourselves into the words we use in verbalizing the experience. . . . What is needed, on the part of the administrator, is an awareness of the fact that we project ourselves and an awareness and use of the mechanism of to-me-ness.[83]

Thus the enthusiasm of the person speaking may give a false impression of the true reality of the situation. Likewise, an individual may consciously or unconsciously speak through another, and thus give a false impression of what the other wished to communicate, or even manufacture words another supposedly said. This is known as ventriloquizing.[84]

All of these elements of communication require that the administrator develop a fine art of listening. It is not enough for the administrator to merely make sure that his words are understood. He must also make every effort to understand the words of the other by good

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[82]Berrien, P. 34.

[83]Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration, pp. 84-85.

[84]Ibid., pp. 85-86.

listening. As Ogden and Stopps say, "Communication must be two-way--coming to the administrator during conception and flowing from the administrator after adoption."[85] Griffiths gives four major blocks to good listening which often come into the way of good communication:[86]

1. Preoccupation
2. Emotional blocks
3. Stereotypes
4. Two-valued thinking

The school administrator is a busy person, and he may become so preoccupied in his many duties that he fails to hear what the other is saying to him. Likewise the sound of a certain word may activate an emotional block and prevent an adequate understanding to take place. Or the administrator may place certain words or phrases into a stereotype and assume that whenever a person uses them, they always connote the same thing. Also the administrator may refuse to admit that there are more than two sides to most questions. Most problems must be solved not from a choice between black or white, but with a mixture of gray.

The administrator should try to improve his listening. This can be done by providing a permissive atmosphere, listening for total content rather than words, and being alert to the values and motives of the person speaking. Such attempts at improving communication in the school will not go unrewarded, for as Barry and Lonsdale found, the morale of the school administrator himself improves when a greater effort is made in this area.[87]

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[85]Lowell Ogden, and Emery Stopps, "Staff Morale: What It Is, How Do We Get It," Educational Administration and Supervision, XLIII (December, 1957), 489.

[86]Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration, P. 87.

[87]Franklin S. Barry, and Richard C. Lonsdale, "School Administration Staffing Practices: Influences upon Administrative Morale," School Executive, LXXVI (October, 1956), 77.

Communication Nets
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We must now look at the various networks that an administration has
to deal with.

Communication nets or networks refer to the arrangement of communi-
cation channels in an organization. An organizational chart depicting the
hierarchy of supervision is also a formal communication network showing
how information "should" be communicated among the hierarchical levels.
Often, of course, the established "chain of command" is not followed. The
organizational structure is identical to the communication network. Many
researchers have studied organizational structures, for example, Whyte[88]
in his study of a restaurant, to determine the official and unofficial
allocation of authority and the communication set up. But up to this
time (1950) there was no rigorous way to experimenting in the laboratory
with communication structures. Then, in 1950 Bavelas presented an ex-
perimental procedure for studying communication nets that led to a pro-
liferation of further work. He posed the question if it were possible
that "among several communication patterns, all logically adequate for
the successful completion of a specified task, one gives significantly
better performance?"[89]

[88]Willian Foote Whyte, "The Social Structure of the Restaurant,"
The American Journal of Sociology (1949) pp. 302-310.

[89]Alex Bavelas, "Communication Patterns in Task-Oriented Groups,"
Journal of the Acoustical Society of America (1950), pp. 725-730.

Bavelas proposed the communication networks shown in Figure 1.

Circle

Chain

"Y"

Wheel
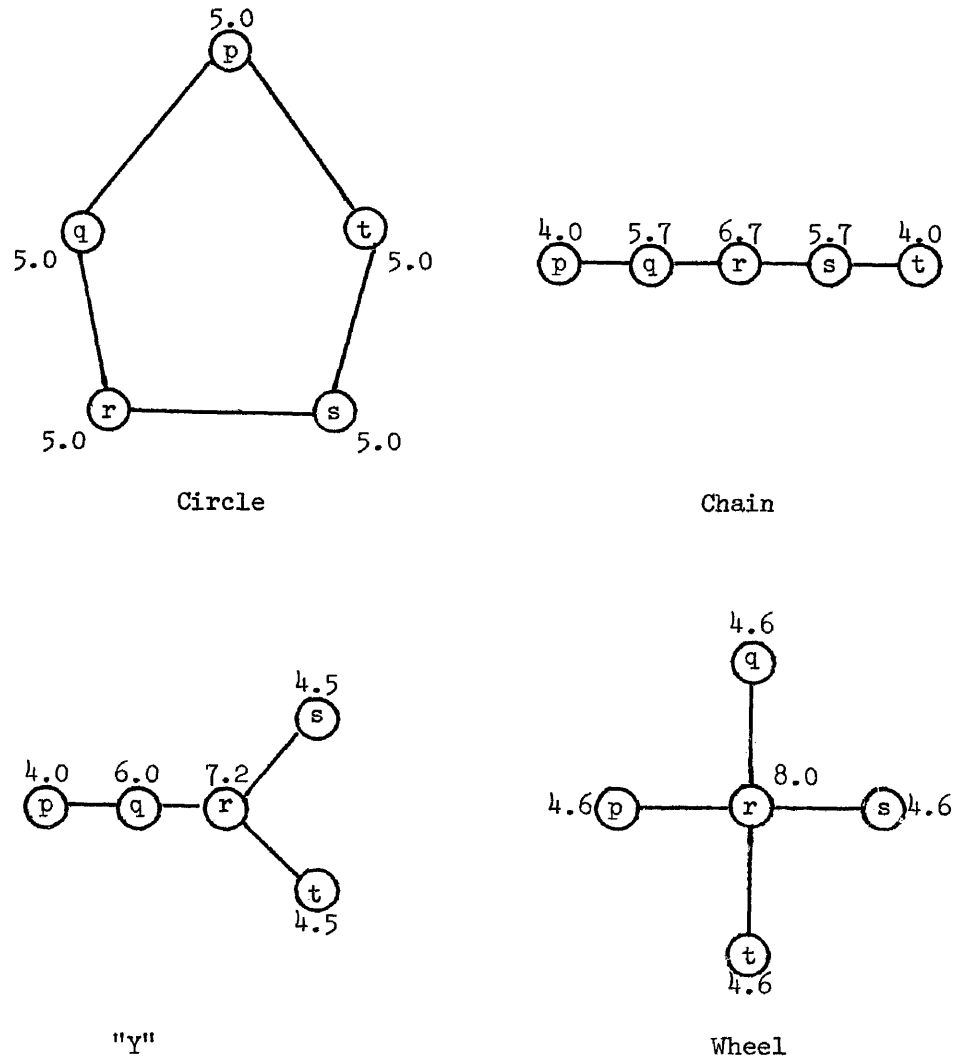
Figure 1. Communication networks reported by Bavelas. The relative centrality index of each position for each network is indicated by the number adjacent to each letter.

Each letter represents a person and the lines connecting the persons are communication channels. Communication among the five persons in each net can only take place by the channels indicated. The distances, metrically speaking, between each person can be handled by an

index of relative centrality. The index is simply obtained by dividing "the sum of all internal distances of the pattern." Thus, for the "Y" net in the Figure 1 the index would be computed as follows (it is assumed the distance between two adjacent people on the communication channel is a unitless 1).

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text{Distance from} & p \text{ to } q = 1 & q \text{ to } p = 1 & r \text{ to } p = 2 \\
& p \text{ to } r = 2 & q \text{ to } r = 1 & r \text{ to } q = 1 \\
& p \text{ to } s = 3 & q \text{ to } s = 2 & r \text{ to } s = 1 \\
& p \text{ to } t = \dfrac{3}{9} & q \text{ to } t = \dfrac{2}{6} & r \text{ to } t = \dfrac{1}{5}
\end{array}
$$

"Sum of distances
for any one position
in the pattern"

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
s \text{ to } p = 3 & t \text{ to } p = 3 & \text{"Sum of all internal} \\
s \text{ to } q = 2 & t \text{ to } q = 2 & \text{distances of the} \\
s \text{ to } r = 1 & t \text{ to } r = 1 & \text{pattern"} = \\
s \text{ to } t = \dfrac{2}{8} & t \text{ to } s = \dfrac{2}{8} & 9 + 6 + 5 + 8 + 8 = 36
\end{array}
$$

The centrality index for person p is 36/9, for q it is 36/6, etc. It should be apparent that the larger this number is, the more central is the person in the net.

In this paper, Bavelas presented the actual experimental results, using these nets, of S.L. Smith and H.J. Leavitt. Leavitt's results have also been published elsewhere.[90] Smith only used the Circle and Chain structure while Leavitt used all four. Smith had groups of 5 college students sit around a table with each student occupying a cubicle such that each one could only communicate by written messages with those possibilities, was the common symbol on a card among them. He found the

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[90]Harold J. Leavitt, "Some Effects of Certain Communication Patterns on Group Performance," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology (1951) pp. 38-50.

person in the most central position is usually seen as the "leader" of the group. He also found the Chain net was more efficient by having the fewer number of errors in solving the problem. Leavitt also found the Chain to have less errors than the Circle. Furthermore, the "Y" net had fewer errors than the Chain but the Wheel had the same number of average errors per group as the "Y." It appeared, then, that the network with the least centralized structure (Circle) had the most errors and the errors decreased as the structure became more centralized, ("Y" and Wheel). As the centralization increased, so too did the agreement on who was the leader (the most central person) and the satisfaction with the group. Those persons most satisfied were the ones who had the highest centrality index in their particular network. "Positions which limit independence of action (peripheral positions) would be unsatisfying.

The whole area of communication networks has been reviewed by Glanzer and Glaser and their general approach will be followed. Glanzer and Glaser have said, "the main contribution of the study is probably that it demonstrates that no network is best in all situations."[91]

Leavitt[92] found that the Wheel, "Y", Chain and Circle in that order had the greatest speed of organizing in performing the tasks. Simon[93] verified these results and found that the Wheel groups needed the least

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[91]Murray Glanzer and Robert Glaser, "Techniques for the Study of Group Structure and Behavior," Psychological Bulletin (1961), p. 6.

[92]Leavitt, Op. Cit., pp. 38-50.

[93]Herbert A. Simon, "The Impact of Certain Communication Nets Upon Organization and Performance in Task-Oriented Groups," Management Science (1955), pp. 233-250.

time to organize for effective problem solution since the most central member automatically became the leader. Shaw[94] findings confirm the other studies cited with regard to the relationship of centrality and satisfaction and leadership nominations.

Many other generalizations about the communication networks and their effects on organization have been made. But it may be pointed out that there are many factors that affect performance in communication nets--so many, that few if any, definitive statements can be made. Glanzer and Glaser argue that, "if the network studies have any application, it will not be in the small group, but in a much larger unit such as an industrial corporation or an army" because network conditions resemble more a large organization.[95]

Informal Communication Channels

Administratively planned communication channels represent only a portion of the actual communication channels found in an organization. Much of the communication system is informal in the sense that it is not planned by superior executives. Subordinates modify planned channels and create channels that have not been planned. As Professor E. Wight Bakke has concluded from a comprehensive study of a large telephone company:

> Our respondents were reacting. . . not to the planned system of Communication even in those areas where it was planned; they were reacting to planned procedures, which they had remade; but what is equally important, they were reacting to unplanned procedures which they themselves had made.

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[94]Marvin E. Shaw, "A Comparison of Two Types of Leadership in Various Communication Nets," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology (1955) pp. 127-134.

[95]Murray Glanzer, Op. Cit., p. 19.

[96]E. Wight Bakke, Bonds of Organization (New York: Harper & Brothers Publishers, 1950), p. 84.

Types of Informal Chains

Some important insights into the nature of informal communication channels were gained from an empirical study of management communication in a leather goods manufacturing company by Professor Keith Davis.[97] The informal communication channels were classified by Davis into four basic types: single strand, gossip, probability, and cluster. The single-

Single
strand   Gossip   Probability   Cluster
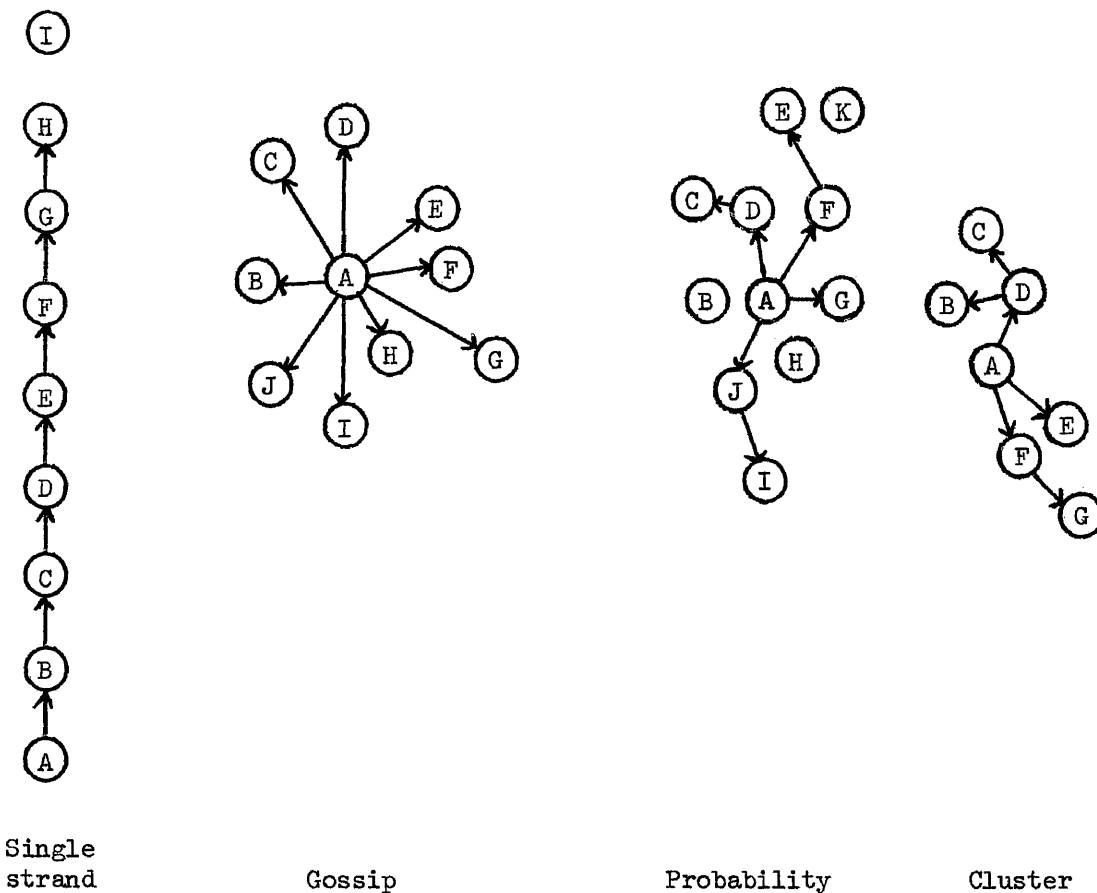
Figure 2. Types of Communication Chains in a Management Hierarchy.

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[97]Keith Davis, "A Method of Studying Communication Patterns in Organizations," Personnel Psychology (Autumn 1953) pp. 301-302.

strand chain involves the passing of information through a long line of persons to the ultimate recipient. A tells B, who tells C, who tells D, and so on. In the gossip chain, as the name implies, A actively seeks and tells everyone else. The probability chain is a random process wherein A transmits the information to others (F and D in Figure 2) in accordance with the laws of probability, and then F and D tell others in a similar manner. In the cluster chain, A tells selected persons who may in turn relay the information to other selected individuals. Most of the informal communication among management personnel followed the pattern of this chain.

In administration, communication serves as a linking process, this linking process ties the many parts of the system together. This linking process, communication, is a two way process; Information must be communicated from the Superiors to the Subordinates, or from the Subordinate to the Superior and back again.

Communication in administration plays an evergrowing part in today's educational world. To be effective, an administrator should not only have the skills of listening but a good knowledge of various communication networks. Administrators should not use communication as an end in itself but as a process by which ends are accomplished. Through effective communication administrators would become aware of the nature and potentialities of the work force and what courses of action are available in making decisions.

Power

To understand the educational process - one must understand the concept of power.

Although the systematic study of power is of a very recent origin,[98] the literature of sociology,[99] social psychology,[100] and political science[101] abounds in its treatment of the concept of power, and its manifestation in man's cooperative activity in human society. Not only has the concept of

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[98]Robert Dahl, "The Concept of Power," Behavioral Science, II (July 1957), p. 20.

[99]See, for example, Peter M. Blau, Bureaucracy in Modern Society (New York: Random House, 1956), 127 pp; Robert Bierstedt, "Power and Social Organization," in Robert Dubin, Human Relations in Administration (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951); Kingsley Davis, Human Society (New York: The MacMillan Co., 1958), 655 pp; Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1957); and H.H. Gerth and C.W. Wright Mills, From Max Weber: Essays in Sociology (New York: Oxford University Press, 1946), 490 pp.

