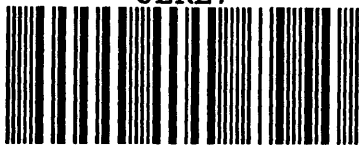


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ANALYTICAL MODEL OF MANAGEMENT PRACTICE
AND MANAGERIAL DEVELOPMENT IN SELECTED
ORGANISATIONS IN THE U.K. AND NIGERIA

BY

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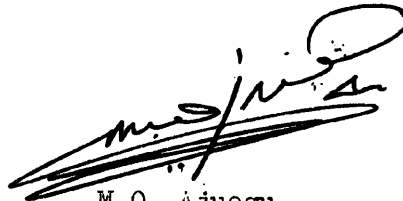
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The work presented here was carried out entirely by the author and no part of it has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification of this or any other university or other institution of learning.



M.O. Ajuogu

ABSTRACT

The research examines the characteristics of the U.K. and the Nigerian managers' management practice and their perceptions of development needs. It is concerned with identifying the characteristics (fixed personal variables, for example, age, and dynamic factors such as function, organisational size) which tend to influence the managers' development objectives. It looks at the managers' feelings about their knowledge, skills, competences and their management thoughts about management concepts and practices.

Data for the research were obtained from a sample of 188 practising managers (100 from the U.K. and 88 from Nigeria). Information about the background of the managers, their skills in handling organisational problems the perception of their own level of knowledge on the application of certain management concepts and practices as well as the general nature and scope of their jobs were obtained. The research utilises a comparison sample of the U.K. in order to provide a frame of reference for the results. The research sample was based primarily on questionnaires and interviews.

The study also investigated certain 'government actions' effecting management education and development in the two countries. The research was carried out through the testing of several hypotheses and the results were in most cases internally consistent.

The results provided factual information about the factors (personal, organisational, and job environment) that tend to influence the managers feelings about what they expect from development programmes. However, the results were not in general supportive of all the propositions in spite of cultural differences. Perception of development objectives in the two countries ~~was~~ slightly different. Many managers sampled in the U.K. tended to feel that labour relations and union policy matters ~~were~~ important

development issues. But most of the Nigerian managers in the sample tended to show greater concern for management concepts, application and use of management techniques as important development objectives. In both countries government actions, which stimulated management education and development, were identified. It was observed that the U.K. Industrial Training Act (1964), is similar in nature, to the Nigerian Industrial Training Fund (1976) but different in scope. This observation suggests that the Nigerian Industrial Training Fund needs to be encouraged to widen its scope in the education and development of managers in Nigeria.

The study results suggested that:

- a) the complex nature and scope of the managers' jobs, not only their personal and organisational factors, may be very important elements to be assessed in the determination of development schemes for individual managers.
- b) Other dynamic elements (external factors particularly technology) tend to exert positive influence on development motivation of managers.
- c) Most managers in the two samples despite cultural differences, show greater concern for the development objectives "to learn modern management techniques" and "to increase managerial confidence." This illustrated very vividly the impact of external factors e.g. technology and the development motivation of the sampled managers.

The above development objectives further demonstrate the managers eagerness to enhance their managerial efficiency and effectiveness.

- d) The establishment of managerial development objectives is a process that can (with certain modifications) be set across culture and across organisations because of similarities of development expectations of managers. This is due to the general nature of the job of "managing" in spite of cultural differences.

The Study Format: The Study is divided into two parts.

Part One

This part dealt with Chapters One and Two which concentrated on the research introduction and which focussed on the literature review. It covered:

the conceptual and background problems;

the study hypotheses;

government actions in relation to management education and training in the two countries.

Part Two

This part which consisted of four chapters paid attention to the analysis of the findings of the research. In Chapter Three issues relating to the research methodological approach were treated. Chapters 4 and 5 treated the Nigerian and the U.K. samples respectively. The last part of the thesis Chapter 6 focussed on the comparative analysis of the U.K. and the Nigerian sample as well as the implications of the research, conclusions and suggestions for future research.

KEYWORDS

CROSS-CULTURAL

MANAGEMENT PRACTICE

MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT OBJECTIVES

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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 BACKGROUND PROBLEMS OF GENERAL CONCEPTS

1.1 Introduction

It is no surprise that many social scientists and organisation theorists have given immense amounts of energy and resources to studying managers and managerial styles. Empirical work on this subject can be traced back to the early 1900's (Stogdill, 1974). Since Stogdill, researchers have examined how managers do their work in almost every conceivable setting, from army squads to executives of all types; they have also examined personality traits of managers, their leadership styles, situational contingencies, training and their development, power and a multitude of other topics pertinent to the art and/or science of managing. Yet the topic remains elusive, particularly in relation to what managers want from management training and development.

Warren Bennis in 1959 had this comment to make: "Of all the hazy and confusing or confounding areas in social psychology, the leadership theory undoubtedly contends for top nomination." However, ironically, probably more has been written and less known about leaders of organisations and their styles of management, than about any other topic in the behavioural sciences, (Bennis 1959, p. 259). He went on to point out that (a) the concept was not sufficiently defined, (b) there was a "mountain" of evidence of endless proliferation of terms and (c) the evidence was contradictory.

No wonder, we have equally endless proliferation of approaches to managerial development. If the concept of organization's leaders is ill defined one may tend to question the justification of derived development concepts based upon the original ill-conceived assumptions.

According to Stodgill (1974), p. 7, there are almost as many different schools of thought in relation to definitions of leaders of our organisations as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.

In spite of the definitional problems of (leaders of organisations) managers, research on the concept of managerial development has continued at a staggering pace. Fiedler's (1967) contingency model has been a focus for many current researchers. He postulates that the effectiveness of a group depends on the motivational orientation (person vs. task) just like Blake's managerial grid (1965/68) and on the nature of the situation determined by the structure of the task, the position and power of the manager, and the quality of manager (i.e. leader-member) relations. This elaborate model contains a continuum of situational favourability (from highly favourable to highly unfavourable), and postulates that task-motivated managers are effective in highly favourable and unfavourable situations. An incredible number of studies based on the model exist, but the accumulated evidence (Morgan, 1976, pp. 139-141) has been inconclusive. Even House's (1971) path-goal model is not without other contradictory evidence. Built on an expectancy-theory framework, the path-goal model argues that the manager's (i.e. leader's style) "task or person-oriented" is effective when it clarifies linkages between subordinate effort and valued subordinate outcome. Supported by several studies (e.g. Evans, 1970), the model has been contradicted or substantially modified in several others (e.g. Hammer and Dachler 1975).

The endless accumulation of empirical data has not produced an integrated understanding of organisation leaders (Stodgill, 1974, p. vii). Given the confusion over definitions, the proliferation of terms, and the mountain of contradictory evidence, it needs to be recognised and noted that our modern organisation leaders (managers and/or executives) need to be developed to be able to face up to the complexities of the modern organisation. Many studies have indicated the importance of developing the managers as important leaders of our organisations.

A United Nation's publication (1961) has endorsed that administrative improvement is the "sine qua non" in the implementation of schemes of national economic progress. The link between administrative knowledge and the aspiration for economic advance need not be taken for granted. Improving the public administrator and/or manager (U.N. Publication, publication No 51. 11B7) is a necessary economic basis for or as an essential preliminary to the successful execution of the economic and social programmes. What needs emphasising in our time is that national development is not limited to the newly developing countries, all countries of the world must give attention to adjusting their administrative and managerial concepts to new demands. In these matters (administrative and managerial) countries of the world differ only in degrees. This is commonly revealed in a clear way in the use of planning techniques and in the common problems of implementing economic and social plans.

It is a truism that no administrative or management system can be better than men and women who conduct it, indeed who personify it.

One of my major concerns is the degree of over-reliance on the use of classical management theory which employs closed-system assumptions about organizations. Some of the assumptions tend to be unrealistic and questionable. Management practice of the classical theory fails to consider many of the environmental factors upon the organizations as well as the internal aspects. Very little consideration has been given to human behaviour (Stodgill, 1974). Many principles of the traditionalists assumptions about human behaviour lack specific guidelines for meaningful application. However, many managers in Nigeria and elsewhere even though they are not conscious of this heritage, are guided by them. March and Simon (1958) describe classical theory as the "machine model" and Bennis (1959) suggests that its theory focuses on "Organization without people". But our modern business

organization is characterised by diversity of objectives of various participants and subgroups. Forces both within and in the external environment have stimulated change in theory and practice of management.

These things may imply that managers and/or civil service officials need more development than was ever before. As we shall see from the respondents' development needs or objectives and also from their admitted current level of skills and competences which we included in the survey's questionnaire, we would be able to predict the direction which future managerial development would take. It is hoped that such a prediction would be of help to the managers and organisations surveyed in both countries in particular and other managers and organisations elsewhere in general.

1.2 Problem of General Concepts

We need to recognise that if the study of management is multi-disciplinary (Davis 1976), then, the study of cross-cultural managerial development, particularly where the centre of interest is between two different nations of varying economic and social setting, may reasonably be described as "hyper-multi-disciplinary". Above all in these two nations social and cultural behaviours are bound to differ and as a result it may be difficult to provide a clear cut summary of what is known and what needs to be known.

But before describing the hypotheses of this study, it is necessary to distinguish between comparative management research and research into cross-cultural managerial development and training.

In comparative management, many research studies (Haire et al. 1966) have identified many interacting variables. The observed variables such as technological and social differences, educational and training orientation

do affect management in different countries. Influence of the executive role, national culture, attitudes and beliefs about management (Haire et al) are among the "critical factors" that influence the managers. Graves in his study (1972) indicates that the literature of cross-cultural comparison and analysis of business management is tremendously weak in making predictions from models of behaviour. He attributes this problem to the enormous disagreements about the presence and validity of organizational objectives and to the conflict between organizational goals and personal needs of managers.

Others like Richman (1965) attribute the lack of fruitful basic research to inability to follow through with the type of developmental research which is needed to describe, explain and predict the actual impact that different variables tend to have on management performance and the managers' development needs.

It is also apparent that basic researches in comparative management are beset with operational and conceptual problems. A number of U.S.A. researches which concentrate mostly on countries in South East Asia and Latin America have shown that it is not easy to see how far the results can be generalised because they lack the necessary leverage of broad theoretical concepts. However, the studies of Koontz (1962) are full of encouragement. They show methods of data collecting and analysis which can be applied elsewhere over a wide area.

A good deal of U.S.A. centred research would be classified into international management (i.e. in studying how the administrative policies of the multinationals could be applied in foreign environments) and comparative management. The international management, therefore tends to lack in concern for local needs and is narrow in interest. Diebold (1973) has endorsed this view. He remarks that management literature in the

United States contains many references to the higher degree of social responsiveness and sensitivity to social concerns exhibited by Japanese corporations as compared to U.S. corporations.

The implication is that American business can improve its public image and be more responsive to public needs if it adopts some of the practices followed by Japanese Corporations. By all standards this does not, however, mean that the Japanese practices are better than those of the U.S.A. (Diebold, 1973). The Japanese Corporations do not hesitate to behave differently when dealing with non-Japanese in a different socio-political context. The behaviour of Japanese firms in their overseas operation, especially in South Korea, Taiwan, and Hong Kong has not won them any "Kudos" from the local populations or the host-country government (Sethi, 1975, p. 60).

There is a division of opinion that cuts across the above views, between those who counsel caution in treating the socio-cultural environment (Negandhi, 1973) as a fundamental determinant of managerial behaviour, and those who believe that lack of success in achieving desired social and economic progress is usually due to barriers of technological gaps and insufficient capital than to barriers posed by our inability to overcome patterns of human behaviour inappropriate to modern organizational needs. Boddewyn (1969) is of the opinion that extreme degrees of views in this matter are probably inappropriate.

But research directly concerned with cross-cultural management development and education is scarce relative to the comparative management itself. In some instances particularly in developing communities societal factors such as the influence of extended family, connection between the ideas of superior, status etc., render it practically hard for a newly trained manager (in an educational establishment) to bring about, for example,

significant and meaningful change on his re-entry to the job. Invariably the contention is that the programmes of management education and training which are exported or to which participants are imported tend not to adjust to the needs of the supposed beneficiaries.

If cross-cultural management development is to be improved, it is important not to overlook:

1. the role of evaluation of programmes;
2. the re-entry problems which course attendants face after they have completed a programme;
3. top management involvement in development schemes; and
4. the organization's total environment including government actions. (Chapman, 1972).

If top management is not receptive to managerial development, any attempt to encourage one is likely to be doomed to failure no matter how well it is designed.

Some studies, for example, Rosemary Stewart's, have indicated that the term "management trainee" - the participant of management development programme - has become unpopular in some organizations. The study suggests it tends to be so because one man's future is assured to the exclusion of others. Quite apart from terminology, there is mounting argument as to whether a company should single out promising individuals at an early age for training as potential managers. The argument in favour is that it permits diversity of training and development and it gives trainees the opportunity to develop while they are young and flexible enough. It also encourages organizations to try to assess the future supply of managers. (see Stewart, 1967).

The argument against contends that potential managers cannot be prejudged and advance selection creates an "elite corps" which fosters

resentment and further, that the right persons will appear without selection and training. This study, however, is not to debate this assumption because it is not concerned with (training and development of potential managers), we are rather concerned with the existing (i.e. practising) managers).

Concept of the Role of Managers and Managerial Development.

