Bibliography:


For developing countries this investment in human resources can be one of their best resources. If systematic requirements are taken into careful consideration, there is no reason why the organisational psychology cannot be applied there, with the developed countries' libraries practices and experiences in participative management, group decisions-making and motivation as guidelines, to make for more effective libraries in these countries.

So we can not motivate in vacuum and if misunderstanding and underestimation of any factor of the high level motivation occurred, it might result in disastrous result. And Schein (1980) places his emphasis that human motivation complex and not yet fully understood.
Conclusions:

Organisational psychology now has its principles, practices, theories and methods. But none of these theories and methods or techniques are necessarily better or worse than any of the others. In fact they are probably best regarded as complementary to each other, the disadvantages of any one approach being reduced when used in coordination with another.

In fact it appears that in any situation task motivated leaders seem to be most effective. Because they benefit from theories and methods of organisational psychology in assessing their subordinates behaviour, in addition to their technical knowledge. The result that the ideal manager is one who is keep the human and activities factors in balance.

Libraries and information centres as well have been meeting demands for new products which have been made possible by new technologies and empirical adaptations. Increasingly, time and experience are permitting an examination of objectives performance effectiveness, work group arrangements, and organisation alliances for which knowledge of organisational psychology is helpful.

Researchers in this field, have found that motivation theories are applicable to libraries, and can apply to them as much as with other organisations. And also they have found that librarians are motivate at work much the same as other people.

So library managers need to benefit from management personality style and they should explore their knowledge in partecipative management. They should also know how to set motivating goals, and how to redesign positions to build morale, to be operated more effectively.
But jumping in organisational psychology theories is a dangerous thing because it means money, effort, time and skills wasted against nothing. So not any symptom of organisational psychology needs should be taken indication that organisational psychology is needed. Some practices and principles should be developed and recognised first, such as job analysis, job description, job evaluation and staff appraisal.

If the manager wants to motivate his subordinates, he will require to benefit from the perspective and will improve employee morale, and will have the agreement of the top managers because autocratic management and lack communication are enough to paralyse him and prevent him from doing his job effectively, because easy communication are enough to paralyse him and prevent him from doing his job effectively, because easy communication and cooperation are essential to him. But he is going to face the problem of selection, because “if he needs to think constructively, about the problems of individuals in organisation and test their thinking with empirical research interest in organisational psychology grow. The first questions deal with the assessment and selection of individual worker. Selection is made more scientific by measuring in individuals those characteristics which the organisation required of its new members.” (Schein, 1980) But in some developing countries there are “The Civil Service Boards” which channel people into jobs and this known as the “Classification Model” of selection. I do not mean at all we do nothing about organisational psychology until we have everything ready for it, and this might mean probably so many years before we can have such environment. What I mean is simply that once we are aware and convinced of satisfaction importance and its requirements, we will do our best to ensure that all the factors for successful motivation are ensured, and we will not be satisfied with motivation but with high level motivation and satisfaction.
But in looking at libraries and evaluating their to become more effective in their decision-making processes, we must consider those factors which favour participative management and those which do not.

To me it seems that there is a priority to motivation in developing countries, it is awareness of the importance and value of training. Secondly there should be a consideration of the individual needs in the light of modern behavioural sciences theories, and a detailed study be made of experiences of the developed countries. The principles of modern management theories must be considered and better cooperation and participation be practiced.

I know that what I say mean so manythings to be done and probably some of them are out of the control of the single manager, but what I mean is effective library service has its requirements and if we do not respond to these requirements we will not receive satisfaction results.

Needs identifications must be the responsibility of every one in the organisation. The individual identify his needs, the managers identify their subordinates needs and the whole body of the managers, and higher management identify the overall needs of the organisation.
Here we can say that the library manager prime role is one of developing people who want to participate spontaneously and cooperatively in reaching both organisational and personal goals. So library manager is demanding greater opportunity for participation in decision making through which he can improve services and at the same time restructure the library organisation to better actualize his aspirations.

Also emphasis certain listening techniques and train in communication and respond as benefit from the theories of motivation and to improve his employees morale, and to know how to motivate employees, to operate more effectively.

**Can Organisational Psychology Methods be Applied to Libraries in Developing Countries?**

"In developing countries, it is argued that only a strong autocratic kind of leadership can work because only a small elite group really knows what country needs, and only strong centralized control can ensure the coordination necessary to meet those needs. If such leaders can persuade the citizens or members of their organisations that what is being done is ultimately in their own best interests, they elicit fairly high levels of motivation as we have frequently witnessed in countries whose directors are admired and supported.” (Schein, 1980)
and developed to meet day-to-day staff situation in a way in which empirical common sense will have difficulty.