[100]See, for example, Bernard M. Bass, Leadership, Psychology and Organization Behavior (New York: Harper & Bros., 1960); Darwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, Group Dynamics (New York: Roe, Peterson & Co., 1960); Darwin Cartwright (ed.) Studies in Social Power (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan, Research Center for Group Dynamics Institute for Social Research, 1959), 225 pp; Fritz Heider, The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958); Ronald Lippitt, Jean Watson and Bruce Westley, The Dynamics of Planned Change (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1958), 305 pp; and Robert L. Khan and Elise Boulding, Power and Conflict in Organizations (New York: Basic Book, Inc., 1964), 173 pp.

[101]See, for example, Harold D. Lasswell and Abraham Kaplan, Power and Society (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1950), 295 pp; Charles E. Merriarn, Political Power (New York: McGraw-Hill Book, Co., 1934), 331 pp; Bertrand Russell, Power: A New Social Analysis (New York: W.W. Norton and Co., 1938), 315 pp; and Robert Strauss-Hupe, Power and Community (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1956), 134 pp.

power been a concern of sociologists, social psychologist, and political scientists in general, but also it represents a central interest to the students of leadership and administration.[102]

The basic characteristic of organization is the interaction of individuals with some degree of agreement as to organizational purpose and method. Continuing agreement cannot be obtained unless decisions are made and action-programs developed. Implied in decision is an element of compromise from a plurality of courses of action open to participants. Compromise is the process of choice and necessarily involves the use of influence or power.[103] A theory of organization can never be complete unless it includes a theory of power. As Bertrand Russell has stated, "The fundamental concept in social science, is Power, in the same sense in which Energy is the fundamental concept in physics."[104] To understand the organization as a social process, it is first necessary to gain some insight into the nature of this fundamental concept.

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[102]See, for example, Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executives (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938); Daniel E. Griffiths, Administrative Theory (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959), 123 pp; Alvin W. Gouldner, Studies in Leadership (New York: Harper and Bros., 1950), 736 pp; James G. Marsh and Herbert A. Simon, Models of Man (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1957); Robert Tannenbaum, Irving Wesehler and Fred Massarick, Leadership and Organization (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1961) and Lane, Cotwin and Menahan, Foundations of Educational Administration (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1967).

[103]William V. D'Antonio and Howard J. Ehrlich, "Democracy in America: Retrospect and Prospect," in Peter F. Drucker, et. al., eds., Power and Democracy in America (Notre Dame, Indiana: University of Notre Dame Press, 1961), p. 137.

[104]Bertrand Russell, Power: A New Social Analysis (New York: W.W. Norton, 1938), p. 12.

Power Defined

The word "power" as a highly abstract symbol has no "meaning"
except that which its user[105] wishes to impute to it. Power, defined as
"production of intended effect" or "probability of change" has certain
restraictions which inhibit its usefulness in application to the decision
process. These definitions are developed to help clarify the preferred
definition of power as a "change in probability."

Production of Intended Effect

Power is most commonly defined as the production of intended
effect.[106] A power relationship under this definition consists of man
in his environment with some desire for change. Power exists only with
respect to a specific intended effect or objective and must be, therefore,
a situational concept.[107] References to the power of the individual are
necessarily restricted to the specific situation and specific objectives

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[105]In various writings in the social and economic realms power has
been equated with authority, influence, control, force and many other
similar terms. In the process of defining power it will be necessary to
move downward through the levels of abstraction to diminish the possible
ambiguity of the definition. Some of the general applicability of the
concept may be lost as a result. However, it is expected that a workable
definition can be derived which will be meaningful in its intended appli-
cation to organizational analysis.

[106]The intended effect always occurs in the environment which may
include people or things or both. Since the power holder is himself a
part of his environment, even those adaptive changes in the individual may
be thought of as changes in the environment. The intended effect is thus
a change in the relationship between man and his environment. Power is
said to reside in the person capable of bringing about this changed relation-
ship..See Bertrand Russell, Op. Cit.

[107]E. Abramson, H.A. Cutler, R.W. Kautz, and M. Mendelson, "Social
Power and Committment: A Theoretical Statement," American Sociological
Review, XXIII (1958), p. 15.

of the individual in that situation.[108] He can be said to have power

insofar as he brings about the desired changes in his relationship with

his environment.

Some writers, among them Martin J. Hillenbrand,[109] have contended

that power is the ability to produce, rather than production of, intended

effect. Power, as the ability to produce a desired change, connotes an

absolute quality which proves misleading. A workable definition must

include the idea of power as a probabilistic concept.

Probability of Change

Previously, it was stated that power could be thought of as the

ability of an actor to change the relationship between himself and his

environment in a given situation. Further clarification of this idea came

from Max Weber.[110]

Symbolically, Weber's statement may be expressed as the probability

that B does x, given that A does W, P (B, x/A, w) = p, where x is the

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[108]Richard M. Emerson, "Power-Dependence Relations," American
Sociological Review, XXVII (1962), p. 32.

[109]Hillenbrand states:
　　　　If we define the term (power) in its broadest sense as
as the ability to produce intended affects or effects which may
possibly be intended, we can find scarcely any sphere of human
activity where it does not exist to a greater or lesser degree...
The ability to produce intended effects is inherent in any system
of relationship between man and man, or between man and his environ-
ment.
See Martin J. Hillenbrand, Power and Morals (New York: Columbia University
Press, 1949), p. 4.

[110]Weber acknowledged the probabilistic nature of power relation-
ship when he said: "Power is the probability that one actor within a
social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will des-
pite resistance, regardless of the basis on which this probability exists."
See Max Weber, The Theory of Social and Economic Organization (Glencoe,
Illinois: The Free Press, 1947), p. 152.
　　　　Weber restricts his definition to social relationships, but he could
just as easily have extended it to include man's interaction with his
environment.

action on the part of B which is desired by A, and w is the action of A.[111]

Any probability, p, that is greater than zero would seem to indicate that A

has power over B in that he could influence B to act in the manner x by

acting in the manner w. The limiting assumption of this definition is that

B offers resistance to A or that the probability of B doing x is always

zero unless A does w. A more complete statement of the power relationship

must include the possibility of occurence of a desired change when actor A

takes no action. To understand the nature of power it is necessary, there-

fore, to compare the probabilities of occurence of the intended effect when

A does and does not do w.

Change in Probability

At some time in any social relationship there exists the possibility

that a result desired by a participant is achieved without action directed

toward bringing about that result. In terms of the symbols introduced

above, there is some probability p_1, that the behavior of B will be such

that an objective desired by A will be realized, Power, therefore, cannot

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[111]Robert A. Dahl, "The Concept of Power" Behavioral Science, II
(1957) pp. 203-204.

be imputed to A on the basis of the probability of change. Rather, A's

power must be defined as the difference the probabilities of certain be-

havior on the part of B in the <u>presence</u> and <u>absence</u> of A.[112]

Power, as production of intended effect, connotes a direct cause-

effect relationship which must be suspect in any analysis, although the

causal agent in any relation certainly must be acknowledged as possessing

power. With the introduction of probabilities into the definition, power

becomes more realistically a concept of the future but fails to include

the possibility of independence in the social relation. Many other infer-

ences may be made on the basis of changes in probabilities in the past.

But the usefulness of power as an analytical device is in prediction or

the transition from past to future. To meet these essential qualifications

of a useful definition of power, it is proposed that <u>power is the ability</u>

<u>to change the probabilities of occurence of a desired event in a given</u>

<u>social context.</u>

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[112]The presence of A is expressed as an act, w, of A in the specific
context of the social relationship with B.

When A does w, there is some probability, p_2, that B will do x re-
sulting in a change desired by A. The propositions as outlined above could
be then stated:

$$p_1 = P (B, x/Aw)$$

$$p_2 = P (B, x/Aw) \quad \text{where} \quad (B,x) \text{ is B does x}$$
$$(A,w) \text{ is A does w}$$
$$(A,W) \text{ is A does not do w and}$$

P(B,x/Aw) is the probability that B does x, given that A does w.

P(B,x/AW) is the probability that B does x, given that A does not do w.

It follows that the power of A is defined as a change in probability,
or $p_2 - p_1$. When p_2 exceeds p_1, A said to have power over B with respect to
x; when $p_2 = p_1$, no power relationship may be inferred to exist; and when p_2
is less than p_1, A has negative power with respect to x. Although positive
power, p_2, p_1, is the <u>prime concern</u> of <u>this paper</u>, some attention should be
given to the conditions of negative power, p_2 p_1, and zero power $p_2 = p_1$.

When A does w, and the probability of B doing x is decreased, A is
said to have negative power over B. Observation of reactionary performance
would indicate that negative power is a valid proposition. Similarly, the
proposition of powerlessness, $p_2 = p_1$ demonstrates the independence of A and
B in a specified relationship.

Using this definition as a guide, the nature of power's derivation as well as some of its conceptual properties will be examined. From this examination, it should be possible to formulate some general propositions concerning the phenomenon of power in the formal organization.

The Derivation of Power

"The foundations of power vary from age to age, with the interests which move men, and the aspects of life to which they attach a preponderant importance."[113] In this statement Harold Lasswell cogently demonstrates that there is no universal source of power at a given time, nor is there a particular source of power that transcends time. Power is a function of the values extant as they are perceived by the parties to social interaction.

The sources of power must be found in the value systems of people, having unequal abilities to influence, (possession of valued resources), engaged in interdependent activity.

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[113]Harold D. Lasswell, and Abraham Kaplan, Power and Society (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1950), p. 86.

Value Systems of Participants

The value system of an individual can best be described as a hier-
archy of levels of aspiration. The most common method of categorizing
values is through a dichotomous means-end relationship.[114]

Two assumptions are basic to the analysis of value systems as the
ultimate source of power in the social relation. First, it must be assumed
that every individual places value on some relationship with his environ-
ment. Second, there is a scarcity of the means by which values are
realized. This assumption precludes the Utopian possibility of each in-
dividual satisfying his every desire. In striving to obtain objectives
determined by their personal value patterns, individual must compete for
the essential resources which are in limited supply.

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[114]Some improvement in classification is obtained by temporal sub-
division of ends into ultimate, intermediate, or immediate. Such a divi-
sion is suggested by the statement of Herbert Simon: "The fact that goals
may be dependent for their force on other more distant ends leads to the
arrangement of these goals in a hierarchy--each level to be considered as
an end relative to the levels below it and as a means relative to the
levels above it...See Herbert Simon, Administrative Behavior (Second
Edition, New York: MacMillan, 1957), p. 63.

In this paper, ultimate ends are called values and are seldom, if
ever, achieved but exist at the horizon as a guide in setting intermediate
ends referred to as objectives.

Following Rosen, Levinger, and Lippitt, any property which has use-
fulness in obtaining objectives will be termed a resource...See Sidney
Rosen, George Levinger and Ronald Lippitt, "Desired Change in Self and
Others as a Function of Resource Ownership," Human Relations, XIII (1960)
p. 187.

The hierarchy of resources, objectives, and values will serve as a
framework for discussion of the value system as a source of power.

Possession of Valued Resources

Resource, as used here, refers to any property which may be useful to its possessor or others in the process of satisfying their individual value systems. As a possessor of the resource, the individual must be capable of using the resource in his personal pursuits and either permitting or denying its use to others.[115]

Power resides in the resource owner to the extent that the resources he possesses are essential to the satisfaction of others. When the individual can use his resources directly to change his relationship with his physical environment he may be said to possess power. Power emanating from unique oqnership of a physical resource is amply demonstrated by Aristophanes' Lysistrata, where the power of woman rules supreme. Knowledge, or what passes for knowledge, as a source of power is evidenced by the positions of power accorded to the magicians and medicine men of savage communities.[116] Further support for this proposition comes from Proudhon who writes in Qu' est- ce que la Propriété: "In any given society, the authority of man over man varies in inverse proportion to the intellectual development of the society.[117] It might be inferred that power is a function of relative resource ownership rather than of the absolute level of possession. If all men had the same values and equal resources, power would not exist.

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[115]It should be noted that resource is not restricted to material properties but may be physical or mental attributes as well. Physical attributes may include such properties as brute strength and dexterity, while mental attributes refer to the ability of the individual to recognize the facility of physical and material resources for satisfaction of values of oneself and others.

[116]Russell, Op. Cit., p. 43.

[117]As quoted by George E. Gordon Catlin in "Authority and Its Critics," from Carl J. Friedrich, ed., Authority (Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press, 1958), p. 126.

Resources have been shown to be an important source of power. However, possession of resources is no assurance that power will accrue to the owner. Power occurs only in interaction and depends on the existence of some system of values of the participants. Not only must value systems exist, but there must be some degree of overlap between systems for power to be generated. If the possibility of power increases with increasing commonality of values, then attention should be turned to the area of institutionalized values.

Institutionalized Values and Resources

Values which are shared by interacting persons over an extended period of time are institutions of that particular social relationship. A resource which may be used by many individuals in attaining a variety of values approaches value status and may in turn be designated as institution. As values are institutionalized the demand for the scarce resources by which they are realized is increased and the possessor of these resources can command a greater "price" by inducing behavior more favorable to his objectives for each "unit" of resource that he surrenders. If all values were institutionalized and could be satisfied through a standardized resource, power might be a simple function of resource ownership, provided the order of the value of institutions was also institutionalized. It is not the intent of the writer to argue the extent of institutionalization but, rather to show institutionalized values as a source of power.[118]

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[118]As the value systems of social interactors converge, the possibility of influenced behavior increases if the "state of arts" or available supply of resources remains constant.

A, as a possessor of a bundle of resources desired by B and C and D will enjoy an increased probability that B does x when A does w. If the probability that B does x is increased, then A's power with respect to B is increased and the increase in power is a function of institutionalization of values.

In addition to its significance in the dynamics of power development, the idea of institutionalized values will be useful later in examining the conceptual properties of power. Institutions are the basis of Richard Schermerhorn's statement about power configurations: "Assuming that power is a dynamic process, we may then ask if it tends to repeat itself in easily identified ways. The answer is yes, though the patterns may at times overlap. The power process frequently crystallizes into more or less stable configurations designated as centers of structures or power."[119]

It has been proposed that the <u>ultimate source of power is not so much</u> in people, who are a "boundless and indeterminate source of it,"[120] <u>but in the values which people bring into the social arena.</u> Strangely, then, only he who has values may be subject to power while the power-holder need have no values other than power itself. This Machiavellian conclusion would prove sufficient as an analysis of power if humanity could be divided into power holders and power subjects, those with values and those without.

Sanctions[121] as the Bases of Power

The ability to apply sanctions derives from resource ownership, or private property,[122] and control of institutions from the public domain.

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[119]Richard A. Schermerhorn, <u>Society and Power</u> (New York: Random House, 1961), pp. 17-18.

[120]Charles W. Hendel, "An Exploration of the Nature of Authority," in Carl J. Friedrich, ed., Authority (Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press, 1958).

[121]Sanction is generally thought to denote the granting of approval or support. Yet the plural form, sanctions, connotes coercive measure of disapproval. In the explication of the bases of power, sanctions will be used as an inclusive concept with both positive and negative aspects.

[122]The interdependence of resources and institutions is suggested by the proposition that the right to private property, in its material form, is itself an institution.

It is proposed that power is composed of authority, which is institutionally derived, and influence, which stems from personal attributes.[123]

The writer has selected the five bases of power listed by French and Raven in their article, "The Bases of Social Power,"[124] and collapsed the five into three by including the positive and negative aspects of sanctions. The three bases are: reward[125]--the ability to reinforce the

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[123]The personal attributes of a power-holder may be categorized as expertize and charisma. Expertise refers to extra-ordinary capabilities or knowledge in a particular endeavor which will apparently lead to satisfaction of values of participants. Charisma is a quality which power-subjects impute to an individual whom they perceive to be capable of removing obstacles in the path of value satisfaction. Closely related to charisma and expertise is the concept of "halo-effect."

[124]John R.P. French, Jr., and Bertram Raven, "The Bases of Social Power," in Darwin Cartwright, ed., Studies in Social Power (Ann Arbor, Mich.: The University of Michigan Press, 1959), pp. 155-56.

[125]Reward may be defined as the ability to reinforce the value system of others in either a positive or negative direction. Viewing the ability to reward in terms of actors A and B and their respective acts w and x, the acts, w, of A may be thought of as the rewards of B. The probability of B doing x, and consequently A's power over B, changes with the desirability of w for B and with A's ability to perform w. As A actually acts in a manner w, the attraction of A for B will increase over time, and A will gain the power of identification as well as reward over B.

value system, positively or negatively; legitimacy[126]—the right to pre-
scribe behavior; and identification[127]—the perceived integration of value
systems.

Reward, legitimacy, and identification may often occur as independent
bases of power. However, power developed on one basis may increase the
opportunities for its development from another. Repeated successes in the
use of rewards is almost certain to lead to closer identification and closer
identification tends to lead to legitimacy. Over a period of time in any
social relation power may develop from any one or any combination of these
three bases.

