PART I

THEORETICAL FORMULATIONS

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

We live in a world of organizations — large, small, formal, informal, primary, secondary, economic, political, social, educational, and others. The modern organizations have been greatly instrumental in bringing in the era of technological advancement, revolutionizing all forms of social life and modes of thinking, overhauling and renovating our economic, educational and military systems.

Yet, paradoxically enough, thinkers from Karl Marx to the behavioral scientists, have looked upon organizations as villains in our search for psychological, social, and ecological well-being. Behavioral scientists' attacks on organizations, as we shall see later in this study, have been largely concentrated upon their "allegedly inhuman, mindless exercise of authority over persons"¹ who depend upon them for their existence.

Authority is power legalized; power is the capacity to compel others to accept one's will. But the lust for power is insatiable, even in the best of men. Hobbes interprets human

psychology as a scramble for power. That there are dangers in the use of power — whether moral or physical, legal or extralegal — is quite evident. Moreover, Acton’s pronouncement on the corrupting nature of power warns of "heresy". Broadly speaking, power is like a magic chair; whosoever holds it, becomes corrupt as he tends to look upon the abuses of power as virtues.

Power is countered by power; as every action stimulates reaction. We discover, therefore, that in all organizations there are structures of power. A manager’s efforts to determine and control the organization’s processes and outcome do not always turn out to be effective. Whether a manager defaults or whether he succeeds in directing organizational activities towards desirable ends depends, in a large measure, on his understanding of the organizational behavior and all its complexities. The extent to which organizations serve human purposes depends on the actions and assumptions of those who manage the organization.

Successful management involves getting work done through people. But no matter how perfect their plans, organizations, and control, no system can ensure success to the managers in accomplishing as much as they could if people do not want to

do the work entrusted to them and if they do not approach their tasks with interest and enthusiasm.

This leads to the problem of motivating the organization man. To motivate is to energize, inspire, encourage, activate, or move and impel people to devote fully and freely their mental and physical energy in order to achieve their goals.

Keeping this in view, researches and experiments have been carried out to explain people's organizational behaviour in terms of political science, economics, sociology, social and industrial psychology, anthropology, history, law, mathematics, biology, scientific management and human relations. Thus, literature on organizational behaviour includes theories like the group theory, information theory, communication theory, quasi-mathematical approach, motivational approach and the like. The problem of motivating the "Organization Man" has, thus, become the focus of several disciplines.

Since Library Science has also internationally blossomed into a full-fledged discipline, the importance of motivating the library personnel as a subject for study and control by the librarian can hardly be over-exaggerated. In fact, the increase in the variety, number and complexity of functions to be performed by the university librarians has brought to surface the need for

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motivation. The working of most of the university libraries in India, as we shall see in the chapter to follow, makes it clear that a serious imbalance exists between aspirations and performance of the library staff, between the educational needs to be met and the adequacy of the administrative machinery to carry them out. This imbalance seriously affects the efficiency of the library personnel. To meet even a part of his growing responsibilities, the librarian must develop in himself the administrative and motivating capacities to balance and co-ordinate work-effort to implement the library's programme of social progress. But what type of an organizational structure will prove conducive to the effective utilization of the manpower in an organized manner to deliver services to fulfill the programme objectives continues to haunt the mind of librarians.

Before we could frame the blue prints of an organization which may help the librarians in adjusting the "work-force to the work-environment and the work-environment to the work-force"5 to obtain maximum turn-out of work and efficiency, we must know the aims/objectives of the university education. The study of such aims will highlight the role which the university library and its staff are desired to play in helping the university to engage itself earnestly and vigorously in its intellectual pursuit, which is to assemble, preserve, transmit and illuminate knowledge

or wisdom of the past. The need for motivating the library personnel flows from such an understanding.

Teaching, research and extension services are the three major aims of a modern university. But after independence Indian Universities set before themselves the goal of strengthening the socialistic pattern of society as well.

For most European academicians, however, the transmission and diffusion of knowledge through the art of teaching — and not so much its advancement — is the time-honoured and most lasting of all the missions of the university. It was argued why a university should have students if its object were scientific and philosophical discovery? To these academicians, the university is a place exclusively for the dissemination of learning. Its principal object is to deepen man's understanding of the universe and of himself — in body, mind and spirit. The university is to be a dwelling place of ideas and idealism, and expects high standards of conduct and integrity from all its members. The end which university education seeks, then, is the creation and training of an intellect — an intellect that will be "properly

disciplined and properly habituated to reason well in all matters, to search for truth, and to grasp it. It is through the cultivation of intellectual excellence that the "philosopher kings", the superior men, the thinking people and the good citizens are to be produced.

In the light of this concept it can be concluded that the road to quality and therefore to progress lies through the cultivation of the intellectual virtues. It is not the mere acquisition of knowledge that matters. It is rather whetting of intellectual curiosity, the ability to rigorously evaluate the value of evidence objectively, to determine relativities that actually is important. This philosophy of education coloured by the tenets of the Graeco-Roman civilization is still the ideal for many European scholars and transcends all other objectives for it gives to the university a role of superiority and significance.

Consequent upon the onslaughts of scientific and industrial revolution during the 19th century, the search for exploring the horizons of knowledge became the dominant theme. Teaching was overshadowed by research and it was the advancement of knowledge that became predominant. A diametrically opposite argument was

advanced that there could perfectly well be a university which instead of teaching, replenished its ranks by the choice of scholars who had been taught elsewhere, devoting itself entirely and exclusively to the pursuit of knowledge.¹⁰

Neither of the above view could be accepted in toto. In a science-based world, teaching and research are crucial to the entire development process of a country, its welfare and progress. A purely teaching university, still less a purely research institute, is, therefore, not really a university.¹¹ The primary aim of the university is to spread higher learning and provide both the foundations and the technical knowledge for the learned professions. Since the propagation of true learning is impossible without original investigations, an equally important function of universities has been to conduct research. Therefore, the twin functions of teaching and research are widely acclaimed as the hall-marks of the true university. They are often combined and blend with each other so thoroughly that they are described as forming one single aim which can be looked at from two angles.

Whereas the missions of a European University are normally summed up as "teaching and research", the normal parallel summary

¹⁰ Bruce Truscot, Red brusk university (London: Faber and Faber, 1945), 49.
¹¹ Charles Grant Robertson, British universities (London: Methuen, 1944), p.45.
of the missions of a U.S. university is usually put up as teaching, research and extension services and the difference is significantly real.

The university of today is no longer a self-contained, self-sufficient and an isolated world; it has a central role to play in the drama of higher education in the world at large. It must conserve and enrich knowledge for the use and benefit of not only the little world of philosophers, divines, or scientists, but also for the use and benefit of the common man. It means that the programmes and progress of university must be related to social, economic, political and psychological realities. So far the universities have performed this role perfunctorily and the way they have sought to follow them has too often become worn-out and irrelevant. This may be due either to apathy or failure to recognize the importance of this role in the traditional belief that scholarship, pursuit of dispassionate truth and excellence in all its diversity thrive only in isolation from the clamour of multitudes. But today, the universities represent a massive investment on the part of the government and, consequently, are expected to yield a vitally important return in trained and educated man-power; they have to justify their

advances in learning, knowledge and research in proportion to the cost involved. Nonetheless, when a university considers services as ends in themselves, it has lost its way and "is prostituting its social mission". It has to maintain "an ambivalent position, balancing itself carefully between commitment and detachment — commitment in action, detachment in thought." It must always be in a constant state of creative tension knowing "where to interpret, where to criticise, where to pioneer and where to support traditional values."  

Teaching, research and extension services — the three hall-marks of a modern university — are the three watch-words of the Indian educational system as well. But keeping in view the changing socio-economic and political conditions in our country, a fourth mission — that of creating an ideal democratic society within the Indian polity — seems to have assumed a greater significance than ever.

We are passing through an age of paradoxes. While the Constitution proclaims India to be a Sovereign, Socialist, Secular, Democratic Republic, its working has not been so, as undemocratic and authoritarian trends have not yet attenuated.

This point needs further elaboration for bringing to light the type of university education needed for the strengthening of democratic society within the Indian polity and the responsibilities which it places on the libraries and their staffs. Further the library personnel form an integral part of the mantle of the existing society and cannot be studied in isolation from it. In order to justify the line of thought projected in this study, the investigator thinks it essential to emphasize the psychology of the Indian mind as it is reflected in the working of the university libraries.

The working of the Indian Constitution reveals authoritarian trends. Political education has not preceded universal franchise, thus resulting in total absence of any comprehension of democratic concepts. Indian thinkers like M.N. Roy apprehended the growth of totalitarianism in the Indian Constitution, in which he found the worst features of "American Federalism and French Centralism." Particularly, the procedure of electing the President and his unlimited powers are the dangerous spots. Roy feared that President of the Indian Republic would function more as the spokesman of the ruling party than the custodian of the public

interests. The role of the President in installing Central rule in various states consequent upon the failure of constitutional machinery, partly justifies such doubts. The emergency powers delegated to the Union President may enable an ambitious incumbent of office to emerge as a grand Mughal Emperor amidst a multi-party system in the centre. Such powers give wide range of authority to the government to function in an arbitrary manner as happened during the 'Emergency' — the darkest period in the history of modern India.

The incorporation of the 24th, 25th, 29th, 39th and 42nd amendments in the Indian Constitution slaughtered democracy.

There would be no equality before law, with the exclusion of Art.14 which prevents victimization, and this would make possible open favours to members of the ruling party. The exclusion of Art.19(1) would leave the citizens no freedom of speech. Criticism of government's economic policy would land a person in prison and he could no more protect his personal liberty under Art.21 on the ground that there is no procedure established by law.

All the totalitarian attributes are embodied in black and white in Art.31(C) by which the right to dissent would disappear and the operation of free press could be shackled if it criticized the government. Not only that but also the

17. Ibid.
censorship guidelines issued on June 26, 1976 warned the press against any attempt at denigrating the institution of the Prime Minister. Such an immunity from criticism would be beyond the widest dream of an American President even in the black days of war.

Art. 329(A) inserted through the 39th amendment, took away the jurisdiction of the High Courts and the Supreme Court to entertain much less try, petitions challenging the election of the Prime Minister and the Speaker of the Lok Sabha (House of the People). In no democratic country is such a favour shown to the Prime Minister. The climax was reached in the 42nd amendment to the constitution which made the advice of the Council of Ministers binding on the President of India but imposed no check on the Prime Minister.

The real dangers in the realm of civil liberties again come from the two children of the 42nd amendment — MISA (Maintenance of Internal Security Act) and DIR (Defence of India Rules) — which empower certain government officials to detain any one any time without assigning any reason. These Draconian pieces of legislation could be unscrupulously used to gag the voice in opposition, or even to victimize the innocent citizens.
The constitution proclaims India to be a Secular State. But our people profess different religions and the picture becomes more complicated because of caste — a psycho-philosophical and sociological phenomenon ingrained in the Indian blood. What the Church is to a Christian, the caste has been to a Hindu. A caste-ridden society is a closed society and a standing menace to secular ideals. Moreover, the authoritarian taboos of caste destroy individual liberty, making a farce of adult suffrage. Caste has quite an influence (official and non-official) "on admissions, appointments and promotions in the Indian universities, more so in the south than in the north."18 One sure way to modernize quickly is to spread education, produce educated and competent citizens.

As education is not rooted in the traditions of the people, the educated elite — the product of British education — tend to be alienated from their own culture. The widening gulf between the rich and the poor, the privileged and the unprivileged, the urban and the rural, the educated and the uneducated, are dangerous symptoms of social disintegration. Recent years have presented a disheartening picture. The threat arises from the fact that India has skipped over centuries. The revolution of expectation has overtaken India before she could acquire the technology of satisfying the people's demands. A backlog of

frustrated demands can be fatal to any form of government, but
more so to democracy because it opens the door to its exact
anti-thesis — authoritarianism. Revolution leaves behind
both a uniting tradition and a memory of successful revolts.
Students participated more heavily than probably any other group
in the Indian struggle for freedom. Theirs were the highest
aspirations — theirs also the deepest disappointments — and
theirs also the strongest and most emotive reactions. Education,
youth and unemployment produce explosive mixtures. The chances
are that in India, if dictatorship comes, it will be of the
left. Left radicalism appeals more to the science-worshipping
youth. To defend the status quo is not heroic, especially when
the evils like unemployment, poverty, crime, waste, inequality,
communal tensions, disregard for public property, increasing
lawlessness and corruption in public life exist all around. The
university education should aim at ushering in a moral metamor-
phosis of the Indian society.

In India, resistance to authority has become a tradition
and a constitutional right. One may find it parallel in the
western political thought in which philosophers like Locke,\textsuperscript{19}
Mill\textsuperscript{20} and Green\textsuperscript{21} emerged as the advocates of resistance. At a

\begin{itemize}
\item[19.] John Locke, \textit{Two treatises of government}, ed. by Peter
Laslett (Cambridge University, 1952), Chapt. IV.
\item[20.] J.S. Mill, \textit{On Liberty} — (London: Oxford University,
1952), Chapt. IV.
\item[21.] Thomas Hill Green, \textit{Lectures on the political obligations}
\end{itemize}
particular stage of political evolution, resistance becomes inevitable. The great Charters of Liberty like the Magna Charta and the Declaration of the Rights of Man recognize the right to resist the state under certain conditions. Resistance grows into tradition, the tradition of the dignity of man, and of his unbreakable spirit. It is basically a revolutionary doctrine of continuous resistance — of permanent revolution.

However, in India the technique of Civil resistance / Satyagraha has become the mystique of the politicians. The moral weapon forged by M.K. Gandhi to achieve a noble mission has descended to the level of pressure tactics adopted by men who do not possess the moral earnestness of Gandhi and are not inspired by great public causes. The breach of law has become an end in itself and obedience to law is replaced by its converse — namely, the disobedience to law is good in itself. In the course of a non-violent revolution, the habit of disobedience acquires respectability and the law-abiding citizens become a laughing stock of society. There is a mounting belief that any organized intimidation or sustained hunger strike compels the government to concede demands. The association of Gandhi's name with these movements has lent them legitimacy. As a result, the normal channels of public opinion are not allowed to work. As a technique, Satyagraha is not very different from other methods of intimidation. It has the same effects of exercising veto on free functioning of the public mind, not by appeal to reason but to the emotion — posing authoritarian threat.
Education can play a vital role in inculcating in the minds of public that democracy would lose much of its significance if, in the name of Satyagraha, every one were to take it as his unfettered right to incite the masses to resist the law of the land in a concerted manner.