It is important that the manager of a service organisation like a library or information unit makes this effort for two reasons:

- First, his product, being service, is closely linked with the attitudes of serving staff themselves and it is not possible by inspection to reveal a faculty service in the easy way that faculty materials can be detected, and

Secondly, the cost of labour is likely to continue rising at a greater rate than that of the manager's other main tools, machinery and materials, and he must therefore use the staff he really does need to best advantage. (Dutton, 1973)

So most libraries appear to be managed by managers who use a great deal of the formalistic managerial style and bits and pieces of various social - systems approaches. (Evans, 1976)

But meeting need of employees in libraries will require specializations among the staff, an emphasis on individual performance in a team context, perception and flexibility in interpersonal communication, and extensive distributed management skill. (Swanson, 1973)

An appreciation of the nature of communication is essential to give meaning to the most important step in fostering participation - this is for manager and subordinate to develop a dialogue focused on objectives that are real to both parties. (Dutton, 1973)
Generally these facts above lead us to say that organisational psychology theories are applicable to apply with libraries as well as with other organisations. Because those experiences above and some others are attempted most of those theories in different kinds of libraries in developed countries, and found those theories in different kinds of libraries in developed countries, and found those results above. All those facts mean that libraries as many other organisations need managerial skills and analytic expertise related to patron service, both demanding a high degree of interpersonal interaction.

Library Manager:-

The real source of library managers power - as other managers lay in their own knowledge and skill and strength of their own personalities, not in the authority conferred on them by their positions. So "libraries need managers and leaders who are knowledgeable and skilled. They need to attract, train, select, and promote those who can manage or learn to do so. Professional and technical expertise and success are simply not enough. Libraries are complicated organisations that call for those who can assume the appropriate type and level of responsibility. There are people of all skill levels to manage, and problems before librarians demand the most advanced managerial techniques." (Rizzo, 1980)

Managers to manage staff well require a formal effort to grasp the import of the influences, because individual attitudes can be controlled
The later writer conclude that libraries are suitable institutions for the application of Theory Y because of several reasons. First, librarians are by nature knowledge workers who have professional interests and thus are specially susceptible to motivations based upon desires for esteem and self-actualization. Next, the attitudes and duties of librarians are usually oriented toward providing information desired by patrons rather than toward obtaining financial returns; as a result, higher-level motivations may often be satisfied through the idealistic performance of services. Finally, libraries can usually be organized so that each worker has a rewarding interesting, and unique area of responsibility, thereby stimulating the fulfillment of ego motivators. (Morton, 1972)

But it should be noted that other researcher in this field are not agreed that organisations which adopt this human relations or resources philosophy (McGregor’s Theory Y) become more effective organisations as a result. ... In library management the dialogue between Lynch (1972) and Marchant (1971) would seem to confirm this. (Shimmon, 1976)

Generally these facts above lead us to say that organisational psychology theories are applicable to apply with libraries as well as with other organisations. Because those experiences above and some others are attempted most of those theories in different kinds of libraries in developed countries, and found those theories in different kinds of libraries in developed countries, and found those results above. All those facts mean that libraries as many other organisations need managerial skills and analytic-experience related to patron service, both demanding a high degree of interpersonal interaction.
Researches have been attempted to use some of human relations theories, such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's research in job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, McGregor's Theory Y, and staff participation, to see how apply them in libraries.

"But the library researcher who borrows a theory, however must fully understand its assumptions and limitations and must be through familiar with the empirical evidence which tends to support or to limit the application of the theory to the problems of librarianship." (Lynch, 1972)

Some researchers found that "recent theories in management and social psychology have addressed themselves to the implications of participative management and group decision-making, and their findings appear to have important applications to libraries, not the least of which is personnel development." (Marchant, 1971) Marchant had used measures developed by Likert in the context of the same theory or developed valid and reliable measures of his own, his research would have added to the knowledge of the relationships of participation in decision-making and library effectiveness. So he found that an increase in the library staff's participation in decision-making will increase in the library effectiveness. (Lych, 1972)

Other researchers suggest that generalizations of the Herzberg research apply with as much forces librarianship as to the other occupations. (Plate & Stone, 1974) Also other one suggest that an assessment of job satisfaction among the personnel of a library would be a useful diagnostic tool for evaluating the performance of library managers. (D'Elia, 1979) The other find it necessary to collect and analyse the data necessary to demonstrate the participation is good in that it enhances the quality of working life of librarians and maintains or increase library productivity should this indeed prove to be the case. (Brown, 1977)
Human Relations in Libraries:

One of the clichés found in management literature is that the function of management is to integrate the personal needs of individuals working in an organisation with the goals of the organisation. So “the library is an organisation having the purpose or purposes of providing a professional service to the public or to special publics. All of its employees are then the means by which this service will be provided. How well this service will be rendered will depend upon how well the various activities are carried out by the employees of the library. How adequately these employees will perform will depend upon their own self-motivation or how well they have been motivated by their supervisors.” (Goodman, 1971)

This means that library employees need motivation to do their activities well, and to make them satisfy in their work. But motivation is very complex. It is inseparable from an individual’s goals, values, psychic needs, and life experiences. But what motivates employee or group of employees may fail completely to motivate another. (Evans, 1976)

So participative management use of group (committees), and involvement in decision-making process, have taken place in libraries. This means that libraries attempted human relations knowledge or motivation theories in their management. But do this knowledge applicable for libraries? In answering this question we need to look around some researches have been done to attempt to use some of this knowledge in managing libraries.
3. Developing supportive personal relationships with operatives in which the leader makes himself available and ready to talk and listen to members of his team, and develop them for their future career.