No specific definition of power or analysis of its source and bases
can possibly include all the features of this elusive and amorphous pheno-
menon. It is, necessary, therefore, to elaborate on the particular charac-
teristics of the concept as they pertain to the analysis of the structure
of organizational decision.

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[126]Legitimacy may be defined as the right to prescribe behavior. From
the vantage point of power-holder, all power is legitimate in that the right
to prescribe behavior accrues to those who control the reward system.

The writer takes the position that power is neither legitimate or
illegitimate but that one base of power, particularly in the formal organiza-
tion, is the legitimacy of actions. Legitimacy requires that subordinated
individuals acknowledge the right of superiors to act in a power-producing
way, whether those superiors are natural or supernatural, sovereign ruler or
general manager. . .See for the acknowledgement of this right. . .Herbert
Goldhamer, and Deward A. Shils, "Types of Power and Status," American
Journal of Sociology, XLV (1939), p. 172.

Since the laws, decrees, and directives of the power-holder tend to
reflect the traditions of the land, legal and traditional power may be com-
bined into the singular concept of authority. The legitimation of authority,
according to Robert Presthus, comes about through technical expertise, formal
role, rapport, and a generalized deference to authority. . .See Robert V.
Presthus, "Authority in Organizations," Public Administration Review, XX
(1960), p. 88.

[127]Identification, as a base of power, may be independently derived
or may result from satisfaction in a power situation based on reward or
authority. Identification differs from the other bases of power in that
active sanctions are not required on the part of the power-holder.

Conceptual Properties of Power

Some of the properties of power have been developed earlier and others
have been alluded to in a casual way.[128]

Power is a Property of the Social Relation

Power is a relationship between actors and is not an absolute attribute
of a single actor.[129] Actor A may be said to have power over B, provided A
can alter the probability with which B will perform a specific act or set of
acts.[130]

Power has Observable Dimensions

Power exists only as an intervening variable and as such cannot be
observed or measured directly. It does, however, have certain properties or
dimensions which can be inferred from observations of behavior patterns of
actors in the social relation. According to Bertrand de Jouvenel, power may
be dimensionally classified as extensive, comprehensive and intensive.[131]

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[128]The list of conceptual properties discussed below is not intended
to be exhaustive but includes the major characteristics essential to the
understanding of power as a "universal phenomenon in human societies and in
all social relationships." See Robert Bierstedt, "An Analysis of Social
Power," American Sociological Review XV (1950), p. 730.

[129]Darwin Cartwright, "A Field Theoretical Conception of Power," in
Darwin Cartwright, ed., Studies in Social Power (Ann Arbor, Mich.: The
University of Michigan Press, 1959), p. 213.

[130]As the set of acts which B will perform at the option of A approaches
B's total capabilities, the power of A approaches totalitarianism but only with
respect to B. If A can maintain his option with any undesignated B (or many
specific B's), it may be inferred that power is an attribute of A. However,
even absolute power of A is meaningless unless the behavior of the B's is
directed toward some objective of A.

[131]In his words: it is extensive if the complying B's are many; it is
comprehensive if the variety of actions to which A can move the B's is consi-
derable finally it is intensive if the bidding of A can be pushed far without
loss of compliance. . .See Bertrand de Jouvenel, "Authority: The Efficient
Imperative," in Carl J. Friedrich, ed., Authority (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard
University Press, 1958).

A fourth dimension which should be considered is that of cost. John C.
Harsanyi suggests that cost is an essential dimension of power and defines
it in terms of the opportunity cost to the actors.[132] The inclusion of
cost dimension in the explication of power is justified by Harsanyi's state-
ment that "A's power over B should be defined not merely as an ability by A
to get B to do X(x) with a certain probability p, but rather as an ability
by A to achieve this at certain total cost u to himself, by convincing B
that B would have to bear the total cost v if he does not do X(x)."

The amount, scope, and extension of power, as potential, may be
roughly approximated from the possession of resources and control of institu-
tions that have value for B. The actual power available to A develops from
the ability of A to apply sanctions. The use of power, in the final analysis,
depends on its expected costs, or the weighted average of the costs of
successful and unsuccessful attempts to alter B's behavior.[133] The signi-
ficance of the dimensional properties of power is not restricted to situations
in which power is actually exerted, since it is often more important to
evaluate the possible consequences of potential acts than to examine the
results after commitment.

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[132]John C. Harsanyi, "Measurement of Social Power, Opportunity Costs,
and the Theory of Two-Person Bargaining Games." Behavioral Science, VII
(1962), p. 68.

[133]Although the central theme of this paper is "how" power enters the
decision process, rather than "how much" power exists, it is important to
note that some sophisticated attempts have been made toward the measurement
and comparability of power by Dahl, Harsanyi, Simon and others.

Power is Potential for Action

The definition of power as an ability to alter probabilities may be re-worded as the ability to choose a desired outcome without any change in meaning. Outcomes, or objectives, have been predicated in this analysis on actions of B. The actions of B, in turn, have been based on A's potential actions as perceived by B. It follows that power is potential for action, while action is the expenditure of potential toward the realization of some chosen objective.[134] (If power is itself a dominant value, there is no reason why the objective cannot be to increase the potential for action.) The implications of power for the decision-making process are obvious if decision-making is described as choice-action-outcome and power is defined as the ability to choose an outcome through the property of potential for action.

Power May be Transitive or Intransitive

The proposition that power is a product of the social relation and not an absolute attribute of the individual precludes the possibility of answering the often posed question of who the power holders are. Because A has power over B and B has power over B_1 does not mean that A has power over B_1 unless B and B_1 both perceive A as being capable of gratifying their individual desires. Power of A will be transitive if the resources possessed by A may be generalized to all the B's or if the value systems of the B's are approximately congruent. Inversely, deviations in value systems of B's, or specificity of resources of A, will lead to intransitivity.

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[134]Abramson, et. al., op. cit., p. 17.

Power is Transformable and Cumulative

Power, as Bertrand Russell puts it, like energy must be regarded as continually passing from any one of its forms to any other. . .The attempt to isolate any one form of power (in our day, the economic form), has been a source of errors of great practical importance.[135]

Though power is said to be easily transformed, there is an intermediate step in the process which should be introduced. Power, which is potential, is exercised in one form to obtain other potential sources of power.

Implicit in the process of transformation of power is the investment of power in other sources of power.[136] Through investment, the power base is expanded or potential for power is accumulated. Power of one type tends to adhere to power of other types in a cumulative pattern.[137] These patterns are likely to repeat themselves in relatively stable configurations which are strongly oriented toward further accumulation of power. An obvious conclusion that can be drawn is that power is the only effective control for power, whether the arena be intra-firm or inter-national.

Power in Organizational Decisions

The existence of any organization which has a purpose, other than mere social intereaction of its members, is predicated on the ability to make decisions. The formal organization, defined as having specific goals or

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[135]Russell, op. cit., p. 12.

[136]Herbert A. Simon, Models of Man (New York: Wiley, 1957), p. 70.

[137]Schermerhorn, op. cit., p. 24.

objectives, is both the product[138] and the producer of decision. It might

be added that the organization is ever dependent on the decisions of its

members to participate. As the values of the members change, or changes

occur in members' perception of the organization's ability to satisfy

values, the organization must either change its goals to meet the changed

need, or attract new members by maintaining the established goals. The

dynamics of organization as an input-output system resides in the continual

process of decision.

In the usual terminology, choice from among alternatives seems to

be the end-point of decision.[139] Decision is seen to include all those

activities which precede choice but not of those activities which follow.[140]

Decision, as effective determination of policy, is measured in terms of

results rather than desires. Standing between choice, as desire, and

decision, as result, is the intervening variable of power.

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[138]It is the product of the decisions of its members to combine
efforts for the enhancement of individual values and the producer of
decisions about specific goals and methods of attaining them.

[139]James D. Thompson and Arthur Tuden, "Strategies, Structures, and
Processes of Organizational Decision." in James D. Thompson, et. al., eds.,
Comparative Studies in Administration (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh
Press, 1959), 196.

[140]The point of view adopted here is that choice is the mid-point
rather than the end-point of decision. The decision process is "an effective
determination of policy." It involves the total process of bringing about
a specific course of action. See Lasswell and Kaplan, op. cit., p. 74.

Power in the Decision Process

The decision process is aimed at procuring a desired state of affairs

in the nature of a changed relationship at some time after the present.[141]

The changed relationship[142] is brought about through the coordination of the

behavior characteristics of resources available to the decision-making

organism. Coordination implies the ability to influence the resources to

behave in such a way as to bring about the desired change. The ability to

evoke actions has been described as the phenomenon of power. If the decision

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[141]Decision is necessitated by some deviation or anticipated deviation
from a desired relationship between the decision-maker and his environment.
In equilibrium analysis, the purpose of decision is to establish a relation-
ship which makes further decision unnecessary. See Paul Diesing, "Noneconomic
Decision-Making," Ethics, LXVI (1955), p. 33.

Decision, as process, cannot be suspended in time to provide final
answers. Rather, decision is always, "forward looking, formulating alter-
native courses of action extending into the future, and selecting among the
alternatives by expectations of how things will turn out. . .See Lasswell and
Kaplan, op. cit., p. xv.

If decision is taken to be effective choice, and some choice is directed
toward distant values, then the time span of decision may extend indefinitely
into the future.

[142]Several writers, including C. West Churchman, have recognized three
classes of elements entailed in decision: the decision-maker, a set of alter-
native actions, and a set of goals. . .See C. West Churchman, Prediction and
Optimal Decision (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961),
pp. 137-138. To these three James Bates, adds environment, as does Herbert
Simon in his article. . .See James Bates, "A Model for the Science of
Decision," Philosophy of Science, XXI (1954) p. 335 and Herbert A. Simon,
Theories of Decision-Making in Economics and Behavioral Science" American
Economic Review, XLIX (1959), p. 272.

The decision-maker, whether one or many, seeks goals in the form of
changed relationship with his environment. His decisions about goals are
influenced by his information about his environment. But as Simon says:
      The decision-makers' information about his environment is much
      less than approximation to the real environment. . .The perceived
      world is fantastically different from the real world. The differences
      involve both ommissions and distortions. . .The decision-makers model
      of the world encompasses only a minute fraction of all information that
      is present even in his model. . .See Simon, Ibid., p. 272.

is thought to be a process composed of choice,[143] action,[144] goal,[145] and outcome[146] and power is the ability to influence action,[147] then power is actually control of the decision process. Power is a policy making device.

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[143]Although the whole of reality may be said to comprise the environment, there are some limits which can be drawn in defining the relevant environment of the decision-maker. The decision-maker is concerned with specific goals and actions and his environment may be described as the situation which limits the goals and actions that are available. For a decision condition there must be at least one goal and two actions in the environment of the decision-maker. . .See James Bates, loc. cit.

[144]Alternatives are lines of action which are open to the decision-maker. According to rational decision theory, actions are ranked by the criterion of efficiency, where efficiency includes both cost and the probability of goal attainment. The rational decision-maker is always neutral as to actions but biased as to goals even if those goals have been selected in a rational manner. However, if two or more actions are perceived as having the same efficiency for attaining a specific goal, the decision-maker may evidence preference for one over the others because of the desirability of the action itself. The relationship between the decision-maker and action may be expressed as the probability that the decision-maker will choose a particular action. . .See Churchman, loc. cit.

[145]The relationship of the decision-maker is expressed in terms of the value of the goals for the decision-maker. See Churchman, loc. cit. This statement would seem to indicate that the decision-maker could assign a weight to various relationships with his environment and rank these goals in terms of value satisfaction. Choice of goals would then be based on the ordered system of goals. The decision-maker would start with stated goals and broaden the environment to include the actions for the attainment of those goals. Implied is a system of values independent of the "state of the arts" by which the values are to be satisfied. By expending the environment, the decision-maker can change the state of the arts to include actions required for goal attainment. If the decision-maker, as a goal-seeker, takes the available actions as given, his goals must be set within the area of perceived fulfillment.

The level to which the decision-maker aspires may be said to be both a determinant of alternative courses of action and determined by availability of these courses.

[146]The relationship between actions and goals is expressed in terms of the probability that if one of the actions takes place, a given outcome will occur.

[147]The decision may be directed toward changing either the internal or external state of the decision-maker, or it may be directed toward holding either state constant in the fact of change in the other. Whether decision is compensatory or innovative, it results from perceived change or the perceived desirability of change.

Power in the School Organization

Power, then, is an integral part of human relations since it consists
in the acts of individuals trying and succeeding in moving others to act.
There are three major types of power, according to Griffiths: force, dom-
ination, and manipulation.[148] The use of physical force as a source of
power is seldom if ever used in the school organization. Domination, in-
fluencing another through the use of commands or requests, is often used.
Likewise manipulation, influencing another by subtle means without making
explicit what behavior the individual is being induced to perform, is also
used. The use of power in the school organization is inevitable. It is
generally held that the administrator should give teachers a certain part
in the power command in respect to our democratic society. Ovsiew found
that the top administrators exhibited a trend to the establishment of
superintendent cabinets and some even more using a sort of student cabinet
on an advisory basis.[149]

Besides being concerned with the power structure in the school, the
administrator must also be concerned with the community power structure.
For he is an integral part of the community. Likewise he must be aware of
the various other power structures which influence a school system, such as
the state and the board of education. The administrator derives his power
from the board of education and the amount he receives from them varies
from school to school.

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[148]Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration, p. 102.

[149]Leon Ovsiew, Emerging Practices in School Administration (New
York: Metropolitan School Study Council, 1953), p. 85.

The human relations trend in educational administration has somewhat

modified the use of power by the administrator. For it encourages a fuller

awareness of the dignity and worth of the individual and the importance of

good human relationships between the administrator and those under him.[150]

Thus the administrator will hesitate before using his authority in such a

way that the harmony of the human relationships in the school will be damaged.

Authority

The concept of authority is very closely related to that of power.

In fact, Dubin calls it "institutionalized power."[151] So when we speak of

authority, we speak of the institutionalized forms which the latent force of

power has taken. Authority in the school is found ultimately in the state,

and it is then shifted down through various intermediary institutions to

the school administrator. There are many factors of the environment of

school and community which bear on the administrator's authority. Hagman

and Schwartz list nine factors, summarized as follows:[152]

1. The board of education.
2. The instructional staff.
3. The non-instructional staff.
4. The parents of the children in the school.
5. The children in the school.
6. All the people in the school district.
7. The state school law.
8. The customs and traditions of society.
9. The educational profession.

The topic of authority is important to the study of human relations

for it deals with the behavior of people in authority and those in subordinate

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[150]Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration, p. 117.

[151]Robert Dubin (ed.) Human Relations in Administration (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1951), p. 188.

[152]Harlan L. Hagman, and Alfred Schwartz, Administration in Profile for School Executives (New York: Harper, 1955), pp. 111-113.

positions.[153] It recognizes that individuals act differently according to the

amount of authority they possess. It is also evident that not all individuals

react to authority in the same manner. Individual differences cause different

people to exercise their authority in different ways. One can, however,

classify certain types of authority which are found in organizations. Dubin

distinguishes three types:

1. That which is based upon rational grounds.
2. That which is based upon traditional grounds.
3. That which is based on charismatic grounds.[154]

Authority on rational grounds resides in the belief that it is the

position, duly constituted by law and order, that is the basis of authority.

Theoretically the personal characteristics of the individual who holds the

position do not enter the picture. Authority that is based on traditional

grounds is derived from the belief of subordinates in the sanctity of time-

honored traditions, such as a monarchy. Authority based on charismatic

grounds rests on the belief of the subordinates that the leader has excep-

tional personal characteristics. The authority of the school administrator

would ideally rest on the first type. As Getzels says:

> Clearly the educational administrator does not claim his right to
> authority either on traditional or charismatic grounds. . .The
> administrator's claim to obedience ideally finds its root in the
> third source of legitimate authority: rationality.[155]

This ideal, however, according to Griffiths, is seldom realized.[156]

The authority of the school administrator is rather a combination of rational

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[153]Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration, p. 125.

[154]Dubin, p. 196.

[155]Jacob W. Getzels, "A Psycho-sociological Framework for the Study of Educational Administration," Harvard Educational Review, XXII (Fall, 1952) 237.

[156]Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration, p. 126.

and charismatic. Although the authority which the school administrator exerts is due to his position, the acceptance of this authority is often due or conditioned by his personal characteristics.

An undesirable outcome of the rational type of authority is that is often leads to an impersonal bureaucracy.[157] This results in poor human relations in the organization. The school administrator is not free from the influence. Thus he often tends to minimize the personal relationships in the school to such an extent that he no longer deals with people but with categories of cases. This major weakness of bureaucratic organization can only be overcome by the practice of good human relations.

Recent studies of top administrators have shown that they become more and more removed from contacts with people as they move up the administrative ladder.[158] Katz found that the need for human skills becomes proportionately less as the administrator goes higher and higher in the administrative echelons.[159] The irony of the situation is that as the person rises higher and higher on the executive ladder, his power over the people increases whereas his contacts with them decrease.