Conformism and manipulation are the major evils of the Indian public opinion. A note of dissent is hardly relished on internal and external issues. Free and frank discussion is seldom encouraged exposing the nation to a monolithic state.

Then, the leader is considered infallible. The presence of charismatic leadership indicates the authoritarian tendency in Indian society. Charisma may be held responsible for arresting the growth of a healthy democratic tradition.

Again, India is facing a dilemma; it is committed to democratic institutions, national unity and economic development. This tends to lead to the development of a kind of unprincipled authoritarianism where the ideals of a democratic pluralistic society are chanted aloud but where, in reality, Government is centralized, decisions are made by relatively few, and responsibility — except in the sense of the kind of self-imposed responsibility — is weak and remote. Consequently, the process of building strength through economic development contains some built-in authoritarianism. The tensions arising from the pursuit of democracy and compulsions of backward economy are real and are not likely to be lessened for some decades. Overdevelopment of
politics in an underdeveloped economy exposes India to the spectre of authoritarianism.

The picture does not emerge any brighter when we peep into family life. The Indian family develops the acute sense of dependence by its extreme emphasis on subjugation to parental authority; its minimizing of opportunities for personal initiative in socially significant fields of action; and its inculcation of a clear sense of subordination to social and religious sanctions which transcend even parental authority. The prospect is equally bleak when a boy/girl joins educational institutions where, again, he/she meekly allows his/her personality to be eclipsed by the teacher's.

In short, though India proclaims itself to be a democratic state, yet her constitution, her religion, her society, her institutions have all been built on the cornerstone of authoritarianism. Democracy in India is more akin to the democracy of the Reich than the democracy of the Great Britain and the U.S.A. A child nurtured under such a system of socialization is bound to have a stunted mental growth and dwarfed personality which may well affect his performance in the organization he comes to join. Such an individual would in all probability lack initiative and self-assurance to take independent decisions so much so that he would readily become a lamb to his boss, and a lion to his subordinates demanding complete submission.
Man's perversity seems to be the possible cause of this politico-socio-economic crisis haunting India like a nightmare and possible seeds of remedy should be sown in his mind. If democracy is to be made the part and parcel of our bones, flesh and blood through a non-violent revolution, there is only one instrument and one agency which can play a vital and helpful role: it is university education but more so its heart — the library by which a society is held together and a culture is created and maintained.

University education is increasingly seen as an investment for economic growth, as a means to improve human values, and to create integrated, modernized and egalitarian democratic society. In this light, it can be concluded that the most formidable task facing the university in India is to undertake research in as many branches of knowledge as possible, and to produce an army of trained research workers committed to national service and development, who, by their studies, will not only set high standards of intellectual life in scholarship and scientific research, but will also actively advance the morale and material progress of the country.

No university can, however, develop or set high standards of intellectual life in scholarship and scientific research without having at its centre a well-stocked, well-staffed and up-to-date library.
If the Indian polity is to remain free from the shadow of authoritarianism, it requires thinking people, cultivated men and women gifted with disciplined minds, high intellect and moral calibre, nurtured in a climate of freedom of thought and expression, and capable of holding opinions independently arrived at, to shoulder stupendous responsibilities. This remarkable function of training the mind and spirit of men enabling him to work for the social, cultural, moral, spiritual and material advancement of society is the be all and end all of library academic pursuits. Faculty members and students as an integral part of these scholarly pursuits should have both the freedom and the opportunity to engage themselves in the evaluation of society through individual thought and persuasion.

Needless to say that library is a "sanctuary" of independent thinking — the one surviving hope of intellectual freedom as also a means of securing and safeguarding it. Of course, the freedom of enquiry and expression derives not only from library services; the library being only one among institutions that embrace this principle. Nonetheless, it is in a most strategic position, because the books, as contrasted with mass media, are "the private forum of the mind." Whatever else may happen there can be "no final abridgement of intellectual

freedom"\textsuperscript{23} so long as individuals, privately and voluntarily, can choose their readings from libraries to seek and grasp the truth in the way they like best. It is essential to encourage dissent which is so vital a factor for a healthy intellectual environment. In fact, the growth and development of knowledge and achievement in action are the products of "both conflict and co-operation, both a struggle among beliefs and a sharing of beliefs"\textsuperscript{24}. These are the terms on which those within the democratic society have lived and worked effectively in the past; these are the only terms which will ensure the safety and vitality of the democratic society in the future.\textsuperscript{25} The library, is, then, a forum for mutual understanding, for mutual cohesion, for mutual co-operation, and for mutual tolerance and peaceful co-existence — not as a homogenizing institution but as a unifying, living, and dynamically growing force.

The implications of operating the library at teaching, research, extension and democratic levels are reflected in the library's dedication to the selection, organization, preservation, socialization, and making available for use to each according to his needs the records of human experience and by this method to help in the transmission and dissemination of information and essential knowledge of earlier generations to

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\item[25.] Ibid.
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the later ones; and by this technique
to help in the cumulation and further building up
of continuum of knowledge.

The library also provides facilities for exhibitions,
display work and organizes group discussions and lectures as a
part of its extension services. Maintaining a university
library is, therefore, worthy of consideration by all those who
value learning. Because of its organic relationship with the
university, the library is hailed as the "heart" of all
university's work; directly so, as regards its research work and
indirectly as regards its teaching work, which derives its life
from research work. Scientific research needs a library as well
as its laboratories, while for humanistic research the library
is both library and laboratory in one.

True that as an integral part of research, the library

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26. S.R. Ranganathan, Reference service (Bombay; Asia, 1961),
p.171.
27. Ibid.
28. India, University Education Commission, Dec., 1948 —
nerve centre of the university community and the very nucleus of the idea of education. Without such a staff, the most luxurious building or extensive book collection may have little to recommend. In fact, the very efficiency, service, and the ultimate success of the library as an agency for diffusion of knowledge depends upon its staff.

The teacher can be the prime motivator to student learning, yet the library staff is in a most unique position to contribute to such motivation. The central role of the library staff is to help students learn when they are away from their teachers by providing a learning environment. The underlying idea is to establish conditions conducive to developing creative enquiry.

The role of the library staff has acquired greater significance and new dimensions because of the virtual 'information explosion' resulting from astounding and unprecedented proliferation of literature in science and technology, the dissemination of natural and classical literature, and the flowering of literary criticism opening the floodgates of knowledge and making the scholar, the researcher, the scientist and the technologist dependent upon library service.

Moreover, research today is no longer a matter of an individual researcher, seeking out some new principle, and discovering it largely by chance. It is rather a matter of team research in organized settings and in large scale programmes
requiring the concerted attacks of many minds, with varying skills, aptitudes, experiences and points of view. As a result, there are more scientists and researchers today to demand information. They demand it at a faster rate; they demand wider cross discipline and cross speciality coverage. And it is the sacred duty of the library staff to disseminate "Right information to the Right man, in the Right amount, at the Right time and in the Right form."29

Then, the book, these days, is no longer the primary vehicle for the communication of nascent micro ideas and exchange of experience, as well as the transmission of current information. The nascent micro thought is now usually embedded within the bosoms of conference reports, digests, indexing and abstracting periodicals, trend or review journals, house organs, pre-prints, re-prints, document bibliographies, research correspondence (published or unpublished), theses, dissertations, archives, monographs, bulletins, specifications, standards and research reports. A researcher or a scientist or a teacher is scarcely able to cope with a mighty flow of literature unaided by the library personnel, who keep themselves abreast of the torrential downpour of micro-documents published in any form and in any part of the world by studying the needs of their clientele as

intimately as possible. The staff acts as a catalyst to transmit the ideas, facts and feelings "from the mind and soul of the author to the mind and soul of the reader," who, in turn, generate new ideas. The library staff, thus, helps in the contemporary development of knowledge and conserves the research time of humanity by the separation of literature search from positive research. To emphasize this archaic concept of library service, the term documentation has been used.

The university librarian and his professional staff in India occupy a position of all greater importance for the creation of an ideal democratic society within the Indian polity, in word as well as in spirit. By throwing open the mine of recorded knowledge for effective use, critical evaluation and exploration, they encourage individuality, variety and dissent within a climate of tolerance — the anti-thesis of authoritarianism.

Furthermore, through the diffusion of education, the university librarian and his staff strive to enhance equality and social justice, to promote intellectual freedom and advancement of knowledge, to generate in the young generation a sense

of purposefulness and maximum dedication, confidence in themselves and faith in the country's future.

They also make a unique contribution in introducing the students to the patterns of academic life and help the students to develop for themselves an overall ethical and spiritual orientation, competence in social situations, and a sense of identity, of autonomy, and of personal integrity. In this and other ways the library personnel directly and indirectly contribute in creating an egalitarian society with equal economic justice and opportunity for all, a society organized on a planned basis for raising mankind to higher material and cultural levels, a cultivation of spiritual values, co-operation, un-selfishness, the spirit of service, the desire to do the right and extend goodwill and love with no caprice, no prejudice and no discrimination.

In fact, the librarian and his professional staff serve a society in flux poised between annihilation and utopia, torn asunder by great social movements and tremendous political changes, and confused by a babble of conflicting traditions. Such a society needs, as never before, effective assess to the wisdom of past for its very survival and its provision is the

librarian's religious duty. Therefore, it is probably a pretty dull and lifeless institution that does not have a generous mixture of the three ingredients — the faculty members, the research scholars and the librarians. None of them is more important than the other; for the omission of anyone would alter the very character of the university educational programme.
Chap. II

The Problem Contd.

Scene at Home: The Gap between Theory and Practice

Surprisingly, in India, little cognizance has been taken of the role which the university librarian and his staff play in disseminating knowledge for making the Indian polity safe for democracy and rendering help in cultivating intellectual excellence. Paradoxically, both apathy and resistance spring from the great body of educators and scholars. Academic attitudes, range from lack of interest to prejudice, and even bitter hostility to the growth and development of the libraries. To know the reason for this innate conservatism and stubbornness on the part of the academic world as well as the library authorities and to comprehend fully the problem of motivating the library personnel, a brief attempt is made to place the university library and the role and status of its staff in historical perspective and see it as the modern librarian would like to do. No doubt, the practising librarian is more concerned with the emerging patterns of university librarianship, but historical traditions and experience "create values, culturally defined norms, and modes of behaviour that survive even when the original conditions that gave rise to them fade into past."¹

Education is no exotic in India. She has been the cradle of one of the earliest and brilliant civilizations. The greatest and wisest of her monarchs found in the promotion of learning their noblest and most beneficent achievements and saw in the foundation of the university the most enduring memorials of their thrones. There is, in fact, "no country where the love of learning had so early an origin or has exercised so lasting an influence. From the simple poet of the Vedic age to the Bengali philosopher of the present day, there has been an uninterrupted succession of teachers and scholars."  

The well-equipped libraries with vast, choicest collections of manuscripts and other materials of ancient wisdom attached to the internationally-renowned Indian universities like Takshasila, Nalanda, Vikramasila, Valabhai, Banaras and Kanchi in ancient India were solely organized and functioned with a view to advancing the traditional, philosophical, ecclesiastical and classical education for its own sake. They were the handmaidens of scholarship, and during the centuries when learning was so individualistic, they were almost the sole recourse of philosophers and scholars.  

The libraries in the Medieval and Mughal India were created of, by, and for the elite. This close association of the library  

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with the elite soon brought to it a prestigious status, and it is not surprising that the patronage or possession of library became a symbol of aristocracy in the Mughal period. Nonetheless, the benefits of these libraries were confined to royalty and nobility; the poor had no access to knowledge.\(^3\)

The modern universities in India, however, began as institutional transplants from the Great Britain, on the pattern of the London University as it then was. Sir Charles Wood's Education Despatch of the 19th July, 1854, recommending the establishment of the three universities each in the presidency towns of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras proved to be a cornerstone in the arch of modern university education in India. Because of its historical importance, the Despatch has been hailed as the "Magna Charta of English Education in India."\(^5\) It enunciated in clear terms the missions of the university education as the diffusion of Arts, Science, Philosophy and Literature of Europe.

Yet the praises showered by the admirers of the Despatch are nothing short of exaggeration. The first three Indian universities created in 1857 were not places of accumulation, preservation and dissemination of knowledge, or the cultivation of intellectual excellence. Nor they were corporations of scholars,

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graduates, post-graduate departments, or physical agglomerations containing museums, libraries, and other real estates normally associated with modern idea of a university. These three universities were, in fact, "bureaucratic devices" for testing the value of learning obtained in colleges which did not form an integral part of the universities. Nonetheless, the Despatch set the ball rolling and the capture of citadel was but a question of time.

When two more universities were created, one at Lahore in the Punjab in 1882, and the other at Allahabad in 1887, these universities followed in the footsteps of the three earlier universities by restricting their activities to affiliation and examination, though they were authorized by their constitutions to undertake teaching functions. Post graduate departments and advancement of learning developed only in the 20th century.

In all these universities, at the time of their inception, the libraries were not considered to be of central importance, as they were not seats of teaching, learning and research. The teaching was done in the colleges which did not feel the necessity of having libraries with books other than the meagre stock of text-books. This is well borne out by the comments of the Indian Universities Commission, appointed by Lord Curzon, under the chairmanship of Sir Thomas Raleigh, on 27th Jan. 1902. 6a

In the absence of the university and college libraries the students had no opportunity of forming the habit of independent reading and they took to cramming—a practice which continues till today. Curzon aptly condemned an educational system which encouraged students to the application of purely mnemonic tests, stuffing their brains with the "abracadabra of geometry and physics, algebra and logic."7

It was the Raleigh Commission which attached great importance to the formation of good "reference libraries"8 for both universities and colleges. Yet one is distressed to record that the authorities continued to look upon the libraries as useless accessories even long after the enactment of the Indian Universities Act of 1904, based on the Commission's report.

As regards the pathetic conditions of the university libraries, the Calcutta University Commission appointed in Jan., 1917 in the time of Lord Chelmsford, under the chairmanship of Dr. Michael Sadler, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Leeds, succinctly remarked: "one of the greatest weaknesses of the existing system is the extra-ordinary unimportant part, which is played by the library in it. The libraries were found to be inadequate not only for the needs of the students but also still more for those of teachers. Even the best, that of Presidency College, was very defective."9

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9. India, University Commission (East India), Report of the committee appointed by the Government of India to enquire into the conditions and prospects of the Calcutta University, (London: H.M.S.O., 1919); 5 Vols. V.1, pt.1; p. 407.
If such was the sordid state of affairs in Calcutta, where besides the college libraries, the university library and the Imperial Library were also available, the fate of libraries in other parts of the country can be well-imagined. The Commission, therefore, recommended that "to maintain a library on the amplest possible scale and to make it as useful as it may be to all teachers and serious students, must be the most intellectual function of the university."\(^{10}\)

The publication of the Report gave a great impetus to the advancement of the university education in India resulting in its wake and that of the Act of 1919 in the establishment of 8 new universities\(^{11}\) unitary, teaching and residential in character and opposed to affiliation. These universities had some types of libraries as they were upgraded from the colleges, but the service of these libraries was of no consequence in the general structure of the university.