4. Encouraging the development of group solidarity and loyalty, where members have pride in the group and help each other. (Katz, & Kahn, 1978)

So the leader—manager here is viewed as a person who acts a three-way communication in so far as relates upwards, downwards and sideways in the organisation.

Organisational Psychology and Libraries:

Most of organisational changes were happened first in the industrial and productive organisations. While the traditional approach of management was adopted widely in libraries as being the most appropriate to their purposes and functions. So there were no lines of sweating slaves or many managers who felt that no matter what their decision was to be right, there were some problems. The traditional approach tends to be rather conservative, making it difficult to change methods, concepts, or objectives. On the whole it was however the period of no change, especially in the area of management.

But by the late 1930s the Scientific Management began for libraries after some researches produce in this field in that time. Studies on cost analysis, technical services, cataloguing and the use of edge-notched cards appeared about that time. Then people began to look seriously at some of the work done by Tylor and others to see whether or not there were some techniques applicable to library situation.

But most of this theory tended to concerned primarily with activities and things rather than with people. So the emphasis has been on determining work flow without regard for personnel. (Evans, 1976)
Rensis Likert has described the leadership role as follows: "The leader fully reflects and effectively represents the views, goals, values, and decisions of his group in those other groups where he is performing the function of linking his group to the rest of the organisation. He brings to the group of which he is leader the view, goals, and decisions of these other groups. In this way he provides a linkage whereby communication and the exercise of influence can be performed in both directions. (Pollard, 1974)

All these studies suggest that a participative, considerate, or supportive leadership style may be most effective when the decisions are nonroutine in nature, when the information required for effective decision making cannot be centralized nor standardized, or when because rapid decision making is not required, there is time for subordinates to be involved in the process. Whether subordinates feel a need for independence, regard their participation in decision making or are confident enough to work without close supervision also may influence the effectiveness of a participative leadership style. (Lynch, 1972)

Finally we can say that the more effective leader, who likely to spend his time:

1. Planning operations and supervising, rather than being involved in day-to-day work.
2. Delegating work and helping people to learn how to complete new tasks, without supervising too closely, and thus providing operatives with sufficient discretion over the control of the tasks.

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This is appeared in Sadler's four behaviour style of leader-telling, selling, participating, and delegating which are somewhat oversimplified and not much attention is given to the problem of behavioural flexibility. (Schein, 1980)

Although Blake and Mouton (1978), in their Managerial Grid, which is based on some factors to aid managers in assessing their managerial style. They identify two independent dimensions of leadership: concern for people and concern for production, each of which they measure on a scale of 1 to 9. According to them the ideal manager is extremely concerned with both. They refer to him as a '9,9' manager. On the basis of these assertions they have developed a management development package which they offer to industry; this aims in its early stages to help managers to identify their existing style and to move towards a '9,9' style.

Now we come to say that the democratic leadership style is important because it removes a potential source of discontent by simply ensuring that channels for the expression of subordinates' opinions are always available on the occasions when they do wish to use them. Because members (subordinates) need feedbacks, or punishments. Whatever is observed to be missing, it is the leader's role to ensure its accomplishment, even if this requires personal intervention. In order to supply missing functions the leader must be very skilled at observing group problem-solving processes and intervening in such process effectively.
their style to the nature of the task. They argue that appropriate leader behaviour is not only a function of subordinate characteristics in general, but also a specific function of the stage of the group’s development. If the leader wants to develop maturity among subordinates, they suggest reducing task behaviour by delegating more to subordinates but being ready to increase relationship behaviour as a positive reinforcer of the group’s success. (Schein, 1980) This is different approach from that held in bureaucratic organisations, where the system of operations is governed by the person occupying a given role stipulating specific areas of action and decision-making. (Margerison, 1973)

Though leadership qualities under participative management are not the same as those appropriate in a bureaucracy. The need turns more toward the ability to get people to interact and focus that interaction on the subject at hand.

It seems that the leader’s role is not diminished but it is changed in nature. So “authoritarian leadership, may be appropriate when speed is of the sence or incertain circumstances when a firm hand is needed to resolve a crisis situation. Participative leadership may be appropriate when idea generation is important or when dealing with an issue on which the staff feel particulary strongly and the ‘Sells’ approach may sometimes be necessary when a manager wishes to make changes which stem from his own desire to innovate rather than from the need to respond to a given contingency.” (Hall, 1979)
the sensitivity and diagnostic ability to be able to sense and appreciate
the differences.... They will be flexible and will be prepared to accept a
variety of interpersonal relationships, patterns of authority, and
psychological contracts. (Schein, 1980)

The way which a manager exercises this authority is called
managerial style, and it is this style which substantially influences the
effectiveness of a manager as a leader. So there are three types of
leadership styles; autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire.