A particular problem in the operation of institutions is the delegation of authority.[160] The administrator delegates some of the power which he possesses to others. He does not delegate his power to legislate, but rather the power to administer a certain service which it is his duty provide. As Sears says, "A legislature cannot delegate its own power to

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[157]Ibid., p. 128.

[158]Cartwright and Zander, pp. 423-427.

[159]Robert L. Katz, "Skills of an Effective Administrator," Harvard Business Review, XXXIII (January-February, 1955), 37.

[160]Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration, p. 134.

legislate but can delegate power to administer a service that it has
authority to provide."[161] In order to delegate on a rational basis, the
administrator must know the functions for which he is responsible. Campbell,
Corbally, and Ramseyer have grouped administrative tasks into the following
seven categories:

1. School-community relationships
2. Curriculum development
3. Pupil personnel
4. Staff personnel
5. Physical facilities
6. Finance and business management
7. Organization and structure[162]

The administrator must know his staff well so that his delegation of
authority will go to the right people and thus be successful. At all time,
good human relations in the exercise and delegation of authority is a must.

<center>Motivation</center>

Every administrator, in his dealings with staff, board members, and
other personnel eventually comes to wonder why people behave as they do.
Thus he desires to know the motives behind the action of those around him.
Once he can come to understand their motives, he can formulate a path of
action to take and then proceed with it with reasonable assurance that the
desired outcome will be accomplished.

Although every administrator uses the word motivation and has shown
concern about motivation, yet hardly anyone has bothered to define the term
motivation.

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[161]Jesse B. Sears, The Nature of the Administrative Process (New
York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1950), p. 291.

[162]Roald F. Campbell, John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer,
Introduction to Educational Administration (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.,
1958), 63.

Motivation Defined

To motivate someone is to impart motion to him, in other words, to produce a response.

The basic meaning of motivation is shown by its roots in the Latin, MOVERE (to move). Regarded objectively, motivation may appear to be very much the same thing as stimulation - a word derived from the Latin STIMULUS (a goad or a whip).

If the living organisms always responded in exactly the same manner to a stimulus - there would indeed be no reason for bringing in the concept of motivation.

However, common experience teaches that there is much variation in responses to similar stimuli.

Motivation is defined as something within the individual which incites him to action.[163] Griffiths defines motivation as "a motive or drive of the individual which causes him to act toward the achievement of an end or goal."[164]

Theory or Motivation

The notion of how motivation works deserves further exploration. If motivation is nothing but a process of stimulus and response, then what an administrator needs, is to push the right button to get a desired reaction.

However, if motivation were to be so simple as that, there would be little, if any, excuse for an executive to fail as a motivator.

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[163]Karl E. Ettinger, International Handbook of Management (McGraw-Hill, 1965), p. 102.

[164]Daniel E. Griffiths, op. cit., p. 27.

To begin with, there are buttons beyond number that might be pushed, and many of the buttons would give approximately the same response. Which should be pushed - a smile, a dollar raise, a compliment, a promise of a raise, a new typewriter, or a preferred desk location?

Rational-Economic Man

The assumptions which underlie the doctrine of ration-economic man derived originally from the philosophy of hedonism, which argued that man calculates the actions that will maximize his self-interest and behaves accordingly.

What this general line of thought led to in reference to employees can be described as follows:

a. Man is primarily motivated by economic incentives and will do that which gets him the greatest economic gain.
b. Since economic incentives are under the control of the organization, man is essentially a passive agent to be manipulated, motivated, and controlled by the organization.

Implied in these assumptions are some additional ones which have been made explicit by Douglas McGregor.[165] He labels these additional assumptions as Theory X, in contrast to Theory Y which will be discussed later:

c. Man is inherently lazy and must therefore be motivated by outside incentives.
d. Man's natural goals run counter to those of the organization, hence man must be controlled by external forces to insure his working toward organizational goals.
e. Because of his irrational feelings, man is basically incapable of self-discipline and self-control.

Ultimately, then, the doctrine of rational-economic man classified human beings into two groups—the untrustworthy, money-motivated, calculative mass, and the trustworthy, more broadly motivated, moral elite who must organize and manage the mass.

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[165]D.M. McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960).

Such assumptions about the nature of man led the development of a monistic theory of motivation.

A Monistic Theory of Motivation

This theory seeks a single cause of behavior—more money.

The monistic theory accepts the notion of "economic man"—the man who acts only to increase his monetary rewards. Such a theory states the higher the pay, the greater the effort. Essentially, the monistic theory of motivation says that people work for only one goal, that being the accumulation of more money.

Measure of Effort +

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        ┌──────────────── Measure of Effort + ──────────────┐
        │                                                   ▼
  ┌──────────┐                                        ┌──────────┐
  │  Effort  │                                        │  Wages   │
  └──────────┘                                        └──────────┘
        ▲                                                   │
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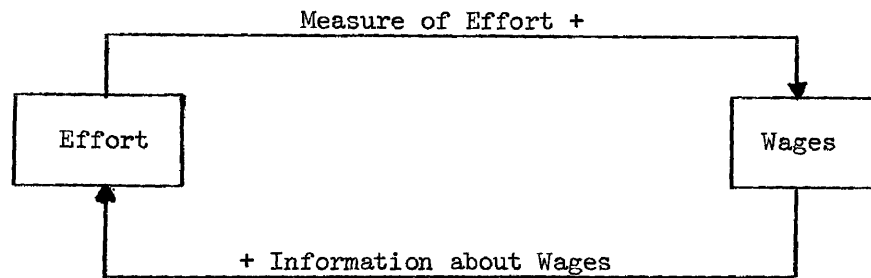
Effort-Reward-Effort Model

Figure 3

The monistic theory is illustrated in the above chart. This chart shows that effort is a function of wages. In other words, the more money an individual earns, the more effort he will put forth. Thus, in the monistic theory money is considered the prime motivator. The strict monetary incentive system is based on three basic assumptions:

1. An individual incentive is more effective than a group incentive. This means that if a man receives pay based on his own effort through a piece rate plan, it is assumed that he will increase his production.
2. Incentives are most effective when immediate rewards are given for increased output. Bi-weekly paychecks should include base as well as incentive pay. Individual motivation would be lowered if incentive pay were to come in the form of monthly or yearly bonus.
3. The greater the reward for added production, the greater will be the motivation for increased production.

These assumptions about "economic man" are one-sided and do not give

a full description of human motivation. Mayo[166] in his interviews with

workers found that man is basically motivated by social needs. Mayo

developed a set of assumptions about the nature of man which are quite dif-

ferent from those concerning rational-economic man:

    a. Man is basically motivated by social needs and obtains his basic
       sense of identity through relationships with others.
    b. As a result of the industrial revolution and the rationalization
       of work, meaning has gone out of work itself and must therefore
       be sought in the social relationships on the job.
    c. Man is more responsive to the social forces of the peer group than
       to the incentives and controls of management.
    d. Man is responsive to management to the extent that a supervisor
       can meet a subordinate's social needs and needs for acceptance.

A number of psychologists studying human behavior in organizations

have come to Mayo's conclusion. For Argyris, Maslow, McGregor, and others

who tend toward this point of view, the problem is that most jobs in modern

industry are so specialized or fragmented that they neither permit the worker

to use his capacities nor enable him to see the relationship between what he

is doing and the total organizational mission.[167] The kinds of assumptions

which are implied about the nature of man can be stated as follows:

    a. Man's motives fall into classes which are arranged in a hierarchy:
       (1) simple needs for survival, safety and security; (2) social and
       affiliative needs; (3) ego-satisfaction and self-esteem needs;
       (4) needs for autonomy and independence; and (5) self-actualization
       needs in the sense of maximum use of all his resources. As the
       lower-level needs are satisfied, they release some of the higher-
       level motives. Even the lowliest untalented man seeks self-
       actualization, a sense of meaning and accomplishment in his work,
       if his other needs are more or less fulfilled.

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[166]E. Mayo, The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization. (Boston:
Harvard University Graduate School of Business, 1945).

[167]C. Argyris, Integrating the Individual and the Organization (New
York: Wiley, 1964). A. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York:
Harper, 1964). D.M. McGregor, Op. cit. The assumptions described here are
similar to what McGregor call Theory Y though actually Theory Y would be a
blend of these assumptions.

b. Man seeks to be mature on the job and is capable of being so. This means the exercise of a certain amount of autonomy and independence, the adoption of long-range time perspective, the development of special capacities and skills, and greater flexibility in adapting to circumstances.

c. Man is primarily self-motivated and self-controlled; externally imposed incentives and controls are likely to threaten the person and reduce him to a less mature adjustment.

Maslow's Theory of Human Motivation[168]

Maslow advanced the following important propositions about human behavior:

1. Man is a wanting being--he always wants and he wants more. But what he wants depends upon what he already has. As soon as one of man's needs is satisfied, another appears in its place. This process is unending. It continues from birth to death. Therefore, although a particular need may become satiated, needs in general cannot be.

2. A satisfied need is not a motivator of behavior. Only unsatisfied needs motivate behavior. To illustrate, consider your need for air. It affects your behavior only when you are deprived of or threatened with deprivation of it. Thus, only needs that have not been satisfied exert any considerable force on what an individual does.

Here we have a profoundly significant truth that is completely overlooked by supervisors who always attempt to keep employees happy. Such a goal is impossible and confuses morale with motivation.

3. Man's needs are arranged in a series of levels--a hierarchy of importance. As soon as needs on a lower level are by and large fulfilled, those on the next higher level will emerge and demand satisfaction.

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[168]See A.H. Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation," in I.L. Heckmann, Jr., and S.G. Huneryager (eds.), Human Relations in Management (South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, 1960), pp. 122-144; A.H. Maslow, "A Preface to Motivational Theory," Psychosomatic Medicine, January, 1943, pp. 85-99; and A.H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (Harper & Row, Publishers, Incorporated, New York, 1954).

Other motivations theories are available. See, for example, H.A. Murray, Explorations in Personality (Oxford University Press, Fair Lawn, N.J., 1938), which lists a large number of human needs.

R. Likert provides a modified version of Maslow's hierarchy in his study, "A Motivational Approach to a Modified Theory of Organization and Management," in M. Haire (ed.), Modern Organization Theory (John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1959), pp. 185-217.

We prefer Maslow's approach because of its general scope, directness, simplicity and practicality.

Thus, Maslow views an individual's motivation in terms of a predetermined order of needs, each with its own rank—not in terms of a simple, unorganized list of drives. Figures 4 and 5 illustrate this concept.

The Individual

Figure 4 Motivation of the Individual
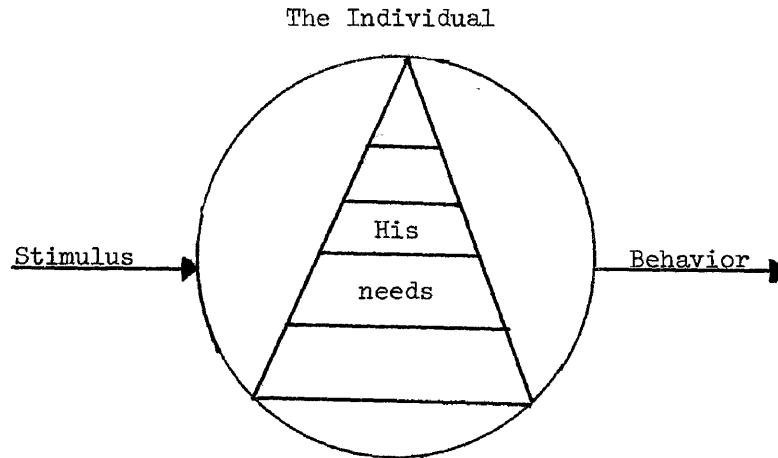
Maslow's basic theory is here modified to show the individual as a determining factor in motivation and behavior.

Self-Realization Needs
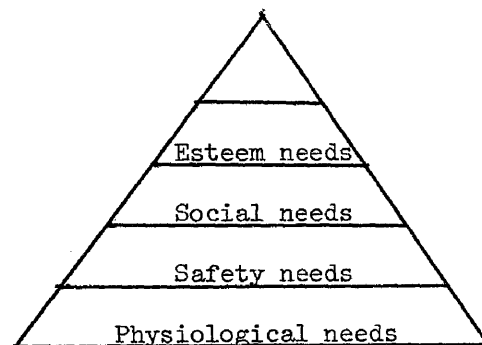
Figure 5 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow views an individual's motivation as a predetermined order of needs. Physiological needs are the most imperative ones, but psychologically, the need for self-realization is highly important to each individual.

Maslow, in "A Theory of Human Motivation," places needs in five categories: physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization. For our purposes, we shall consider physiological and safety needs combined under physiological; love as a social need; and esteem and self-actualization included under egoistic needs.

Physiological needs involve essentials such as air, water, food, housing, and clothing. These necessities must be at least partially fulfilled before a person gives much thought to other needs. They are met mainly through money and security on the job. As a person gets enough to eat, adequate clothing, and a roof over his head, he is inclined to place increasing emphasis on social and egoistic needs.

In our society, for people who have jobs, physiological needs are likely to be pretty well satisfied. A satisfied need is not a motivator of behavior.[169] Therefore, we cannot assume that more pay or more security will automatically lead to improved job performance. These traditional rewards of management provide little motivation because the struggle to satisfy subsistence needs has been won.[170]

On the other hand, we cannot assume that more pay or more security won't lead to improved performance. A higher salary to the employee may fulfill an egoistic need for recognition and status. The point is, where pay and security are adequate to satisfy physiological needs, we must turn our attention more to the social and egoistic needs of individuals if we are to motivate them to better performance.

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[169]Douglas McGregor, op. cit., p. 36.

[170]A. Zaleznik, Christenson, and Roethlisberger, Motivation, Productivity, and Satisfaction of Workers, Harvard Business School, Division of Research, Boston, 1958, p. 354.

Social needs can be satisfied only by contacts with others, such as fellow employees, the supervisor, or friends off the job. Social needs include such group needs as friendship, identification with the group, teamwork, helping others and being helped.[171]

In our society, a great many employees probably have very satisfying relations with other people on or off the job and thus satisfy their social needs pretty well. To the extent that social needs are satisfied, they do not motivate. If an individual's social needs are already satisfied, the establishment of congenial and satisfying work groups through sociometry will not necessarily lead to better employee job performance and higher productivity.

Egoistic needs are those that an individual has for a high evaluation of himself, and include such needs as knowledge, achievement, competence, independence, self-respect, respect of others, status, and recognition. To maintain a high estimate of ourselves, most of us never stop needing reassurance that we are held in esteem by others. Thus, if we satisfy our egoistic needs today, we continue to seek such satisfaction tomorrow and the day after. This differentiates egoistic needs from physiological and social needs which, when satisfied, cease to motivate. It can be argued that both the physiological and social needs are largely satisfied in our society for those who have jobs. The continuing satisfaction of egoistic needs, then, would seem to offer the best opportunity to motivate employees to better job performance.

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[171]George Strauss and Leonard Sayles, Personnel: The Human Problems of Management, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1960, p. 8.

Rensis Likert also emphasizes[172] the importance of egoistic needs when he refers to the principle of supportive relationships which high-producing managers seem to be using.

The area of egoistic needs assumes greater importance when we recognize that the educational level of employees in this nation is rising rapidly, and that the number of white-collar and professional people is now greater than the number of blue-collar employees.

Such assumptions have given birth to the pluralistic theory of motivation.

The Pluralistic Theory of Motivation

The pluralistic theory assumes that the individual worker desires more than purely monetary rewards for his efforts. The worker, it is believed, earns money only in order to satisfy his subsistence needs. Therefore, he must be motivated by something other than a paycheck. The worker now desires psychological rewards for work. These psychological rewards include job satisfaction, through a search for it within the job and within the firm.

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[172]Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1961, chapt. 8.

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          ┌──────────────────┐
    ┌─────►│  Satisfaction    │◄─────┐
    │      └──────────────────┘      │
    │           │                    │
    │      ┌─────────┐               │
    │  ┌───│ Search  │───┐           │
    │  │   └─────────┘   │           │
    │  ▼                 ▼           │
┌────────────┐      ┌────────────┐
│ Expected   │      │  Level     │
│ Value      │─────►│  Of        │
│ Of         │      │  Aspira-   │
│ Reward     │      │  tion      │
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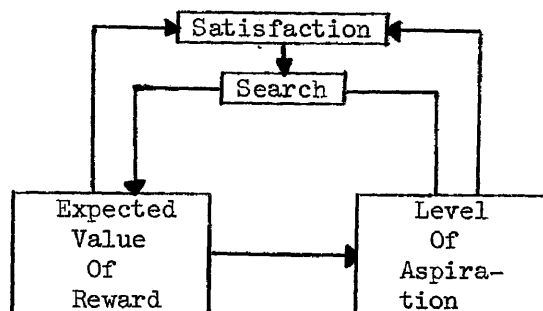
General Model of Adaptive Motivated Behavior
Figure 6

The figure above shows a model of psychological incentive. The

individual worker, being dissatisfied with his situation searches for

alternative ways to improve his standing. The following list gives the

main generalizations incorporated in this figure.