Of course, with the implementation of the Govt. of India Act, 1935, three more universities\(^{12}\) were created, thus, bringing the total to 20 universities in the pre-independence India, but the library service in these universities was not a shade better.

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10. Ibid.
12. Ibid.
Honestly speaking, there were no libraries worth the name in these universities. The libraries were weighted down with dead and antiquated reference and text-books, astray and unwanted documents purchased without paying any heed to the tastes, interests, needs, demands or standards of the readers. Moreover, these small collections of books were poorly quartered in locked almirahs or even in sealed cup-boards, sometimes left to repose in corners or corridors, mostly neither classified nor catalogued properly nor readily accessible for use.13

The librarians were held responsible for any loss of book and in the Calcutta University, the library staff was required to deposit a security of Rs.1,000/- before appointment. Since the fear of losing books continued to haunt the minds of librarians like a nightmare, suffocating their sleep, many librarians did not loan out books for home study and kept the libraries opened for minimum possible hours. Very few libraries allowed their readers direct access to the collections. Reference service and bibliographical assistance were practically ineffective; documentation services were unknown. The non-book material was conspicuous by its absence. Photo-reproduction facilities were unheard of, and no systematic effort was ever made to publicize the activities of the libraries.

13. Information collected during personal discussions with the university librarians.
The buildings of the university libraries — those which were fortunate to have them — were not functional but rather works of art and beauty. The authorities never bothered to seek any expert advice of the librarian. Even where they did take such an unusual step, they rectified it later by making summary changes on their own, with the most undesirable results. The furniture and equipment adorning the libraries were also of "old and antiquated types." Worse still many libraries were housed in buildings meant for some other purposes. Among the more serious defects of these library buildings were lack of sufficient space for books, or arrangement for seats where readers could consult the books.

If the service of the university libraries was deplorable, the status of the university librarian was no better than that of a watchman of books. The small collections which the libraries had were left to the charge of cleaners, care-takers, and some clerical staff to keep them dusted and accessioned. In fact, the university libraries provided a heavenly abode for university administrators to accommodate good — for nothing persons — a teacher who had miserably failed in his teaching, the official who was notorious for the inefficiency, the fellow who was physically

disabled or mentally abnormal or a deaf or a dumb or both. 16a
Moreover, every Tom, Dick and Harry was considered fit for the
positions in the library.

Hardly did any well-qualified person dream of joining
the library service. A wrong tradition had thus come into vogue
regarding the library staff which was taken to consist of peons,
book-lifters, and at the most a clerk with a literary bent of
mind. The new universities which saw the light of the day after
the deliberations of the Calcutta University Commission were put
into circulation and by virtue of the Acts of 1919 and 1935 were
solely guided by the traditions of colleges in respect of their
libraries. They, therefore, put an honorary librarian — usually
one of the professors — over the library staff. This deprived
the librarians of all initiative and infused in them an attitude
of inferiority complex and the habit of pleasing the professor-in-
charge, who in most cases did not know even the alphabet of
librarianship to win his benedictions. It not only adversely
affected the efficiency and the status of librarians but also had
its inevitable banal effects on the library image, as "cheap
sycophancy" took the place of "true spirit of service." 17

On the whole, the libraries in the pre-independence era
were like a museum and a librarian was a "mouser" in dusty books
closely guarding these treasure-troves like a watchman lest their

16a. S.R. Ranganathan, Vitalizing the education of university
librarians, First seminar of the university librarians in
India, op. cit., p. 137.
17. S.R. Ranganathan, University library then and now, Library
Herald (V.6, nos. 2-3, 1963), p. 66.
loss be made good out of his salary, and the visitors looked with curious eyes at the ancient manuscripts and out-of-date books. Under the circumstances the word library merely implied a collection of books; it did not matter how or where it was housed, or how the books in the collection were arranged or who administered it; nor was much variety sought in the quality of the book-stock. All that the librarian had to do in its wake was to keep watch over the wares in his custody and grudgingly leave the chair in order to let a stray reader have the book he wanted. Instead of inculcating the habits of independent learning and reading, these neo-votaries of the profession curbed them in the budding stage.

From the above it can be concluded that the concept of library as a useless accessory dominated throughout the pre-independence era. As a result, the libraries even in the well-established universities were not properly organized and the status of the librarian was pathetically low.

Little did the university authorities realise that the library's quality is a major contributory factor in determining the quality of education that a university can provide. It is, therefore, not only right and proper but it is indispensable for the right conduct of their ordinary teaching work that the universities should provide great libraries on their campuses

with great scholars to direct them.

August 15, 1947 is a red letter day in the history of India as it marked the dawn of our independence after centuries of subjugation. Once the captains and kings had departed, we launched ourselves on a great adventure of national reconstruction whose principal objective was to raise the standards of living of the people and to create a new social order based on freedom, equality, justice, and dignity of individual. The Sovereign, Socialist, Secular, Democratic Republic which proclaims equality as its ideal requires university education of the type in which learning and social application, ideas and practice, are superbly blended. Unless democracy becomes a part and parcel of the bone and blood of the people in daily life; unless it is buttressed by the presence of democratic methods in all social relationships; and until we practise and infuse it in our educational institutions, it is bound to be destroyed in the larger complex of the state.

Great strides were, therefore, made to understand and to grapple with the complex, difficult but significant problems of higher education — specially university education. But to embark upon a programme of university education without assigning due place to the library in the educational set-up sounded like "staging

Hamlet without the Prince of Denmark. Therefore, along with the reformation of the university education, the library also started marching from the position of a useless accessory to be the heart of the university academic life.

The first great milestone on the road was the appointment of the University Education Commission, in Dec., 1948, consisting of reputed educationalists from India, the United States and the United Kingdom under the chairmanship of S. Radhakrishnan. No doubt, the Commission paid a glowing tribute to the library by hailing it as the "heart of all the university's work." Yet, the modern librarian is constrained to record that the Commission set up as a first step to suggest ways and means of raising up the cultural standards of the country and headed by a man of letters, did not suggest any concrete measure to cleanse the Augean Stable and restore to library and his controller the place they deserve.

The Radhakrishnan commission, however, made a recommendation revolutionary in spirit. This concerned the setting up of an

20. G.D. Bhargava, University libraries and the educational set-up of India, Indian Librarian (V.14, no. 3, 1959), p. 117.
autonomous body to foster the development of university education in the country. This unique recommendation blossomed in 1953, when the University Grants Commission was set up. It was, however, in 1956 that it was infused with statutory life.

The University Grants Commission (U.G.C.) under the guidance of its chairman, C.D. Deshmukh injected new blood into the hitherto paralysed limbs of the university libraries. To him: "the students are the body of the university, the administration is, of course, the head, the teachers are the soul and the library the heart". In pursuance of this full-blooded faith in the role of the library, he appointed a library committee headed by S.R. Ranganathan in 1957 to advise the U.G.C. on various problems connected with the provision of grants to libraries for the purposes of book purchase, development of reading habits and help to students in the use of libraries, documentation work and service to research workers, departmental libraries, library personnel and their functions, classification of positions, qualifications, status, salary scale and strength along with standards for the design of library buildings, fittings and furniture.

After accepting most of the recommendations of the committee, the U.G.C. gave liberal grants to the universities

26. For details see, Ibid., p.9-127.
for uplifting their libraries from their pitiable conditions in which they were before independence. The universities in their turn ear-marked for their libraries a sub-standard share of their resources. This lamentable position was highlighted by the subsequent Education Commission with D.S. Kothari as chairman.

The Kothari Commission touched the heart of librarianship when it stated that with ever-increasing enrolment in universities and colleges, the demand for library service has been mounting. Unlike in the past, the library staff have now to cater to the diverse needs of undergraduates, postgraduates and research scholars. Because of "torrential rain of micro-documents" and with the emergence of research in our universities, the Commission rightly felt the need for conservation of research potential through documentation work and service. It, therefore, recommended the appointment of a team of documentalists in university libraries who can speak the language of research workers and undertake the work of documentation-search, indexing and abstracting.27

Still one is disappointed not to find in the report any recommendation of a revolutionary import with regard to the role of the library. The objective of student-oriented education

so much emphasized by the Commission itself depends upon establishing conditions for developing creative inquiry which is the very spring-board for mental growth. The library is the only effective agency for making a substantial contribution to the provision of individualized enquiry and learning. But because of "an aura of mistaken veneration" and misplaced emphasis, however, library's potential for providing the learning environment was conveniently overlooked by the Commission.

In fact, to recapitulate, all the Commissions — right from that of Sir Thomas Raleigh's, 1902 to Prof. Kothari's through Sir Michel Sadler's, 1917 and Sarvpalli Radhakrishnan's — have treated library as an adjunct to research; but definitely not a process that permeates the academic life of the university campus. No need has been paid to bring the library — both its book resources and its staff — into full participation in the teaching process.

The Sadler's Commission, of course, recommended that the "University Librarian ought to be a functionary of great importance, ranking with university professors and having a place in the supreme academic body of the university." Such a recommendation was reiterated by the Radhakrishnan Commission after 40 years.

when it aptly remarked: "The library should have adequate and well-qualified staff. At the top will be a man of the calibre of a university professor — (having) qualifications corresponding to a Doctrate in Library Science." Unfortunately, such a novel idea was never put into practice.

The credit of yeoman's service rendered to the cause of university libraries and their staff, as already pointed out, goes in its entirety to C.D. Deshmukh who invited S.R. Ranganathan to head the U.G.C. Library ad hoc Committee in 1957. Anxious to motivate brilliant and talented university trained young men and women to embrace and hold librarianship proudly as a profession, Ranganathan took a revolutionary and unprecedented step in procuring from the U.G.C. academic status and scales of pay for the Librarians, Deputy Librarians, Assistant Librarians, and Library Assistants. In no other country were the librarians placed so easily as in India on the same footing as that of Professors, Readers, Lecturers, and Assistant Lecturers.

Nevertheless, the investigator during the course of his survey in May-June, 1976 found that the many university libraries of Western, Eastern and Southern India had not accepted the U.G.C. scales for all cadres. In the Calcutta University Library, the UGC scales were unfortunately conspicuous by their absence — even for the higher positions including that of the librarian as we shall see in Table No 5.5. The fundamental reason being that the recommendations had no statutory force; education being a state subject in the Indian Constitution, no state government could be compelled to implement the recommendation of the library committee. Funds required for implementing the recommendations are scarcely voted by the state governments. Politics plays role even in the temples of learning.

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Along with procuring the status and scales of pay at par with the academic staff, Ranganathan had recommended that as participators in the university's "teaching and research programmes," the librarian and his reference and technical staff should get themselves thoroughly acquainted with the wave-front of knowledge in which research is in progress in the university." It does not behove to blame the academic community, both teachers and students for the poverty of their thought, when they are not fed with the requisite mental food, pin-pointedly, exhaustively, expeditiously and unerringly. In fact, the librarians and professors should work as partners in a cooperative academic enterprise. This is now becoming the accepted practice in the universities all over the world, India cannot stand outside this stream.

Sustained efforts have been made to show that the librarian is primarily an educator and the library is no longer just connected with education, but is the centre of the intellectual gravity in it aiming at creating pulsating intellectual community. But truth compels the admission that during the course of the investigator's visit to the libraries it was found that the recommendations of Ranganathan to the

33. Ranganathan, In University and college libraries: a report, op. cit., p. 64.
34. Ibid., p. 166, 65, 64.
35. Ibid., p. 65.
university librarians: "to speak the language of a professor, understand his literature needs, make literature-search for him ..." are more honoured in breach than observance. Even in most of the well-organized libraries, operating the library on "teaching and research" levels has come to mean, by and large, making books easily available in the reading halls or at the most providing books to the readers. The bibliographical and documentation services are conspicuous by their absence. It is a sad commentary that even the instruction in library use, which so many academic librarians regard as one of the highest forms of library service, remains ill-defined and poorly organized. In brief, though the university librarians claim their service to be essentially a teaching function, yet in practice they are neglecting the opportunities to contribute directly and dynamically to the educative process. The academic staff often remarks that despite the revision of scales of salary, the functions of the library and the role of the librarians have not proved easily adaptable to the changing modes of education. The librarians "huff and puff for achieving lilliputian ambitions, and pin-head achievement followed by a loud drum beating."

36. Ibid.
We must look at the other side of the coin. Admitted that the university librarians are responsible for lack of transmission of the "new profile of academic librarianship" but teaching is a co-operative effort. There must flow opportunities for closer and conscious cooperation and collaboration between librarians and teachers as entrepreneurs in the industry of knowledge. The academic community, however, is notorious for its innate conservatism and stubbornness. The library method of teaching is eloquently upheld by teachers — but more in theory than in practice. The university librarians rightly complain that such of their colleagues have done little to deserve a good library service. If some of the university librarians are more "resource-minded than people-minded", it will not be wrong to say that some educators have a sordid record of using the library as a teaching instrument. It is, thus, the educational philosophy of the institution, and the way it is translated by the faculty, which decides how the library will function.

After weighing both sides of the coin one fact emerges conspicuously that though the service rendered by the university librarians has improved somewhat after increase in their emoluments and enhancement of their status, yet the university library has not become a laboratory for teaching and research.

Two reasons are advanced for this by a veteran university librarian, S. Bashiruddin. First, the new scales of pay were given to the existing library staff on human considerations rather than as token of recognition of merit. But, to the investigator's mind, it is only partly true. In India, in most of the service organizations, one does not always go to the top or hold the middle or the lowest rank by merit of what one knows but by virtue of whom one knows. And the library profession is no exception. Individuals working in organizations often are surprised to learn that honesty, sincerity, energy, enthusiasm, and above-average ability are not the assets they thought. This can be disillusioning and frustrating.