Leadership is the ability to persuade others to seek defined
objectives enthusiastically. It is human factor that binds a group
together and motivates it toward goals ... It is the ultimate act that
brings to success all the potential that is in an organisation and its
people. (Kast, 1979)

The pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must some
relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities and goals of the
followers. ... It becomes clear that an adequate analysis of leadership
involve not only a study of leaders, but also of situation. (Schein, 1980)
So “Vroom and Yetton observed that managers typically use a variety
of styles, depending on the situation. However, they concluded that
most managers would be more effective if they were both more
autocratic and more participative.” (Kast, 1979)

While Hersey and Blanchard’s focus on subordinate needs
contracts sharply with Fiedler’s assertion that leader must locate
situation that fit their own style, and Vroom’s assertion that leaders
must adept
So managers should be able to understand the economic and technological forces at their powers in terms of the laws which govern their existence. But it is therefore, more difficult for managers to understand and control the behaviour of their subordinates. (Margerison, 1973)

Authority in the other hand is a special subclass of power; it is an institutionalized right to introduce psychological or behavioural change. "Brown define the concept of minimal managerial authority, which enables a manager to make decisions regarding people and resources and to be held accountable for those decisions. (Margerison, 1973)

Authority, coupled with status and role systems, supplies this necessary element. These key ingredients result in reasonably well-defined roles to be performed by organisational participants so that behaviour is not entirely spontaneous and unrehearsed. (Kast, 1979)

To act authority is needed to transfer down the system through the delegation process. "The delegation process is one of the most difficult activities undertaken by a manager. The primary difficulty lies with the individual and how well he or she is able to deal with the problem of delegation responsibility for an activity, yet remaining responsible for the activity." (Evans, 1976) But when a manager fails in this process he is causing a blockage of the whole system of the organisation.

The most important implication is that managers should be good diagnosticians and should value a spirit of inquiry. If the abilities and motives of the people under them are variable, managers should have
manager should bring together people to identify common objectives and to assess the best means of achieving them. Clearly there will sometimes be differences between people on both ends and means. The manager's task is to practise the skills of interpersonal relationships, so as allow the group to express their views, yet enable them to find common ground upon which to act. It means that an important feature of manager's role is that he is in a position of authority, power, or influence - within the organisation - over others.

Here it is important to recognise that different kinds of organisation depend upon different kinds of authority and power, and this in turn limits the kind of involvement their members can have - that is, leads to certain kinds of psychological contract. (Schein, 1980) Because power is the ability to introduce psychological or behaviour change.

So power is seen not as a set quality, but like capital, is susceptible to indefinite growth as it is shared. Participative management is emerging in which manager and workers share powers of decision on the matters that directly affect the employee in his job situation, not only his welfare, but the use of his talents. This means that power is the capacity to affect behaviour in predetermined ways.

So the ability to motivate or lead, for example, is a manifestation of the power to change another's behaviour in a desired direction. In particular a manager may be able to draw on a number of sources of power simultaneously; such as men, money, machines and materials; a subordinate might obey an order for a combination of the reasons for those sources. (Boot, 1977)
The implementation of change is largely a matter of sources of power and methods of influence, that organisations react psychologically rather than logically and that persuasion or rational argument is only a possible method of influence when he is regarded as the appropriate expert. Having realised all this he may being to feel that ends are not worth the very troublesome means. But having recovered from his initial depression he will see that the appropriate psychological progression would be:

1. Create an awareness of the need for change.
2. Select an appropriate initiating person or group.
3. Be prepared to allow the recipients adept the final strategy.
4. Accept the fact that, like the good psycho-analyst, the successful doctor gets no credit but must let the patient boast of his sound condition.
5. Be prepared to accept a less than optimum strategy in the interests of achieving something rather than nothing.

So the adaptive manager is who knows when change is needed, what change is needed, and how to bring it about without disruption. (Handy, 1977)

Managers in change will need to acquire other skills and knowledge, because of the great development of technology and automation at the last decades in all organisations, but in the last analysis, success will depend on how effective they are in gaining the co-operation of their staff to complete the task in hand. This means that the role of the
Finally we can say that we understand what is meant by organisational psychology through these methods, which can lead us to go to the next section to know the manager's role, who is going to use these methods in managing organisations and in particular managing libraries, to see how effectively work by using those methods at the end of this text.

**THE MANAGER'S ROLE:**

Manager is regularly exhorted as planer, controller, organiser, communicator, and motivator in the organisation. This means that “manager's task is not to do the work of organisation, but to ensure that the work of the organisation is done; to structure the work situation to enable people to work effectively.” (Margerison, 1973)

There are personal and official requirements to be met in the manager. He should have and develop qualities such as “an ability to deal with people.” Mostly manager deals with change and change is not easily accepted, for this reason he is required to deal with the individuals successfully and helps to create the climate in which change is accepted. On the personal side he must to be hard working and flexible. “People who take the lead likely to differ somewhat from other group members. In general they are likely to be rather more intelligent, self confident, adjusted, dominant, and extroverted than non-leader.” (Boot, 1977)

As I said managers must be alert to such changes predicate decisions on motivational theory assumed applicable only to those of a certain age or cultural group. (Schein, 1980)
rather than as cogs in a machine, and for workers to be allowed to exert at least some influence on the overall objectives and decisions of the organisation as well as to be influenced by them. (Pollard, 1974) So all these are most likely to be effective in non-bureaucratic structure, where reline is not placed solely or fundamentally on the economic motive of buying a man's time and using control and authority as the organising and coordinating principle of the organisation. (Silverman, 1970)

We seek cooperative relationships in all phases or our lives. We typically enjoy face-to-face communication in groups of all types. Because communication is the basis of group dynamics, allowing the interactions that are necessary in carry out the group's activity.