1. The lower the individual's satisfaction, the greater the search
    for alternative ways or better ways of doing the job.
2. The greater the search, the greater the expected reward.
3. The greater the expected reward, the higher the satisfaction.
4. The higher the expected reward, the higher the level of aspira-
    tions.
5. The higher the level of aspiration, the lower the satisfaction.

When the level of aspiration rises--the individual's effort will

result in dissatisfaction. This cycle would continuously motivate the

worker toward a new and higher level of job satisfaction.

RELATION BETWEEN SATISFACTION OF NEEDS, MOTIVATION,
PERFORMANCE, AND PRODUCTIVITY

What is this relation? If physiological, social, and egoistic needs

are satisfied, will employees be motivated toward better job performance?

Not necessarily![173] The motivation can be in a direction away from manage-

ment's goals and have a negative effect on productivity. The Informal

Organization, or group, may establish goals of restricting production and

otherwise pulling against the company. The social and egoistic needs of

the group and the individuals in it may be satisfied by working against

the company. Such a group can have a high level of need satisfaction and

high morale but low productivity.

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[173]One person, his needs rather fully satisfied, enjoying pleasure
and happiness, may feel he can coast along, and his motivation and thus
productivity may be reduced. Argyris points out ("Employee Apathy and Non-
Involvement: The House that Management Built," Personnel, vol. 38, no. 4,
pp. 8-14) that human growth and productivity are not necessarily correlated
with pleasure and happiness at all.
    Another person, his needs also rather fully satisfied, may now set
up a new higher goal for himself and work toward the attainment of that goal,
thus improving his job performance. This is a self-induced tension which,
again in Argyris' words, "comes from a desire for self-expression, is essen-
tial, and we must provide the motivation which sets it in action."
    Bellows maintains (Psychology of Personnel in Business and Industry,
Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1961, pp. 45-46) that worker
satisfaction is a state of normal motivation or tension while worker dis-
satisfaction is a state of abnormal stress or tension.
    Thus, continuing satisfaction of needs for many people may not mean
a state of pure happiness but rather involve a degree of tension motivating
them on to greater achievement. In these cases, satisfaction of physiolo-
gical, social, and egoistic needs may result in better performance and
higher productivity.
    On the other hand, a person who is not meeting his needs does not
necessarily have low motivation and low production. As pointed out by March
and Simon (Organizations, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1958, chapt. 3),
present satisfactions are often less important in influencing human behavior
than perceived relations between present alternatives and future states.
Although his needs are not now satisfied, one person may be struggling des-
perately to get ahead, hoping to satisfy his needs in the future. Another
may be dissatisfied but may have no alternative job and performs at a high
level so he will not be discharged.

Many studies have demonstrated that a high level of need satisfaction and high morale do not necessarily assure high productivity. Kahn points this out effectively in "Productivity and Job Satisfaction," (herein he reviews the research of the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan and shows why they abandoned the use of satisfaction or morale indexes as variables intervening between supervisory and organizational characteristics on the one hand the productivity on the other).[174]

Brayfield and Crockett[175] emphasize that there is no necessary relation between employees' attitudes and productivity.

Such discussions indicate what an extremely difficult job administration has. The behavior of an individual is not a simple matter. One cannot understand it simply in terms of immediate rewards and punishments. It is, therefore, not enough for management to establish conditions in which employees can fulfill their physiological, social and egoistic needs. The whole atmosphere in which the worker is employed is important to his productiveness.[176] Certain intangible rewards, such as a challenge to complete the project, a certain amount of freedom and creativity in carrying out the project, and variety in work resulted in the best work for a company and provided the greatest personal satisfaction in the worker.[177]

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[174]See Robert L. Kahn, "Productivity and Job Satisfaction," Personnel Psychology (Autumn, 1960), pp. 275-287.

[175]Arthur H. Brayfield and Walter H. Crockett, "Employee Attitudes and Employee Performance," Psychological Bulletin (1955), pp. 415-422.

[176]Leon Ovsiew, Emerging Practices in School Administration (New York: Metropolitan School Study, 1953), p. 27.

[177]L.E. Danielson, "Management's Relations with Engineers and Scientists," Proceedings of the Industrial Relations Research Associations, X (1957), p. 321.

Administration, in short, must attempt to get the employee groups
and individuals to work toward company goals, or toward the target of in-
creased productivity. Perhaps, the essential task of administration is to
arrange organizational conditions and methods of operations so that people
can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward org-
anizational objectives.[178]

Griffiths has summarized the discussion on motivation very succinctly.
Griffith says:

> Here is a key administrative problem. What is it that causes people
> to do things they do? The administrator can find the answer to this
> question by understanding motivation. He must realize that motives
> are not only psychological (individual), but also sociological, anth-
> ropological, residual, and spiritual. Many motives are induced by
> the groups within which we work. . .Administrators must be capable of
> understanding their own motivation in addition to the motivation of
> the individuals with whom and through whom they work.[179]

Decision-Making

Educational administration has been described in many different ways,
but in a very sense, the key to the whole problem lies in decision-making.[180]
McCammy states this clearly and concisely, "The making of decisions is at
the very center of the process of administration."[181]

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[178]Douglas McGregor, "Adventure in Thought and Action," Proceedings
of the Fifth Anniversary Convocation of the School of Industrial Management,
Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Mass., April 9, 1957,
pp. 23-30. Reprinted as "The Human Side of Enterprise" in Paul Pigors,
et al., Eds., Readings in Personnel Administration, McGraw-Hill Book Company,
Inc., New York, 1959, p. 201.

[179]Daniel E. Griffiths, "New Forces in School Administration," Over
view, (January, 1960), p. 50.

[180]American Association of School Administrators, Educational Adminis-
tration in a Changing Community, (Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Washington, D.C.,
1959), p. 54.

[181]James L. McCammy, "Analysis of the Process of Decision-Making,"
Public Administration Review VII, No. 1 (1947), p. 41.

Why decision-making deserves attention could be further sensed from

assertions by specialists in administration, such as the following:

> The essential process of adaptation in organizations is deci-
> sion, whereby the physical, biological, personal, and social factors
> of the situation are selected for specific combination by volitional
> action.[182]
> The task of "deciding" pervades the entire administrative
> organization quite as much as the task of "doing."[183]
> ...the central function of administration is directing and
> controlling the decision-making process. It is not only central
> in the sense that it is more important than other functions, as
> some writers have indicated, but it is central in that all other
> functions of administration can best be interpreted in terms of
> the decision-making process.[184]
> I shall find it convenient to take mild liberties with the
> English language by using "decision-making" as though it were
> synonymous with "managing."[185]
> The executive is a decider and not a doer.[186]

Decision-making, even for those who doubt its centrality to the

theory and practice of administration, has become too important to ignore.

And it is precisely here that all of the content of human relation discussed

in the preceding pages must be applied. For the administrator must take

into account all of the knowledge of human behavior if he is to make the

right decision. The way he makes decisions will display whether or not he

is interested in human relations. As Wiles states:

> An index to whether members of a group really are concerned about
> human relations is the way in which they make decisions. If

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[182]Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1938.

[183]Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior: A Study of Decision-making Processes in Administrative Organization. New York: Macmillan Co., 1957 (second edition).

[184]Daniel E. Griffiths, Administrative Theory. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959.

[185]Herbert A. Simon, The New Science of Management Decision. New York: Harper & Bros., 1960.

[186]David W. Miller and Martin K. Starr, Executive Decisions and Operations Research, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960.

procedure is determined by policy or organizational considerations, human relations have been assigned a secondary importance. If decisions are made in terms of the effect they will have on the feelings of others, good human relations are being practiced. . .Good human relations means making decisions based on the human factor in the problem.[187]

Decision-Making and Economic Man

Major classical contributions to the theory of decision-making by the firm came from the disciplines of economics and administration. From the first came the idea that the firm, guided by "economic man," made all its decisions in the light of a single super-ordinate goal which was profit maximization. From the second came separate analyses of the various types of kinds of decisions that an administration had to make. One list of such decisions was Gulick's POSDCORB.[188] In those days it was fashionable to focus on the activities of administrators—on the functions they performed and on the ways they spent their time.

Familiar to all is the challenge to the classical economic theory of the firm. Doubts about its utility abound, and these are perhaps best reflected in the early twentieth century divorce of business education from economics. Questions about the validity of the theory are at least equally numerous. They have centered first on its motivational and cognitive assumptions, second on its failure to see more distinctions between decision-making on an individual and on group basis.[189] Furthermore, what holds true

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[187]Wiles, p. 331.

[188]Luther Gulick, "Notes on the Theory of Organization," in *Papers on Science of Administration*, p. 13. Edited by Luther Gulick and L. Urwick. New York: Institute of Public Administration, Columbia University, 1937.

[189]R.M. Cyert and J.G. March, *A Behavioral Theory of the Firm* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall, 1963), p. 8.

of the decision process of the economic man holds true also for the decision process of the business firm. The individual can serve as a model of the organization.

Perhaps less familiar is the challenge to classical administrative theory that is reflected in a growing emphasis on decision-making as a process worthy of investigation in itself, and apart from such specialized subactivities as are designated by POSDCORB.

The essential difference in the decision-making approach is that it highlights the goals, the tasks, and the choices that determine activities in organizations. What administrators do and how they allocate their time is a product of what they want to achieve and how they decide to proceed. The decisions which individuals make to join (to support, or to quit) an organization and the decisions which they make as participants to solve the problems confronting it largely determine the organization's chances for survival and growth.

Decision-Making—Defined

Decision-making merely involves making a choice among alternatives. An individual or a group searches among the alternatives present and decides on a course of action.

A decision is more than choosing a course of action; it is (a decision) a course of action which is consciously chosen for achieving a desired result.

The Process of Decision-Making

There have been many methods suggested which attempt to describe the process of decision-making.

The agenda-building phase (which Simon has called "intelligence" activity)[190] covers the time administrators spend defining goals and tasks and assigning priorities for their completion. The search phase (Simon's "design" activity) encompasses efforts to find or invent alternative courses of action and to find information that can be used to evaluate them. The commitment phase (Simon's "choice" activity) involves testing proposed alternatives to choose one for adoption or, as is often appropriate, to postpone making the choice. The implementation phase includes clarifying the meaning of a commitment for those who are to help carry it out, elaborating the new tasks or decision problems that the commitment leads to, and motivating people to help put the commitment into effect. The evaluation phase involves examining the results of previous commitments and actions in order to find new tasks for the agenda and to help the organization learn how to make decisions more effectively. These phases, performed at different levels in interlocking sequences of decisions, cover the range of administration activity.[191]

Griffiths gives the following steps as comprising the process.

1. Recognize, define, and limit the problem.
2. Analyze and evaluate the problem.
3. Establish criteria of judgment.

[190]This and the following categories are from Simon, The New Science of Management Decision, op. cit., p. 2.

[191]For elaboration of this framework, see William R. Dill, "Administrative Decision-Making," in Concepts and Issues in Administrative Behavior, pp. 29-48. Edited by Sidney Mailick and Edward H. Van Ness. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962.

4. Collect data.
5. Select preferred solution.
6. Put solution into effect.[192]

Griffiths approach indicates the sequential nature of the decision-making process.

Cyert and March have developed a scheme they feel represents the organizational decision process. Figure 7, a slight modification of this scheme, indicates a sub-unit's (department's) decision-making procedure for reaching a particular goal. The decision-making unit observes the environment and notes down information about the desired goal. If this information is too uncertain, more is gathered. If it is seen that the desired goal is not being achieved, a search is made in the local environment to determine the nature of the problem; the search is expanded if necessary. When the problem is found, the ways of finding and solving the problem are evaluated to arrive at a set of decision rules to be used should the same problem arise again. The decision makers are, then, structuring problematical situations in such a way that the organization can handle them in its own way using standardized procedures. The goals are evaluated and the process continues.

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[192]Daniel E. Griffiths, Administrative Theory (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959), pp. 94-107.

Observe information
feedback from the
environment

┌──── No ────── Is there uncertainty
│   as to information?

│   Is the goal   Yes
│   being achieved?   Get more information

│   No
│   ────────────────────────→ Search locally.   Yes ──┐
│   Is problem   │
│   found?   │
│   │
│   No   │
│   Yes   Expand search ──→ Evaluate the
│   search rules

│   Follow same
│   ──→   procedures if ←──────────────────── Form the
└──────────────   same problem   decision rules
                     arises again

                     Evaluate goals
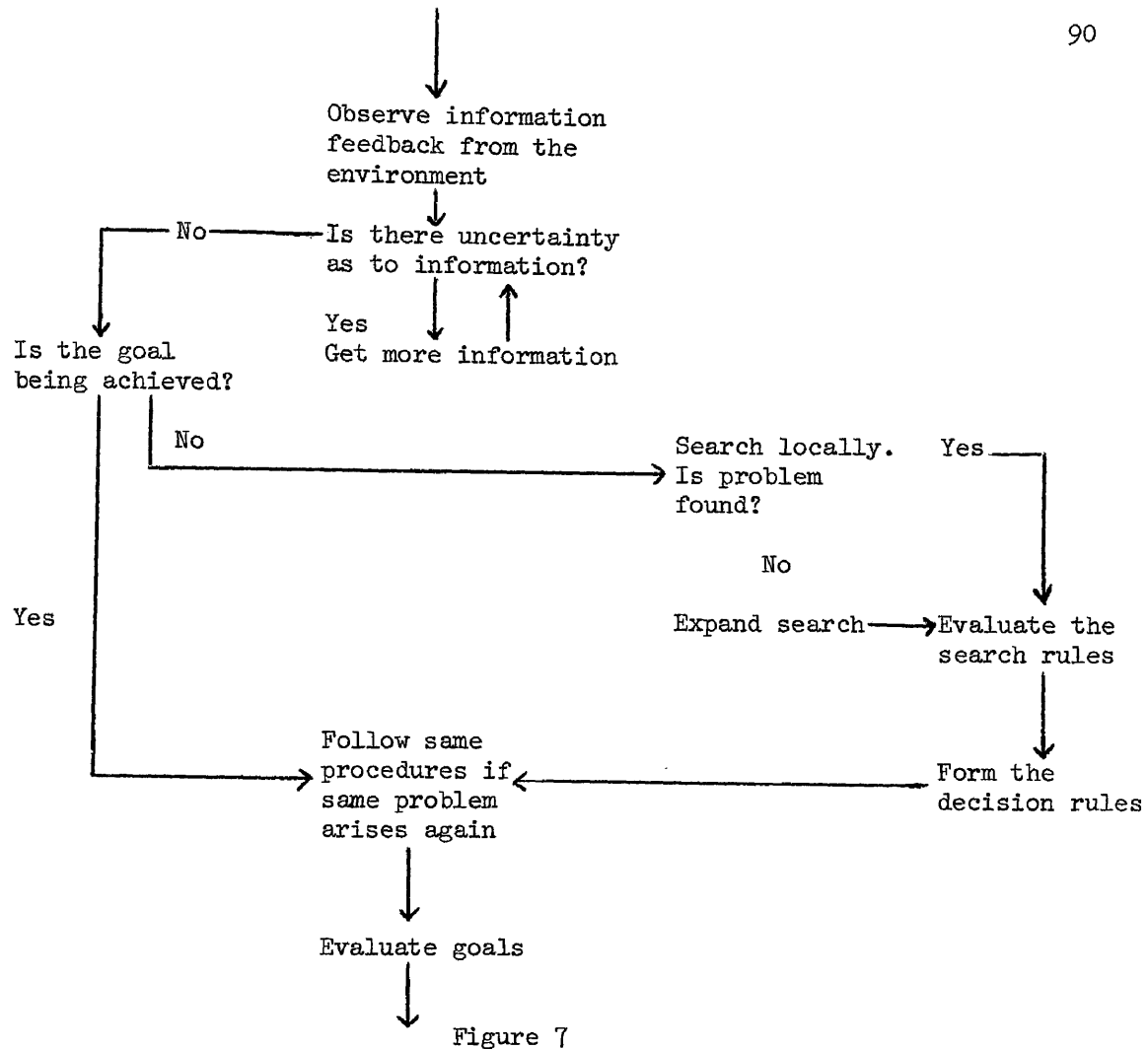
                            Figure 7

The organizational decision process for reaching a specific goal.
(Modified from Richard M. Cyert and James G. March, A Behavioral Theory
of the Firm.) 1963

Obtaining accurate information for the decision processes is quite

important, but, unfortunately, biases are sometimes unavoidable. Values,

philosophy, personal make-up, etc., are unique to each individual adminis-

trator. This uniqueness of background affects decision-making process.

Griffiths feels that the selection of the preferred solution is the

point of decision. All that has gone on before culminates in a decision.