Today to speak of an organization as having a single goal fails to recognize that it is a social institution. In a changing environment, the organization must be a "learning-adapting system" which (Mervyn, 1968; Mintzberg, 1973) considers change as a natural rather than as a temporary aberration. The main problem in the study of organizational change is that the environmental contexts (Emery and Trist, 1965) in which organizations exist are themselves changing, at an increasing rate, and towards increasing complexity. Shirley Terreberry (1968) agrees that environments are becoming more uncertain and that organizational change is externally influenced, and that organizational adaptation is a function of the ability to learn and perform according to changes in the environment. This means that organizations now and in the future will be even more subject to external as well as internal forces and must therefore be prepared to adapt. This also means that a more "responsive-adaptive" system (Buckley, 1968, p. 509) needs to be developed. Old principles of management and managerial development geared to a placid organization environment are no longer to be adequate.

The questions that emerge include the following:

1. Is management a definable profession with its own set of skills and attitudes? If so, can management be enhanced through development programmes?
2. Can management skills and attitudes be taught through the process of management development schemes particularly when managers are permitted to decide what they want from such schemes?

This study will, among other crucial questions, address itself to the above questions. A sub-question that arises from the two above is: What specific influence have organizational and/or job variables upon the managers' development needs and expectations?

However, the literature of development makes much reference to the vital role of managers and administrators, but there is little agreement on how best managers and administrators could be trained and developed. A great deal of management development and training is ineffective in terms of change on-the-job behaviour. Part of this is due to much adherence to (away-from job) formal training or lack of it, and to the transfer problems from what is simulated, essentially from an artificial situation. Another influence is the inadequacy of our present state of understanding regarding what individual managers want from development schemes. Much management development and training is unlike the so-called "systematic-model" developed for operator training (Mintzberg, 1973). Managerial behaviour is intricately variable and approaches are to some extent unique and there is rarely one right answer to any problem.

We need to appreciate that human organization is characterized by increasing interdependence, size and complexity whether for production of goods and/or services, and that the shortage of top-level managerial and administrative personnel in both the public and private sectors is almost universal (Harbinson, 1970). With the ever evolving new technology, the part of manager/administrator thus becomes more decisive and delicate in the actual achieving of social and economic purposes - goals and values. Even the most profound political-social issues revolve about the concept of his/her role and performance in modern society.

"Yet, in a folk or collective sense, we are not particularly conscious of the managerial-administrative role under current conditions of life, let alone how best to develop them. We tend not to see this role as concrete and generalizable like that of the doctor, construction worker or farmer. In some situations, if we meditate about the managerial role at all, we usually do so with agitation and at best without understanding, as if something manipulative and undesirable in the experience of the independent or semi-independent craftsman." (Guy Henson et al. 1975)

Our society (advanced or advancing) still seems to lack awareness of the key part of the person who, in a big or small way, has the necessary job of putting it all together. The function is discernible and perhaps definable in every kind of modern society, whatever the ideology and , cultural setting.

The job or function is essential whether our economy seeks rapid growth or zero growth. It is also important whether we seek centralization or decentralization in society; special managerial/administrative skills are required either self directed or group directed.

A crucial point in human organizations today is how to combine in the managerial-administrative roles both authority for task-achievement, and at the same time, show meaningful concern for human values and individual self-fulfilment, in combination with responsiveness and accountability to the society. The role itself lies at the centre of modern society whether the organization is located in Manchester, Lagos, Ontario or Kharkov. Another important thing to be realised is that whether or not the number and above all the quality of our existing managers and administrators can be improved to a greater degree by educational provisions (both within and outside job place) is tied up with better recruitment, selection and promotion, policies. It is important to understand how the past traditional process of individual self-discovery and self-training, a process which in the past was not effectively stimulated by specific educational resources and the environment, does affect the individuals development expectations.

A concern of the quality of management development scheme is not new, especially in the U.S.A. where management systems have gained much ground. Conceptual disagreement between developmental approaches do exist, and this has generated a number of conceptions that need to be understood in order to avoid over generalization.

It is assumed that managerial skills and knowledge are not universal with respect to different types of organizational and cultural environments. Rosemary Stewart (1967), states in her study, "it is impossible, of course, to guarantee the success of any single policy in relation to managerial development" because of wide variations in circumstances between (organizations) or industries and even between companies in the same organization. She sums up her conclusions by saying "that to achieve conditions for success, an organization or company needs to realize and accept the importance of selection and training, recognize the problems of introducing and training managers, note the lessons of other companies' experience, understand and try to lessen the frustrations often felt by ambitious managers, give each individual varied experience and intellectual stimulus as part of his training" (Rosemary Stewart, 1967, pp. 35-36).

Despite cultural and environmental circumstances of different organizations certain evidence indicates that to meet the long-term needs of constantly evolving social institutions, organizations' development criteria must be general and flexible. This does not mean that cultural and environmental circumstances are not fraught with conceptual and methodological dangers. What this may imply is that for development efforts to be meaningful, managers could be allowed to participate in setting out what their development objective should be.

1.3 The American and the U.K. Experience - A Comparison

The American Experience

Many large American Organizations are deeply interested in ways of building and maintaining a supply of managers. They refer to their methods collectively as "management development". Their interest is of longer standing than that of British Organizations let alone Nigerian. Yet this approach is of comparatively recent origin - mostly arisen since the last war. For example, in 1946 the National Industrial Conference Board in the U.S.A., investigating nearly 3500 companies found that only 5% had programmes for training executives. Since that time, ^{the} American Management Association has done much to stimulate interest in the subject. Today there has been widespread propaganda effort in favour of what are called "management development programmes". There are two side effects to the American "management development programme propaganda". One is positive another negative. It has encouraged both a genuine interest in some organizations but also a desire to follow a fashionable trend. Management development has become something of a fad (Stewart, 1967) creating a demand for ready made programmes and enhancing the popularity of gimmicks such as elaborate, coloured replacement charts. Some companies have rushed into formal programmes without adequate thought and/or preparation for programme content, with the result that they have made little or no progress.

One large and well-known company was reported to be starting on its third post-war programme, making it much more flexible and informal than its earlier programmes, because these had not ensured a supply of good managers, despite being set out in large and elaborate manuals.

Comparison with the British Experience

By contrast, the approach of British companies - even those most actively concerned with the subject - has been more cautious and less formal.

This contrast in the U.K. and U.S. approach to management development underlies the conceptual and contextual differences even though there are similarly recognised western management norms. The British in essence have been in comparatively little danger of embarking too hastily on a formal programme. They have, however, been postponing action continually while (Rosemary Stewart, 1967; Rose, Clerk and Newbigging, 1970) acknowledging the need for management development.

This core concept being not necessarily to solve outstanding problems by the discovery of new techniques but for the organisations to realize that problems exist and that solutions of varying effectiveness are already in use, and that meaningful management development would have its pay-off. Three important factors transcend cultural boundaries and these make managerial development very important.

1. Economic growth requiring special abilities and knowledge.
2. New industries born of new technologies.
3. Increased competition demanding new level of competence. These make managerial development a practical necessity in modern organisations.

The above three issues among others, make managerial development a practical necessity in order that the manager will be able to satisfy his personal as well as his organisation's needs.

1.4 NEED-MOTIVATION CONCEPTS

Maslow's Need-Hierarchy concept (1954), Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory (1968) and McClelland's Achievement-Motivation theory which suggest several key characteristics of the achiever are noteworthy in the discussion of this investigation. This is so because managers are individuals whose development objectives and needs differ according to their personal and organisational factors. Maslow's Need-Hierarchy concept therefore underscores why different managers may tend to have different development motivation. (see McClelland, 1961).

The Need-motivation concept or motivation-hygiene theory and/or achievement-motivation concept is of central importance for managers' development orientation. This has been adopted in explaining the variables under investigation in the survey. It is expected that;

Managers who have satisfied 'certain levels' of lower needs will have different management development objectives from those who have not. Here 'certain levels' of lower needs have been carefully applied and preferred to 'satisfied' because Maslow in his own analysis had the impression that 'lower needs' could be fully satisfied. I reject that assumption on the following account:

- (I) Need satisfaction is a matter of proportion and cannot be one hundred per cent satisfied. Also it is relative.
- (II) There are certain stages in a man's job activities when certain needs are uppermost which do not lend themselves to a watertight hierarchy.

Despite certain criticisms of need-hierarchy concepts and motivation-hygiene theory discussed later in 'Some Reflections and Implications, they underpin the study's major hypotheses (see pages 30 and 31).

Maslow's assumptions

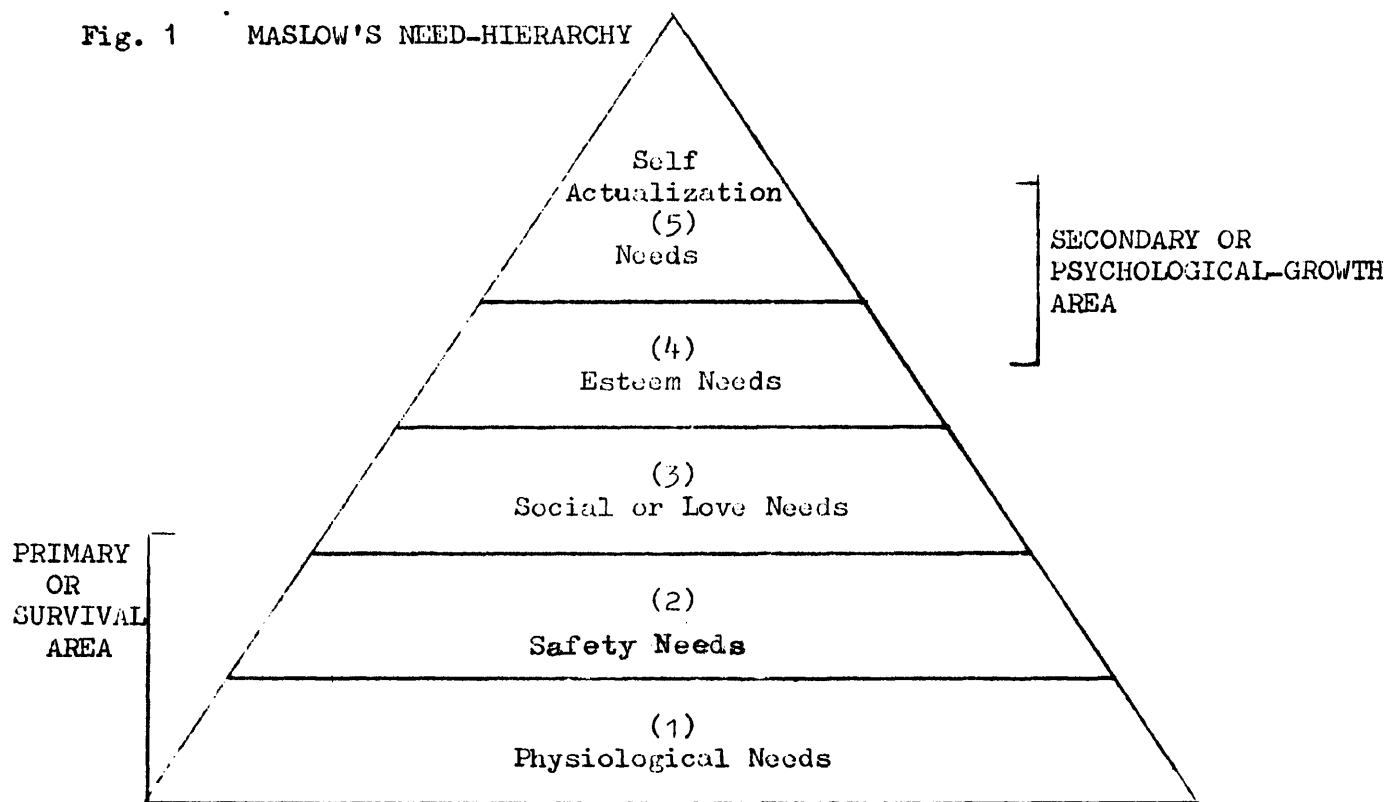
The hierarchy of needs concept was developed by Abraham Maslow as an alternative to viewing motivation in terms of a series of relatively separate

drives. His concept stressed a structured hierarchy with certain higher needs becoming activated to the extent that lower needs become satisfied.

Five basic needs are identified as:

- Physiological
- Safety
- Love or Social
- Esteem
- Self-Actualization (see Maslow 1943 pp. 388-399).

Fig. 1 MASLOW'S NEED-HIERARCHY



As shown in the diagram and later in the two factor systems, the need hierarchy was on a primary - secondary (i.e. survival and psychological) basis. Maslow's basic idea being that people first attempt to satisfy physiological needs, then the need for safety, followed by social needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs. In other words, people face an hierarchy of

needs and will strive to satisfy each one in turn. When this hierarchy is related to development objectives, we may come to conclude that development objectives are determined by what managers need to achieve.

(1) Physiological Needs. These are the primary needs for food, water, and reproduction necessary for survival. According to Maslow, no other need will motivate if these remain unsatisfied. He suggests that once these needs are satisfied, we shift to the need for safety.

(2) Safety Needs. Safety is not a demand for absolute security but for the knowledge that everything possible has been done by the organization to minimise the risks in injuries, loss of job or discrimination in promotion. Job security in exchange for good work, and equitable policies on rewards and discipline are examples of things an organization can do to satisfy safety needs.

(3) Social Needs. At the social level, we move out of the primary needs and into the Secondary ones. Individuals need love, affection, companionship and other associations that we lump into the category of social needs. With an individuals social drive frustrated, he may react with non-cooperation and generally anti-organization attitudes. Once social needs are satisfied, attention focuses on the need for esteem..