Moreover, the immediate deterioration in service could be very well anticipated. The present generation of librarians was not prepared for the stupendous responsibilities which the intellectual challenges as a result of the explosion of literature and proliferation of subjects have placed upon their shoulders. One gets support from S.R. Ranganathan, who in a personal letter no. 2w of 24th July, 1972 addressed to the present investigator writes:

"My friends tell me that this degeneracy was partly due to my having succeeded in putting the library profession on a par with the academic profession in respect of status and salary of scale. I knew that this would be the immediate result, because for human reasons, the libraries will have to promote the existing lower intellectuals to the higher grades but the benefit which I had in mind was

\[42\] C. B. Saini, Library organization for higher education (Delhi: ESS ESS, 1976), p. 60.
The acceptance of the higher grades by the authorities would make men of higher intellect to take library science course and when they enter the profession in sufficient number, the profession itself will get completely transformed into the higher level. This would mean no doubt waiting for about one generation. Knowing this I deliberately got my recommendations accepted.

For it is a case of seed first or tree first. If we wait to change the grade until better librarians come in, you know that it will not happen. If we raise the grade even now, better librarians will come in at least within a generation —

I am not sure whether I was wise or foolish in the philosophy that guided me. — "

However, heart of the problem is touched in the second reason given by S. Bashiruddin: the total failure on the part of the traditionalists in our midst to recognize the fact of change in the patterns of demands on the libraries resulting from rapid changes taking place in the university education itself.\(^{43}\)

In an age of tremendous technological advancement when images are moved at the speed of light from the moon to earth, most of the university librarians in India spend much of their time on purely custodial and clerical functions. Many librarians are not only suspicious of intellectual achievement, but welcome routine and pedestrian tasks. As a result, the average user does not expect the librarian to be able to help him with more than routine matters; the scholar suspects that the librarian is

\(^{43}\) Ibid.
relatively ignorant. Little thought is given to finding out why many groups do not use the library and demand reference service.

Nevertheless, the university librarian in India, if he is to be sensitive and true to the ideals of our day and age, must serve as a dynamic agent for the social transformation, for the development of truly Indian political systems, for the elevation of standard of living, for the survival and advancement of people he serves by disseminating truth. The diffusion of knowledge to each according to his needs may be regarded as the role in which the functions of conservation and education coalesce. As just as he maintains his interest in the source and synthesis of all knowledge, he should likewise remain closely indentified with and sensitively cognizant of Indian society. How he shapes the energy, motivation and values of the next generation by providing an easy and systematized access to the recorded knowledge will determine the shape and direction of national progress. Unless he is vital, we are all in trouble. The university librarian would only be rewarded by such a distinguished service. This is, therefore, high time for soul-searching.

Instead of appointing another library committee consisting of eminent librarians to diagnose the lapses in the growth of library organism and its service based on empirical study, the University Grants Commission after having done a right thing, out of regrets probably, caught the wrong end of the stick and withdrew the academic status and scales of pay. But tragedy
becomes too deep for tears when one learns that among those who advised the U.G.C. to set the hands of the clock back were no others but our own professional brethren but who had never lived the profession, who did not believe in the profession, who even went about preaching the powers that be that all the qualities necessary in a librarian are tact and administrative ability, and some knowledge of library techniques may be an additional qualification. 44 But these neo-votaries of the library profession are whole time courtiers spending their time in the government offices as they do precious little in their libraries. Previously, the university librarian in India was only worried over devising the ways for improving the library service; now he is dismayed over his own degradation as well which may further affect his morale and efficiency probably.

Hardly the U.G.C. pay any heed to the sane advice that money is one of the motivators and "that material rewards are ineffective beyond the subsistence level excepting to a very limited proportion of men; that most men neither work harder for material things, nor can be induced thereby to devote more than a fraction of their possible contribution to organised effort." 45 Industrial psychologists have proved, as we shall in this study, that far more important motivating factors in the work situation are such inducements as the opportunity for distinction, status,

44. For details see Chapt.IX, p. 332.
prestige, personal power, desirable working conditions, ideal benedictions, a chance to experience pride of workmanship, sense of adequacy, the feeling of working toward altruistic ideals, pleasant association with others, the opportunity for participation in the course of events, the feeling of belongingness that Elton Mayo felt was all important.

After having a bird's eye-view of the role of the university library and its staff both in theory and practice, we are in a position not only to appreciate the need for motivating the library personnel in India but also to determine what actually impedes the development of an efficient library service, and a favourable professional image. The following major obstacles seem to stand out prominently: lack of clearly-defined university and library objectives; lack of co-operation and understanding from university authorities and faculty; inadequate financial support; failure to appoint a competent university librarian and to give him authority commensurate with his important responsibilities; and above all shortage of brilliant and highly motivated staff, without which no library can serve scholarship and no administration can be distinguished by wisdom.

It reflects the conviction that the librarian must continually strive to perform two functions. First, as the university library is an organization which promotes educational

46. Ibid.
and scholarly pursuits, he has to assemble, preserve and make available to readers the recorded knowledge. Secondly, to perform the first function he must build up and sustain an effective and satisfied working team of reliable, honest, informed, enthusiastic and skilful workers who could act as canvassing agents for documents and help the university in disseminating knowledge, and provide them with the organization and working conditions to obtain maximum turn out of work and efficiency.

Unfortunately, peeping into the working of the university libraries of India, one finds that they are infested with the problems of underutilization of abilities, frustration-bred behaviour, unfavourable job attitudes, alienation, and low morale breeding cynicism towards the profession. This leads to the question of tracing the genuine causes of this distressing situation and to suggest effective motivators to arrest the process of further decline.

Motivation of library personnel is of paramount importance because of the pivotal role they play in helping the university to accumulate, preserve and disseminate knowledge as discussed in the foregoing pages. Yet motivation is probably the most enigmatic and certainly the least understood aspect in the field of librarianship. Realizing that the library's unique function of serving as the one unbiased, non-partisan bureau of information for the people calls for personnel of the highest competence and integrity, the scholars of library science have passed their judgements from
time to time on the behavioral orientations and functional aspects of the personnel. But studies in the areas of socio-economic backgrounds, attitudes, perceptions, value-orientations, modes of thought, and other motivational components of library personnel on empirical basis are not only very scant in the whole of library literature but also conspicuous by their absence in India. We assume that the neglect of such studies has resulted, at least in India, in professional degeneracy and demoralization of library staff causing inefficient service.

To increase efficiency, heighten job satisfaction, and raise the level of the employee-morale, it is very essential that an employee must be viewed as a physiological, sociological, psychological, and egoistic creature. Man brings to the work place, whether management likes it or not, a crystallized and complex set of cognitions, personal feelings, desires, perceptions, motives, values, needs, habits and drives — which he has painstakingly picked up and cultivated during long years of socialization. Thus man at operational, and managerial levels, may be concerned about such matters as security, relations with fellow-workers, status, roles, and personal and family needs. As a human being, he manifests himself through group interactions as well as individual actions. His human aspects are subjective and changeable, qualitative and dynamic, varying with culture, status, social class structure, customs, economic events, and with passage of time making him as the most complicated organism on earth. But when a man is unsettled about these, his efficiency will be impeded
and his co-operation difficult to achieve. An individual whose various dimensions are harmoniously attuned will be more effective in the working conditions. This approach envisages man as a moral and social creature, and asks how work should be organized to fit in with his qualities as an individual.

Is there any valid reason why a librarian should bother about "true satisfaction in living" for his employees. The answer in the affirmative seems to be supported by paucity of scientific knowledge regarding human behaviour. There are grounds for arguing that librarians can make constructive progress in this area. By careful attention to what is known about his staff, the librarian can accomplish much good. Work is to be performed, but this can be done but at the same time make the employees' life more pleasurable and their work more interesting and satisfying. The task is, no doubt, challenging as the behaviour of the human being is both complicated and unpredictable, making the human resources probably the most difficult and frustrating to manage. Yet we should continue the quest for valid generalization about people and their behaviour as there is nothing more interesting than the people and no study more stimulating than that of human behaviour. The disregard of an employee's capacity to feel, think, and grow is a subtle but menacing danger in breaking down his social and spiritual morale. At best, it may produce an ineffective and frustrated library staff. At worst, it will transform the library personnel into
intellectual critics of the university library organization in India.

Since the profession pays a heavy price for dissatisfying work, it is of great importance that we may evolve, in the light of the latest researches and insights into human behaviour, a suitable theory based on empirical research, of the nature and significance of motivation in a university library, and explore the major forces and practices that stultify or liberate the will to work.

Curiously enough, no significant study on the motivation of library personnel as pointed out earlier has been conducted so far. Whatever knowledge we have about this problem, we have from the studies of the industrial psychologists. This is the reason why in the present work help has been sought from the conclusions, arrived at by the psychologists of the industrial relationships.

It goes without saying that the modern university librarian is in every sense a manager or an entrepreneur — like that of an industrial organization — requiring specific and detailed knowledge of human engineering, financial problems, bibliographical and bibliothecal skills and indexing and abstracting techniques. The complex services which a modern university library renders because of the exponential growth of literature, as discussed in the foregoing pages, do not organize and run by themselves but require huge organization, and management to achieve major and
minor objectives at the lowest cost in terms of energy, time and money. If, then, a manager of the library organization is to think about personnel motivation, what are the basic propositions he should concentrate upon? The next chapter gives the possible answer as it probes the views of the psychologists on how man works and why.
The most universal term in contemporary psychology probably is 'motivation'. The study of motivation is concerned with the analysis of the various forces within the individual employee or sub-ordinate — whether we call them drives, impulses, instincts, wishes, aspirations, strivings, or tension states — that drive him to behave in a certain way. Motivation, therefore, explains "how behaviour gets started, is energised, is sustained, is directed, is stopped, and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the organism while all this is going on."¹ That is, motivation helps to explain the "whys" of behaviour; it is the "hypothetical cause of behaviour."² In a nutshell, when we discuss motivation, we are primarily concerned with three dimensions which have a direct bearing on the direction, vigour and persistence of an individual's behaviour, and determine in part his thoughts and actions. They are: (a) What energises, activates, or moves (hence, "motivation")³ human behaviour (drive

or force); (b) what directs or channels such behaviour (goal orientation); and (c) how this behaviour is maintained or sustained (feedback). These three dimensions of motivation form the corner-stones of our study.

Building upon this framework, we can now pose a problem: Why do people behave the way they do? Why does one university librarian closely watch the wrist watch prior to the close of each working day and leave the job promptly at the quitting time while his professional colleague in the next university library puts in two or three additional hours of work every evening after everyone has gone home and burns midnight oil in compiling bibliographies so as to be an active participant in the dissemination of knowledge and active research? Why does one Deputy Librarian strongly prefer working for his personal matters during duty hours and cannot tolerate being chained to a desk all day long and enjoy only work which calls for him/her to make a large number of daily contacts with other people while his colleague in the next door section is straining his every nerve to help the librarian to devise ways and means to put his library on modern lines? Why does one Assistant Librarian feel it below his dignity to help a university teacher to find out an issue of periodical till his attendant returns from his lunch break while another colleague of his status does not hesitate even to dust and shelve the books? Why are some individuals "Yes Men" and afraid of expressing even their sincere and honest disagreement
with their superiors while others are not at all reluctant to offer constructive criticism of their superiors for neglecting the library services and for their autocratic behaviour? How can university librarians or other bigwigs in the library organization understand, predict, and even control what activity or activities a library person may engage in at any particular point of time?

There is no universally accepted theory that can help to explain the motives which arouse and maintain as well as determine and stimulate the individual's behaviour at any given moment of time. Psychologists, however, agree that — with a few exceptions which will be noted subsequently — behaviour is motivated; that people have reasons for doing the things that they do and do them in the way they do; and that behaviour is oriented toward meeting certain goals and objectives. Such goal directed behaviour revolves round the desire for need satisfaction.

Every human being — whether an engineer, or a manager, or a librarian — has certain physical, emotional, socially conditioned, or psychic needs which require satisfaction as a pre-condition to get the best possible performance from him. Our needs are accentuated by hunger, pain, love and achievement. Our process of thinking, learning, performance, perception and dream including forgetfulness fluctuate in various patterns at different times and influence our behaviour, thoughts and actions.
A person's needs, therefore, working in conjunction with his emotions and other psychological factors, act as the motives that dictate his actions and motivate his behavior toward their satisfaction. Motives, therefore, are an expression of internal needs which require satisfaction to motivate individual to give his best in the performance of his job and keep him at work in organizations. When we say that librarians should motivate their subordinates, we mean to say that they ought to give those incentives which they hope will satisfy their needs and induce them to act in a desired course of action. Needs are, thus, "the initiating and sustaining forces of behaviour." It is in this light that motivation is seen as "the complex of forces starting and keeping a person at work in an organization."^5

It would seem significant, therefore, for librarians to have a knowledge of needs that are universally important to motivate people. Yet even the psychologists differ in identifying needs. Freud,^6 for instance, emphasizes two basic classes of needs — the life or love instinct, and the death or destruction instinct. Adler focusses primary attention on the drive for power or mastery.^7

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and Homey considers "the need for security and safety in a potentially dangerous world" as a primary motive.

A.H. Maslow, who synthesized the work of previous psychologists and philosophers, formulated a theory of motivation based upon the hierarchy of needs. His taxonomy of basic needs places physiological needs at the bottom of the hierarchy. Going up the scale of needs are the safety needs through the need for love and belongingness (social needs); the needs for esteem (ego needs including self-respect, respect of others and recognition from others) to self-actualization (self-fulfillment needs i.e. doing what one can do best).

Since these needs act as very important motivators for energizing and directing behaviour, their study requires further elaboration as they form the sheet-anchor of the present study.

8. Ibid., p.402-403.

Our preference is, however, for Maslow's theory of need hierarchy because of its general scope, directness, simplicity and practicability.
The needs that are usually taken as the starting point for motivation theory are the so-called physiological drives. Undoubtedly these physiological needs are the most prepotent of all needs. What this means specifically is, that the employee is a biological or physiological organism. To sustain such an organism, man everywhere, at any time, in any place, vitally requires food, clothing, shelter, rest, water, oxygen, exercise, sex, sensory experience, exploration, and the like. Man does live by bread alone, when there is no bread. All the faculties of an individual in a state of virtual starvation may be directed toward hunger satisfaction; his conscious and unconscious actions become directed by hunger motivation; for him, Utopia is a place where food is plentiful. The receptors and effectors, the intelligence, memory, habits, all may now be defined simply as hunger satisfying tools. Capacities that are not useful for this purpose lie dormant or are pushed into the background. A generalization is now possible, a satisfied need does not motivate; conversely, an unsatisfied need does motivate the behaviour. But what happens to man's needs when there is plenty of bread and when his stomach is filled? Maslow's answer is that at once other (and "higher") needs emerge, and these, rather than the physiological hunger, dominate the organism. And when these in turn are satisfied, again new (and still "higher") needs emerge and the process continues "from belly to brain" through the satisfaction of needs at each level. This is what we mean by saying that the basic human needs are organized.