So the effective working group is characterized by sound interpersonal communication. This more than just fulfilling the minimum formal communications required to keep the organisation operational. (Margerison, 1973)

But the key question is how to make them more effective. By making sure that only relevant people are involved in a particular issue, we can encourage, participation on topics of interest to the group. By paying attention to the process by which the group functions, as well as to the task it is engaged in we can improve performance and increase participant satisfaction. So effectiveness could be defined then in terms of how quickly or cheaply or efficiently goal progress was occurring.
given person can vary his or her behaviour from autocratic to delegative. (Schein, 1980)

But it should be emphasized that it is not uncommon to have an informal participative unit in generally autocratic hierarchical structure. A participatively-oriented supervisor may, within the confines of authority, develop and encourage a consultative or co-operative decision-making style of management. A negative instance of informal participative decision-making is exhibited by an informal workgroup which practices quota restriction that is, the group members hold down productivity. (Brown, 1979)

Argyis mentioned that the whole concept of participative management, the idea that employees should be involved in those decisions which directly affect them, flows most clearly from the assumptions that employees want to be morally involved in their work organisations, want to influence decisions, and want to be able to use their capacities in the service of organisational goals. (Pollard, 1974)

This means that one of the behavioural aspects of group influence is participative decision-making. It indicates that group decision-making has two major advantages over decision-making imposed unilaterally by management these are that group decisions tend to be of superior quality and they tend to be more readily accepted by the group. (Marchant, 1971)

Likert argued for the encouragement of workgroup formation, for expressive supervision so that foremen treat people as human beings.
needs have been satisfied, but the need for self-fulfillment may become the crucial motivating force.

However, the individual need for group membership by himself does not assure the development of effective groups and consequently effective organisations. Hence we must take as our primary concern the attempt ... to show what forces determine the formation of groups in organisations; how individual and group interact ... and how problems of group productivity and change emerge. (Zaleznink, & Moment, 1964)

So the factors about group can be divided into three main categories: environmental factors - the cultural, social, physical, and technological climate in which the group exists; membership factors - the types of people in the group, categorised in terms; and dynamic factors - how group is organised, the leadership style(s), the amount of training members have received in leadership and membership skills, the kinds of tasks given to the group, its prior history of success or failure, its level of development and so on. (Schein, 1980)

Now we come to staff participation for work group. But what is meant by staff participation? It is essentially an active cooperation between manager and subordinates in the setting up and pursuit of agreed job-related objectives. (Dutton, 1973) Also worker participation is a hotly debated issue in organisational psychology, more so because in many countries it is actually being legislated. So we need to decide / consider any given person is inherently more or less participative or whether we have a purely behavioural dimension, which would suggest that any
more persons are to work together for a common purpose... But the concept that common goals can be accomplished without structure and organisation must rejected; it is impossible.... The findings of these disciplines reinforce the fact that formal and informal organisation membership marks all stages of an individual’s life. (Evans, 1976)

The above method Mayo and Hawthorne workers mentioned it in their theory of human relations between group membership. But “many would argue that the managerial stance of human relations has involved an underestimation of the measure of genuine conflict between the satisfaction of individual needs and the satisfaction of the organisation’s goal of efficiency. Hence what is good for individual is by no means always good for the organisation, and vice versa.” (Silverman, 1970)

Although, where work has been redesigned in such a way as to facilitate group (team) work and social interaction both productivity and morale have been heightened. (Schein, 1980)

While McGregor (1960) mentioned that high morale is not always associated with high productivity. This leads on to a criticism of human relations for looking for easy answer in the form of techniques instead of questioning an organisational structure which may be at the root of the problem.

And also Mayo and his colleagues place emphasis on people need for belonging and forget other needs which may be equally, or more important in structuring motivation. In particular we can follow Maslow (1970), in his hierarchy of needs, once physiological, safety and social
Most groups in organisations turn out to have both formal and informal functions they serve the needs of both the organisation and individual members.

Some formal groups are created by deliberate design to do specific jobs. So Argyris has suggested that there is an incompatibility between any formal group designed to achieve limited economic goals and expression of the full potentialities of those who work within it. (Silverman, 1970)

While some informal groups created by the needs of people to interaction created by physical-proximity, similarity of interests or other fortuitous factors. So informal group therefore arise out of the particular combination of formal factors and human needs. Informal groups almost always arise if the opportunities exist.