(4) Esteem Needs. Esteem relates to the confidence and respect we want in ourselves and want to be accorded to us from others. It may be derived from knowledge, accomplishments, abilities, or other sources. Satisfaction of the need for esteem produces a feeling of independence and confidence since the individual has successfully declared his own judgement as well as that of others. It is suggested that jobs which are refined to the point of repetitive boredom do not allow much accomplishment nor require much ability.

If the need for esteem is largely satisfied, we go in for self-actualization needs.

(5) Self-Actualization Needs. At the pinnacle of the hierarchy people strive for the full realization of their potential. In effect they normally ask, "What can we really do to fully utilize all of our abilities, talents, creativity, and whatever else might be involved in us as humans?"

While people want to maximize every capability that is in them, Maslow suggests that few people are fortunate enough to even begin to satisfy this need. He viewed that within the organizational context limited opportunities exist for many members to realize self-fulfilment. Their struggle he suggests may thus centre on the 'esteem' or even lower needs.

These needs are related to each other though arranged in hierarchy of priority or prepotency. This means that the most prepotent goal will monopolize the managers consciousness and will tend to evoke behaviour in response to it. The diagram above illustrates Maslow's Need Hierarchy. What is to be recognised is that in actual fact, most members of our society who are normal are partially satisfied and partially unsatisfied in all their basic needs. What this may imply is that a more realistic approach to the concept would be in terms of diminishing prepotency in relation to an individuals circumstances and in relation to time.

In essence, what activates an individual's motive at a certain point in time, may not necessarily appeal to another individual in the same situation at different times or in a different culture.

However, we do appreciate that many factors are involved in the development of an individual's value system (Bruner, J.S. 1957; Postman, 1953; Seashore and Yuchtman, 1967) which in turn affect his perception of needs in a particular situation and at a particular time. Factors like general economic conditions and his personal situation count. His aspirational level, work-experience, education and training affect him and help determine his inclination and filter through his needs and motives.

Herzberg has suggested that men at work are concerned and interested in two different sources of satisfaction. He indicated that man is concerned with what he calls the 'hygiene factors'- money, fringe benefits, human relations, etc. and what he calls the 'motivating factors' which allow the individual scope for 'psychological growth' through achievement of his task. He suggested that men can be subdivided into 'hygiene-seekers' and 'motivator-seekers' according to their dominant interests. The hygiene seeker according to him is likely to 'let his organization down' in periods of difficulty. He deduced from his research in industry that the success of an organization is dependent on the development of both the traditional industrial relations areas and motivator division of industrial relations, which is concerned with educating employees to seek motivator rewards, and providing such rewards through 'job enrichment' programmes.

Herzberg's 'hygiene-seekers' and 'motivator-seekers' concept are attractive to this study on the following accounts:

1. They are simple and logical in that managerial jobs embrace the two aspects.
2. The two factors emphasize norms of our society within which our organisations operate i.e social and psychological norms through achievement and recognition.

The questions that need explaining are - can managers be segregated into two watertight categories as hygiene-seekers and motivator-seekers? Or are managers seekers of both 'hygiene' and 'motivator factors' in relation to their managerial positions? Explanation of these questions has been treated in Chapter 6 . The implications of hygiene and motivator factors assume that managers who are the 'hygiene-seekers' tend to have different development viewpoints from managers who are 'motivator-seekers'. Such managers also tend to react to their management situations differently.

It is expected that multiple causation of management objectives is likely in most situations. For example, H.A. Murray's need for achievement (nAch) need for affiliation (nAff) and need for power (nPow) may be functioning in any situation. Individual managers tend to order these needs according to their circumstances. It is suggested that despite differences in need priorities, the need for achievement seems most directly related to work performance. Consequently, like other psychological attributes, the degree of 'achievement-motivation' varies with individuals.

McClelland (1961) in his studies found that entrepreneur-managers, have relatively more 'achievement-motivation' than other identifiable groups in society. He suggests several key characteristics of the achiever:

- (a) He likes situations in which he takes personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems.
- (b) He has a tendency to set moderate achievement goals and to take 'calculated risks'.
- (c) He wants concrete feedback as to how well he is doing.

The implications of the achiever's characters - (a), (b) and (c) above are:

- (i) Without responsibility, the individual would have no personal sense of accomplishment.
- (ii) Without feedback, he would not know where he stood. (This feedback comes in different forms - rewards, praises from superiors, peers and subordinates, etc.).
- (iii) The achiever tends to be interested in a consistent string of successes and not want to spoil his record with a failure.

1.4.1. Some Reflections and Implications.

To conclude or assume that 'lower needs' could completely be satisfied assumes that hygiene-factors are enough to motivate 'manual workers' only while 'motivator-factors' such as esteem or self-actualization are to be

considered when dealing with managers. Such dichotomies, that (McGregor 1957) Theory 'X' applied to 'workers' and Theory 'Y' applied to managers*, are unrealistic. There is really - see Kast and Rosenzweig (1974) - no way to draw a meaningful line of demarcation. As has been indicated, 'hygiene' and 'motivator' factors and Theory 'X' and Theory 'Y' concepts can be related to need hierarchy.

Managers who are motivated by achievement, responsibility, recognition and advancement are classified as 'motivator-seekers' or Theory 'Y' managers. Conversely, managers who are motivated by company policies, job remuneration and working conditions are classified as 'hygiene-seekers' or Theory 'X' managers. (See Appendix A - Theory 'X' and Theory 'Y' Assumptions).

Relating managerial job context to Two-Factor Theory of Needs and Motivation can be illustrated in the diagram below.

FIG. 2 Motivation Concepts.

2-FACTOR SYSTEMS	MASLOW'S NEED-HIERARCY	HERZBERG HYGIENE FACTORS OR DISSATISFIERS	HERZBERG MOTIVATORS OR SATISFIERS	MCGREGOR THEORY 'X'	MCGREGOR THEORY 'Y'
SECONDARY AREA	Self-Actualisation				Development Potentials
	Esteem		Achievement Recognition Work itself Responsibility Advancement		Capacity to assume responsibility Readiness for direct behaviour
PRIMARY AREA	Love or Social	Company policy and administration Relationship with peers or subordinate		Passive-ness Resistance Persuasion Directed and prefers to be led	
	Safety	Supervision Salary Interpersonal relations			
	Physiological	Working condition			

* Theory 'X' can be related to the need hierarchy in the sense that the traditional view of direction and control relies on the assumption that 'lower-needs' are dominant in motivating people to perform tasks in organisations. Theory 'Y' assumes that people will exercise self-correction and self-control in working towards objectives to which they are committed. It assumes that individuals have potential for development, will seek responsibility, and will be motivated by esteem and self-actualization needs - see Appendix A. Theory 'X' and Theory 'Y'

The 2-FACTOR theory roughly differentiates Maslow's hierarchy concept into two parts as shown in the above diagram:

- (i) Primary Needs i.e. Needs that prevent dissatisfaction
- (ii) Secondary Needs i.e. Needs that motivate effective behaviour.

Needs that tend to motivate are at the top of the hierarchy - "Esteem" and "Self-Actualization" needs. Those that prevent dissatisfaction are at the lower end of the hierarchy - social or love, safety and physiological needs. Theories 'X' and 'Y', with different approach, have implied motivational application as shown in the diagram (see page 20).

Whereas motivation theory has been discussed we have to recognize the shortcomings of the Two-Factor theory. A number of scholars have criticized the theory mainly on the basis of the research methodology used to collect the data. Herzberg used a storytelling technique wherein respondents related situations in which they felt good or bad on the job. The criticism centres on the thought that when people feel good about something, they tend to enhance their own self-esteem by taking full credit for their achievements, assumptions of responsibility and advancement. When they feel badly about some situations, often involving some element of failure, they tend to blame environmental factors (see Vroom, 1965).

1.4.2. Summary Remarks

Conclusions about motivation (House and Wigdor 1967) when based on the storytelling approach may be unjustified. Given an individual's propensity to take credit for success and to project blame for failure it would not be a good technique. If there is doubt in the techniques of the Two-Factor approach to motivation, the question that emerges is; why even make reference to the Two-Factor theory? According to Lundgren (1974) the answer applies to all theories on motivation. None of them has been proven beyond doubts, and as a result. questions can be raised about the validity of each one. Moreover some

organisations have reported successful applications of the Two-Factor theory. (See e.g. Gillian Purcer Smith, "The Motivation of Sales Executives in Two Major Companies", 1967). Her findings fit in well with the Two-Factor approach to motivation involving for an example the concept of 'higher' and 'lower' needs, whereby certain basic needs are prepotent until satisfied, when they cease to act as motivators. This enables needs of a higher order to become potent in turn and demand satisfaction. Whereas in the Herzberg model of motivation about 'satisfying' and 'dissatisfying' aspects of jobs and careers (Smith) found that events fell into two distinct categories according to whether they were seen as 'satisfiers' or 'dissatisfiers'.

Features relating to job itself, such as interesting work, extent of responsibility, feelings of achievement, opportunities for personal growth and advancement had satisfying effects. Factors relating to the job extent or environment on the other hand were those which were most likely to dissatisfy people. (See also Paul, W.J. "Job Enrichment Pays Off," 1969). What emerged from the pattern of his results in the two companies is that the most favourable attitudes are held by those who find their satisfaction in their work, their feelings of achievement etc., and that only when these appear to be restricted do benefits of the environment (security, social relationship, etc.) emerge as the factors from which people derive satisfaction hence motivator and hygiene seekers.

The above discussion gives some hopes in the use of the Two-Factor theory for further investigation.

The Two-Factor theory has contributed to a better understanding of motivation and why attention to certain factors such as salary can prevent discontent but does very little to motivate some people positively. The theory clearly points out that job-factors - opportunity to achieve, recognition from bosses and peers satisfy the esteem and self-fulfilment

needs and contribute to job interest and the desire to achieve. Myers (1972) in a six year study of an application of the Two-Factor theory at Texas Instruments suggests the validity of its basic concepts.

It is practicable to work with existing concepts and theories in order to develop better ones, particularly in relation to what managers want from management development which is one of the main aims of the research.

1.5. STUDY HYPOTHESES AND UNDERLYING CONCEPTS.

OUTLINE

Introduction

The study aims to examine any differences and similarities in the pattern of what managers in the U.K. and Nigeria want from Management Development. For this purpose opinions were elicited by questionnaires sent to samples (188) of managers in different organizational sectors (ie public and private sectors - see Appendix B for questionnaires). Attempts were made to carry out an analytical study within the theoretical framework of cross-cultural management development. We aim to find conclusions which can be generalized across cultures and nations.

1.5.1 The Approach

An analytical approach has been undertaken because most findings from descriptive works tend to be restrictive and give an inadequate basis for comparison. They are also weak since most of the comparative studies were based on countries of similar economic standards and culture. Whereas the countries in this study (Nigeria and the U.K) have substantially different economic standards and cultures. These differences therefore provide fertile grounds for making comparisons and contrasts and would enable us to detect the impact the following variables may have on the managers' perception of management development.

- the manager's educational and training orientation
- their life-work experiences
- status and position of power in the organizational hierarchy
- value systems or orientation
- job content and scope of everyday managerial activities

When the effects of these variables have been established it may be possible to produce a predictive model, which allows us to construct

hypotheses that allow us to predict how individual managers in both the U.K. and Nigeria see the objectives of management development.

It is hoped that when the effects of the above variables are established, they would be integrated in the existing management systems and contingency theories. As a result of the systems and contingency theories, the study has discarded the idea of what is described as the 'one best way' to manage or what Bowey (1972) in his Ph.D. thesis referred to as the "panacea approach" to management. This study rejects the assumption that there is 'one best way' or 'panacea approach' to management.

For the purpose of this study the contingency* theory has been adopted on the following accounts:

- (I) That effects of the variables mentioned earlier are expected to vary according to the contingencies of different managerial positions and situations. Consequently, differences in personal and organizational factors, for example, age, educational background, work experience, size of organization combine to form part of my contingency approach.
- (II) The 'panacea approach' or the universalistic theory would expect all managers to have the same or similar characteristics in every organization and/or similar development objectives and needs.
- (III) Furthermore the different situations which cut across psychological, sociological and technical variables constitute the contingency open systems concept.

The following statements highlight the essence of the contingency view which confirms that there is no "one best" approach to managerial issues. In the light of that, we have adopted a self-perceived need approach to development orientation of managers.

* The excerpts in page 3626 suggest the essence of the contingency view as interpreted by several writers. In general, there is a rejection of universal managerial characteristics or principles appropriate to all situations. Modern organization theory therefore reflects a search for patterns of relationships.

1.5.2. ESSENCE OF CONTINGENCY VIEWS

(1) Tom Burns and G.M. Stalker (The Management of Innovation): "We have ~~endeavoured to~~ stress the appropriateness of each system to its own specific set of conditions. Equally, we desire to avoid the suggestion that either system (mechanistic or organic) is superior under all circumstances to the other. In particular, nothing in our experience justifies the assumption that mechanistic systems should be superseded by organic in conditions of stability. The beginning of administrative wisdom is the awareness that there is no one optimum type of management system". (see Burns and Stalker, 1968).

(2) Harold J. Leavitt ("Applied Organization Change in Industry: Structural, Technical and Human Approaches"). "If we view organizations as systems of interaction among task, structural, technical and human variables, several different classes of effort to change organizational behaviour can be grossly mapped". (see Leavitt, 1964).