15. Ibid., p.90-91.
into a hierarchy of relative prepotency.

Sustaining the physiological level also requires that

1.2 The Safety/Security Needs protection be provided against deprivation, danger, and threat to the job. Having taken care of today, man wants a guarantee for tomorrow. Both economic security and physiological security are involved. Economic security consists of the need for clothing, shelter, and having an environment of a predictable pattern such as job security, pension, and insurance. Physiological security relates to those needs which call for status maintenance and personal adjustment with varying job situations in future. Arbitrary or unpredictable management actions, behaviour which arouses uncertainty with respect to continued employment, unwise policy statement, inept policy administration, favourtism, inequitable decisions, discrimination and the like stimulate the security and safety needs in the dependent employment relationship and, therefore, are powerful motivators of behaviour at all organizational levels. Such behaviour may or may not help in accomplishing organizational objectives. Supervisors can create the sense of security in their organizations by setting up and enforcing clear standards of behaviour.

No less potent as motivators are the stimuli which arise out of social contacts as man is a social animal. Being gregarious

by nature, man has an inherent tendency to communicate, to gain acceptance from his fellows, to give and receive admiration, friendship and affection; in the biblical sense, we all desire to love and be loved. Social needs also include such things as "status and pride." In order to achieve social status and gain the respect and admiration of others, people will work, compete and deny themselves many of the more obvious incentives. Deprived of these incentives, man will want them as intensely as a hungry man wants food. When an individual's social needs are thwarted by managers, his organizational behaviour may become antagonistic and unco-operative as a consequence of the deprivation.17

Next in Maslow's hierarchy are esteem or egoistic needs18

1.4 The Esteem/Ego Needs

derived from the necessity of

viewing one's self or ego in a

certain manner. Ego needs may be broadly classified as needs for self-esteem and reputation. The former relate to the needs for self-confidence, achievement, knowledge, self-respect and for independence and freedom; the latter relate to the needs for status, and recognition by one's fellows. The competitive desire to excel — to surpass the performance of one's fellows — is almost a universal human trait. This major esteem need, if properly utilized, can produce extremely high organizational performance. A manager's stimulation of these needs and their subsequent satisfaction by the employees lead to the recognition

17. Ibid., chapt. 12.
18. Ibid., p.90-91.
of self-worth, capability, self-confidence, strength, and adequacy of being useful and necessary in the organization. But thwarting of these needs produces feelings of inferiority, of weakness and of helplessness. Unlike the lower needs, the ego needs are apparently insatiable.

Even if all these needs are satisfied, we may still often 

1.5 The Need for Self-actualization

(if not always) expect that a new discontent and restlessness will soon develop, unless the individual is doing what he is fitted for. A musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be ultimately at peace with himself. What a man can be, he must be. This need Maslow designates "self-actualization." 19

In the cluster of needs for self-actualization we find the individual's needs for realizing his own potentialities — self-fulfillment, continued self-development, self-expression, and self-assertion. Self-assertion calls for freedom of action and independence of thought in work performance.

The emergence of the needs for self-actualization, writes Maslow, rests upon prior satisfaction of the physiological, safety, love and esteem needs. To Maslow, people who are satisfied in the needs for self-actualization are basically satisfied people,

19. Ibid., p. 91.
and it is from these needs that we may expect the fullest (and healthiest) "creativity," "independence," "autonomy," "discretion," and "personality expression." 20

In short, according to Maslow, individual behavior is motivated by an attempt to satisfy the five basic needs, arranged in a "hierarchy of prepotence." It means that the most pre-potent goal monopolizes consciousness and the less prepotent needs are minimized, even forgotten or denied. When a particular need is fairly well-satisfied, the next pre-potent (higher) need emerges to dominate the conscious life and to serve as the center of organization of behavior. Since gratified needs are not active motivators, it is the unsatisfied need that dominates one's thinking and acts as a powerful, though often unconscious, motivator of behavior. Thus, Maslow's theory "predicts a dynamic, step by step, causal process of human motivation," explaining how behavior is governed by a continuously changing (though unpredictable) set of "important" needs. 21

Maslow's theory is undoubtedly correct in its broad outlines. Its framework is not intended to be a static, rigid portrayal of the individual; rather Maslow views human behavior in dynamic and holistic terms. Its central flaw, however, lies in its monolithic

20. Ibid., Chapt.12.

quality. Maslow's theory makes us believe that all men have the same hierarchy of needs. He asserts that higher level needs normally do not emerge until lower level needs have been relatively satisfied. But it is only partly true. Researches by E. Lawler and J. Suttle;\textsuperscript{22} by D. T. Hall and K. Nougain;\textsuperscript{23} and by Lyman W. Porter\textsuperscript{24} did not find substantive evidence to support Maslow's theory that human needs conform to a hierarchy.

The five-way classification of needs is somewhat artificial because in a real situation all needs are interacting together within the whole man. The renowned Dobzhansky has rightly pointed out that biological and cultural evolution go together, interacting and usually mutually reinforcing each other.\textsuperscript{25} There is feed back between genetics and culture. Social needs are not separate and disparate as Maslow thought, but cultural urges which originate from and interact continuously with the genetic drives. This understanding is important for the librarians, for it makes clear that the drive to secure food, and the urge to acquire money and to be loved, are continuously interactive. To give each sequential priority in terms of an arbitrary hierarchy

\textsuperscript{22} Ibid.


\textsuperscript{25} Theodosius, Dobzhansky, Evolution, genetics and man (New York: John Wiley, 1968).
as Maslov has done does not seem to accord with the facts we know today.

Psychologists agree that deep and perpetual satisfaction can be achieved only to the extent that high level needs are met. The higher the level of the need, the greater its power to give lasting satisfaction. It follows that only two top needs of Maslow’s hierarchy — the need of self-esteem and self-actualization, can provide the enduring motivation for they are the only needs that do not blunt a person’s satiety, as the economic law of Diminishing Marginal Utility* has its limitations in its application here.

The greatest motivation, however, is provided by a chance to work toward the fulfillment of the fifth and highest need. People who display the greatest enthusiasm for their work are usually those who have an opportunity for creativity and for continual development of their skills and powers. One gets support from the experiments carried by Frederick Herzberg, who maintains that positive motivation is provided only by a chance for self-actualization — for achievement and "the accumulation of achievement may lead to a feeling of personal growth ... accompanied by a sense of increasing responsibility."26 Maslov also writes that

* The additional benefit which a person derives from a given increase of a thing diminishes with every increase in the stock that he already has.

for self-actualization needs, increased satisfaction leads to increased strength. When we examine people who are predominantly growth motivated, "gratification breeds increased rather than decreased motivation, heightened rather than lessened excitement."  

The ubiquity of the need for self-actualization is evident, not only in the towering intellectual products of a Spinoza or an Einstein, but also in the first faltering efforts of a toddler to walk unaided or of a pre-school child to print his own name. To most humans, philosopher or carpenter, child or adult, the attainment of desired achievement goals, and the attendant approval (whether from self or others) accruing to such attainments, are important sources of personal satisfaction and security. David C. McClelland, who has contributed a mine of wealth on achievement motivation says that if there is one thing that all his research has taught him, it is that men can shape their destiny, that external difficulties and pressures are not nearly so important in shaping history as some people have suggested and argued. It is how people respond to those challenges that matters, and how they respond depends on how strong their concern for achievement is. So the question of what happens to our civilization or to our entrepreneurs in organizations depends quite literally on how much time tens of thousands or even millions of us spend thinking about achievement, about setting moderate achievable

goals, taking calculated risks, assuming personal responsibility, and finding out how well we have done our job. The answer is up to us. But it may be added that achievement in itself has no motivating force so long as it is not accompanied by the feedback system, whether it is industrial or educational situation.

Nonetheless, Maslow's theory of motivation based on the hierarchy of needs is not all moonshine. Due largely to the popularization of the model by Douglas McGregor (Theory Y), Maslow's theory came to be widely discussed and used by both organizational theorists and practicing managers. Study by Boris Haim, supports the model by showing that managers and professionals in the United States highly value self-realization, while service and manual workers value job security most highly. Maslow's model also applies to under-developed countries like India, where workers live under below-subistence conditions. As would be expected, they emphasize basic physiological needs.

It is true without any shadow of doubt that if basic needs —

29. For details see, the chapter to follow.
34. See Pars Nath and Robert J. Cherry, Jr., Ranking of job factors by party workers in India, Personnel psychology (V.16, no.1, 1963), p.29-33.
physiological and security — remain unfulfilled, this can have a serious effect on motivation. Even in developed countries, the managers should constantly bear in mind that most people have needs that spread over the entire spectrum of Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

Maslow's classification of people's needs and desires helps to explain some of the management's mistakes in the treatment of employees. People in the management field such as Mary Parker Follet, Elton Mayo, and Chris Argyris join with John Coleman Bennett and Reinhold Niebuhr in the Protestant tradition; Pope Leo XIII and Pope Pius XI in the Catholic tradition; Rabbi Abraham Heschel, David Ponitz, and Rabbi Lewis Finkelstein in the Judaic tradition, and Confucius to Gandhi through Lao-tse and Buddha in the Eastern spiritual and moral traditions to urge managers to consider the dignity of the individual who has basic needs and who should not be treated as an automation in the machine culture.

Obstacles may be encountered as the individual proceeds to the gratification of needs.

Frustration-Instigated Behaviour
Unsatisfied needs produce tensions in the individuals, and behaviour is motivated to relieve these tensions. When an individual is unable to satisfy his needs, and thus reduce tension, we say that he experiences frustration.

Frustration may generate various forms of stereotyped and destructive behaviour such as "aggression", "regression," "fixation" "resignation," "negativism," "repression," "withdrawal," and others. Norman R.F. Maier’s theory of frustration assumes that motivated behaviour differs from frustration instigated behaviour. Whereas motivated behaviour is invariably goal-oriented; in frustration - instigated behaviour there is no goal-orientation. Frustrated individuals are blindly stubborn and unreasonable; they are persistent, irrational, and ready to become organized or united around the harmful pattern of aggression as they are not oriented to a future goal. Relief from frustration — sets the stage for a return to constructive, goal-oriented or motivated behaviour. Rewards may translate behaviour from the frustration process to the motivation process. Secondly, where a state of motivation exists, such rewards tend to maintain and enhance that state. It throws light on the dynamic nature of the human motivators. No one stimulus will serve for all time. Rather the efforts of management must consist of a series of unending, interacting motivational sequences.

So far, we have discussed human motivation in general terms: what drives people to do things, what motivates and frustrates them. While human motivation is characterized by basic


38. Ibid., p.408,479.
needs, it is specifically directed toward achieving certain desirable, positive goals.

In the work setting, therefore, the question arises as to what variables are perceived (within the value systems of individuals) as being desirable goals to achieve, and conversely, frustrating conditions to avoid. In this regard, Herzberg made an epoch-making contribution by developing a theory of work motivation which has important implications for library management and its efforts toward effective utilization of human resources and increasing efficiency.

One of the most stimulating, influential and controversial theories of motivation has been presented by Herzberg and his associates variously termed as the "two-factor theory," the "dual-factor theory," and the "motivation-hygiene" theory of motivation. From their supporting data collected on the basis of research (originally with 203 accountants and engineers from 11 industries in the Pittsburg, USA), Herzberg and his associates purported to find a two factor explanation of motivation. According to them, man has two different categories of needs which are essentially independent of each other and affect his behaviour in different ways. First, is the man's need as an animal aimed at avoiding pain

(Animal-Adam needs) emerging from the environment; and second is his need as a human being to grow psychologically (Human - Abraham needs). 40

Herzberg and his associates designate the first category of needs "hygiene-factors," or "Extrinsic" factors, or "Maintenance" factors because they describe man's environment. In this group of needs are included such things as monetary gains, status, interpersonal relations (with superiors, peers, and subordinates), supervision, organizational policies and administration, working conditions, job security, and personal life. 41 These hygienic factors, maintains Herzberg, do not serve to promote job satisfaction or motivate a man; rather their absence or deficiency can create dissatisfaction. 42 Such a dissatisfaction may be reduced by hygienic measures such as fringe benefits, 'human relations', training for supervisors, or better administrative policies; but such measures won't make workers satisfied. 43

For true satisfaction to be obtained, Herzberg and his associates put forth a second group of factors or job content factors, — the "intrinsic factors," also referred to as "need motivators"; since they seemed to be effective in motivating

41. Motivation to Work, op.cit., p.113,114.
42. Ibid., p.113.
43. Ibid.
people to superior performance. The "need motivators" include work itself, recognition, achievement, advancement, possibility of growth and development, responsibility, and challenging work. All of these are concerned with work itself, rather than its surrounding — physical, administrative, or social environment. If the worker is to be truly motivated, the job itself is to be the major source of that motivation. All other hygienic factors can only serve to "clean up" the environment and prevent dissatisfaction. Their presence will not motivate people in an organization; yet they must be present, or dissatisfaction will arise. The presence of "dissatisfaction" may lead to low morale, but its elimination will not enhance motivation. Only the factors contained in the job itself, or the job-content factors, are found to be the real motivators, because they have the potential of yielding a sense of satisfaction. Clearly, if this theory of motivation is sound, it does mean that management should seek to enrich (not just enlarge) the job so as to make it seem more interesting and important. Herzberg, thus, clearly indicates that the factors involved in producing job satisfaction are separate and distinct from factors that lead to job dissatisfaction. Those job characteristics that are important for, and lead to, job satisfaction but not to job dissatisfaction are classified as "satisfiers", while those...

44. Ibid., p.114.
45. Ibid., p.114-17.
that are important for, and lead to, job dissatisfaction are classified as "dissatisfiers." The major hypothesis of the dual factor theory of motivation is that the satisfiers are effective in motivating the individual to superior performance and effort, but the dissatisfiers are not.

If Maslow's and Herzberg's models are compared, it becomes evident that both of them emphasize the same set of relationships as is clear from the following:

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<tr>
<th>Maslow's need-priority Model</th>
<th>Herzberg's motivation Hygiene Model</th>
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<td>Self-actualization or self-realization.</td>
<td>Motivating Factors</td>
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<td>Esteem or Ego needs</td>
<td>Work itself; achievement, possibility of growth; responsibility.</td>
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<td>Love and Belongingness</td>
<td>Advances, recognition.</td>
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<td>Safety and Security</td>
<td>Status, Interpersonal relations:</td>
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<td>Physical</td>
<td>Organizational Policies and administration</td>
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<td>Personal life</td>
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Maslow deals with the general trend of growth in motives among human beings: this has led him to develop theory of motivation based on the hierarchy of needs. Herzberg focusses his gaze on persons in terms of how job conditions help them in
satisfying the motives enunciated by Maslow. Maslow is helpful in identifying needs or motives, while Herzberg provides us with insights into goals and incentives that tend to satisfy these needs. Thus in a motivating situation, if you know what are the high strength needs (Maslow) of the individuals you want to influence, then you should be able to determine what goals (Herzberg) you could provide in the environment to motivate these individuals. At the same time, if you know what goals these people want to satisfy, you can predict what their high strength needs are.\(^{46}\) This is possible, according to Herzberg, because of the division of needs into hygienic factors and the motivating factors, as discussed above.