There are three types of informal group in organisations. The first, have been labeled horizontal cliques, as an informal association of workers, managers, or organisational members who are more or less of the same rank, and work in more or less the same area. A second type, a vertical clique, is a group composed of members of different levels within a given department. A third type can be called a mixed or random clique, comprised of members of different physical locations. (Schein, 1980)

So groups not providing a structure fail almost immediately, whereas groups that succeed show a very highly structured organisation. The point is that there is a need for structure and organisation if two or
Schein places greatest emphasis on motivation, particularly the motivation of the employee; but motivation is, of course not the only determinant of effective performance. The ability of the person the nature of the work setting, the tools and materials available to do the work, the nature of job itself, and the ability of management to coordinate employee, groups, and determinital efforts - all enter into organisational effectiveness. The reason for this focus on motivation and his extensive exploration of it rests on the fact that in the motivation area there have been too many myths and misconceptions. (Schein, 1980)

**Group:**

A group is a social unit consisting of a number of individual who stand in role and status relationship to one another stabilized in some degree at the time, and who possess a set of values of norms of their own regulation their behaviour, at least in matters of consequence to the group. (Glen, 1975) For most psychological purposes we regard a collection of people as a group only in so far as their activities relate to one another in a systematic fashion towards some end. (Gahagan, 1975) So members of organisations must interact with others in a structured interdependence manner to achieve the desired end. The degree of structure and interdependence will vary from organisation to organisation and situation to situation. Though groups are nearly universal in organisations. "A psychological group is any number of people who interact with one another, are psychologically aware of one another, and perceive themselves to be a group." (Schein, 1980)
But human needs fall into many categories and vary according to stage of development and total life situation. So human motivation and career development are highly complex and not yet fully understood. Therefore a continued spirit of inquiry and a commitment to diagnosing situations before leaping into action appears to be the only safe course. It is not clear whether the best kind of psychological contract is one that maximizes creative individualism. (Schein, 1980)

This view is based on a critique of Argyris and McGregor which has been stated most clearly by Bennis and Schein. Bennis suggests that simultaneous optimisation is a utopian reasolution and prefers McGregor’s tragic view which merely calls for a satisfactory solution which recognises the basic ambivalence and conflicts within the personality. He also criticises Argyris’s and McGregor’s definitions of efficiency in terms of both high satisfaction on the part of members and effective performance of the organisation in meeting its goals for being essentially static, in that it does not take account of the more or less continuous adaptation to change which occurs in healthy organisations.

Instead, he suggests that an organisation should be treated as if it were organism attempting to meet its needs. Such a view is dynamic because it illuminates the processes by which the organisation searches for, adapts to and solves its changing goals. These dynamic processes of problem-solving provide the critical dimensions of organisational health. (Silverman, 1970)
way in which these needs are expressed and the means necessary to satisfy them. These needs are very similar to those noted by other theorists dealt with. They include the need to feel a sense of competence, to be self-aware, to feel self-esteem and to experience confirmation. Unfortunately he does not always appear clear whether these are needs which people do have or which they should have. He recognise this difficulty but hardly resolves it, he notes, of individual differences and the impact of society on the need for psychological success. (Pollard, 1974)

In examining how the worker fits into this continuum and how the work situation affects the worker's ability to mature as person, Argyris raised the question of whether the problem was one of simple individual laziness. He suggested that this was not the case - that on the contrary, when people join a work force, they are often kept from maturing to their maximum by the management paractices utilized. (Evans, 1976)

But Argyris first suggests that workers needs, even if they are relatively limited in scope, still not be satisfied and hence that there remains a psychological problem. This is because management will not sanction such working class behaviour as a pathy, getting by and low levels of aspiration although it is not immediately apperant to the reader why this be so. (Silverman, 1970)
instructions can be viewed not as inherent in their personalities but as a reaction to the lack of satisfaction of their needs inside a given organisational structure. He calls it Theory Y. (McGregor, 1960)

These theories can be related to the need hierarchy in the sense that the traditional view of direction and control, theory X, relies on the assumption that lower-level needs are dominant in motivating people to perform organisational tasks. Theory Y, on the other hand, assumes that people will exercise self-correction and self-control in working toward objectives to which they are committed. (Kast, 1980)

The basic difference between the two theories that Y opens the door to motivational techniques that are precluded by the sociopsychological restraints imposed by theory X. ... So McGregor concluded that theory X assumptions about the nature of man are generally inadequate and that the management approaches that developed from these assumptions often failed. (Evans, 1976) While he concluded that Theory Y is to arrange organisational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts towards organisational objectives. (Silverman, 1970)

Argyris also examined industrial organisations to determine what effect management practices had on individual behaviour and personal growth within the work environment. He states a theory of fundamental human needs which can only be met within certain types of structure, although he allows that different cultural environments will affect the
distinction between those factors, which are intrinsic - that is, relate to the immediate interaction between the worker and the pay benifits, working conditions, and other aspects of the job situation.” (Schein, 1980)

Critics have said that motivators and hygiene factors are not mutually exclusive. They have questioned the validity of the interview methods used, and they have complained that the results of interviews cannot be generalized into a theory.

Also two points should be kept in mind when analyzing the Herzberg theory. First, it is complex because the motivators and hygienic factors operate simultaneously. A job may have tremendous motivating power through its potential for challenge, growth, and achievement. It may fail to motivate, however, because the hygienic factors are deficient.