"Such a view provides several entry points for efforts to effect change. One can try to change aspects of task solution, task definition, or task performance by introducing new tools, new structures, or new or modified people or machines. On occasion we have tried to manipulate only one of these variables and discovered that all the others move in unforeseen and often costly directions". (see Leavitt, 1964).

(3) Richard H. Hall (Organizations: Structure and Process): "A major conclusion from the analysis is that effectiveness is not achieved through following one organizational model... There is no one best way to organize for the purpose of achieving the highly varied goals of organizations within a highly varied environment. Particular kinds of goals coupled with specific kinds of activities within particular kinds of environments do call for particular organizational structures if effectiveness is a major criterion for the organization". (see Hall, 1972).

(4) Charles Perrow ("A Framework for the Comparative Analysis of Organizations")

" Finally, to call for decentralization, representative bureaucracy, collegial authority, or employee-centered innovative or organic organizations - to mention only a few of the highly normative prescriptions that are being offered by social scientists today - is to call for a type of structure that can be realized only with a certain type of technology, unless we are willing to pay a high cost in terms of output. Given a routine technology, the much maligned Weberian bureaucracy probably constitutes the socially optimum form of organizational structure.

If all this is plausible, then existing varieties of organizational theory must be selectively applied. It is increasingly recognized that there is no "one best" theory (any more than there is "one best" organizational structure, form of leadership, or whatever) unless it be so general as to be of little utility in understanding the variety of organizations".

(5) Jay W. Lorsch ("Introduction to the Structural Design of Organizations")

" The structure of an organization is not an immutable given, but rather a set of complex variables about which managers can exercise considerable choice.

... Our understanding of organizations as systems is new and it is growing rapidly. The ideas which are presented here will certainly be modified and improved. But as crude as they are, they represent better tools than the principles which have been relied on in the past. These ideas clearly move us in a new and promising direction - that of tailoring the organization to its environment and to the complex needs of its members".

(6) Fred E. Feidler ("Style or Circumstance: The Leadership Enigma"):" The

results show that we cannot talk about simply good leaders or poor leaders. A leader who is effective in one situation may or may not be effective in another. Therefore, we must specify the situations in which a leader performs well or badly".

(7) William H. Newman ("Strategy and Management Structure"): "The matching of strategy and management design presents a challenging opportunity to scholars of management. It calls for skill in building a viable, integrated system; it draws upon insights on many facets of management and it plunges us into a highly dynamic set of relationships. Both synthesis and refinement of theory are involved.

... A corollary of the proposition that management design should be varied so that it is (a) integrated within its parts, and (b) matched to specific company strategy is that no single management design is ideal for all circumstances. We cannot say, for example, that management by objectives, decentralization, participative management or tight control are desirable in all situations. Company strategy is one of the important factors determining what managerial arrangement is optimal".

Notes: Numbers 1-7 above were taken from Kast and Rosenzweig(1974,p.508).

On the basis of what has been discussed, it is hoped that the result of the study would not only offer information relevant to contingency theory; it would also help organizations and managers who want to improve their development schemes and/or their management practices. As the managers' personal and organisational variables differ and interact with one another, this approach also draws from 'Need-Motivation' concept as they tend to influence managers development objectives.

Having discussed the major and underlying concepts, we have to focus on the study primary and secondary hypotheses.

1.5.3 Study Hypotheses

To operationalise the variables under investigation discussed in 1.5.1 above the primary and secondary hypotheses that underscore the study objectives are shown below.

Primary Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

The perception of management development objectives and management practices of managers in the U.K. and Nigeria is different.

Hypothesis 2

The differences in perception are the direct results of the differences in managerial orientation due to educational background and managerial job experience.

Hypothesis 3

Managers with low educational background tend to maintain higher employer loyalty than managers with higher level of educational background.

Hypothesis 4

Managers and organisations that differ in their educational orientation tend to differ in their managerial knowledge and skills.

Hypothesis 5

The managers' preference to attend development course is in positive association with their managerial work experience.

Hypothesis 6

That the difference in managerial work experience is the direct result of the difference in the manager's sex.

Hypothesis 7

That more and less experienced managers perceive differently about what development objectives should be.

Hypothesis 8

That managers' development expectation is directly influenced by the managers' status in the organization (ie line managers tend to have different objectives from staff managers).

Secondary Hypotheses

On the basis of the above primary hypotheses, the managers' other personal and organisational factors which tend to moderate their development objectives and management practice were investigated. It was hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 9

Managerial knowledge, skills and scope of work differ with the manager's sex.

Hypothesis 10

Managers' highest educational qualification differs with the managers' sex.

Hypothesis 11

The degree of competence in handling social problems in organisation is associated with the objective (that is development motive) to learn improved method of handling problems.

Hypothesis 12

The degree of freedom (ie independence) about how a manager goes about his job is directly related with his work experience as manager.

Hypothesis 13

The number of subordinates controlled by managers tend to be in positive association with the size of organisation.

Hypothesis 14

Managerial job immobility is in direct association with managerial work experience.

Hypothesis 15

The extent to which a manager gets feedback at work tends to be in positive association with the motivation to broaden his attitude.

Hypothesis 16

The degree of competence with which managers admit to deal with conflicts between people is related to the degree of systematic approach they use in solving problems in organisations.

Hypothesis 17

The extent to which a manager's knowledge of international marketing problems is associated with the extent to which he uses models in decision making.

Hypothesis 18

The extent to which a manager works alone is directly related to his rank in the organisational hierarchy.

Hypothesis 19

The extent to which managers do different things at work for which personal initiatives are not recognised, is related to the managers' development expectation to look for new jobs.

Hypothesis 20

The extent to which managers tend to have the chance to finish completely any work they have started is associated with their skills in using systematic approach in solving problems.

Now that we have outlined the study (primary and secondary) hypotheses, the conclusion about the psychological dynamics behind them follow certain directions. To this effect, some statements by some organisational psychologists regarding the conditions affecting a person's attractions or motives are seemingly related to reward expectations such as pay, achievement, recognition, support by superiors, influence, status and acceptance by peers and/or subordinates. (See Vroom, 1965).

Whereas each of the aforementioned variables (pay, status etc.) may be regarded as dimensions on which motives or attractions may be measured, it is not unreasonable to assume that individuals may differ in their preferences among them. Individual differences in preferences or motives have proved extremely useful in accounting for differences in peoples choices among for example work roles, (Vroom, 1965). Similar reasoning would suggest that such differences are influential in determining managers' effective responses to development objectives as they relate to the work role they perform, bearing in mind their educational background, age, etc.

Similarly, other rather plausible assumptions about motives could account for relationships or lack of it between attitudinal measures such as:

- (i) number of different operations performed in jobs (Walker et al, 1952);
- (ii) amount of influence in decision making (Vroom, 1965);
- (iii) amount of acceptance by co-workers (Roethlisberger, et al, 1939);
- (iv) amount of consideration shown by superiors (Fleishman, et al, 1974; Halpin and Croft, 1963; Likert, 1961);
- (v) level in the organisation hierarchy (Hrapchak, 1972; Kornhauser, 1962; Morse, 1970; Porter, 1962).

A field work study by Turner and Lawrence (1965) illustrates the importance of including both work role variables and individual difference measures in the hypotheses of this investigation. The dynamics of the hypotheses are therefore set out to determine through correlational methods the consequences of job levels and task attributes, such as amount of autonomy, responsibility, job variety and job complexity on development objectives of the sampled managers.

A rating scale which is discussed in the research methodology was used. It measures the managers' job attributes so that the existence of inter-correlation among the ratings on the dimensions used could be explained along with their individual differences.

Basic Questions Related to the Hypotheses

A review of the literature (as observed earlier) has contributed very significantly to ideas as to which personal, organisational and job factors determine development objectives as well as revealing methodological and conceptual shortcomings. It was hoped as far as possible to avoid the criticisms outlined in the research "Approach" on pages 17 and 19 by:

- a) adopting a comprehensive and perceptual approach to development objectives,
- b) treating the sampled managers as individuals with different development objectives and needs.

Whereas a manager's work role and cultural traditions were also the focus of interest, the basic questions of this investigation are:

- I) What kind of variables (age, educational background, size of organisation, working-life-experience, supportive actions from (a) bosses, (b) peers and (c) subordinates and/or scope of individual manager's job) influence development goals of managers?
- II) What kind of managers are most likely to adopt away-from-job and/or on-the-job development practices.
- III) How do the variables aforementioned interact with each other in producing identifiable and/or predictive pattern for managerial development in the two countries?

Relating the above hypotheses and questions to 'Need-Motivation' concepts, the variables mentioned earlier are then treated in terms of the sampled managers' perceived development goals.

1.5.4. SUMMARY

Drawing together the above hypotheses, questions and literature review and directing them towards the thesis topic, we find that the area of development objectives of managers is, in fact, very poorly researched. The body of work which has been done is deficient in certain important ways:

- (a) Few studies treat development objectives of managers (at cultural level) comprehensively. Typically the focus is on a small range of managerial job motivation and/or potential job satisfiers and job dissatisfiers such as, job content, role conflict or role ambiguity. However, whilst the approaches have many benefits they are not entirely adequate bases for full understanding of individuals development motive or perception.
- (b) A second sign of the failure to treat managers as a totality is the attempt to study development objectives in isolation from the rest of his total work situation particularly from such elements (individual, organisational and job demographics combined), which influence managerial practice.

Even if the practising manager is to be separated out from his job environment and/or cultural setting as an accessible, researchable entity there are several (intuitively important) interfaces i.e. variables which investigators fail to give adequate treatment. For example, how important is the job relative to the manager's perception of what his development objectives should be? Is his position of power and/or the extent to which his job allows independence of action as to how to go about his work any interaction or influence on how he sees his development objectives and needs?

Or does his level of skills and competences, for example, relate to his age or work experience and how do these factors underscore his development goals?

Whereas much of the investigation on development and motivation of managers has been internally self-validating, little attention has been paid to finding out if the constituent factors mentioned above really are the sources of influence in the perception of development objectives, or if relationships of different strengths and types can be identified.

The results of the findings of this study treated in Chapters 4 and 5 indicate the direction of different strengths and relationships of the variables used in the investigation.

A schematic relationship between managerial development objectives and/or needs and other variables is shown in the diagram on the next page.

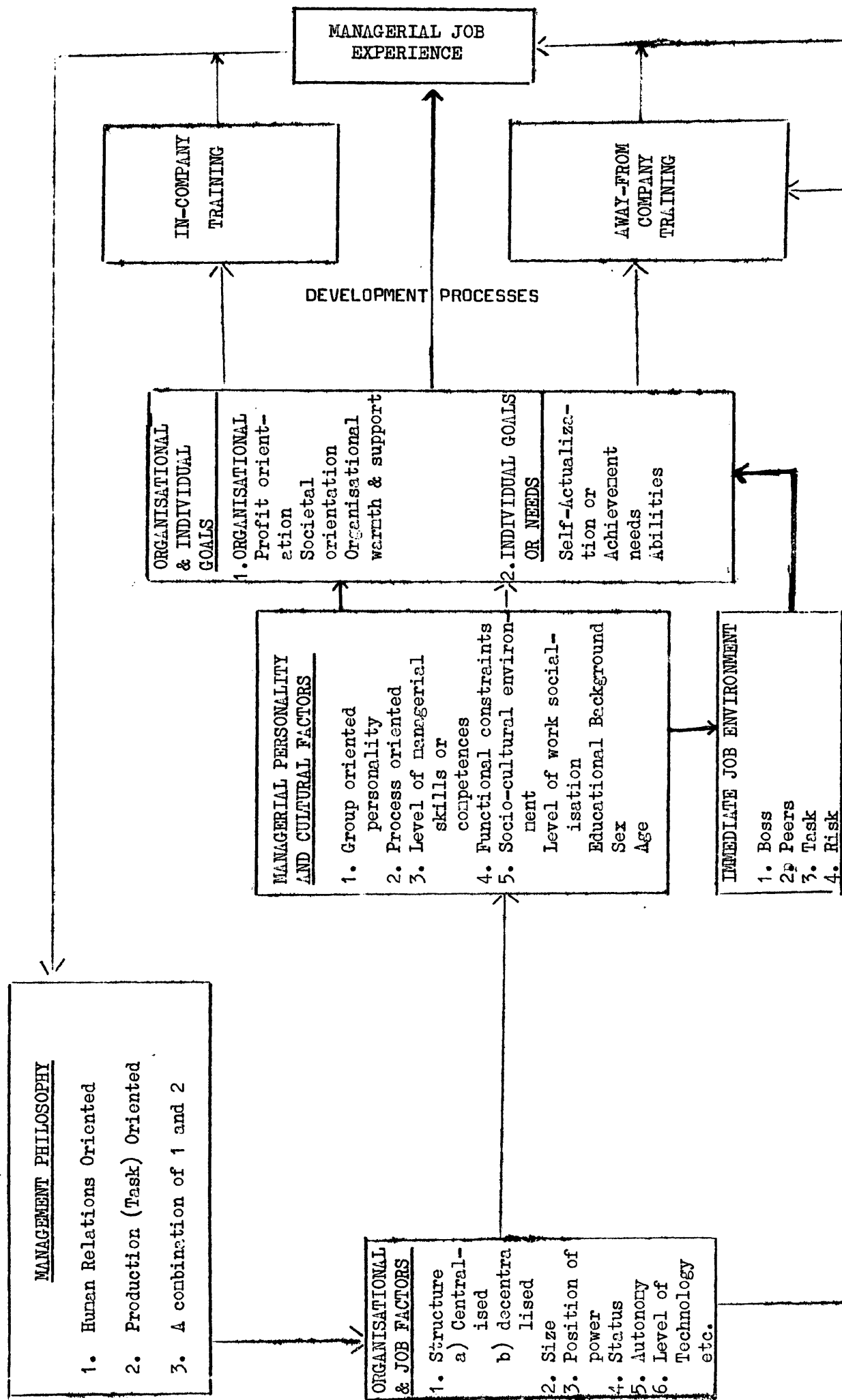


Figure 3 The Vibrating System of Perception of Development Needs and/or Objectives Interaction with other variables.