In the usual terminology, choice from among alternatives seems to be the

end-point of decision.[193] Decision is seen to include all those activities

which precede choice but not of those which follow.[194] Decision, as effec-

tive determination of policy, is measured in terms of results rather than

desires. For Cheesman decision must be measured in terms of its social

responsibility and effectiveness.[195]

Decision-Making and the School Administrator

Decision-making is a complex process and is shared by all who are

involved in the school systems. The specific function of administration

is to regulate and control this process in the most effective manner.[196]

For, as one Carnegie faculty member has stated, "the decision-making

approach highlights the goals, the tasks, and the choices that determine

the same power to illuminate the dynamics of organizational life." Finally,

a decision-making orientation has helped to bring about "a rapprochment"

between organization theory and "concepts from economics, the quantitative

disciplines and the behavioral sciences."[197]

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[193]James D. Thompson and Arthur Tuden, "Strategies, Structures, and Processes of Organizational Decision," in James D. Thompson, et. al., eds., Comparative Studies in Administration (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1959), p. 196.

[194]The point of view adopted here is that choice is the mid-point rather than the end point of decision. The decision process is of bringing about a specified course of action. See Lasswell and Kaplan, Power and Society. (New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1950), p. 74.

[195]Dr. Melvin Cheesman, School of Education, Northern Michigan University.

[196]Griffiths, Ibid., p. 72.

[197]William R. Dill, "Decision-making," 63rd Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Behavioral Science and Education Administration, 1965, Chapt. IV, pp. 200-202 (Carnegie Reprint Series, No. 158).

Decision-Making-in-Behavioral Sciences

The role of decision-making in behavioral science is to describe

how people make decisions. Social scientists are interested in how in-

dividuals and groups reach a decision, what procedures are used and how

choices are made.[198]

They have given us to understand that it is easier to carry out a

commitment when the understanding and co-operation of other people are

involved.

Some do not see implementation as a major problem. Gulick, for

example, largely ignores it when he defines the work of chief executives

as: "the continuous task of making decisions and embodying them in

specific and general orders and instructions and serving as the leader of

the enterprise."[199] Compliance with decisions was expected, even if it

was not always achieved. The resistance which occurred was not viewed as

a challenge to the basic theory.

Others, though, have interpreted problems of implementation as

evidence that new strategies for making decisions were needed. Their work

has been guided most conspicuously by the proposals of Lewin and his stu-

dents for involving the people who are to be affected by decisions more

fully in the process of defining the problem, developing alternatives, and

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[198]They have largely focused their attention on the process of agenda
building, search and commitments.

[199]Gulick, op. cit.

making the choice.[200] They have found in experiments and field studies that many groups (such as teachers) in organizations want more chance to participate in making decisions that affect their activities and opportunities. They have found that by giving groups an opportunity to participate, administrators not only get more co-operation in implementing the choices that are made but also may get better quality decisions.[201] They have found, in studies such as Gordon's, that participative methods can lead to greater production and efficiency as well as to higher morale.[202]

There has been a great deal of discussion about the role of different distributions of decision-making responsibilities in schools and colleges. There have been studies which show that both teachers and students want a more active role in decisions, and there have been a few attempts to measure the effects of participative methods on the educational process.[203] There have even been studies which suggest a major problem concerned with obtaining approval from the community for new tax measures or bond issues for education at the local level has been the alienation of large blocs of voters in the community.[204]

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[200]K. Lewin, "Group Decision and Social Change," in Readings in Social Psychology, pp. 197-211; L. Coch and J.R.P. French, Jr., "Over coming Resistance to Change," Ibid., pp. 233-50; Ralph K. White and Ronald Lippitt, Autocracy and Democracy (New York: Harper & Bros., 1960).

[201]Russell T. Gregg, "The Administrative Process," in Administrative Behavior in Education, pp. 278-80. Edited by Roald F. Campbell and Russell T. Gregg. New York: Harper & Bros., 1957.

[202]Thomas Gordon, Group-centered Leadership. (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1955); Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1961.

[203]Gregg, loc. cit.

[204]J.E. Horton and W.E. Thompson, "Powerlessness and Political Negativism," American Journal of Sociology, LXVII (1962), 485-93.

The hypothesis is that the lower socioeconomic groups, cut off from full participation in the life of the community, vote against these measures simply to protest their alienation—not because they disapprove of the measures or their cost.

Still, the applicability of ideas about participative decision-making no longer seems as obvious as it once did. Inviting wider involvement does not always bring positive results. We have learned, for example, that experiments in participation will sometimes be seen, correctly or incorrectly, as false invitations to come in and discuss commitments which have already been made. We have learned that participation, like any other incentive, generally does not work if other aspects of the environment conflict with the effects it is supposed to produce.[205] In analyzing an experiment with participation that had not been a complete success, Strykker, pointed out two such counteracting factors. First, the decision to start a participative experiment was essentially nonparticipative—it was imposed by a zealous superior on the managers who had to operate it. Second, the president vitiated many of the effects of participation by inviting numerous outside consultants (without requests from lower management) to advise management on what to do.[206]

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[205]Coch and French, op. cit., p. 250; William R. Dill, "Environment as an Influence on Managerial Autonomy," in Comparative Studies in Administration, op. cit., pp. 131-61.

[206]Perrin Strykker, "How 'Participative' can a Company Get?" Fortune, LIV (September, 1956), 134-36 ff.

Other problems in theory and practice have arisen from a failure to distinguish organized, participative patterns of decision-making from un-structured, laissez-faire approaches. Both give employees a chance to help make decisions, but only the first recognizes the need for some central direction and action in organizational decision-making. The two approaches are not equivalent, either in efficiency or in the satisfactions which people feel with the results.[207]

We are also discovering that the opportunity to participate in decision-making is not as highly prized by many people as the first experiments led us to believe. Administrators are usually not just showing authoritarian attitudes when they complain that the people who work for them are not interested in responsibility. Many studies show employees quite willing to let superiors make decisions for them.[208] Some disinterest in participation can be traced to basic personality characteristics.[209] Some can be traced to the fact that in accepting employment in American society, people are accepting roles—and they recognize that these roles include constraints on their autonomy on the job. They may be indifferent to opportunities for greater involvement in decision, they may not feel that the

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[207]White and Lippitt, op. cit.

[208]William R. Dill, Thomas L. Hilton, and Walter R. Reitman, The New Managers, pp. 94-96, 187-89 (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962); J.R.P. French, Jr., Joachim Israel, and Dagfinn As, "An Experiment on Participation in a Norwegian Factory," Human Relations, XIII (1960), 3-20.

[209]Victor H. Vroom, Some Personality Determinants of the Effects of Participation. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960.

opportunities are legitimate for the role they are playing, or they may

be willing to forego opportunities they would like to have on the job

because activities outside of work provide the major interest and satis-

faction in their lives.[210]

We still have need for considerable amounts of research to find, for

different kinds of organizations and different sorts of decision, patterns

of participation which will meet the following goals:

1. Control goal: Insure that decisions do get made and that, for
   control purposes, there be someone to talk with when it comes
   time to evaluate decisions or seek explanations for their results.
2. Motivation goal: Bridge the gap that often exists between
   making and implementing decisions by making them in ways that
   make the people who will have to help carry them out feel iden-
   tified with their successful implementation.
3. Quality goal: Improve the quality of decisions by involving
   those who have most to contribute to the decisions.
4. Training goal: Develop skills for handling problems in the men
   who will move eventually into administrative positions, and test
   for the presence of these skills.
5. Efficiency goal: Get decisions made as quickly and with as little
   waste of manpower as possible.

Goals 1 and 5 might be said to argue for fairly limited participation

in decision-making. Goals 2,3, and 4 argue for more extensive participation—

but in different ways: 2 for participation by the people who may be affected

by the decision; 3 for participation by the people who are expert in solving

it; and 4 for participation by people who may be neither personally involved

nor expert, but who are being prepared for advancement.

Finally, all of the work that has been done on studies of partici-

pation in decision-making needs to be extended to take into account the new

developments in strategies for making better decisions, especially those

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[210]Barnard, op. cit., pp. 167-70; Simon, Administrative Behavior,
op. cit., pp. 115-17.

which suggest that computers may become important elements in the decision-making network of an organization.[211]

We said earlier that the specific function of administration is to regulate and control the decision-making process in the most effective manner possible. This certainly does not mean, in spite of the limited research and further need of research in the area of participation in decision-making, that the administrator should make all the decisions. Some decisions should be made by groups, such as the faculty. The decisions must be made in the legal framework of the American public school. But more important than the legal framework is the social framework which consists in the values and ideals of society in which the school exists. A decision made that is opposed to these values will be the wrong decision. The value orientation of our society consists in the phrase "the American way of life." Counts gives a good explanation of this:

> It embraces the ideas of individual worth and dignity, of human equality and brotherhood, of mercy and compassion, of the Hebraic-Christian ethic. It embraces the conception of a common humanity, the faith in the creative power of the free mind, and the affirmation of the perfectibility of man and his institutions, of the humanistic spirit. It enhances the idea of untrammeled inquiry, the devotion to the intellectual virtues of precision, integrity, and love of truth, of science and scientific method. . .It embraces finally the bold affirmation of the democratic faith that the people, all of the people, should participate in the selection of their rulers and in the framing of the broad policies of government, that, in a word, they should be free and be entrusted with power and responsibility.[212]

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[211]Simon, The New Science of Management: Decision, op. cit.; Management Organization and the Computer (Edited by G.P. Shultz and T.L. Whisler, Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1960); Management and the Computer of the Future (Edited by Martin Greenberger, New York: M.I.T. Press and John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1962).

[212]George Counts, Decision-Making and American Values in School Administration (New York: Teachers College Bureau of Publications, 1954), p. 12.

Besides the legal and social framework, there are other factors which must be taken into account if the right decisions are to result. Those who are making the decisions should first of all know what the purpose of the organization is. As Tannenbaum says, "It is important that the decisions made by each member of the group be made with reference to the group end and not a differing personal end."[213] Likewise it is important that the decisions be made on the basis of rationality. The criteria of rationality are provided in the school system by the adoption of written rules and regulations by the board of education.[214] The decision-maker is also guided by the line of formal authority which exists in the school system. Likewise he is guided by the relevant information given him concerning the situation.

There are some decisions which only the administrator can make. These are called by Barnard personal decisions and are distinguished from organization decisions which can be delegated.[215] An administrator is called upon to make a decision on three different types of occasions. According to Barnard, these occasions originate in three distinct fields:

a) from authoritative communications from superiors;
b) from cases referred for decision by subordinates;
c) from cases originating in the initiative of the executive concerned.[216]

The last source stems from the creative talents of the administrator himself and is the finest mark of the excellent educational leader.

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[213]Robert Tannenbaum, "Limitations on Decision-Making," Human Relations in Administration, ed. Robert Dubin, p. 200.

[214]Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration, p. 212.

[215]Chester I. Barnard, "Decision-Making in Organizations," Human Relations in Administration, ed. Robert Dubin, p. 200.

[216]Ibid., p. 201.

Those decisions which can be delegated should be. It is a generally

accepted principle that an effective leader allows others to share in policy

decision.[217] It is impossible for an administrator to make every decision a

personal one.

The responsibility of the administrator to guide and regulate the

decision-making process is a grave one and demands that he have a thorough

knowledge of the people who are under him. A familiarity with the content

of human relations is a necessity if he is to meet this responsibility

adequately.

Leadership

Although leadership has been defined in a number of ways,[218] the

definition proposed here derives additional meaning when viewed in terms

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[217]Lester W. Anderson, and Lauren A. Van Dyke, Secondary School
Administration (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1963), p. 31.

[218]Leadership (or leader) has been defined, for example, as: "An
individual who is moving in a particular direction and who succeeds in
inducing others to follow him" (William H. Cowley, "Three Distinctions in
the Study of Leaders," Journal of Abnormal Psychology, XXIII [1928], 144-
57); "leadership is a process of mutual stimulation which, by successful
interplay of relevant differences, controls human energy in the pursuit of
a common cause" (Paul J.W. Pigors, Leadership and Domination [Boston:
Houghton Mifflin, 1935]; ". . .viewed in relation to the individual, leader-
ship is not an attribute of the personality but a quality of his role within
a particular or specified social system. Viewed in relation to his group,
leadership is a quality of its structure" (Cecil A. Gibb, "The Research
Background of an Interaction Theory of Leadership," Australian Journal of
Psychology, XXVIII [1950], 19-42). For Dr. Melvin Cheesmen leadership has
to do with deciding alternatives—alternatives including internal and
external factors. It deals with establishment of goals and the structural
arrangements that will achieve these goals.

of the organizational context.[219] We may define leadership as the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives or for changing an organization's goals and objectives.[220]

Note that the emphasis here is upon initiating change. Presumably, two routes are open to the leader who would attempt to change established organizational relationships and goals. He may utilize delegated status and exert authority in terms of his role, or he may utilize achieved prestige and exert influence in terms of his individual personality.[221] Perhaps both role and individual strengths would be brought to bear. In either event, the leader is concerned with initiating changes in established structures, procedures, or goals; he is disruptive of the existing stage of affairs.

The administrator, on the other hand, may be identified as the individual who utilizes existing structures or procedures to achieve an organizational goal or objective. As in the case of the leader, the administrator may bring to bear the authority of his role or the influence of

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[219]We may conceive of an organization as a hierarchy of super-ordinate, sub-ordinate relationship—a structured social system. Social system exists to discharge certain institutionalized functions. See, for example, J.W. Getzels, "Administration as a Social Process," in Administrative Theory in Education, pp. 150-65. Edited by Andrew W. Halpin (University of Chicago, 1958).

[220]John K. Hamphill, "Administration as Problem Solving," in Andrew W. Halpin, Administrative Theory in Education, p. 107 (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center University of Chicago, 1958).

[221]Egon G. Guba, "Research in Internal Administration—What Do We Know?" in Administrative Theory as a Guide to Action, p. 124. Edited by Roald F. Campbell and James M. Lipham. Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1960.

his personality in his relationships with other members of the organization. But the administrator is concerned primarily with maintaining, rather than changing, established structures, procedures, or goals. Thus, the administrator may be viewed as a stabilizing force.

In view of the foregoing destinction between administration and leadership, it becomes apparent that the oft-used term "administrative leadership" is something of a paradox. In reality except for a few complex organizations, leadership functions and administrative functions are usually combined in a single-role incumbent. The superintendent of schools, for example, must at times, wear an "administrative hat" and, at other times, wear a "leadership hat." Having but one head, the superintendent should, indeed, be aware of which "hat" he is wearing, since he undoubtedly is expected both to administer and to lead.

What we are saying is that although the school superintendent/administrator is usually regarded as the leader of the formal organization of the school system, yet his effectiveness will depend more upon his awareness and playing the combined role of the administrator and the leader. As such he must not only be competent but must also be proficient in using human relations skills.

Hagman and Schwartz give the following definition of leadership: "Leadership is a process through which one person or a group affects the behavior of other persons or other groups."[222]

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[222]Hagman and Schwartz, p. 22.

This definition does not include the legal status as an essential ingredient to leadership. Hence, simply because a person occupies a position of leadership is no sure sign that he is actually a leader. Such a person may be a leader in name only. To lead, one must influence the behavior of others toward a common direction. To do this, he must be aware of the methods which a leader can use to control or influence the behavior of others. Numerous studies have been conducted which show the behavior of successful administrators in their leadership roles. Griffiths has found that the successful administrator is one who is a hard worker and displays initiative, an improver of the people with whom he works, a perceptive individual who recognizes and encourages the initiative in others, a helper, an effective teacher, a person who has deep insight into himself, and a social man who is dependable and enjoys being with people.[223] Hopper and Bills, in a study of successful school administrators in the state of Kentucky, found the following qualities of a good administrator:[224]

1. Democratic attitude.
2. Respect for the integrity of others.
3. Ability to organize.
4. Understanding of the job.
5. Acceptance of himself and belief that others accept themselves.

According to Barnard, the work which leaders do can be divided into four topics: the determination of objectives, the manipulation of means, the control of the instrumentality of action, and stimulation of coordinated action.[225]

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[223]Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration, pp. 244-252.

[224]Hopper and Bills, pp. 93-95.

[225]Chester I. Barnard, Organization and Management (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1949), p. 85.

It is more difficult to be a leader in a human relations environment than in an autocratic one. The administrator who wishes to lead in such an environment must take into account the feelings of the people involved as well as the facts of the case. Roethlisberger lists the following characteristics of the administrator who takes into account the human relations discipline:

1. The new "administrator" will need to know and understand better the nature of "organization"—its structure and dynamic interrelations.
2. "Administrators" of the future, to do their new jobs effectively, will have to develop a common language structure which represents accurately the interdependent realities of the phenomena with which they deal—technical, economic, organizational, social, human.
3. The new "administrator" will have to understand better the problem of communication—and not only the aspect of communication which by persuasion attempts to sell one's own point of view, but that which tries to understand and has respect for another's point of view.
4. New methods and new skills will have to be developed whereby change can be introduced into the work situation without provoking resistance.
5. The new "administrator" will have to understand better the dependent relation of the subordinate to the superior in business organizations and the feelings of insecurity this dependence arouses.
6. The new "administrator" will have to learn to distinguish the world of feelings from the world of facts and logic. And for dealings effectively with this world of feeling, he will have to learn new techniques—which at first may seem strange, after having been ignored and misunderstood for so long. Particularly, of course, he will have to learn about "informal organization," that aspect of organization which is the manifestation of feeling and sentiment.[226]

From these topics it is clearly seen that the new administrator or leader must have a knowledge of the content of human relations.