The second point to remember about the Herzberg theory is that the people interviewed were accountants and engineers - professional employees who would be expected to be concerned with the work as a career. The findings may not be applicable in the same degree to all kinds of employees. (Evans, 1976)

Then McGregor has followed and sought to bring the insights of psychology to the attention of those engaged in managing organisation. He argued that the carrot - and - stick theory, which bears some resemblances to Taylor's position, he calls Theory X and rejects. Alternatively he argues, workers hostility towards management and its
We now come to Herzberg research concept which was designed to test that people have two sets of needs: (1) their need as animals to avoid physical pain and deprivation and (2) their need as human beings to grow psychologically. As we see that he is primarily concerned with the individual within the organisation. He called the first set of needs hygiene factors, and the second set called motivational factors. Hygiene factors did not produce such improvement they merely maintained morale and efficiency. While motivational factors are mostly related to the job itself or job content. (Herzberg, 1959)

As can be seen these needs are more specifically job related and reflect some of the concrete things people want from their work. The problems of validating this theory have been considerable however, because of the tendency of people to want different things at different times and to attach different meaning to given job values. (Schein, 1980)

In relating these to individual performance, we see that both satisfiers and dissatisfiers are involved in motivating the individual to normal performance. However, the dissatisfiers are relating more important at this longrun average level of output. In tapping latent human capability and moving beyond the normal range of output, the satisfiers become relatively more important. (Kast, 1979)

In developing his motivation / hygiene theory, Herzberg, said; knowledge about the nature of man, his motives and needs, could be invaluable to organisations and individuals. So "we get a basic
dominant early in life, with social, esteem, and self-actualization needs becoming relatively more important as a person matures. These general tendencies and averages are a good first approximation in understanding human motivation and in predicting behaviour. However, there are significant individual differences must be recognized in any organisational situation. (Kast, 1979)

The strength of this theory lies in drawing attention to the variety of needs and motives which operate, but the evidence for the hierarchical notion is weak and the need categories tend to be very general. For example self-actualization can be achieved in many different ways, and the meaning of self-actualization may change with developmental stages, so it may not be very helpful to know that everyone is concerned about achieving it. (Schein, 1980)

Inspite of all these things Maslow's concept, has become a basic factor in all work related studies on motivation and is generally applicable to any given situation.

Some people take the Maslow needs in other order, such as Alderfer who takes them and groups them into three more basic categories - needs for existence, needs for relate to others, and needs for personal growth ... This approach acknowledges the possibility that not every one has an equal amount of each of the basic needs, as Maslow's theory tends to imply, (schein, 1980) That is why Maslow suggested that when an individual is deprived of two needs, the tendency is to seek the most basic need. This choice, however, can be culturally or experimentally influenced and the individual may not select the more basic need. (Maslow, 1970)
relation of an individual's own potential becomes increasingly important as lower-level needs are satisfied.

Maslow (1970) was the first theorist who sees the individual in our society and culture as one having a hierarchy of needs.

1. Physiology
2. Security
3. Social
4. Esteem
5. Self-Actualization

Maslow (1970) classifies needs 1 and 2 as lower-order needs, while needs 3-5 are called higher-order needs are essential to life.

These five basic needs are related to each other and arranged in a hierarchy of prepotency. This means that the most prepotent goal will monopolize consciousness and will tend to evoke behavior in response to it. (Kast, 1979)

Maslow's theory is based upon three basic prepositions about human behavior. First, man is a wanting being... Second, a satisfied is not a motivator of behavior. Only the unsatisfied needs promote behavior. Third, man's needs are arranged in a series of levels. As the more basic needs are met, the needs at the next highest level demand satisfaction. (Evans, 1976)

Moreover, the relative mix of needs changes during an individual's psychological development. Physiological and security needs are
But it would seem that increases in salary can still have an important role to play even at high income / high tax levels where the increase in take home pay is minimal. So it has been suggested that as a result of socialization or conditioning money have an important reinforcement effect in its own right. (Boot, 1977)

While the other theorists (Mayo and the hawthorne workers) suggested that worker productivity and satisfaction were both unrelated to an individual’s pay and job status, but were related to group membership. I am going to discuss this method in next part of this section with the group to see how this is true or not.

Suppose there are many workers in a number of situational contexts are highly motivated by these social needs, and may such needs can override economic needs. Is there enough evidence that the social assumptions are the correct ones and can serve as the basis for designing and managing organisations? Or are these assumptions just as much an overgeneralization as the rational - economic assumptions? While we know that the personality needs exist and pursuit of industrial harmony will require change of organisations in addition to the human relation techniques. So to provide a broader perspective on the above question we need to examine another technique, which places emphasis on the human motivation to build organisations and to manage people.

This other technique sees the individual as primarily self-motivated and self-controlled. That is some theorists argued that there are higher needs than the need for group acceptance. In particular, the
understand and predict behaviour, it is sufficient to focus on past overt actions and their consequences as provided by the individual's external environment. There is no need to be concerned about the internal conditions or processes of individuals. (Kast, and Rosenewig, 1979)

It is fair to say that many theorists were concerned to find an answer to the problem that was consistent with the essential dignity and independence of the individual.