Figure 3: The Vibrating System.

This Vibrating System of Perception of Development Needs and/or Objective Interaction with other variables bears resemblance to Negandhi's (1970) comparative management model but much has been drawn from the conceptual model of March and Simon (1958) 'Motivational Constraints' i.e. factors affecting perceived need and/or desirability to take action. However, not all of the variance in human behaviour can be explained in the fashion generalised in Negandhi's or March and Simon's models, because personal attributes of the individual as well as organisational and job characteristics determine differential effects of changes in the manager's perception of development needs and objectives.

In ranking job attributes, for example, age is known to be a valuable characteristics, even when skills and other attributes are held constant (Bakke et al., 1954; Myers and MacLaurin, 1943; Reynolds, 1951).

The concept of the 'vibrating system' in this context is defined as the way in which the managers' personal, and job attributes interact to affect the managers' practices and development needs or expectations.

CHAPTER ONE - SECTION TWO

This section of the literature review has concentrated on the definition of the operational terms used in the context of the study. This is necessary in order to appreciate the impact of such terms as they relate to the research. They include:

Organisations

Organisational Goals

Management

Management Tasks

Managerial Development

Culture

Attitudes and Beliefs Particular to a Culture.

Also attention will be given to some earlier studies which are pertinent to the explanation of this investigation. Efforts would be made to review managerial development objectives, attitudes and competences and the reward implication of their development motivation. In discussing the above factors I shall endeavour to review "Divergence and Convergence Aspects in Theory and Practice of Management" as they relate to managerial development.

Brief comments would be made about basic managerial knowledge and skill requirements necessary for a manager's professional competence. I shall also comment briefly on Nigeria's economic position which underscores Nigeria's "Lack of Executive Capacity" and which in turn has made development effort a practical necessity. Full development details are treated in Chapter Two, Section Two - Management Education in Nigeria.

Definition of Operational Terms

Organisations

Many different definitions have been set forth. Some define

organisation as meaning the 'interdependence of parts'⁴ which is the characteristic of all enduring collective entities e.g. groups, societies, communities, and groups of all sizes.

Even early sociologists and philosophers used the word organisation with reference to societies, whereas later usage of organisation (Etzioni, 1965) applies it to groups of all sizes.

For the purpose of this study, organisation is broadly defined as a social as well as an economic unit of human groupings, deliberately constructed and reconstructed with a view to accomplishing specific goals. Social or economic organisation is therefore, used to refer (Talcott Parsons, 1959) to the interdependence of parts in groups of all sizes, which are organised in a sense that they are structurally differentiated. State utilities (i.e. Corporations or Boards), schools, churches, armies are included, while classes, tribes, ethnic groups (Parsons) friendship groups and families are excluded.

Organisation as used in this study implies structuring and integrating activities, that is, people working or cooperating together in inter-dependent relationships in pursuit of expressed or implied objectives. The notion of interrelatedness suggests in this context a social, as well as economic system. We can say therefore, that we are focussing on organisations which are:

- (a) Goal-oriented, that is people with business purpose ;
- (b) Psychological systems, people working in groups for the achievement of (a) above while maintaining personal psychological growth.

* See The Positive Philosophy of Auguste Comte, trans. 1893 3rd edition page 65. Herbert Spencer (in The Principles of Sociology Vol. 1. 1882) used social organisation to refer to the interrelations (integration and individual regulation through consensus about morals and values. Charles H. Cooley in Social Organisation 1909, pioneered the later interest in the social organisation of primary groups with his view of social as the differentiated unity of mental or social life. According to Cooley's analysis mind and one's conception of self are shaped through social interaction, and social organisation is nothing more than the shared activities and understanding which social interaction requires.

- (c) Technological systems, people using knowledge and techniques, in the accomplishment of (a) and (b) above;
- (d) An integration of structured activities, people working together irrespective of the differences in (a), (b) and (c) above.

Organisations with the characteristics mentioned above essentially require efficient and effective managers in order to fulfil their goals.

Organisational Goals

The performance of any organisation is in effect, dependent on its ability to achieve its goals. The generic problem of goal preservation may be stated (David L. Sill, 1970) as follows:

In order to accomplish their goals, organisations establish a set of procedures or norms.

In an effort to achieve the goals through delegation of authority to subordinates, members to whom functions and authority are delegated tend to regard procedures as ends rather than as means towards the achievement of organisational goals.

As a result of this process, the actual activities of the organisation become centred around the proper functioning of organisation procedures rather than upon the achievement of the initial goals. This phenomenon of goal displacement has been described by Philip Selznick (1943) as the "organisational paradox" and noted that because of this phenomenon, organisational frustration is a persistent characteristic of our times. Even Walter Sharp in his analysis of the French Civil Service concluded that any bureaucracy faces the constant danger that these routine operations will become sterile ends in themselves rather than the effective means to desirable ends.

The internal organisation can be viewed as composed of several major subsystems. The organisation goals and values are therefore one of the more

important of these subsystems that could influence a manager's development needs. The organisation takes many of its values from the broader socio-cultural environment. A basic premise is that the organisation as a subsystem of the society must accomplish certain goals which are determined by the broader system. The organisation performs a function for society and for its members, and if it is to be successful in receiving inputs, it must conform to social requirements. To achieve its professed goals, organisations need to be viewed as open sociotechnical systems composed of a number of subsystems capable of receiving inputs of energy, information and materials from their environments, transform these and return outputs to the environment.

It is management's task to integrate these diverse inputs (energy, information and materials) - sometimes cooperative, sometimes conflictive, into a total organisational endeavour.

Management

Management involves the coordination of human and material resources towards objective accomplishment. We often speak of individuals managing their affairs, but the normal connotation suggests group effort. Four fundamental factors are identifiable in management.

- management is towards objectives
- management is through people
- management is in an organisation
- management is via techniques.

Typical definitions therefore suggest that management is a process of planning, organising, coordinating and controlling activities.

Peter Drucker has emphasized that "management means getting work done through people". Therefore, management is the prime force within organisations which coordinates the activities of the subsystems and relates them to the

environment. It is essentially the process whereby the unrelated resources - men, machine, money, material, time and space - are integrated into a total system for objective accomplishment. A manager integrates and coordinates the activities of others. In an effort to accomplish his task, the manager needs to be analytical while recognising relationships and the need to synthesize (Mintzberg, 1973).

In various organisations, the words "manager" and "administrative executive" tend to be interchangeable. Yet a recurring question is the distinction between the terms "management" and "administration". Administration (Kast and Rosenzweig), often has had the connotation of governmental or other non profit organisations whereas "management" has been relegated to business enterprises. However, there is a considerable overlap in usage in the context of this study. According to Hertz (1965) "the single ubiquitous mind-driven activity of mankind is management". We are all involved in management - of ourselves, of our economic and social activities, and of society as a whole. Whatever name we use (managers or administrative executives) what needs to be recognised is that these people are in most cases leaders in our organisations. Many writers on organisation have endorsed the classification developed and operationalised by Floyd Mann which treats management in terms of a trilogy of skills required of organisation managers or executives.

The three skills are:

- Human Relations Skill. Ability and judgment in working with and through people, including knowledge of principles of human behaviour, interpersonal relations and human motivation.
- Technical Skills. Ability to use knowledge, methods, techniques and equipment necessary for the performance of specific tasks.
- Administrative Skill. Ability to understand and act according to the objectives of the total organisation, rather than only on the basis of the

goals and needs of one's immediate group interest. This ability includes planning, organising the work to be performed, assigning the right task to the right people, inspecting, following up and coordinating the work of others. The above basic managerial or administrative skills reflect Likert's "New Patterns of Management" hence the view that management will make full use of the potential capacities of its human resources only and only when each person in an organisation is a member of one or more functioning working groups that have a high degree of effective skills of interaction and high performance goals.

Management therefore seeks through its executives high degrees of supportive relations, group methods of supervision, high performance goals, adequate competence to handle technical problems, for the attainment of organisational objectives.

Management Task

As more human activities are taking place within our organisations the role of management tends to expand. Whereas the future managerial role will be even of greater importance, managers' development requirements are likely to increase over time.

The foregoing discussion of organisations and the factors influencing them now and in the future can be briefly summarised:

- Organisations are operating and will continue to operate in a turbulent environment which requires continual change and adjustment.
- They will have to adapt to an increasing diversity of cultural values in the socio-economic environment.
- They are expanding and will continue to expand their boundaries and domains, and these boundaries and domains will in turn continue to increase in size and complexity.
- The activities of modern organisations are highly differentiated causing increased problems of integration and coordination. This will continue to be so as technology tends to increase.

- As technology increases intellectual activities tend to be stressed.
- Modern organisations will focus on suggestions and persuasion rather than coercion based on authoritarianism (McGregor Theory X) as the favourable means for coordinating the activities of the participants and functions within them. They will tend to adopt the characteristics of Theory "Y".

The above list among others suggest that there ought to be a movement away from the mechanistic-bureaucratic organisation towards a more adaptive-organic system. Bennis (1967) predicts that bureaucracy, as a formal structure of organisation based rigidly upon hierarchical (i.e. logical relationships) among functions or tasks, is likely to be replaced by a new type of organisation (adaptive-organic organisation) better suited to the needs of modern industrialism.

It is the task of management to deal with the dynamics of change and provide overall coordination. This means that the role of management is ever demanding. The increasing complex nature of the role of managers is likely to create some rather fundamental problems of obsolescence unless managers are kept up to date, through training and development programmes. Increasingly management has become a more intellectual activity (Bass, 1968) and involves more effective use of knowledge.

With more sophisticated demands on organisations, more varied activities, and more operations requiring coordination, new complexities in performance will multiply, and organisations will become harder to manage - (Bass, 1968). When management skills were learned only by experience, the longer the service, the better qualified the manager. But as management has become more dependent upon new knowledge of operations and techniques which cannot be learned solely by experience, the likelihood of managerial development to be widely appreciated - if only managerial obsolescence is to be minimised - would be the only practicable alternative. "Unless we foster versatile, innovative and self-renewing men and women, all the ingenious social arrangements in the world will not help us." (Bass 1968 ibid).

Managerial Development

Earlier in the study it was stated that a manager or an administrator is a key man in any organisation: the way in which he uses resources - in his section, department or company directly affects the efficiency of the entire organisation. Over the last thirty years, a number of factors have combined to make a manager's job more demanding than in the past. These new factors - new techniques in planning, employee educational level, economic and social changes - have increased the need for managerial development and training.

The growth in the size of organisations and the development of specialist management functions also play their parts, but the most significant development according to Kenney & Donnelly (1972) stemmed from the changed state of the labour market in the post-war years.

Organisations are now aware that these changes in the labour market had to be matched by equally fundamental changes in the roles, functions and abilities of their managers. The contributions of various organisation theorists and behavioural scientists are today (Pugh et al., 1973) of immense assistance in the direction as to how organisations behave. Writers such as Maslow (1954) and Herzberg (1968), did much to develop motivation theory, while analysis of the effectiveness of managerial style by McGregor (1960), Blake (1964), Riddin (1970) and others have shifted emphasis away from McGregor's Theory "X" to the participative style associated with Theory "Y". All these have improved understanding of the behaviour of organisations, and the direction managerial development needs to take.

Industry's traditional source of managers (or supervisors) had come from its more able employees, whose full-time education had been limited through lack of finance and at times opportunity, yet whose potential had proved to be greater than that needed for routine jobs. Industry and

commerce, including other types of organisations, had to face the problem of developing their managers.

The process of developing managers takes time and money, and for it to be effective it should be carried out systematically. This involves manpower analysis and succession planning, together with monitoring managers' progress through performance appraisal. One may then ask, what is the aim of managerial development and training?

Wheatcroft (1970) has discussed the aim of management education and concluded that, "while the motives and priorities of the main parties in education for managers - the government, organisations (companies/ industries and commerce), the individual manager and the educationalists - may differ, the fundamental objective of developing the capacity and performance of the individual manager is common to all."

Managerial development is therefore the educational and training efforts geared to make the manager efficient and effective in the performance of his or her function. With an efficient managerial development effort an organisation is aware of, and able to use, the talents of its managers and at the same time is able to satisfy the organisations short- and longer-term requirements for managerial expertise. However, the general aim of management education and training is unlikely to be contentious, but how it can and should be achieved is another matter because there is no consensus of approach of methodology, and management education is not without its critics, (Platt, J.W., (1968) and BIM, (1971). Stewart in 1957 pointed out that the assumptions commonly made in management education can only be tentative until there has been much more research into managers' activities and the role of education more clearly defined.

Despite disagreement as to what, who, and where training is to take place, and even what subject area is to be covered, a general understanding

predominates that managerial development and training are basic to the techno-social system of organisations. Development and training provide a framework within which perception and cognition (ability to plan, control, and coordinate) operate in relation to man's ability to react and adapt to new ideas, skills and behaviour-change. Organisations' approach to managerial development and training should seek to achieve a high degree of integration of training requirements of managers with the firm's corporate objectives.