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[226]Fritz J. Roethlisberger, "The Foreman: Master and Victim of Double Talk," Human Factors in Management, ed. Schuyler D. Hoslett (Parkville, Mo.: Park College Press, 1946), pp. 70-72.

CHAPTER III

THE PHILOSOPHY OF HUMAN RELATIONS

Although there have been innumerable books and articles written about

human relations in business and educational administration, there has been

no thorough study of the theory or philosophy underlying these writings.

This is usually presumed or ignored in the books on the subject. One can,

however, from these very writings, draw out the foundational theories on

which human relations in administration is built. This is possible because

enough of the writers have at least indicated in some manner or other the

basic philosophy which human relations expresses in concrete form. Not

every author agrees on every point in this matter, but there emerges a

general philosophy which can be said to be the foundation of the human

relations movement. The basic tenets of this philosophy will be revealed

in this chapter.

Dignity of Man

Philosophy is concerned with ultimate ends. And the ultimate end of

the human relations content of administration is the dignity of man. A firm

belief in the dignity and worth of the individual personality is the most

basic tenet of human relations. Knowles states:

> Persons using the human-relations approach were not the first to
> discover that personnel management begins with a study of human
> nature. . .Whereas the psychologist emphasizes individual differences
> and the free-enterprise idealogy stresses rugged individualism, the
> human-relations specialists underscore the uniqueness of man, the

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dignity of man. . .When the dignity of all men is respected, conflict must be resolved by adjusting industrial society to human nature, rather than "adopting" human beings to industry.[227]

Man's dignity constitutes the ultimate norm in the human relations movement. It provides the basis for morality in a human relations context. Hence a thing is evil to the extent that it does not recognize or that it detracts from the dignity of man. Davis states:

> All studies og personal wants show that people desire to be treated with respect and dignity—to be treated as human beings. This recognizes that each person is a separate personality, free to pursue happiness within the bounds of responsibility. It is the moral basis of human relations and came originally from religious concepts. Human relations philosophy accepts human dignity as basic, because it is the field's reason for being. If men were to be treated as animals, there would be no human relations. The philosophy of human dignity recognizes that the whole man is being employed, rather than just his physical strength or his skill.[228]

Griffiths states that human relations is built upon "the faith in the dignity and worth of human beings as individual personalities."[229] Likewise Wiles states that the supervisor should "exhibit a belief in the worth of all individuals."[230] Kelby goes so far as to say that it is the duty of the administrator "to humanize."[231] The ultimate norm, value, or end, then,

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[227]William H. Knowles, _Personnel Management: A Human Relations Approach_ (New York: American Book Co., 1955), p. 108.

[228]Keith Davis, _Human Relations in Business_ (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1957), p. 14.

[229]Daniel E. Griffiths, _Human Relations in School Administration_ (New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, Inc., 1956), p. 17.

[230]Kimball Wiles, _Supervision for Better Schools_ (2nd ed., New York: Prentice-Hall, 1955), p. 106.

[231]M.R. Kelby, "Human Relations and the School Superintendency," _American School Board Journal_, CXXVII (October, 1953), 29.

in the human relations movement is the dignity of man. This is almost

identical to the value orientation of the classical humanist as described

by Dahlke.[232]

The basis of man's dignity is not so easily seen from the writings

in human relations. Johnson says that the dignity of man is "based on his

spiritual nature, his origin from God, and his destiny in God's plan for

the universe—whether he is fully conscious of the sanction or not."[233]

From observations of the origin of human behavior in other writers, however,

it seems as if they take a more naturalistic view of man's dignity. Gardner

and Moore seem to limit human behavior to merely satisfying emotions and

feelings:

> Perhaps the most important element involved in all human relations
> is that they evoke feelings among people. . .It is characteristic
> of humans that they size up the world around them in terms of their
> feelings and attitudes. Their behavior is directly related to their
> evaluation of environment in terms of the feelings and emotions
> which this evaluation evokes.[234]

Such a concept of human behavior seems to limit man's nature to the

biological and psychological aspects. Man's dignity would then consist in

the complex development of his emotions and brain rather than in his super-

natural origin.[235]

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[232]H. Otto Dahlke, Values in Culture and Classroom: A Study in the Sociology of the School (New York: Harper and Bros., 1958), p. 66.

[233]Robert W. Johnson, "Human Relations in Modern Business," Harvard Business Review, XXVII (September, 1949), 528.

[234]Burleigh B. Gardner, and David G. Moore, Human Relations in Industry (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1955), p. 23.

[235]Lawrence K. Frank, Nature and Human Nature: Man's New Image of Himself (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1951), p. 143.

A further indication that at least some writers hold to a naturalistic

view of human nature is the belief they show in the infinite perfectability

of man. Man is capable of improving himself to an infinite degree through

knowledge and planning. Counts says:

> In common with the humanistic spirit, science implies man's ability
> increasingly to master his earthly home and shape his destiny, to
> perfect both himself and his institutions. It assumes that man must
> be the source of whatever degree of salvation he is to enjoy in this
> world, that such salvation is to be gained not by incantations and
> supplications addressed to supernatural forces but rather by the
> application of his mind to the correction of error and the unravelling
> of the mysteries of nature.[236]

The supremacy of human values in the writings of the human relations

theorists also points to a naturalistic or humanistic view of man. Hagman

and Schwartz say:

> If Man is to live happily in the world which he has helped to create
> but understands dimly and fears much, values that are broadly termed
> human values must be uppermost or Man will be the victim of his own
> creations.[237]

Likewise, Putnam in speaking of the place of ethical terminology in

educational philosophy, proposes:

> In practical matters the language of education should refer only to
> the values commonly accepted by all schools of thought, and these
> are operational values. These common values forming the common
> ground of all philosophies can be conveniently labeled the values
> of mankind. The general value, mankind, can be thought of as sub-
> divided into the values of the individual and the values of society:
> two broad headings in a value structure.[238]

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[236]George E. Counts, _Education and the Promise of America_ (New
York: The Macmillan Co., 1945), p. 86.

[237]Harlan L. Hagman, and Alfred Schwartz, _Administration in Profile
for School Executives_ (New York: Harper, 1955), p. 13.

[238]H. Putnam, "Place of Ethical Terminology in Educational Philosophy,"
The Journal of Educational Sociology, XXXVI (October, 1962), 86.

The human relations movement looks upon man as a social being.

Millard says that it is this characteristic that distinguishes him from

the animals: "To be sure, man is not an isolated creature, but a social

being, and it is this characteristic that distinguishes man from the lower

animals."[239]

This social aspect of man necessitates that one investigate the

reality of society if he is to understand man. For man cannot be looked

at as an isolated individual. On the other hand, society can not be looked

at apart from man. The study of one leads to the study of the other. Thus

it is that human relations is concerned with the laws and mores of society.

Frank says:

> We are now beginning to realize that only as we can understand the
> individual member of a society, how he or she functions, thinks, acts,
> and feels within the social field, can we gain any understanding of
> the large-scale activities and operations of a society. We are
> focusing, therefore, more and more upon the problem of human relations
> and seeking more insight into the development and varied expression
> of personality.[240]

The conspicuous presence of sociology in the writings of the human

relationists is the result of this intimate relationship between society and

the individual.

Supremacy of Science

It has been shown that the human relations content of administration

is the application of all the knowledge of the behavioral and social sciences

toward the management of men. The behavioral sciences have used the scien-

tific method to study man in relation to his environment. Thus, as Knowles

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[239]T.L. Millard, "Human Relations in a Changing Society, Trends and
Principles," The Journal of Educational Sociology, XXXV (January, 1962), 231.

[240]Frank, p. 165.

says, "The emphasis in human relations is upon the scientific method and

the discovery of laws of human behavior."[241] It is not surprising, therefore,

that besides the dignity of man, one of the most valued principles of the

human relations movement is the supremacy of science. Science is both the

method of inquiry and ultimate end for many of the writers. As Counts says:

> Science has rightly been called the most powerful force moving in the
> modern world. As a method of inquiry it is man's most reliable source
> of knowledge about both the world and himself. Scornful alike of
> sacred tradition, and temporal authority, it has moved triumphantly
> during the past four and a half centuries from conquest to con-
> quest.[242]

Such an exaltation of science leads one to disregard the age-old

concerns of mankind such as his ultimate end or reason for existence.

Searching for such questions involves the use of other methods of inquiry.

The scientist brushes past such questions to the inquiry of man in his pre-

sent environment. Thus, there is a tension between science and ethics. As

Putnam says,

> Even though it is clear that the moral function is one of the im-
> portant human functions, we must remember that in the past century,
> there has been a vast growth in the social sciences. This new
> emphasis carries with it a terminology directed toward an objec-
> tivity that avoids reference to questions of the ultimate good.
> This terminology is different from that of ethics and morality.
> In scientific method, evaluation as to conclusions is delayed
> while evidence is being gathered. This is unlike the procedure
> in ethics, in which judging and evaluating relative to general con-
> clusions take place continually.[243]

The human relations writers are not in agreement as the relation

between science and ethics. Some say that in human relations inquiry there

must be no values at all while others admit of the necessity for some values.

Jenkins, in his discussion of group dynamics, shows himself to be of the

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[241]Knowles, p. 103.

[242]Counts, p. 55.

[243]Putnam, p. 85.

school of thought which denies the existence of moral values in human
relations. He says, "The dynamic of groups, then, is a field for scientific
analysis, study and understanding. As such, there is no concern with
values and goals."[244]

The disregard for moral values in these men is compensated by their
belief that science makes its own values. Values then can be determined
scientifically through objective experimentation and analysis. Through
the clinical observation of individuals in society, one can construct a
strictly human value system. This is simply saying that man is the author
of his own values. Knowles says in regard to these theories:

> Some social scientists believe that right and wrong can be deter-
> mined scientifically. . .Other social scientists avoid ethical
> and moral questions, because such questions are not subject to the
> scientific method. "Good" and "bad," "right" and "wrong" cannot
> be tested in a laboratory, they say.[245]

To speak of value systems without a scientific origin displays to
these men a lack of knowledge. It represents a denial of the advancement
in learning in the last few centuries. To rely upon a value system which
transcends the findings of science is to them an act of ignorance. Again
Knowles gives a picture of such theories:

> The human-relations movement brings into focus the conflict between
> a moral science and ethics in personnel management. . .Human-relations
> scientists would use the experimental method to build a scientifically
> organized society and a science of personnel management. Value
> judgments, in their opinion, represent a lack of knowledge, and ethics
> and morals can be made a science through experimentation.[246]

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[244]David H. Jenkins, "What is Group Dynamics?" Adult Education
Journal, IX (April, 1950), 55.

[245]Knowles, p. 106.

[246]Ibid., p. 115.

Such restriction to the role of moral values in the human relations movement is not so severe in others. To these others moral values do dominate scientific values in certain instances. Leighton says, "Moral values when pertinent dominate scientific values at three continguous points: the selection of the problem to be investigated, the limitation of the human and other materials that may be used, and the determination of what shall be done with the results."[247]

There are instances, even in this view, when science would dominate all other values, and that would be in each step of the scientific process and the resulting conclusions gained. The scientific method transcends prejudice and personal value orientations. As Leighton says, "Within an area marked off for scientific investigation, the values of science reign supreme over each step in process toward conclusions themselves."[248]

The human relation scientists are further characterized by their concern with creativity in man. This assumes the importance of a fundamental virtue to these writers. Every man should reach development through creativity, and the norm of morality of a society is whether it allows its members to be creative. As Campbell states:

> Human relations in school administration is not primarily to encourage belief in a mass of things that have been true up to the present time, not to help staff members keep in step with life as it is lived from day to day, nor even to intepret life to others.

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[247]Alexander Hamilton Leighton, Human Relations in a Changing World (New York: E.P. Dutton, 1949), p. 210.

[248]Ibid.

Transcending all of these in importance, its aim is to help staff
members create life for themselves and for the free society in which
they live.[249]

This scientific virtue of creativity is very relevant to the human

relations content as applied to educational administration. The businessman

who is wholly concerned with science may see efficiency as his primary value

judgment. But this is not so with the educator. He sees as his primary

value judgment the freeing of the minds of others to a development of

creativity. Again Campbell says, "If we can establish an administrative

pattern that will free people to work creatively with each other, then surely

there are no visible limits to the depth, the width, or the height that the

human mind can reach."[250]

The whole content of human relations which was shown in the second

chapter can easily be seen to be applicable toward this end.

These scientists are further distinguished by their quantitative view

of man. The scientific method cannot be applied to aesthetics or spiritual

activities, and hence the strict human relations scientist tends to look at

man and his behavior from a strictly quantitative vantage point. Thus if

something about man cannot be measured, it doesn't exist for the rigorist

in human relations theory. Griffiths is close to this view in his use of

observationism as the clue to correct concept development in the construction

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[249]Clyde M. Campbell, "Human Relations Techniques Useful in School
Administration," The American School Board Journal CXXX (June, 1955), 77.

[250]Ibid., p. 32.

of an administrative theory, "We mean by any concept more than a set

of operations: the concept is synonymous with the corresponding set of

operations."[251]

Whyte does not hold that quantitative analysis is the only valid

method but gives its value in his discussion of economic incentives and

human relations:

> We do not imply that the quantitatively observable aspects of inter-
> action are the only important aspects of interpersonal relations.
> However, we do believe that the quantitative aspects which are most
> readily accessible to our observation provide us with important data
> regarding the functioning of the human organization. We are con-
> cerned with discovering what pattern of interaction goes with a
> cooperative relationship in industry. We are examining relations
> between interaction and productivity. We are seeking to discover
> what pattern of interaction provides for the encouragement of the
> development of an expression of ideas for the improvement of the
> organization.[252]

The theories of these writers closely resemble the positions of

humanism as explained by Dahlke.[253]

There are others, however, who claim that the human relations move-

ment, while including the method of the social sciences, is concerned as

well with values. Human relations in administration must be more than

merely science and cannot ignore a thing merely because it cannot be tested

or measured.[254] These men do not limit the human relations movement to a

strictly scientific application of the findings of experimental analysis

to the management of men. Knowles, after explaining the view of the human

relations scientists, says:

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[251]Daniel E. Griffiths, Administrative Theory (New York: Appleton-
Century-Crofts, 1959), p. 41.

[252]William F. Whyte, Money and Motivation (New York: Harper and Bros.,
1955), p. 193.

[253]Dahlke, p. 66.

[254]Knowles, p. 106.

Those in human relations who emphasize ethics in personnel management challenge this point of view. Granting that ethics and morals must be in harmony with scientific fact, they claim that science can never tell us what is morally right or what political philosophy is scientifically correct.[255]

Johnson would also concur in this view of human relations:

Human relations are more than matters of expediency, sound psychology, or profitable business. They are also subject to moral and religious laws which are reflected in the conscience of mankind and which have been confirmed by the experience of men in all ages. If we accept the brotherhood of man under God, important conclusions follow. Each man has an inner dignity, with basic rights and duties. Life has an over-all purpose. Men must judge their conduct, not merely in terms of personal gain or convenience but also as right or wrong. Service to society, as well as to personal interest, becomes important. Teamwork and cooperation follow.[256]

This view of human relation does not threaten the existence of a moral order, as does the more strict view. Science is not an end in itself, but rather a legitimate method of inquiry which has limitations. Thus Leighton says:

[Social science] does not threaten basic human values if by these are meant belief in God, love of one's fellow men, desire for wisdom, and pursuit of truth, but does threaten error, the cultivation of comfortable delusion, the use of moral values as props for selfish advantage.[257]

These men do not, however, violate the principle of the supremacy of science in the theory and philosophy of human relations in administration. Science is even to them the supreme method for investigating that part of man which can be observed, measured, and tested. The social sciences have shown that human beings can indeed be studied under this method. The point of difference in these men is that they recognize that science has its

[255]Ibid., p. 115.

[256]Johnson, p. 523.

[257]Leighton, p. 218.

limitations while the more rigorous view does not. The tension between science and morality in the human relations movement need not be there of necessity, therefore, although it is present in many of the writers.

Democratic Ethic

The practice of human relations in the administrative setting cannot go along before the problem of ethics arises. There has to be some norm of activity, otherwise each administrator would differ considerably from the others in his professional ethics. Such a situation would only lead to chaos. Human relations is, then, concerned with ethics, and the most written about ethical norm is what is known as the democratic ethic. This concept joins the dignity of man and the supremacy of science as a first principle of the human relations movement.