Herzberg’s dual factor theory of motivation has raised a storm of controversy. The model has been criticized on several grounds: first, that it is “methodology bound”\(^ {47}\); second, that it is based on “faulty research”\(^ {48}\); and third, that it is “inconsistent with past evidence.”\(^ {49}\) Others have stated that the model does not lay sufficient emphasis on the motivating qualities of pay, status,

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and inter-personal relations. A brilliant attack on "motivation-Hygiene" theory, however, comes from Vroom through his valence-expectancy theory to the understanding of motivation. Because of its importance in understanding the nature and significance of motivation, we may discuss this theory briefly:

The expectancy/valence model is a cognitive theory of motivation. Whereas Maslow concentrated upon the broad general objectives of man's behaviour as being need satisfaction; Vroom presented his expectancy theory of motivation to explain why motivation may vary from person to person and from situation to situation. Drawing heavily on the earlier works of Lewin, Tolman, Vroom's theory projects that human behaviour is to a considerable extent a function of the interactive processes between the characteristics of an individual (such as personality traits, attitudes, needs, and values) and his or her perceived environment (such as supervisor's style, job or task requirements, and organization climate). In fact, it is the assumed existence of these anticipations, based on the individual-environment interaction, that differentiates expectancy/valence theory most

most strikingly from other theories of motivation.

In essence, Vroom's model is based on four points that research on human motivation suggests are valid:

1. People have preferences among the various outcomes that are potentially available to them.

2. People have expectancies that an action (effort) on their part will lead to the intended behaviour or performance.

3. People have expectancies (instrumentalities) that certain outcomes will follow their behaviour.

4. In any situation, the actions a person chooses to take are determined by the expectancies and the preferences that person has at the time.

In short, Vroom's theory may be put as under:

\[ \text{Force} = \text{Valence} \times \text{expectancy.} \]

In this equation, force is the strength of a person's motivation. Valence is the strength of an individual's preference from an outcome, and expectancy is the probability that a particular action will lead to a desired goal. Vroom has argued that expectancy and valence combine multiplicatively to determine motivation or force.

It may not be out of place to point out that Vroom's expectancy theory of motivation is in opposition to the teachings of Geeta — the Indian Celestial Song — which lays stress on Karma.

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56. Ibid., p.20-24.
57. Ibid., p.25-28.
i.e. work (action) without expecting the fruit; the reward being in the hands of the God who will give it when He feels that the devotee deserves it and in the size He thinks is appropriate. It is not the merit of this work to raise a storm of controversy over this debatable point, but no one can afford to ignore that the teachings of the Geeta provide an antidote to grave frustrations (which at any time may arise from expectancies) and give solace to mind in the face of grim ordeals of life constantly impelling a man to action. The Geeta teaches that nothing good falls to bring forward its inevitable consequence. But the precepts of the Geeta are meaningful only if one accepts the law of moral continuity which governs human growth.58

Nonetheless, Vroom’s expectancy theory has enjoyed considerable acceptance among psychologists. One of the contributions of expectancy theory is its recognition that motivation is much more complex than the simplistic approaches of Maslow and Herzberg seem to make (apply). By simply developing an organizational climate in which intrinsic factors in the shape of achievement, recognition, advancement can be achieved by the workers does not seem sufficient to motivate them towards high efficiency. A person will be motivated to perform well in a situation only if performing well has the highest EXV force in that particular situation. Individuals should expect that their honest, sincere, and hard efforts will be recognized and rewarded, and they should have the confidence that

they possess the required potentiality to achieve the goal.

In spite of the fact that expectancy theory has enjoyed considerable currency among psychologists, there have been relatively few studies testing the preconditions of the theory in "real world" performance situations. Behling and Starke even question the ability of human beings to make choices among levels of work effort in the ways demanded by the expectancy theory. Thus, the earlier optimism for the universality of the theory appears to have been dashed and the need for a more limited perspective is indicated. In the light of these findings, alternatives to expectancy theory of work motivation are currently being investigated. Probably for this reason, the valence/expectancy theory is being regarded as only a broad treatment of the whole process of motivation.

Reverting back to Herzberg, the investigator finds that despite the criticism of the motivation-hygiene theory, it has exercised a tremendous influence on initiating research, experimentation as well as on stimulating managerial thought and on the concept of motivation. Before Herzberg advanced his dual factor theory of motivation, very little and fragmentary research had been


done in this area, with the notable exception of Viteles and Maier. Maslow's theory of motivation based on need hierarchy, and McClelland's and Atkinson's work on achievement motivation theory were largely based on clinical observations, and neither had seriously addressed the problems of the workplace at that time. Herzberg filled this gap by specifically inviting attention to the need for increased understanding of the role of motivation in organizations. Herzberg enjoins upon the managers to release and stimulate the inner motivation of the employees.

Donald P. Schwab and Larry L. Cummings in a review of theoretical propositions concerning the relationship between satisfaction and performance consider Herzberg's work to be the best illustration of current theory and research that views satisfaction leading to performance.

W. Scott Myers applied Herzbergian motivation-hygiene methods in the research at Texas Instruments. In a sample of 282 employees of this firm, including scientists, engineers, supervisors,

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technicians, and assembly workers, his findings only partially supported Herzberg's theory. Myers found that those persons who sought opportunities for achievement and responsibility, whom he characterized as "growth seekers", did indeed fit Herzberg's model in that they were concerned with "intrinsic" motivators and relatively little concerned with "extrinsic" or environmental factors. On the other hand, people whom he called "maintenance seekers," were greatly concerned with environmental conditions. In simple words, what motivates individuals was found to be a largely a matter of "personality".

Myers's research, however, indicates that the "satisfiers" and "dissatisfiers" are not always as discreet as Herzberg claims. For example, Myers found that meaningful work is a motivator, but he also found that the lack of meaningful work demotivates. Another point of difference between Myers and Herzberg is the relative importance of some of the "hygiene" or "maintenance" factors in motivation. While Myers agrees that job content and self-reliance are integral to real motivation, he also stresses the influence of "interpersonal competence", "helpful systems," "meaningful goals," and the opportunity for "self-actualizing" work. Myers unlike Herzberg, stresses the importance of employee participation and the interpersonal aspects of superior-subordinate relationships. Thus, according to Myers, the effectiveness of a motivation system depends on the ability of supervisors

to (a) provide conditions of motivation and (b) satisfy maintenance needs. In this respect, Myers' view of job enrichment only roughly paralleled Herzberg's.

In the light of Vroom's criticism of Herzberg's motivation theory in which Vroom points out that the expectancy on the part of the individual workers may determine the motivating value of a particular incentive irrespective of its belonging to either "extrinsic" or "intrinsic" group as proposed by Herzberg, and Myers's criticism in which he hypothesizes that "personality" may be a variable in the process of evaluation of motivators in general; the investigator recognizes and accepts the influence of evaluation as well as practical contributions of different motivating factors as classified by Herzberg into "extrinsic" and "intrinsic" factors.

In view of such a situation, the investigator thought it advisable to control any influence exerted by "personality" as a variable. Emotional stability and instability are believed to be the most important factors of personality. Perception and the evaluation of situation are significantly determined by the emotional state of the individual. Thus the emotional stability and instability were considered to have some influence on the perception and evaluation of a working situation. Therefore, the investigator in this research assessed the emotional health of the library personnel and neutralized its influence by matching the two extreme groups viz., "High Efficient" and "Low Efficient" on the dimension.

69. For details see Chapt.5.
of emotional security while evaluating the availability of the various motivators as pointed out by Maslow and Herzberg in their job situation.

Before we proceed to evaluate the studies bearing on "Motivational Dynamics and Work Efficiency", it will be in order to define these two terms as used in this work.

The study of motivation in the university library is concerned with discovering the stimuli that a librarian or any of his deputy could use to achieve productive behaviour in his/her organization. The stimuli referred to in this study are supervision, financial and non-financial incentives, etc.

Undoubtedly, the gospel of efficiency has been much popular in managing the organizations, still efficiency is not easy to define. Efficiency often connotes the securing of maximum results at the lowest cost in terms of energy, time and money.

The concept of efficiency does not have meaning only for business organizations. It has its implications in the human organizations like the university libraries which do not sell economic commodities and accumulate profits or losses. The real profit of the library, however, flows from the sale of its services to the readers leading to the cultivation of their intellectual —
excellence — the pre-requisite for producing the "philosopher kings" and the good citizens; who in turn contribute to the circulation of ideas needed for meeting the demands of democracy, the spread of literacy and the success of commercial and industrial enterprises. This profit flowing from the service which the library renders is immeasurable and incalculable.

Thus, for assessing the work efficiency of the university library personnel who render qualitative and incalculable service for the benefit of the humanity at large as highlighted in Chapter I; the investigator has adopted an operational definition of the term. The High Efficient is the person whose score rises above the 7th decile and Low Efficient is considered to be the subject whose score falls below 3rd decile. Therefore, for this research project the library person whose score is +5.5417 or above is taken as High Efficient and the subject who scores -7.2204 and below is treated as Low Efficient as described in details in the chapter on "Design and Methodology".
CHAPTER IV

MOTIVATION AND WORK EFFICIENCY:
REVIEW OF RESEARCHES

In the previous chapter, a brief evaluation of the various theories and models of motivation was presented. In the present chapter, the investigator intends to review the researches bearing on these two variables because to appreciate the present and predict the future, we must look to the past.

The interest in the personal and environmental factors that influence the stimulation, direction, and persistence of behaviour from the viewpoint of the present study could well be inferred from the two clearly well-defined streams of thought viz., the Classical School of thought; and Human Relations/Behavioral School of thought. The first of these, sometimes also referred to as the "traditional" or "universalist" school of thought, has been the predominant one. Its modern roots go back to the days of Frederick Wilson Taylor (USA), Henri Fayol (France), Max Weber (Germany), Luther Gulick (USA), Lyndall Urwick (England), forming the backbone of the Classical School of thought. The idea of efficiency provided a unifying theme in the work of these Five. In fact, it would be more accurate to call this stream of thought the "gospel of efficiency".  

The three classical models of the "traditional" theory are: the scientific management approach of Taylor (1923); (2) the public administration account of Gulick (1937); and (3) the sociological description of bureaucratic structure of Weber (1947).

To help each man develop to his greatest efficiency and prosperity, the theorists of the Classical School devised a well-defined structure of plan that describes authority, power, accountability, responsibility, work relationships, status, rank and objectives of the organization and capable of being reduced on a chart or diagram. There is a body of principles or rather general guidelines — most of which were proposed by Henri Fayol, and later on refined and expanded not only by Luther Gulick and Lindall Urwick of the Classical School, but also in the modern

3. Fourteen principles, which in Fayol's view can be applied in all spheres of administration without exception are (1) Division of labour; (2) authority; (3) discipline; (4) unity of command; (5) unity of direction; (6) subordination of individual interests to the general interest; (7) remuneration; (8) centralization; (9) scalar chain; (10) order; (11) equity; (12) stability of tenure of personnel; (13) initiative; and (14) espirit de corps. Vide his General and industrial management, Trans. by Constance Storrs (London: Isaac Pitman, 1949; original in French, 1916); p.1-16, 21-22, 36-42, 52-60, 66-78.

Fayol also formulated a set of administrative process: Forecasting, Command, Organization, Co-ordination and Control. Fayol's work initiated what is referred to as the functional management or process school.

4. Gulick lists the principles of organization as follows: (1) Division of labour or specialization; (ii) departmentalization on the basis of purpose, process, clientele or palace; (iii) co-ordination of hierarchy; (iv) co-ordination by ideas; (v) co-ordination by committees; (vi) decentralization or the "holding company" idea; (vii) unity of command; (viii) staff and line; (ix) delegation; (x) span of control. Luther Gulick, Notes on the theory of organization, In Luther Gulick and Lyndall F. Urwick, Eds., Papers on the science of administration (New York, Institute of Public (contd.....
"empirical" schools of Peter Drucker, E. Dale and others in accordance with which organization plan can be spelled to fit into the requirements of the contemplated purpose or activity; and the requisite personnel must meet the requirements of this pre-conceived plan.

The evaluation of the traditional or classical principles of organization show that the major way of getting people to do things effectively is command or direction - the giving of orders; the decisions about which are made at the top and passed down through a hierarchy of officials who carry out their duties in accordance with prescribed systems of rights, and organizational rules, procedures and regulations and relatively impersonality of human relationships, so that the socio-emotional elements do not intrude into organizational operations. Such basic concepts

(from pre-page)

4. Ernest Dale, Organization (Bombay: D.B. Taraporevalia, 1957), p.32-33. He also adds the principles of: (a) Continual change; (b) federal principle of organization; (c) decentralization of decision-making.
as the unity of command, or the span of control, structure and authority, are all formulated with reference to linear relationships in which the superior tells the subordinates what to do — each person in the organization being spurred on by the hope of reward in the form of income, promotion, prestige or security and by the fear of penalties in the form of denial of advancement or dismissal. In fact, Taylor, upon whom has been bestowed the title of the "Father of Scientific Management", regarded the worker as a deeply irrational being consciously striving to maximize his economic gains or utility. Therefore, the desire for more money constitutes the prime, if not the sole, motive for elevating the person to the higher standards of efficiency demanded by the system and that increased pay represents the basic source of satisfaction in work.

The classical organization and motivational concepts get results — they reduce arbitrary, random individual action by

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13. The basic principles of Taylor's Scientific Management are: "Science, not rule of thumb. Harmony not discord. Co-operation, not individualism. Maximum output, in place of restricted output. The development of each man to his greatest efficiency and prosperity."

Since the worker is lazy, assumes Taylor, his efficiency can be achieved only through coercion, through enforced standardization of methods, enforced adoption of the best implements and working conditions, and enforced co-operation; and the duty of enforcing the adoption of standards and of enforcing this co-operation rests with the management alone.