In this context, management development and training is a key tool in achieving organisational development and at the same time in minimizing the harmful impact that often results from change. Categories of training and development programmes for managers will be discussed later in the study. Here effort will be made to define culture in the context of this study.

Culture

It used to be thought that culture, in the sense of a repertoire of learned behaviour socially transmitted, was the exclusive preserve of Man. Some research on primates show that social transmission plays considerable part in their survival (Irven de Vore 1965). Culture in its broadest definition relates to that part of the total repertoire of human action (and its products), which is socially applied as opposed to genetically transmitted.

Most anthropological definitions have been greatly modified. According to Tylor (1975) culture or civilization is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society. Other writers have placed emphasis on the fact that behaviour is learned and because of that it has made the learning process the crucial aspect of analysis. Many more writers have seen the ideational aspect of social heredity as the central issue as seen in the elaborate definition of Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952).

Their definition which is appropriate to the purpose of this study includes: patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behaviour, acquired and transmitted, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiment in artifacts, behaviours which are historically derived and selected, ideas and values which are considered as products of action on the one hand and on the other as conditioning elements of further action.

Most sociologists have used the term culture explicitly with the ideational meaning in order to distinguish it from society or social structure which they consider to be their basic subject matter. For Radcliffe-Brown (1957) culture is essentially a set of rules. This, of course, does not detract the earlier definition while Parsons (1959), and his collaborators in the theory of Action School regard culture as essentially symbolic and evaluative. Even anthropologists in contrast to sociologists have usually taken their whole subject matter as culture and have not confined its use to ideational aspect of behaviour. Thus a central concept has been that of custom - a traditional and regular way of doing things. This refers to Behaviour above, while the other concept - trait - includes not only behaviour, but also material factors. Many writers particularly British anthropologists have seen the central importance of custom in regulating behaviour Gluckman (1955).

There has recently been a revival of interest in the evolution of culture, but a pre-occupation stemming originally from the trait approach to culture is that of cultural areas. Here there is an attempt to mark out geographical areas in which there is a high consistency of traits, and which differ recognizably from area to area. Thus, for example, in America, the plains' culture area is distinguished from the northwest coast, the north-eastern woodlands, etc. America is not alone in these culturally geographical differences. A number of studies elsewhere have endorsed these differences

among them include Murdock (1959), Lee Whorf (1956), Hymes (ed)(1964), Faron (1959) and Kroeber (1939).

A question that emerges is, what is the significance of culture in management development and training since generalization about management and supervision is limited and confined by a number of methodological problems? It is significant because of work-motivation.

It is to be appreciated that cultural effects are clearly evident in the area of work motivation (Barrett and Bass, 1974). Most studies have evidenced four substantive areas which are most sensitive to cross-cultural effects: these are:

- motivation and attitudes;
- management and supervision;
- assessment;
- training and development.

A number of cultural, social and economic factors which modify the structure of work relationships and motivation interact to shape the personality of members of a given culture. Culture has as well a moderating effect on job satisfaction, compensation models, managerial need satisfaction, even concepts and constructs tend to shift in meaning (authoritarianism and participation) as we move from one culture to another. Culture, therefore, does play a role in the abilities and aptitudes developed by individuals. This is most dramatically illustrated in the area of cultural differences in perceptual processes. Despite these conceptual problems the utility of cross-cultural investigation lies in the understanding that cultures can be ordered on a dimension of preference for managerial development and training. In addition, cultures or nations can be clustered for development and training efforts, the wide range of cultural variations adds a necessary and essential dimension to the field of training and development of managers.

There has been a great deal of debate concerning methodological and theoretical issues about cross-cultural studies, the methodological questions have been discussed by individuals from widely varying disciplines, each taking their own respective point of view, Holtzman (1965), Naroll (1968), Berry (1969), and Triandis (1972). These methodological problems include equivalence of experimental manipulation, equivalence of measurement, sampling, familiarity with instrument, and interpretation of results.

A number of theoretical models for research have been proposed by various investigators (Maslow & Honigmann 1970), Estafen (1970), Schollhammer (1969), Perrow (1967) and many others. This study will not debate their studies but rather will concentrate on such issues that can help to determine whether or not cross-cultural management development and training can be generalized at the level of intercultural individual differences.

Attitudes and Beliefs Particular to a Culture

Observational research by Heller (1969) in two South American countries illustrates the problems involved when there are values and habits antithetical to effective management. In fifty-nine out of sixty-eight business organisations studied, company board meetings were held without precirculated minutes and agenda. As a consequence, the board spent some 38 per cent of its time going over subject matter which had been previously discussed, without adding any substance to previous remarks. Even more serious was the failure of definite board decisions to be carried out, In 56 per cent of the cases where action had been taken by the board and decisions made to carry out specific instructions, six months later still no action had been taken.

Currently, the U.S.A. still has the lead in productivity over Europe: this cannot be accounted for solely on the basis of more capital equipment or other economic factors. The answer appears to be somewhere within the

basic motivational pattern and habits of ^{the} American workforce, and the effective management of its resources. (Denison, 1967). But this lead in productivity may diminish as American values shift away from task orientation. Denison observed that in the last decade, yearly productivity increases in the U.S.A. have been in the range of 2 to 3 per cent, while in general they have been far higher in Japan and Europe. Heller (1969) has pointed out that less often has consideration been given to the importance of the values and habits of the nation.

The misuse of human resources can be seen by another example as resulting from habit particular to a culture. In one South American country, secretaries are given extensive training in shorthand. Yet, when the work habits of all 260 managers in one organisation were studied, only twelve managers, or less than 5 per cent, were actually observed dictating reports or letters. When these same managers were interviewed, 95 per cent of them reported that they wrote all or nearly all of their letters and reports in longhand. As a result, within a year or so after joining the company, the secretaries had lost most of their skills in shorthand, skills acquired at considerable cost in time and money to both employees and employer.

This pattern may be repeating itself in the U.S.A. and Western Europe as well as in developing nations. Heller (1969) also found important differences, which may reduce national efficiency, among managers from Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay as compared to American and British managers. The managers from South American Countries put a great deal of stress and importance upon the managerial skill-making rapid decisions. This was seen to be somewhat less important by the Anglo-American manager, who more often prefers to "sleep on the problem" and to get more information before making a decision. In contrast the South American manager connects rapid decision making with power and authority. The general concept being that only the most senior managers with the most power are able to make rapid decisions.

The studies by Whyte and Williams (1968) in Peru, also stress the misuse of resources in areas such as conspicuous consumption during "fiesta" time. Starbuck (1966) taking a methodological approach quite different from the observations and case of Heller (1969) and Whyte and Williams (1968), has a different conclusion.

Starbuck developed a model relating sales volumes per employee and store size. He then applied aggregate data on retail trade to the model, concluding, for example, that British clerk specialization results in retail organisations expending two or three times as much labour as an American organisation to sell the same amount.

It is evident from this discussion that there are certain values and habit patterns more present in some cultures than others which may be dysfunctional both for organisation profits and for national economic growth.

It is extremely difficult to make a convincing case for having a board meeting devoted to rehashing old business because minutes were not kept, or having the board to make decisions which are never implemented. The values and habits which guide behaviour in an organisation can also be considered as important factors which may hinder or enhance economic development of an organisation which in turn may deter or promote national economic advancement.

Nevertheless, certain attitudes and beliefs to a culture, in a particular location may be counter-productive for organisational efficiency. For an organisation to compete effectively it may be necessary for it to change practices to overcome inefficiencies. But these changes may in turn alienate members of the organisation who may believe previous practices to have special significance rooted in cultural values. To initiate and implement new practices requires one form of training and education or another.

SOME COMMENTS

There are a number of factors (e.g. support from subordinates, peers other than cultural factors) involved in assessing the general environment within which organisations operate and within which managerial styles are employed. Assuming that a manager or an administrator has developed appropriate traits and flexibility of management style to motivate others; a question that may arise is: What is there in the organisational environment (e.g. status, rank, job content), which affects his ability to motivate individual members and coordinate their effort towards organisational goals? Fiedler et al (1971) postulate three factors of major importance:

- The manager's (leader's) position of power;
- The structure of the task; and
- The interpersonal relationships between the manager and his subordinates.

Position of power in an organisation as used in this study relates to the formal authority which is identified with specific position in the organisational hierarchy. The task to be performed provides an important ingredient in the managerial situation. Whereas unstructured tasks, for example, in ambiguous situations allow considerable leeway, but make the job of the manager much more difficult, well-structured, particularly routine operations, allow little margin for creativity in managing.

Both position of power and task structure are determined by the formal organisation. However, interpersonal relationships between the managers and other members of the organisation are affected (of course, not in all cases) by the attributes^{of}/hierarchical structure. In some organisations, it appears that the dimension of the managers' positions of power in the system tend to be crucial and in turn influence their development needs and perceptions.

The position of power and task structure invariably provide a framework within which a manager can operate meaningfully, whereas poor interpersonal relationship can negate the entire system in the organisation. Where the organisational environment does not permit effective interpersonal relationship between the managers and other members in the organisation, small groups within the organisation may subvert the system by complete noncompliance. It has been identified (Morse and Reimer, 1956; Argyle et al., 1958), that organisations with a better organisational environment, which facilitates effective management style, have a higher probability for success than those who lack the characteristics of a favourable environment.

The presence of a favourable organisational environment (climate) does not in itself guarantee or ensure managerial effectiveness. Appropriate behaviour patterns of managers can be enhanced through development and training programmes, but, in order to run meaningful development programmes (whether coaching or formal interorganisational educational schemes, which may include, on the job-training, and/or case analysis) it is pertinent to ascertain managers' viewpoints on certain development objectives as contained in the study questionnaire (Appendix B).

From the managers' responses we shall be able to detect their development expectations and the impact, which their positions of power, for example, have on such development expectations.

EARLIER STUDIES

In the early 1960's concern with finding panaceas for management (particularly in the human relations field) became prominent. But it became evident over time that there were some shortcomings in findings which indicated that panacea philosophies were inadequate. Almost all theories of management up to the late 1950's were preoccupied with finding the 'best way' perhaps 'one best way' to manage an organisation. The implication of this 'one best way' of managing an organisation if accepted would mean 'one best way' for managers to perceive 'development objectives'. Burns and Stalker (1961)

for example, are of the opinion that there is an overriding management task in first interpreting correctly the market and the technological situation in terms of instability, or the rate at which conditions are changing. They emphasised the management system approach, and were concerned with the structure of the firm's management system. They found that the crucial factors which needed to be considered were the product, the market and the technology of the manufacturing processes undertaken by the firm.

A number of earlier writers had adopted different approaches but after a long period of neglect, managerial motivation has, at least, been the subject of an increasing number of empirical studies over the last few years. Two basic concepts provide the bases for most of the empirical research in this area - the Need Hierarchy Concept advocated by Maslow (1954, Motivation-Hygiene concept of Herzberg et al, (1959) and McGregor's Theory 'Y' concept. Maslow's concept provides a frame for the work of Porter (1961, 1962) as well as being reflected in several other studies that drew from Porter's approach. Both Herzberg's and Porter's works tried to relate job attitudes or other measures of managerial motivation to task or organisational variable. In Porter and Lawler (1965) emphasis was more on the possible interrelationships between and among different variables. Similarly Vroom (1965) expressed the wish to see researchers begin to turn their attention from relatively simple problems involving only two variables to more problems involving interactions among variables.

Few reported studies have investigated the interrelationships among variables effecting managers' development motivation. Porter (1963) pointed to the possibility of need fulfilment deficiencies, and found that at lower levels of management, small company managers were often more satisfied than large company managers. However, at higher levels of management, large company managers were more satisfied than small company managers. Porter

and Lawler(1964) and Porter and Siegel (1965) also discovered that total company size in terms of total number of employees seemed to interact with the type of organisation to produce managerial need satisfaction. In Organisations (i.e. companies) where there are less than 5,000 employees produce more need satisfaction, whereas companies with more than 5,000 employees produced more social and security satisfaction.

Given the importance of hypotheses .4. and .5. and the relative absence of systematic treatment of them in the existing studies, this study has been partly designed to test the relationships of the practising managers' personal and organisational variables as they affect their development objectives. Since the 1960's it has become evident that a school of management thought was growing. Some schools of thought had rejected the search for management panaceas and embarked on the 'contingency approach' of management. The concept of 'one way' managerial perception of development objectives was therefore considered inadequate for the purpose of the analysis of this study. Once we discard the search for management panacea or the 'one best way' to manage organisations which in turn implies 'one best way' of perceiving managerial development objectives, the basic question tends to be - upon what kind of management theory do we base our analysis of managerial perception of development objectives pattern?

When management theorists take account of the contingent organisational factors in each managerial situation, there tends to be always a new kind of problem for the management scientists. This means evolving an approach that tends to meet the requirements of particular organisations. On the basis of organisational contingent factors, this study will therefore reject the 'one best way' or the panacea approach to manage, Bowey (1972). We had to apply the 'contingent theory concept' since perception of need and development expectations of managers tend to vary according to ^{the} managerial situation. This is expected to be so because managers who differ in their managerial

practice and orientation will tend to differ in their perception of development objectives. Adoption of the contingency theory in the analysis of this study meant that findings were expected to differ according to the contingencies of different managerial situations. By contrast, a universalistic theory e.g. Heller (1971), would expect all managers or all managers from a given country, to show roughly similar characteristics.