All decision-making involves values, and thus when an administrator decides upon some norm of activity in preference to another, "he applies some standard of values, some judgment of right and wrong, of good and bad."[258] Likewise, personnel management deals not only with the scientific man, but the ethical man as well, so that the issues "involve ethics and moral judgments, as well as scientific analysis."[259] Such a moral task upon leaders of human behavior requires both commitment and performance to some set of values.[260]

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[258]Counts, p. 10.

[259]Knowles, p. 106.

[260]Peter F. Drucker, "Integration of People and Planning," Harvard Business Review, XXXIII (November-December, 1955), p. 40.

It has been shown that to some the only value in human relations is that of the scientific method. These writers would place the criterion of human relations practice on the conformity or non-conformity of the activity to the norm of science. But this is not sufficient for a movement as human as human relations. As Benne and Muntyan say:

> But when the problem involves changing human relationships, the method must include the "scientific method" and something more. For it must be grounded in the disciplines we have already mentioned: the social-psychological understandings, the dynamics of the group process, and the democratic ethic. Only a method of such scope can deal with the problem of changing human relationships, for, inevitably, it must consider not only what "is" and what "can be" but also, what "ought to be."[261]

Expediency has sometimes been proposed as the primary value in administration, especially in business administration. In such a value-orientation, the ultimate determinant of the rightness or wrongness of a thing lies in its usefulness to further the administrative goals with the utmost expediency. This is quite inadequate for those who hold that there is such a thing as an ethics of administration. Williams states:

> One of the greatest threats to ethical administration is the tendency to use expediency rather than reflectively derived principles as a basis for decision-making. Expediency may take the form of compulsive action, deference in the face of vested interests, or promotion of the self. Other forms are possible. It takes only a modest degree of ethical insight to understand, however, that expediency administration is the sure and fast road to moral and educational mediocrity.[262]

By far the majority of the writers in human relations place their value orientation on what is referred to as "democratic ethics." The norm of right and wrong in human relations practice can rightly be said to be

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[261]Kenneth D. Benne and Boyidar Muntyan (eds.) _Human Relations in Curriculum Change_ (New York: Dryden Press, 1951), pp. 14-15.

[262]L.P. Williams, "Leadership in a World of Nihilism, the Ethics of Administration," _Educational Forum_, XXII (March, 1958), 312.

the conformity or non-conformity to the values of a democratic society. Griffiths states: "In order that he [the administrator] exercises the skills and knowledge that he has, he needs to develop a set of values which will enable him to function in a democratic society.[263]

So primary are democratic ethics in the human relations movement that some have equated the whole movement to this practical application of the knowledge of the administrator. Thus to them human relations is the same as democratic administration. Boykin states: "'Human relations' is a way of behaving, of acting toward human beings in terms of the ideals and value patterns of our democratic society."[264]

Likewise Yauch seems to equate democracy with human relations: "Democracy is primarily concerned with human relations; therefore a most important consideration is the principal's dealing with teachers individual and collectively."[265]

But to equate human relations to democratic administration does not take into account the fact that the human relations movement involves a scientific inquiry as well as a practice. It is more true, therefore, to say that the ethics of democracy form the fundamental basis for the practice of human relations but do not determine the scientific inquiry. Democratic ethics are closely involved with the principle of the dignity of the human spirit, the other main principle of the human relations movement. As McLaughlin says:

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[263]Daniel E. Griffiths, "Greater Emphasis on People," Education Digest, XXIV (January, 1959), 28.

[264]Leander L. Boykin, "Let's Get It Straight: What are Human Relations?" The Social Sciences, XLVI (February, 1955), 59.

[265]Wilber A. Yauch, Improving Human Relations in School Administration (New York: Harper and Bros., 1949), pp. 11-12.

Good human relations are involved in any effective working relation-
ships established among groups or individuals. They are precisely
in harmony with the moral and ethical sanctions of democracy, since
they are both fundamentally concerned with the nurture of the human
spirit.[266]

The democratic ethic has been called by some "American idealism,"

the ideals that guided the founding fathers in the establishment of this

country. Thus, Knowles says in speaking of human relations and industry:

"One of the distinctive features of the human-relations approach is its

efforts to relate American idealism to the reality of industrial prac-

tices."[267]

That he means the same thing as democratic ethic from his use of

the term "American idealism" can be seen from the following quote: "The

human-relations approach. . .is one toward harmonizing the personnel policies

of free-enterprise capitalism with democratic ideals and Judeo-Christian

ethics."[268]

From this it is seen that the ethics of democracy flow from the Judeo-

Christian ethical foundation of our culture. Just what this includes is

explained by Counts:

The Hebraic-Christian ethic lays the moral foundations of democracy.
It proclaims, without qualification, the supreme worth and dignity of
the individual human being. Every man is precious simply because he
is a man. Every man is precious also because he is unique, because
he is himself and no other. Here then is the source of all values.
The development of the individual to his full stature is the purpose
and the gauge of human society and relationships.[269]

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[266]Frederick C. McLaughlin, "New Kinds of Statesmanship," Nation's
Schools, LIII (January, 1954), 44.

[267]Knowles, p. 114.

[268]Ibid., p. 107.

[269]Counts, pp. 78-79.

The primary tenet of democratic ethics is the supreme worth of the individual man. As Kahn says, "Man is the measure of all things."[270] Thus it is necessary for the administrator to recognize that the decisions he makes in regard to the school organization should be tempered to the effect that they will have on the individuals involved. If the individual is of supreme worth and dignity, then his wishes should not be ignored in the process of making decisions. As Winsor says:

> Both psychology and effective administrative practice demand recognition of the dignity and worth-whileness of each individual. Not only must the administrator understand human nature, but he also must be aware of the advantages and frustrations that democratic practices impinge on human ambitions. He must be aware of every person's urge to be considered worth-while, to do something worth-while, and to belong to something worth-while.[271]

Because of this sensitivity to the individual inherent in democracy, it has always been one of its principles that all the individuals who are affected by a decision should have a share in its being made.[272] Thus, in the human relations content of decision-making, the democratic ethic demands that it be done in a co-operative way, allowing all to contribute to it in some way or other. As Benne and Muntyan say:

> "Democratic deliberation" puts a high premium upon the full participation of all persons concerned in a given action in determining the purpose and plans which are to guide it. The norms of "democratic ethics," therefore, define the ideal conditions of participation by persons and groups in shaping the controlling policies of a social system.[273]

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[270]Albert S. Kahn, "American Values and Public Schools," The National Elementary Principle, XLII (November, 1962), p. 7.

[271]A.L. Winsor, "Exemplify Democracy at Work," Nation's Schools, LIII (January, 1954), p. 46.

[272]Yauch, p. 16.

[273]Benne and Muntyan, p. 294.

The supreme worth of the individual guides the other concepts of

human relations also. It naturally leads to the concept of the brotherhood

of man. An individual who believes sincerely in his own worth would be

contradicting his belief if he did not recognize that others around him

were of worth as well. The ethics of human relations in administration,

then, is grounded in the brotherhood of man as well as the dignity of man.

As Knowles says:

> An ethical approach to the nature of man leads to the conclusion
> that human relations should be based upon the concepts of the
> brotherhood of man. . .The ethical basis for human relations flatly
> denounces rugged individualism as immoral. The doctrine of the
> survival of the fittest, as applied to industry and business, is
> contrary, it is said, to man's nature. Any individual whose be-
> havior is governed by the concept of the economic man pursuing
> selfish interests is immoral. Personal gain must be modified by
> consideration of what is ethically right and wrong. Lack of con-
> cern for the rights of others, for the public interest, and for
> the general welfare is immoral. Competition and free enterprise
> are no longer adequate in promoting the public welfare and pro-
> tecting individual rights and dignity.[274]

The principles of the dignity and brotherhood of man lead to a fur-

ther principle in democratic ethics. And that is what has most frequently

been called the Golden Rule, or good will. As Wynn says: "The following

accounts illustrate the simple truth that good human relations are applied

good will. The humanistic spirit, lucidly expressed in the Golden Rule,

thus becomes the basic test of human relations in school administration as

in life itself."[275]

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[274]Knowles, p. 109.

[275]Richard Wynn, "The Application of Good Human Relations," Nation's
Schools, LIII (January, 1954), p. 54.

Good will as an ethical norm demands that any sort of secrecy or trickery in the activity of the administrator is immoral. The administrator who wishes to live by the findings and practice of human relations must practice good will at all times. For such practice can be said to be the foundation of human relations. As Griffiths states: "We say that good human relations in administration are built upon a firm foundation of mutual respect, good will, and faith in the dignity and worth of human beings as individual personalities."[276]

This practice of good will demands that men be treated as ends in themselves in the sense that they cannot be detrimentally manipulated for the accomplishment of some other end. Men cannot be "used," therefore, even if this would result in the success of some organization financially or otherwise. According to Williams, this is close to the ethical philosophy of Kant:

> The essential idea in Kant's conception of the categorical imperative
> is this: all of us should act in such a way that we would be willing
> for our actions to become the standard behavior for all. The essential idea in the practical imperative is this: all men should be
> treated as ends in themselves, and no man should be used as a means
> to another's end.[277]

It has been shown that, although some would equate the whole of human relations to this applied good will or the use of the Golden Rule, this is not adequate to explain in what human relations consists.[278] To use the Golden Rule is not sufficient unless it is joined to the knowledge of human behavior in organization and the administrative process which has been gained by human relations inquiry. As Whyte says:

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[276]Griffiths, _Human Relations in School Administration_, p. 17.

[277]Williams, p. 313.

[278]Cf. Chapter I, p. 5.

We must distinguish between an ethics of behavior and a knowledge of organization. We are not saying that in the world of today, the Golden Rule is an impractical maxim. Many people find in it an essential foundation for their approach to human relations. Certainly we can agree that the person who lacks an interest in other human beings is unlikely to build good human relations in his organization. But an attitude is no more than a beginning. There are many nice guys who are making a botch of human relations in industry today. This is no field for the man with a warm heart and a soft head. Building sound human relations in the complex industrial organizations of today is a task that taxes our intelligence to the utmost. Besides good will, the man of action needs a systematic way of thinking about problems of human organization.[279]

The Golden Rule as a part of the human relations ethic is not, then, a vague and idealistic sacred norm far removed from the practicum of administration. Rather it is closely connected with the scientific knowledge of the administrator and the concrete application of this knowledge. As Ogden and Stopps say, the Golden Rule is inoperative except when expressed "by written documents and exemplary living."[280]

The morality of human relations practice, therefore, lies in the observance of the values of the democratic ethic. Just where these values have originated from in the democratic ethic is seldom discussed by the writers in human relations in administration. Some do however, speak of the origin of values. Counts says that the values in the democratic ethic arise from the Hebraic-Christian philosophy.[281] Others seem to take a more naturalistic view of the origin of values, as if they evolved simply from

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[279]Whyte, p. 251.

[280]Lowell Ogden and Emery Stopps, "Staff Morale: What It Is, How Do We Get It?" Educational Administration and Supervision, XLIII (December, 1957), p. 488.

[281]Counts, p. 12.

man's biological or social experiences. Newsome and Gentry state: "In the interest of clarity, "values" can be defined as biologically determined and culturally engendered predispositions to thought and action."[282]

In the same vein, Stroud has this to say of the origin of ethical standards:

> We may suppose that ethical standards have evolved from man's social experiences. A naturalistic approach to human nature demands that this position be taken. So does the fact that moral values are relative to the culture in which people live, and the fact that they are dictated by the exigencies of life.[283]

The principle of democratic ethics in the human relations content of educational administration joins the other two main principles of human relations philosophy in being very similar to the humanist value-orientation as proposed by Dahlke.[284] The complete text of this summary of the humanistic philosophy by Dahlke is thus:

V. The Humanistic Value Orientation.
    A. Ultimate ends: knowledge, creativity, experimentation, man as the measure of things, the intelligent ordering of life as based upon knowledge.
    B. Character structure and life organization:
        1. The scientist-citizen, the man of freed intelligence.
        2. Virtues: Scientific habits of thought, suspended judgment, analyzing, criticizing, investigating or exploring, seeing both sides of the question, impartiality and objectivity, tolerance and sympathy.
        3. Mental balance, willingness to accept and evaluate change, sense of responsibility to self and others, sensitivity to others.
    C. Person: persons as ends, not tools; creative personalities.
    D. Competition: destructive of human nature and social living.

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[282]George L. Newsome, Jr., and Harold W. Gentry, "Values and Educational Decisions," The National Elementary Principal, XLII (November, 1962), p. 29.

[283]James B. Stroud, Psychology of Education (New York: Longmans-Green and Co., 1956), pp. 76-77.

[284]Dahlke, p. 66.

E. Cooperation: living as an essentially cooperative venture, sharing and exploring with others.
F. Wealth and property: as a means for personal and community development; no inherent worth in wealth and property; things needed as instruments for action and the aesthetic life.
G. Social change, intellectual inquiry, and creativity:
   1. Experimentalism as a fundamental way; no limits to inquiry, no blocks to creativity.
   2. Living as an exploration for and in support of intellectual, social, and aesthetic values.
   3. Ordering cultural living in terms of the findings of the sciences.
H. War: a denial of man's human nature and of cultural living; war as cultural suicide.[285]

Summary

The basic philosophical principles of the human relations content of educational administration have been shown from the writings of the authors in this field. It was found that the philosophy of human relations is based on three fundamental principles. These are: (1) the dignity of man; (2) the supremacy of science; and (3) the democratic ethic. No attempt was made to evaluate this philosophy or subject it to an analysis to discover the relation or tension of one principle to the other. It was found that the philosophy of human relations resembled humanistic philosophy more than any other. The findings concerning the philosophy of human relations in administration can be summarized as follows:

I. The Dignity of Man
   A. Man is of supreme worth and dignity.
   B. Human Values are Supreme
   C. Man is a social being
II. The Supremacy of Science
   A. The scientific method is the supreme source of knowledge.
   B. The virtue of scientific method is creativity.
   C. Man is looked at quantitatively.

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[285]Ibid.

III. The Democratic Ethic
    A. Human relations is an ethic as well as science.
    B. The democratic ethic is the ethic of human relations.
    C. The brotherhood of man is included in the human relations ethic.
    D. The Golden Rule is part of the human relations ethic.

This chapter has shown that the human relations content of educational administration is based on three philosophical principles: the dignity of man, the supremacy of science, and the democratic ethic. It has likewise been pointed out that these principles closely resemble some basic tenets of a philosophy of humanism. No attempt has been made to find out how these principles stand up in the light of Christian philosophy.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to reveal from the literature on human
relations in educational administration between 1945 and 1965 the basic
philosophical basis of this movement. Since the content of human relations
in educational administration has been largely derived from the fields of
business and public administration, it was necessary to examine pertinent
writings in these fields as well.[286] The study was divided into three main
sections: (1) the definition of human relations; (2) the content of human
relations; and (3) the philosophy of human relations.

In the first chapter, it was shown that human relations as applied
to educational administration consists in a threefold reality. It is first
of all an attitude that people are important and a recognition of the in-
trinsic dignity of the individual. It is secondly an inquiry into the
behavior of individuals in the educational organization. The method of this
inquiry into the behavior of individuals is that of the scientific method
as it is applied to the social and behavioral sciences. Thirdly, human re-
lations is a practice of using the knowledge gained from the inquiry to

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[286]David C. Cheung, "The Emergence of Human Relations Content in the
Literature of Educational Administration," (unpublished Master's dissertation,
School of Education, University of Kansas, 1963), p. 116.

further the process of administration. In this aspect, the administrator

uses the skills of human relations to influence the behavior of the people

in the organization. It was pointed out that often only one of these three

aspects of human relations has been taken into account by those who are

seeking to understand it. But in order to arrive at a full understanding

of the human relations content of educational administration, all three

aspects must be reckoned with.

In the second chapter, the content of human relations as it especially

applies to educational administration was examined. Use of the findings of

other such fields as psychology, anthropology, semantics, and sociology were

included in this exposition. The content of human relations was divided into

six topics. These six topics are: (1) motivation; (2) communication;

(3) power; (4) authority; (5) decision-making; and (6) leadership. These

topics were defined and examined in the light of recent research in human re-

lations. It was pointed out how a knowledge of each content would be of

value to the educational administrator.

In the third chapter, the basic philosophical tenets of human relations

in administration were revealed. It was found that there are three basic

principles of the human relations movement: (1) the dignity of man; (2) the

supremacy of science; and (3) the democratic ethic. The dignity of man is the

most basic tenet of human relations. It includes the concepts of the supreme

worth and dignity of the individual personality, the supremacy of human over

material or economic values, and the social nature of man. The supremacy of

science includes such concepts as the supremacy of the scientific method in the

investigation of observable and quantitative human behavior and the essential

creativeness of man. The democratic ethic includes such concepts as the ideal

of the American dream, the Hebraic-Christian ethic, the brotherhood of man,
and the practice of the Golden Rule. All of these principles were shown to
correspond to the value-orientation of a humanistic philosophy. Thus it can
be said that human relations in educational administration is essentially
based on a philosophy of humanism.

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129

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135

136

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