Other important principles of management as highlighted by Taylor are:


organization members. Top executives can "shoulder their enormous responsibilities with some equanimity" and subordinates are provided with greater certainty of expectations by their superiors, assurances of justice, some protection from individual caprice, and the availability of authorized channels for expressing their feelings and grievances. 15

Although the "gospel of efficiency" gained a widespread recognition and gave a start to a broad movement for "scientific management", which assumed an international scale, and was later reflected in the Quantitative Approach to management in 1950s and 1970s, yet it never monopolized the managerial thinking. There are critics who dismiss the classical principles of motivation and efficiency as just "myths" and "proverbs" 16-18. Moreover, Lickert has shown that the constraints imposed by classical organizations in the form of management techniques, procedures, and controls often generate "hostility", "fear," "anger and frustration" among employees and that these emotional responses lead them "to resist guidance, leadership, direction, and change"

and to withhold their support to organizational goals and policies. By depriving the individual of initiation, the superiors dwarf the growth of human creativity, and thus fail to discover, let alone utilise, the potentialities of the average human being. The person more directly involved in the work participates inadequately. The employees makes no decisions, follows orders so detailed as to preclude any freedom of action, and is cut off from the communication with anyone higher than his immediate superior. Consequently, he may have little or no pride in his work and no sense of belongingness. It destroys individuality which lies at the root of all progress.

In fact, the classical organization, also called "the closed system", projected men simply as "adjuncts to machines" having no aspirations to dignity and no revulsion to work which is boring, tedious or tiresome. Man is to be ideally adjusted, "grounded in" by means of a purely formal economic motivators notably money, and in this respect it was assumed that he would operate as a completely rational and soulless "economic man"; while the organization is seen as a closed, self-contained structure, coercive in character. The interplay of individual personalities, informal groupings, social cliques,

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References:

intra-organizational conflict, and the decision-making processes in the formal structure appears largely to have been ignored by the classical theorists.

Severely attacking the classical theory of motivation and efficiency, the exponents of behavioral sciences maintain that we must constantly bear in mind that organization is a group of people behaving. But too often we try to solve human problem with non-human tools and in terms of non-human data; a human problem to be brought to human solution requires human data and human tools. This observation cripples the mechanistic approach as projected by the classical theorists by pin-pointing its deficiency; it is the underlying idea of the comparatively recent approach, namely the humanistic approach or the behavioral science approach. The essence of the humanistic approach lies in its dominant emphasis on people, upon human motivations, and upon informal group functioning. It rejects formal institutionalization. It considers the informal, day to day functioning of the structure more important and revealing than the charts, maps, diagrams, etc. The new pioneers did not dispute the importance of efficiency as a goal; but they assumed that organization behaviour is quite complex, subject to a wide range of influences impinging on human beings from all directions. The theorists


* Mary Parker Follet; Elton Mayo; Fritz Roethlisberger; Chester I. Barnard; A. Maslow; Douglas McGregor; Rensis Likert, Frederic Herzberg; Herbert A. Simon; Chris Argris; P. Drucker; Ralph Stogdill, etc. among others. Their works have been quoted throughout this study.
of newer approach are aware that the people who make up an organization are motivated by many forces besides those taken into account by the classicists and may be seeking goals quite different from those taken into account by the organization manuals. For analysis and solution of the organization problem, therefore, it is of utmost importance to comprehend the multidimensional nature of man. In opposition to Taylorism, which emphasized the authority of managers and openly ignored the simple executors of their will, the focus now is on human attitude to one's subordinates, respect for the individual and democratization of management.

The emergence of the 'human relations' model is closely linked with the name of Elton Mayo, widely known for his famous Chicago Hawthorne Plant experiments carried in the Western Electric Company as it was experiencing a great deal of work dissatisfaction. Efficiency experts had attempted to reduce tension among the employees and to increase production by using the tried and true "traditional" classical methods; but the results were not encouraging.

The aim of these on-the-spot experiments conducted by Mayo, Roethlisberger et al. was to study the effects of wrong

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physical environments, such as inadequate heating, excessive humidity, bad lighting, too much noise; fatigue caused by the incorrect proportions and timings of work periods and rest periods; leadership as well as of monetary inducements on efficiency. They further assumed that each worker was an isolated unit, in essence a "human machine" whose actions and performance could be measured and adjusted. As the experiments progressed, the researchers found that their assumptions were untenable. To his great surprise, Mayo found that the productivity of girls assembling telephone relays improved without regard to material factors such as rest-pauses, illumination and even monetary incentives. Startling as it appeared, the answer was in the motivation of workers. Given a feeling of importance by being singled out for attention, their attitudes and feelings, a subject of friendly interest, the girls responded in terms of the principle of human reaction.

Mayo inferred from these experiments that the satisfaction of chiefly psychological and social rather than material needs had the greatest influence on willingness to work and increasing efficiency. The girls had felt important for being chosen out of the thousands of workers as subjects of experiments. They believed that management considered them to be important. Further, the girls' social contact and pleasant relations among themselves and with their superiors, who gave them considerable freedom to work at their own pace and to divide work in a manner most suitable to them, made the work more agreeable and enjoyable.
The workers themselves could not explain what was influencing their attitude, yet informal groups had been formed, teamwork was there, and they sensed a feeling of increased self-worth, recognition, belongingness, participation which raised their social status among workers. Their work had become more meaningful and important to them and they had more attention and more responsibility. All these motivators were beneficial in raising morale and bringing about increased productivity. The subjects responded to the situation as a group. From these experiments, Mayo came to the conclusion that "Man is a uniquely social animal who can achieve complete freedom only by submerging himself in the group."26

In opposition to Taylor's concept of "homo-economicus", who meekly submits to the authoritarian administration, Mayo advocates a method of living in social relationship with other people, and, second, as part of this, an economic function for, and of value to, the group. This means that man's economic function does not exhaust his vital activity, while the individual's attitude to that function depends on its evaluation by people with whom he is associated and whose positions largely determine his social status. Mayo's great contribution was his recognition that the emergence of a group spirit was not a mere accident but

rather a crucial piece of the motivational puzzle that has previously been lacking.

The Hawthorne findings and their interpretations have not gone unchallenged. Analytical studies now make it clear that the Hawthorne experiments were poorly controlled, imprecise and 'scientifically illiterate'; yet, the importance of the Hawthorne findings does not lie in their experimental designs or control of variables but in their sincere endeavour to demonstrate that the human relations between workers and their superiors are important influences on their behaviour; at least as important as physical conditions and monetary incentives. It is this idea that many commentators have hailed as the "great illumination." In other words, the hallmark of Hawthorne findings is that people respond to trust and confidence rather than the strict formalization of the organization processes and the rigid hierarchy of subordination; and employees work more willingly and efficiently under friendly, relaxed superiors who help them use their abilities to the full. Herzberg rightly hails the Hawthorne experiments as a "landmark study". He comments that the behavioral scientist has debunked" the concept of the "economic man". Mayo had shown the inadequacy of the environment which corporate management has created, with its "rules, regulations, policies, organization structure .... its span of control, unity of direction, committees.

In this environment, the job of achievement and creativity is an unsought pleasure.\textsuperscript{30} The unique contribution of these experiments lies in that these set the ball rolling for a long series of studies. Douglas McGregor — usually hailed as a pioneer of the behavioral school,\textsuperscript{31} for example, raised a theoretical structure over Mayo's experimental design in his famous "Theory X" and "Theory Y" of motivation to the study of which we now turn our attention.

Motivation from the viewpoint of the "human relations" concept has been consistently worked out by late Dr. Douglas McGregor,\textsuperscript{32} in his oft quoted "Theory X" and "Theory Y". Under the classical system of organization, many behaviorists feel the assumption is that the employee should be limited to doing what his "boss" has ordered him to do and should be motivated to accomplish it in the hope of financial rewards or fear of punishment. Thus they tend to view the classical organization as based entirely on what McGregor labelled "Theory X", which is based on the following three cornerstones:

\begin{itemize}
  \item[a)] The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.
\end{itemize}


\textsuperscript{31} Whereas the exponents of Human Relations School put emphasis on the individual's social interactions for increasing efficiency; the behavioral scientists come to grips with the motivational problems of stimulating the individual's creative, spontaneous, and innovative behaviour at work. But to the investigator's mind they form one stream of thought because the behavioral scientists proclaim themselves as the adherents of the Human Relations School as will be noted in the following pages.

b) Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to work toward achieving organizational goals.

c) The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition and, above all, wants security. The result is that organizations don't operate as efficiently and effectively as their designers had expected. 33

Simply stated "Theory X" works on the assumption that people are normally lazy and unwilling to work and must be bribed, frightened, or psychologically manipulated to modify their behaviour to fit the needs of the organization. They are self-centred, indifferent, passive, and even resistant to the needs of the organization. Employees, therefore, must be led and directed by a recognized manager in authority within the organization.

Why do people work so hard if they don't like to? One simple answer is that work helps an individual in his self-actualization since many of his needs are served in and through the work. Work is a way to make money which enables us not only to meet a number of our basic physiological and safety needs, but also the increases in pay and promotions perform a symbolic function in that they determine our status in society as well as make possible for us to meet certain of our "esteem" needs. But what motivates some persons like missionaries, teachers, clergymen and scientists, who work hard even without material gains?

33. Ibid., p.33-34.
The possible answer lies in that the work besides bringing financial rewards decides a man's status in his social milieu which may provide him opportunity for securing power, cooperation, friendship, identification, self-actualization, and a feeling of participation and belonging.

Deeply impressed with the managerial and the organizational implications of the increasing accumulation of knowledge about human behaviour, McGregor, in contrast to "Theory X," formulated his assumptions of "Theory Y." Building on the work of the famous psychologists Abraham Maslow, Elton Mayo and being influenced by Rousseau's idea that people are essentially good, but their institutions make them grasping, deceitful, and contentious, McGregor holds:

a) Work is as natural to a human being as play or rest.

b) External control and threat of punishment are not the only ways for bringing about effort toward organizational goals. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed, and commitment is a function of rewards associated with goal achievement.

c) The average human being seeks responsibility. His avoidance of it is generally a consequence of some past frustration caused by poor management from above. The average human being has a high degree of imagination, integrity and creativity which is rarely utilized in modern organizational life, and this frustrates him and he is compelled to rebel against his organization.35


McGregor did not deny that employees are often lazy and indifferent to the organizational needs, but veering round Rousseau* he asserts that if people in the organization are indolent, passive, un-co-operative, uncreative, and irresponsible on the job, it is only because of their experience in the organization. Therefore, the essential task of the management is to provide an organizational structure which proves conducive to the utilization of people's talents in the achievement of organizational objectives.

Depicting the influence of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Peter Drucker and Frederick Herzberg, McGregor arrives at the conclusion that Management by Direction and Control (as projected by Theory X) is self-defeating, degrading and wasteful, and may not succeed because it is a questionable method for motivating people whose physiological and safety needs are reasonably satisfied; hence these needs have stopped acting as a motivator to make them work more efficiently. To motivate people and increase their efficiency, it is very important that the management must establish a climate which provides opportunity for the satisfaction of individual's social, esteem, and self-actualization needs. A man, writes a follower of McGregor, whose "stomach is satisfied by a secure supply becomes conscious of needs at a higher level. He seeks to feed his ego, which is more insatiable than any stomach, and to achieve a richer sense of his own
Many of these higher needs can best be satisfied by the kind of work that has a substantial content of intellectual activity and more choice. Reiterating Herzberg, McGregor also emphasizes that to motivate personnel, management should promote intrinsic job satisfaction and individual development. Especially management should enhance job enlargement, participation, consultative management, management by objectives, general supervision, strong cohesiveness and decentralization. McGregor maintains the view that employees are able to achieve the satisfaction of his social, esteem, and self-actualization needs only in the kind of organization as projected in his "Theory Y". Undoubtedly, Theory Y contains within its bosom all the values of its academic orientations, emphasizing autonomy, self-direction, inner direction and individual freedom. By encouraging independence, the exponents of the "theory Y" expect to stimulate initiative, contribution, involvement in work, and creativity of organizational members. Theory Y puts an extreme emphasis on self-actualization and freedom, implying that all people not only do desire but should desire them. It is, nevertheless, true that some persons want freedom but only within defined limits. As man is a part of organization, individual freedom without restraints degenerates into licence and lawlessness which ultimately weakens the organization. Unrestricted individualism

is, therefore, the law of the beast of jungle; we have to learn to strike the mean between individual freedom and organizational restraint. Freedom can be gained only through the bonds of discipline, through the sacrifice of personal inclinations, the ultimate freedom is the freedom of self-restraint.

McGregor discards the view that man is inherently evil, lazy, destructive, hurtful, irresponsible, narrowly self-centred, and the like. The life experiences which he has, including his relationships with other people and the impact on him of the organizations with which he associates, can, and often, do move him in these directions. He has supreme faith in the inner nobility and decency of human nature. McGregor's image of man, therefore, contrasts as drastically with Taylor's as Hobbes's contrasts with that of Rousseau's.

Is man good by nature? The assumption is true in the sense that man is potentially good. McGregor's philosophy is not an unscientific vagary based on bad psychology. His thought reveals the genuine urge of mankind to evolve further for the unfolding of man's natural capacities. Moral grandeur and sublime altruism are also facts of human life, But to expect that all members of organization can at all times work for their self-actualization, and be devoted to constructive problem-solving than playing games with each other is to ask for the moon. The
very basis of man as a being is a contradiction; man is neither an angel nor a beast. And the great play of human life lies in the struggle of man against evil in him. Human character is not the fine flower of a beautiful sentiment but the hard-won fruit of a painful and prolonged conquest. The making of individual character is spread over years, and that of nations over centuries. Furthermore, it is a mistaken notion that the intellectual conviction of what is good will necessarily lead to good action. There is a gulf between the two; the logic of the passions has to be taken into account by a realist who is anxious to improve man and reform organizations.

Douglas McGregor falls into the error of Benthamite psychology by dwelling on 'inherent goodness' of man to the exclusion of his biological instincts. Without instincts actions would be impossible, since the most calculated deliberations are determined by instincts. Thus the baseness in man is not supplementary or subordinate to his goodness but, indeed, an equally potent and compelling force that determines his behaviour. These biological instincts colour man's rationality and ethics. The "immanent purposiveness of the world is not inconsistent with the presence of evil, ugliness and error". Life moves in a cadence of constant adjustment of opposites; it is a perpetual process of reconciliation of contradictions.