Different habits of thought, roles, behaviour and development needs expectation in Nigeria and the U.K. would form part of a contingency theory; at the same time certain other expected differences may have no direct relation to the nationality of the sample. For example, the experience of the managers, their perception of their functions and what are required of them, their own role expectations within the organisational structure are all put forward as contingencies. These differences in situations cut across psychological, sociological and technical factors and they constitute an 'open system theory'* hence the basis of contingency approach.

One significant question that tends to emerge is - why do we have to identify the relationships of managers' perception of development objectives pattern? One may indicate that findings of this 'contingency model' will be related to historical development in management practices. This will be helpful in arriving at meaningful recommendations to management development scientists or change agents and the practising manager since managers are drawn from among people with different vocational and educational background.

It is therefore not hard to recollect that the conception of management being professionalised is a recent phenomenon. For some time now, managers and executives of organisations whether in the private or public sector are invariably drawn from among personnel in the engineering, law, accountancy and other professions. These personnel carry with them attitudes, behaviours, opinions and skills which are at times influenced very much by their training.

* The difference between an open systems contingency theory and the simpler previous researches is that the former acts as a check on facile cultural theories. For a full statement of the variables which are part of the open system theory see Heller 1976. 'Limits to participative leadership'.

Even when this professional loyalty is taken further across cultural boundaries the situation becomes more complex and confounding. It is viewed that the supply of managers and executives from among varying occupational professions will continue to be so for many years to come. At the same time, as the scope of business operations widen, many variables tend to interact and affect managerial and organisational operations in addition to professional inclination. The tendency being that managers or executives may be caught in a tangle of complex interacting, and at times, opposing forces. The argument being that managers with different training background tend to have different perceptions of what development objectives should be.

The studies of Orth (1965), Kornhauser (1962), and Blau and Scott (1962) stressed the conflicting values of different personnel of different professional training. Kornhauser concluded that most conflicts between (for instance) the engineer and his employing organisation stem from the basic organisational dilemma of autonomy.

We have included 'autonomy' and 'freedom of independent action about how one goes about his job' in order to see how they influence the managers development perceptions. Goldner and Ritti (1967) contend that professionals, particularly, engineers, recognised 'power as an essential ingredient of success in organisations' but what has not been established is the impact which such positions of power, has on the manager's development objectives, irrespective of his or her basic professional occupations.

5.3 MANAGERIAL DEVELOPMENT OBJECTIVES, KNOWLEDGE, COMPETENCES AND ATTITUDES

Development Objectives Components

Introduction

People differ about what they expect from management schemes. What motivates one individual to react to a point of view or situation may fail to motivate another individual. However in recent times, attention by both management theorists and industrial psychologists has been on worker motivation. Essentially considerable focus has been centred around "value/expectancy" motive. Campbell, et al., (1970); House (1971); Lawler, (1971) emphasise that what motivates an individual's action is a function of 'expectancy' that performance will lead to desired outcome. Locke, (1976) points that such expectations tend to dominate industrial/business settings. The viewpoints of industrial executives on business issues tend to be guided by such expectations.

Managers' development perceptions can be represented therefore as perceived expectancy that development is capable of producing expected outcome. The major component of this 'value/expectancy' outcome is significantly demonstrated in McClelland, (1953) as has been referred to in Atkinson, (1958) who tried to measure motivation by means of the Thematic Appreciation Test.

Motivation - Reward Implication of Development

It is viewed that emphasis is placed upon the rewards associated with the responses and the valences associated with those rewards. This 'response/reward' association tends to classify people in the two poles of 'driven' and 'satiated' see Wherry and South, (1977). If the rewards (i.e. expectations)

satisfy and reduce the drives, individuals tend to lapse into a bored passivity state; if the rewards are not satisfactory or forthcoming, they become agitated.

The focus of job satisfaction is placed upon rewards and rewarding instruments in the job system (pay, benefits, promotion, security, co-workers etc.). Whereas about organisation, emphasis is placed on the individuals' perception of the system providing proper settings for:

- (1) Attitudes towards people (warmth, support, consideration, esprit).
 - (2) Attitudes towards management and supervision (conflict, aloofness, structuring, hinderances, etc.).
- Even if we look further, we may come up to a competing theory which goes beyond the limitations of the traditional need theories - the competency motivation theory.

White (1959) indicates that competency motivation theory is a product of 'feeling of efficiency' and has its two poles of "effective" and "incompetent". The proper state for the exercise of the competency motive is the absence of strong personal needs, and freedom from personal anxiety. White (1959) describes its presence in children as the theme of mastery, power and/or control, perhaps even a bit of self-assertion in the child's concentration upon those aspects of his environment which respond in some way to his activity. The feeling of effectiveness or incompetence would no doubt influence a manager's development, needs and perception. The above understanding therefore tends to place emphasis on the individuals own stimulation by the environment - job and job setting - and his attempt to deal successfully with it. In this understanding too, the reward becomes his perception of his own success which is similar to McClelland's *nAch*. theory as has been discussed elsewhere in this study.

This success, however, does not serve to satiate a drive. Indeed White says that it would appear to be in the arousal and maintaining of activity rather than its decline towards bored passivity. What appears to be consistent with this point of view is the job itself - intrinsic satisfaction, and in the job climate related factors - responsibility, autonomy, risk-taking (viewed favourably), emphasis on ability, and an open challenging environment, hence we have included most of these factors in our questionnaires to ascertain their interaction effect.

In dealing with some of the facets to be treated here the term "intrinsic motivation" is to be referred to where the manager's competence, exertion and mastery of his job constitute his (expectancy) reward. We shall also discuss how such motives affect his feelings or perceptions.

From what has been discussed we can see that the above theories interact to some extent. The 'competency motive' tends to come into play when the physical drive and social needs are sufficiently satisfied so as not to be disturbing. A young manager poorly equipped and perhaps having no position of power is like a hungry employee fearful of not being able to meet his bills, afraid of being fired and resentful of his colleagues and of authority, will tend not to be in proper state to perceive effectively his job's demands. In addition, his job may be so routine and deadly as to provide little challenge or opportunity to demonstrate his objective perception of his position.

Similarly an older manager (perhaps a management failure) suffering from "management-ulcer" resulting from a job he cannot handle, but due to ⁱⁿ a position of authority may fail to perceive objectively and effectively. To such individuals position of power, support from colleagues, subordinates or bosses may be very or less important and may act directly or indirectly to reinforce the individual's already presently held view of their own competence.

In order to examine the relationships derived from 'high-order development need-feelings' of managers, instruments that measure individuals' viewpoints on development and reactions to their jobs are used in this section. It is viewed that managers with a high level of higher-order needs tend to react more positively to development that enhances their managerial performance. These individuals' reactions to job (Hackman and Lawler (1971); Wanous (1974)), are accordingly moderated by their levels of need strength. In the context of 'development need-feelings' (i.e. need-expectancy) model, reactions of the managers are affected by the val^eances of the outcomes (experienced feelings) associated with development.

Basically characteristics of the managers jobs (variety, autonomy, feedback, complexity, identity, etc. would have greater importance for persons who desire to satisfy higher needs. It wouldn't be surprising to discover that most persons react most positively to development objectives which contribute to their needs (particularly intrinsic development motives). Intrinsic development motivation should in the context of this survey be seen as the degree to which managers are motivated to develop themselves because of some subjective feelings (rewards) (e.g. self-esteem growth, etc.) that they expect to experience as a result of improving their managerial performance.

As the managers' jobs tend to be complex, the jobs also tend to give managers the opportunity to maximize their performance through development which in turn should lead to perceived subjective rewards for persons who experience them as a result of performing well.

The implication of performing well is that some managers may regard development objectives, knowledge and skills as significant issues with potentially important influence on their "expectancy-reward" motivation.

5.4 Management Knowledge, Skills, Attitudes and Opinions

In these areas we will concentrate on how the managers rate themselves on their knowledge, skills, competences and attitudes in dealing with organisational problems. In an attempt to get this information, respondents were asked a series of questions as shown in Tables 5.14, 5.15 and 5.16. These are treated in detail in Chapters four, five and six. Here we have to briefly comment on the "divergence and convergence" in theory and practice of management which underscore managerial knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Divergence and Convergence Aspects in Theory and Practice of Management

Recent developments in the behavioural and management sciences have done much to modify traditional organisation theory and the actual practice of management. The new theory and the new practice are mutually supportive. But in spite of these new developments and new practices, managers are still using their old methods and ideas a reflection of what Kast and Rosenzweig (1974) suggest to be due to:

- basic differences in values and ideologies
- varying academic disciplines
- conflict between descriptive and normative theory.

Whereas the dichotomy of the latter is important, the normative approach (Elton, 1958) has been used primarily in economics and the management sciences. For instance, economists and operation research analysts are very much interested in things as they should be rather than as they are. William (1964)

emphasized that their primary motivation may be to prove that they are smarter than most others in developing analytical models which will enable organisations to make more rational decisions. On the other hand others, such as psychologists, sociologists and other behaviouralists, question the 'economic-technical' assumptions of human behaviour. They tend to be concerned with describing the way people and organisations actually behave to influence management.

What we have to note with interest is that as many more disciplines become interested in organisations and management, researchers have to put into consideration their own traditional preoccupation with certain selective subject matter. As Stogdill (1966) emphasised, the situation has been one of fragments of theory that are presented as complete theory, and that instead of a more simplified theory the tendency is a greater complexity and consideration of more variables.

These developments have generated much controversy over which approach - the traditional, behavioural or management science - is best. The above argument is significant not because of their different approaches but because they are complementary to each other not competitive. The practising managers need to be aware of when each approach (descriptive or analytical) or a combination of them could be effectively applied in solving organisational problems.

Though among individuals, value systems vary and are deep-seated; most people tend to be interested in different aspects of the organisation and of people. They also tend to emphasize the utility of different approaches and endeavours. It is essential that we recognise that all the approaches are valuable and have important contributions to make to understanding organisation theory and management practice. Whereas managers tend to welcome different approaches to their management practices, the tendency is

that they require a clear-cut body of management knowledge, in order to be effective. However, some managerial knowledge and skills cut across all approaches - hence the importance of greater managerial awareness.

Basic managerial knowledge and skill requirements

This section deals with some statements of the basic requirements for managers' professional competence, in both knowledge about their specialised functional areas and general knowledge and the skills considered necessary for their work. These are described in terms of the activities managers undertake, and it will be perceived that knowledge and skills tend to blend together. Some of the statements are specific to managers in the field of human resources whereas others are necessary for all managers.

It has been suggested that managers require sufficient knowledge to be able (see A Report by the Personnel Management/Training Sub-committee 1972) to understand and describe:

- the social, economic, legislative and industrial relations factors which affect the 'climate' in which an organisation operates;
- the external constraints upon their organisations, such as government pressure and the impact of market situations whether locally or internationally;
- the impact on their organisations of relevant technological developments;

Further, they are expected to identify and describe how:

- objectives, markets, technology and operating characteristics are determined;
- understand the financial determinants of the business policies;
- contribute to the analysis of methods and procedures;
- work closely with peers and other employees, taking account of their personal objectives, viewpoints, work-loads and problems;
- understand what the various functional areas involve, perceive the relationships between them, and the various techniques and skills required to work within them.

Some Reflections

The job context and organisational characteristics questionnaires (as well as the managers' personal factors) we hope, have provided a good tool in investigating both practical and conceptual issues that tend to exert influence in the managers' development needs and motivation. This is important because not all the factors (personal or organisational) that are mentioned will exert the same amount of influence on the participants' development motive. Further, many individual managers perceive and conceptualise differently. For instance, the conceptual definition of "organisational size" (Kakabadse, 1977) seem to be differentiated and lacking in consensus. Even Kimberly (1976) reports that there has been, for example, little theoretical development of the concept of size. Blau (1972) has defined size as "the scope of an organisation and its responsibilities"; whilst Aldrich (1972) P.30 refers to it as "the scale of operations". These conceptual definitions seem, at present, to influence a substantial number of studies. Those adopting the Weberian model of structural properties, for example, in the United States (Meyer, 1972; Hall, 1972) view organisational size as a structural characteristic of organisations.

Alternatively, Pugh, Child and Aston group have interpreted size as one of several dimensions of an organisation's context. Other dimensions include technology, status (Pugh et al, 1963) and so on. Under this usage, size is, therefore, viewed as one of a number of constraints which together determine the particular structure of configuration an organisation is likely to exhibit. Our use of the variable "size" is in line

with that of Pugh et al, in explaining our findings in relation to the influence of organisational size in development needs and motivation.

But a question that has been raised is :

Is the role and/or influence of size on managerial development similar, no matter what kind of organisation is being considered?

This question of 'organisational size' may imply that two different approaches of sampling could have been adopted, each of which implies a somewhat different answer. The first approach envisages the one typified by the work of Blau and Schoenherr (1971) which involves what might be called intratypical sampling - a term used by Kimberly (1976). Samples of only one type of organisation (which in effect does not satisfy our purpose) because in the case of Blau and Schoenherr only one kind of organisation (security agency) was used for analysis. The justification for this approach is that a theory of organisations is built on the basis of empirical analysis of one type and is subsequently tested and validated through replication in other types.