The earliest theorists argued that effort at work was primarily related to rewards. This was simple stimulus-response approach to motivation that implied a linear relationship between effort and wages. This approach is best illustrated by the work of Taylor, in Scientific Management. (Margerison, 1973)

These techniques stemmed from the assumption that man was an economic creature, limited in his pursuit of gain only by his physiological capacities. (Schein, 1980)

However, the simplistic view of motivation implicit in this approach did not recommend itself to later psychologists. First, they argued, men have other than purely economic motives, or to put more strongly, there are many incentives, of which under normal conditions, money is the least important. Secondly, the 'carrot-and-stick' hypothesis about the relationship between behaviour and reward is doubtful validity. Thirdly, these hypotheses depend very much on a view of the worker as an isolated individual rather than a social being engaged in, and deriving satisfaction from, his interactions with his fellows. (Silverman, 1970)
determine how he or she will act. The need with the greatest strength at any particular moment will lead to the activity the individual is understanding; a particular activity is the result of the need with the highest potency. But if these needs are not achieved, the individual may attempt and attempt until a particular need is satisfied. In fact those needs vary from individual to individual and from situation to situation. That is because "individuals differ greatly their motives, values and abilities and these differences probably have an important bearing on the "optimal" characteristics of their work role." (Vroom, 1964)

Really the actual working conditions, including physical conditions, psychological process, and formal organisational relationships, have considerable impact on behaviour as well. This means that individual needs motivation to satisfy his needs. These facts lead psychological contract entered into by the individual and the organisation. Which is essentially a set of expectations. The individual has a set of results that he expects from the organisation, results that will satisfy certain of his needs and in return for which he will expend some of his energies and talents. Similary the organisation has its set of expectations of the individual and its list of payments or outcomes that it will give to him.

The key idea is that it is imporant to understand what people feel and how they think in order to predict how they will behave in a given situation. In fact, the individual is a black box where in feeling and thought process are unknown and unknownable. Behaviour occurs and is directed and sustained via the conditioning effects of rienforcement. To
As I believe may this help to explain what is meant by organisational psychology.
I am going to discuss these things with reference to the behaviour of individuals and groups.

*Individual Behaviour:*  

People are the basic unit of organisation and their performance may be measurable, but prediction of their behaviour is not simple and dependence of organisation effectiveness on their behaviour is profound.

In fact the basic unit of behaviour is activity; hence all behaviour is a series of activities - talking, eating, running, reading, and so on. So behaviour is basically goal oriented, motivated by a desire to attain some goal. The specific goal is not always consciously or fully recognized by the individual. Reasons for actions are not always apparent. The drives that motivate distinctive individual behaviour patterns are by and large subconscious and therefore not readily susceptible to examination and evaluation. (Evans, 1976)

It seems that this process is complex and particular to individuals and situations. Thus no general formula can be guaranteed to work, but understanding of person could help to explain some of the problems and difficulties of people at work. (Handy, 1977)

Really the process of behaviour is similar for all individuals. So we can filter it through wants and needs which may take many forms. Every individual has thousands of these needs, which are all interacting to
3. What is the role of the library manager, who needs to benefit from the knowledge of organizational psychology to enable him to operate effectively.

**Objectives:-**

The main objectives of this paper are to enable us to understand organizational psychology well. To enable us to understand library management and the way of using organizational psychology methods and theories in it. And finally to know who needs to benefit from organizational psychology in library management.

**ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY:-**

It may be said that organizational psychology can be defined as theories of motivation and job satisfaction which introduced by some theorists, such as Taylor, Mayo, Maslow, Herzberg, Mcgregor and some others. They have introduced them as studies and researches to the individual’s behaviour and relations into motivate them to attain their goals and to be satisfied in their works.

So we can say that this field has become interdisciplinary, reflecting the growing interest of psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists, political scientists, systems theorists, and others in attempting to understand organisation phenomena. (Schein, 1980)

In this section I am going to introduce the main ideas of most of those theories of motivation, and introduce points of view with and against them.
Although librarianship is not devoid of early spokesmen for the adoption of business management principles, these seem only currently to be receiving appreciable attention in libraries; behavioural data remain scarce.

Library managers are also discovering organization reassessments and mod of operation changes lead to unrest and necessitate a high degree of staff involvement. Dedication to patron service appears a strong influence in motivating librarians towards co-operative activities.

In developing countries, where sources are scarce, the desire to catch up with the world is great and experience of developed countries before them clear, motivation and participative management seem an indispensable things.

It seems that much has been written on organizational psychology in industry and there is increasing literature on it in librarianship as well.

I found some papers and surveys in library management techniques by using methods and theories of organizational psychology quite helpful.

**The Problem:**

The problem of this paper could be collected from the following points:-

1. What are organizational psychology methods and concepts?
2. How can we use these methods and concepts in library management in our own libraries?
"A Knowledge of Organizational Psychology and the Library Manager."

*Mahmood Salih Ismail, Ph.D.*

**Introduction:**

Organizational psychology is a field known to us lately, which assesses individual behaviour in organizations. But much knowledge of human behaviour in organization derives not from pure behavioural research studies but from management analysis associated with changes in management policies and practices that have been in progress since the 1930's. As such techniques as delegation of authority, management by exception and cost effectiveness, began to prevade management thinking, the significance of people characteristics came into focus. To apply these approaches, it became necessary to understand human behaviour, both qualitatively and quantitively.

As a first step participative management crept in to replace autocratic management but this appeared less capable of maximising employees as it was under autocratic management.

This fact concentrated the attention on motivation as the best way of maximising staff and improving performance. It means that behavioural sciences gave solution to some of the management problems and began to study individuals and groups and identified their psychological needs.

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