39. Ibid.
Latest researches suggest that a substantial body of employees react negatively to opportunities for challenge, self-motivation and self-direction on the job. It is chiefly people who have a high value for independence and weak authoritarian attitudes who are likely to respond positively to consultation by their superiors. 40

McLelland has stressed what he terms "need achievement". Persons high in need achievement react well to challenge; they consider a job well-done as their primary reward. They cherish freedom to undertake risks, and pursue a challenging goal to build up a motivated achieving team, those who are low on this dimension are primarily playing it safe and avoiding failure. Presumably this latter group prefers direction to autonomy. Such persons will be more inclined towards achieving security, money and material possessions including peer acceptance. 41

Vroom's study of a parcel delivery service indicates that drivers, who see their bosses only a few minutes each day, are more likely to prefer bosses with strong authoritarian attitudes, whereas dock workers, who are in close contact with their boss all the day long, prefer those who are democratic. 42

The foregoing analysis clearly brings out that no single form of motivation is universally acceptable. This line of

thought has led to attempts to develop, "field" theories which would take these and other factors into account — theories which would explain, for example, the conditions under which Theory Y would be more appropriate. Among the propagators of these theories have been Vroom, and Lawler and Porter.

Nonetheless, McGregor's contributions in the shape of "Theory X" and "Theory Y" are landmarks. Theory Y is an invitation to innovation; there is not a great deal of precedent for implementing it. Theory Y is neither an invitation to disorder, nor an abdication of management responsibilities. Theory Y does not deny the need for authority but recognizes it as merely one of several methods of managerial control; one that is appropriate for some of the time, but not for all time. In this, McGregor is very close to M.K. Gandhi who also believed in the innate goodness of man, and, therefore, in the exercise of minimum control over him; in strong opposition to Taylor who true to the Hobbesian theory of Sovereignty believed in the maximum control over man.

Discussions on the nature of human behaviour immediately following the publication of McGregor theories tended to regard "Theory Y" as the missing link in the much-sought-after theory of motivation. Managers all over the world for fairly good time

believed that the only correct approach to human effectiveness is to highlight reliance on self-control, self-motivation and self-direction (Theory Y) as against exclusive reliance upon external control of human behaviour (Theory X). The ideas mooted by Elton Mayo and woven into theoretical garments by Douglas McGregor are reflected in much of the behavioral science and management writings of today. The support comes from Chris Argris, Herzberg, and Rensis Lickert to which we now turn.

In evaluating the causes of workers' apathy and lack of interest in the organization work, Chris Argris comes to the conclusion that these are not the results of the individual's laziness but the repercussions of the organization climate. He holds the opinion that in many cases, when people come to join the work force, they are kept away from maturing by the management practices used in their organizations. These organizations psychologically hobble people because management has deliberately raised the pyramidal, hierarchical organization as a strategy designed to exercise the greatest control over persons. In these organizations, "the workers are given minimal control over their environment and are encouraged to be passive, dependent, and sub-ordinate. Initiative and discretion have been reduced; conformity and obedience have been demanded from the members; hence they behave immaturesly." 46

Argris advanced the thesis that most human problems would be solved if managers used a leadership style similar to that advocated by McGregor. Argris's research on job design and motivation brings out that "in order for the individual to express more of his knowing and feeling abilities, he requires a work environment over which he has greater control, where he can make decisions concerning goals, policies, and practices. This type of job enlargement cannot be restricted to the tasks found along the flow of work."\(^{47}\) The employee must be provided "more power over his own work"; he must become "self-responsible."\(^{48}\) Giving people the opportunity to grow and mature on the job helps them satisfy more than just their physiological and security needs, which in turn motivate them and permit them to use more of their potential in accomplishing organizational goals. Of course, all workers do not want to accept more responsibility, but the number of employees whose motivation can be improved by increasing and upgrading their responsibility is much larger than most managers would suspect.

Another group of behavioral scientists, adherents of the "Human Relations" school of thought, have proposed new and very effective methods for making people work. The best-known defenders of the new approach are F. Herzberg and Rensis Lickert. The initial premise of Lickert and Herzberg is that money cannot be considered a permanently acting motivator, since people will work

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48. Ibid.
for money only up to a definite degree, which is limited by the satisfaction of their personal view of what is a "good life."

Herzberg, as we have seen, calls money and fringe benefits "negative motivators" since people feel unhappy if they have no money, but money does not necessarily make them happier or productive.

Rensis Lickert in his work "New Patterns of Management"\(^4^9\)

emphasizes the need to consider both human resources and capital resources as assets requiring proper management. As a result of behavioral research studies of various organizations, Lickert introduces a pattern which he believes can establish a management system of maximum effectiveness. Lickert throws more light on his concepts by postulating four systems of management.

System 1 management is designated by him as "Exploitative-authoritative."\(^5^0\) The supervisors under this system are highly autocratic having no confidence and trust in subordinates; the latter do not feel free at all to discuss things about the job with the former. The supervisor seldom shares ideas and opinions of subordinates in solving job problems; motivates people through fear, threats, punishment, and occasional rewards; believes in downward communication; makes bulk of decisions at the top often unaware or only partially aware of problems, particularly of those at the lower levels of organization; decision-making contributes little or nothing to the motivation to implement the decision.\(^5^1\)

\(^5^1\). Ibid., p.4-10.
Lickert describes System 2 as "benevolent authoritative."52 These superiors have condescending confidence and trust, such as a master has to a servant; subordinates do not feel quite free to discuss problems about their work with their superiors; the superiors motivate with rewards and some fear and actual punishment; permit some upward communication; solicit some ideas and opinions from subordinates, and allow some delegation of decision-making.53

System 3 management is called by Lickert "Consultative". In this, the superiors have substantial but not complete confidence and trust in the subordinates; still wish to keep control of decision; subordinates feel rather free to discuss things about the job with their superiors; the latter usually seek ideas and opinions of their juniors and try to make constructive use of them. Rewards, occasional punishment, and some involvement are used to motivate workers. There is a moderate communication flow both "down and up"; the superiors make broad policies and general decisions at top, with more specific decisions at the lower level; subordinates are consulted but ordinarily not involved in the decision-making; and the superiors act consultatively in other matters.54

Lickert hails System 4 management as "participative-group."55 In this model, the superiors have complete confidence and trust in all matters in their subordinates. The latter feel completely free to discuss things about the job with the former; the superiors always get ideas and opinions and always try to make constructive use of them; use economic rewards based on compensation system developed through participation and involvement in setting goals, improving methods, appraising progress towards goals. The superiors engage in much communication down, up, and horizontal, know and understand problems of subordinates very well; encourage decision-making, widely through the organization; and except in emergencies, usually establish goals by means of group participation.56

By and large, Lickert observed that the efforts of those superiors who applied System 4 approach based on teamwork,

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52. Ibid., p. 25, 27.
53. Ibid., p. 4-10.
54. Ibid., p. 24, 25.
55. Ibid., p. 4-10
56. Ibid.
mutual trust, and confidence in their organizations were crowned with success. Further, he noticed that organizations managed by the System 4 pattern were most effective in setting goals and achieving them and scored high productivity. He ascribes it mainly to the extent of participativeness in management and to the extent to which the practice of supportive relationships is maintained. The essence of Lickert's writings is that the ideal and most productive leader behaviour conducive to efficiency and effectiveness is employee-centred or democratic. There is a force in the observation that Lickert's programmes were intended to help organizations move from Theory X to Theory Y assumptions; from fostering immature behaviour to encouraging and developing mature behaviour (Argyris), from emphasizing only hygienic or maintenance factors to recognizing and helping workers to satisfy the motivators (Herzberg).

Coch and French in their experimental studies carried out at a pyjama manufacturing company, the Harwood Manufacturing Corporation, Marion, Virginia, also found that active participation on the part of workers in matters that were of consequence to them had a positive effect on the morale, job satisfaction, absenteeism and labour turnover. The reason is that in the

57. Ibid., Chapt.10.


participating situation workers identify themselves with the decisions arrived at, and these are faithfully carried out by them leading to increase in output.

The investigator also finds agreement between the views presented by Atkinson in his model $M \times E \times I = \text{Arousing Motivation}$ and the ideas expressed by McGregor (Theory Y). To Atkinson, a person's aroused motivation to behave in a particular way depends on the strength or readiness of his motives, and on two kinds of perceptions of the situation: his experiences of goal attainment and the incentive values he attaches to the goals (in view). It means that the tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of the expectancy or belief that the act will lead to a particular outcome or goal. Here Atkinson is also close to Vroom's theory of Expectancy.

The Atkinson model was developed to explain behaviour and performance related to the need for achievement (n Achievement). More recently, the method has been used to explain behaviour related to the need for power (n Power), defined as a need for control and influence over others, and the need for affiliation (n Affiliation), defined as a need for warm, friendly relationships. All these qualities of motivation have been shown to be important determinants of performance and success in organizations, as advocated in Theory Y.

Recapitulating the Human Relations/Behavioral School of management has made a significant contribution to the growth and development of the philosophical and sociological foundations of organization and management thought. It was this stream of thought that was able to make a correct analysis of the psychological possibilities of individual needs, which were side-tracked by the Classical theorists—particularly Taylor who maintained that people are motivated to satisfy only the physiological needs; hence more money could motivate people to put in more work. The human relationists/behavioral scientists throw light on non-monetary factors such as supervisory attitudes and behaviour, employee satisfaction, worker's education, participative management, group decisions, morale, and a myriad of informal groupings, informal relationships, patterns of communication, and patterns of informal leadership in increasing efficiency.

Yet, despite the widespread influence of this stream of thought on organization and management, it has not gained universal recognition; its penetration has been shallow and is, moreover, criticized on the ground that its concepts like "Democratic management," "the decentralization of responsibility," "group decisions," are only "wishful thinking." 61 The propagators of human relations say "Remove fear and people will work." This, to a critic, was "a tremendous contribution", particularly

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at a time when management still felt that people could be motivated only through fear. Yet practice has shown that absence of fear and of other negative motives is not enough. New positive "motivations" are needed, but here the Human Relations School offers but generalities. Reiterating the School's maxim that "the happier worker is an efficient and productive worker", the same critic calls it "at best a half-truth"; "It is not the business", he says, "of the enterprise to create happiness." 62

In this respect, the development in the thinking of McGregor himself is quite revealing. He writes:

I believed, for example, that a leader could operate successfully as a kind of adviser to his organization. I thought I could avoid being 'boss'.... I hoped to duck the unpleasant necessity of making difficult decisions, of taking the responsibility for one course of action, among many uncertain alternatives, of making mistakes and taking the consequences.

I thought that may be I could operate so that everyone would like me - that 'good human relations' would eliminate all discord and disagreement. I could not have been more wrong. It took a couple of years, but I finally began to realise that a leader cannot avoid the exercise of authority. 63

"It was not my intention," writes McGregor in his final work "to suggest more than that these (Theory X and Theory Y) are examples of two among many managerial cosmopologies." 64


From this it is clear that McGregor emphasized the situational nature of the strategies implied in his theory. He wanted theory Y to be "a more reality-centred view of people."65

This transition from reliance on human relations to a criticism of that model even by McGregor does not mean that we have to discard this stream of thought. Rather its insights are a major foundation in managing human organizations. But since the ideas propounded by the exponents of the Human Relations/Behavioral School of thought are novel and have no precedent of implementation in comparison to the classical principles, it was to be expected that managers in general would be reluctant to replace the tested theories. Furthermore, as human relations theorists have not yet produced a complete integrated set of theories such as is provided by the theorists of classical organization, many managers may be confused about what they should do to make use of the findings. Although the practical results achieved by the Human Relations School/Behavioral School should not be exaggerated, a broader and deeper approach to problems of organization as a result of the recognition of the need for a study of "human factor" is a pre-condition for the formulation of a genuinely scientific theory of motivation. Therefore, propositions like democratic supervision, participative management, etc. should be empirically and critically examined before their

incorporation in the operation of any organization for its healthy growth.

Where does the university librarian interested in having an organizational structure conducive to the growth of efficiency stand in the face of the views offered by the theorists of the two well-recognized streams of managerial thought?

Vroom, as noted above, found that authoritarian system (or Theory X) was more suited to situations wherein workers have less contact with the leaders, while democratic type of supervision was found to be more conducive to a situation wherein workers have greater frequency with their superiors. Researchers like McGregor have hypothesized that "Theory Y" would be conducive to efficiency for ideally mature, self-disciplined persons (viz. mathematicians, physicists, doctors, lawyers, professors) or for those who work on jobs where organizational goals are value-oriented as well as the job providing ideal working conditions (viz., teaching, engineering, research and development); rather than materistic ones; and its participants internalize its goals.

In the light of the foregoing summarized facts it is the purpose of the investigator to explore the effectiveness of the two streams of management and organizational thought in increasing efficiency in the situation as presented by the university libraries in India. Needless to repeat that library is a teaching, research and service organization as projected in our chapter on "The Problem".
The need for such a work becomes all the more important because of the paucity of studies available in the whole of library literature on 'motivation' — the most important but the least understood aspect.

Undoubtedly, there have appeared some articles and books suggesting the incorporation of scientific management to libraries; and the influence of Human Relations school is also reflected in some writings. But to the best of the present investigator's knowledge the studies on motivation of library personnel on empirical basis are not only scant in the library literature but conspicuous by their absence at least in India.

There is, however, a book under almost a similar title as that of the present study "Personnel Motivation and Work Efficiency in Libraries." Surprisingly, the author does not evaluate the term motivation itself, much less the studies bearing on it. Some principles of classical theory of management are raised against the "background of a sumptuous anthology from writings on the General Theory of Management, along with a sketchy description of Hawthorne studies. But the contributions of the Behavioral School of Management are ignored altogether. Moreover the study is not based on empirical basis. The present study drastically differs from this work.

(From pre-page...)

78. Elizabeth W. Stone, Training for the improvement of library administration (Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois, Graduate School of Library Science, 1967).
80. R. Serjean, Sheffield manpower project (Mimeographed) (University of Sheffield, 1976).
In his article "Some Human Problems of Decentralization," Richard Emery\(^8\) briefly reviews Herzberg's theory of motivation and asks the librarians, especially those administering decentralized collections and scattered staffs, to pay attention to Herzberg's variables to effective motivation, but not to adhere to his two-fold division between intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

Kathleen B. Stebbins\(^8\) also discusses briefly certain aspects of motivation such as recognition, recruitment, communication etc. Rogers and Weber\(^8\) also touch certain aspects of motivation viz. role of supervisor, service reviews, staff committees etc.

In the light of the total void that exists in the area of writings on 'Motivation,' the present is a step toward filling that gap. The investigator intends to approaching the problem in an empirical manner. The essential scientific steps basic to a systematic empirical study are described in the chapter to follow, along with the description of design and methodology adopted in the study.

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