A second approach which Kimberly refers to as the "inter-typical type", and is well illustrated by the work of Hall, Haas and Johnson (1967). The basis is a heterogeneous sample of organisations on the grounds that a general theory of organisations ought to enable one to derive hypotheses which can be tested. In their approach (similar to ours), Hall, Haas and Johnson included, for example, a television station, trade union organisation, school and Government agency. They justified the use of intertypical sampling method in their investigation of the importance of organisational size on the grounds that it was an important factor in its relationship with other variables. Our analysis of the data in chapters four and five confirm the importance of size as it affects a manager's position of power in an organisation which, in turn, affects his management practice and his management development motivation. As has been noted elsewhere in chapter four, the managing director of a small organisation, for

example, may be chief executive by virtue of the size of his concern and not necessarily as a result of his managerial skills or competences.

Although in some cases size is given the unclear status of determiner, or is said to have consequences for other organisation's variables such as status, rank and job autonomy, by and large, most studies have raised directly the question of size on the structure of organisations. Among these studies that have examined the causal status of size, Ingham (1970), Labovitz and Miller (1974), see it as exogeneous, namely, as causing other variables to assume particular importance.

Writers such as Von Broembsen and Gray (1973) see size as endogeneous, i.e. being influenced by other variables. Many more people see the relationship between size and other variables such as structure as problematic (Coates and Updagraff, 1973), whilst others see that the relationship is a logical one (Freeman and Kronenfeld, 1974). Our observation in line with those of Ingham, Labovitz and Miller is that size in its relationship to other organisation's variables, tends to influence a manager's management practice and management development motivation.

C H A P T E R T W O

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT - GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Introduction

In the United Kingdom, public organizations are becoming aware that more effective management is just as necessary for them as for other sectors of the economy. Management education and training have in the last few years become important features in the U.K.'s national economic and cultural life. For example, the industrial training boards represent a new and potentially strong source for influencing organizational commitments. Companies and industries are accepting the need for adoption of policies related in different ways to management development. Resources are being committed by government and others to management education on an increasing scale. This is so because 'the prosperity if not the survival (Drucker, 1954) of any business depends on the performance of its managers of tomorrow'. He (Drucker) emphasised that management manpower is an asset with a long economic life which demands the planning attention given by industry to other assets with long life.

In the past, in the U.K., the management function was frequently undertaken by members of the family who owned the business. To some extent before the Second World War this order persisted but since 1945, new professional managers have emerged, who are not one of the company owners. Most of these managers may be personnel who have progressed and been promoted from the shopfloor or men who have moved into management from one of the technical aspects of the organization such as engineering or accounting. This pattern is equally as true of Britain as of Nigeria today.

Formal education specifically for management hardly existed in the United Kingdom before the war (Rose, 1970), apart from courses leading to the qualifications of professional bodies. A handful of companies ran

short courses internally for managers, only few courses designed for existing managers or aspiring managers were offered by educational institutions. Today, there are Departments of Management Studies at Universities, Business Schools, and Technical Institutes including Polytechnics set up to train men and women specifically for management.

"Several technical colleges provided courses for the system of external examinations administered by the Institute of Industrial Administration and other professional bodies, and the Regent Street Polytechnic, for example, had offered part-time courses for management since the years following the first world war. But among the Universities only the University of Manchester Faculty of Technology (the then Manchester College of Science and Technology) and the London School of Economics and Political Science offer full-time postgraduate course for managers or potential managers in the 1930's. On the other hand, undergraduate courses in subjects leading to a first degree in commerce or the economic aspects of business, like subsidiary courses in industrial administration for students taking engineering degrees, had been offered by some several universities. These pre-war degrees in 'commerce' 'business' or 'industrial economics' however, were designed for broader purposes than a career in management." (Rose, 1970)

Industries, however, tend to be and may still be lukewarm to graduates of these educational institutions and they have been far more interested in luring specialist graduates, such as engineers, accountants and geologists - progressing them through the appropriate company department and hoping to have them emerge by some magical process as fully competent managers at the opportune time. Often, either the man so progressed or his superiors (at times both) very quickly find out that the man who has been raised from the worker, technician, or scientist category, through supervision into management (Chapman, 1972) does not have the necessary background in the theories of business finance, economics, personnel administration, etc. demanded by the new managerial responsibility.

The Pre-war absence of education for management

This absence of education for management outside the professions, must be explained in terms of demand and supply. At this period, business was generally hostile to the idea that education except in specific technical fields, could successfully develop or strengthen management skills. Even as late as 1947, the Urwick Committee - a body set up to propose a national scheme of management education had this declaration to make: "there is no implication in this report that young men and women can be trained as managers in industry and commerce by following certain course of study." The committee was of the opinion that theoretical study alone cannot make a manager. While one aspect that held back effective courses for management before the war was the unwillingness of most universities to admit that such courses were at all suitable for inclusion; but very little evidence has been demonstrated to prove that effective management cannot be based upon sound theoretical guidelines in relation to personality and experience.

In view of the similarities between the problems of business decisions and decisions of warfare, the contrast between the traditional attitude of business world and that of the armed forces towards the interaction of personality, experience and education appears striking. The importance of education even at all levels of military management (Montgomery, 1968) has been long appreciated. This is equally true of other organizations. Field Marshal Viscount Montgomery emphasized that "good generals are made rather than born." Further he says, "no officer will reach the highest rank without prolonged study; the conduct of warfare is a life study." This observation underlies and supports the concept of managerial development through education and training, on life-long basis.

Yet in the pre-war era, the intellectual and social climates of the United Kingdom as a whole have been composed of a snobbish class attitude towards "trade" and a political prejudice against business. Such climates

reinforced the disposition to regard university education as being suitable only for an intellectual elite (Rose, 1970, p. 3), seeking careers outside the business world. During this period the universities were averse to what might be regarded as vocational education. What was not at this time considered is that managerial knowledge requires not only specific vocational skills but also certain other capacities, such as ability to get along with fellow workers, to take appropriate decisions as to 'when', 'where', 'why' and 'how' to expand, to listen and be listened to, and to fit in easily into complex productive units.

Management Science, therefore, as a discipline does not lack the intellectual input at all, rather educational institutions were not able to admit that it has as they did in the case of, for example, history or economics. What needs to be appreciated today is that business cannot any longer permanently occupy levels of effectiveness higher (Harry, 1952) than those clearly determined by the capacity of its executives. Modern organizations - whatever their objectives - cannot be managed by men and women of little intellectual endowment.

Contrasting the pre-war absence of management education in the U.K. with the U.S.A. Balfour (1924) calculated that there were as many as 80,000 students attending 100 of the schools or departments of business administration or commerce in the U.S.A. This figure according to him represents a situation out of all proportion to the few hundreds to be found taking similar courses in the U.K. The difference noted continued to increase in the 22 years which followed after 1924. While there has been some development in Great Britain since 1924, the result has been a mere trickle compared to the thousands of young men poured out annually in the U.S.A. with some intellectual preparation for and an established 'concern' with management techniques. Apart from the supply of leaders in

industry, the American graduates in Management, given some years of industrial practical experience, present a source of supply of qualified teachers which was almost lacking in Britain (Urwick Report, 1947).

However, the majority of students attending American business schools before the war, were following undergraduate or specialized vocational courses of a kind that would today be regarded as being of limited value. Nonetheless, management education had already made its significant impact in the U.S.A. and the leading business schools with postgraduate courses are today being regarded as 'the recruiting depot for managerial staff' (See Bowie, 1932 in Urwick, 1947).

2.1.2 Post-war enthusiasm in management education

Interest in management education in post-war period began to quicken in Britain for some important reasons. Within the business world itself a more sympathetic attitude towards what was once commonly described as 'scientific' management had taken root. This, of course, reflected the change in technology in its widest sense. Recruitment from the supervisory grade (through promotion) was giving way to the more rapid advancement of accountants, engineers, chemists, etc. who were more ready to respond to systematic ideas concerning management. This change in attitude was probably accelerated by the increasing scale of operations, the decreasing importance of family business, and by the post-war emphasis on raising productivity, an emphasis which included the frequent comparison of British with American and most recently Japanese management methods.

During this period, the first significant change was the increase in the demand for and supply of university graduates. Its main direct consequence was the spread of trainee schemes for graduates with a wide variety of first degree. Inside industry, one result was the spread of company or industry courses. By 1960 at least 400 relatively large

industrial companies ran management courses (Mosson, 1965), about 50 of which had their own residential centres. Apart from the establishment of company training centres and the spread of graduate trainee schemes - many of which would today not be considered a success - the chief features of management education particularly in the period 1945-1960 were the following:

- The emergence of the technical colleges as the main suppliers of management education and training.
- The establishment of a number of independent management centres, which together with management consultants provided courses for all levels of existing managers.
- The limited role of the universities - only a few of which offered postgraduate management courses for existing managers.*

Some of these educational institutions offer full-time courses extending over a year or more, leading to a degree or diploma. In most cases, these are filled mainly by recent graduates and are of little use to the junior or middle manager who finds that industry cannot or will not give him considerable amounts of time off work to attend. Instead, these experienced managers have turned to the varied extra mural offerings of the educational systems for the knowledge they require.

At the universities, outside the full-time courses, other courses provided tend to be relatively short - one to twelve week residential ones for experienced managers and series of evening seminars limited to those with business experience. Less frequently sandwich courses are available with alternate periods of on-the-job with residential periods attending classes.

* The immediate post-war pattern of management education in the United Kingdom was set by the Urwick Report. This established a National Scheme of Management Studies for commercial and technical colleges including Polytechnics. The report originated from a special committee with terms of reference as follows: To advise the Minister of Education on educational facilities required for management in industry and commerce, with particular reference to the steps to be taken in regard to the organization of studies, bearing in mind the various requirements, of professional organizations and the need for their coordination. The Scheme of Management Studies arising from the Urwick Report was jointly sponsored by the Ministry of Education and The British Institute of Management.

This management education has roots in the United States Business Schools. In the U.S.A., World War II left an impact upon management training. Ginzberg (1968) said that many American corporations came out of the war with their executives seriously depleted after a decade of limited or no accessions. Moreover, rapid advances in technology and in management meant that many of the existing managerial group were poorly positioned to deal with the new opportunities that were developing. Taking a leaf from the Military which devoted much time and effort to the advanced schooling of its Officer Corps, more and more companies decided to expand their educational and training efforts which it should be emphasized, were focused primarily on their executive personnel.

Once business decided to expand its efforts to educate and train its managerial personnel - a decision made easier by the excess profits tax on the one hand, and the ability to write off training costs under government contracts on the other - it faced many options about how to proceed.

Some companies decided to design a curriculum and to staff courses, largely if not exclusively, with their own resources. Others seeing advantages in keeping reasonably close control over the effort but recognizing their limitations to cope with such a new and different task invited outsiders to design a programme and to furnish most of the instructional personnel - usually these outsiders are neighbouring universities. The 1950's saw a tremendous burgeoning of management training initiatives and programmes under the auspices of universities, trade associations and other groups. A good number of companies directly associated themselves with one particular scheme, others sent their personnel to different programmes in the effort to discover the best suited to their purposes.

Some organizations dealt with this matter on a more individualised basis. They arranged to pay the tuition either in whole or in part, for those of their managerial officials who decided to pursue further education in their spare time. Some companies even went so far as to shorten working hours to enable some employees to attend approved programmes. Gordon (1950) found that only four U.S.A. university management development programmes were in existence: Massachusetts's Institute of Technology's Executive Development or Sloan Programme which had started in 1931; Harvard's Advanced Management Programme and the University of Chicago's Executive Programme (both had started during World War II), and the University of Pittsburgh's course in Management Problems for Executives which was the first of the many post-war programmes.

The bandwagon grew very quickly so much so that today there are non-degree management courses at nearly every United States University. Prior to Nigeria's self rule, management education was virtually not available in Nigeria and even today it has not mushroomed in the same way it did in the U.S.A. nor in the same way it has developed in the U.K. However, both the U.K. and Nigeria had similar problems in adapting to new relationships between educational institutions and the practical world of business. Organizations and in particular industries, need to be convinced about the possible assistance which further education of U.K. and Nigerian management has to bring. Management Education in Nigeria is discussed in section B.

2.1.3 Industry and University in management education and training

Industry's attitude towards management studies in the universities, however, seemed ambivalent. Whereas the short residential courses for existing managers tend to be oversubscribed, by 1960 less than 200 students were attending postgraduate management courses in Britain in the universities a number which could not economically develop management departments on so small a scale.

It is not very easy to accurately account for the limited and mixed support which industry gave to the universities' efforts in management education. Apart from the wide-spread absence of acceptance of the value of formal management education as a whole, there was a general suspicion of the relevance of what the universities could teach managers, and above all, the young man without managerial experience. This suspicion was reinforced by the absence of well trained experienced management teachers - who have personal experience of the problems which managers face.

The prevalent belief of industry was still that management could be learned only on the job, so that such sympathy for management education as existed in industry was for courses designed specifically for existing managers. It should be remembered that all this was before the wide-spread growth of quantitative methods in management: such as those emanating from operational research. Their use, initially in areas such as production, began in the late 1950's. This brought industry and the universities closer together, on the U.S.A. pattern.

Sofer and Hutton (1958) reported that forty-seven productivity teams were sent from Britain to the United States of America after the Second World War by the Anglo-American Council on Productivity to study American industries and nineteen teams of specialists were sent to learn about particular techniques. The United States Marshall Plan brought the European Productivity Agency into being. Under its aegis, hundreds of British businessmen visited the United States to see management practices in the American firms and to study management at American Business Schools. Many potential British management teachers were included in these visits.

In the U.K. as in Nigeria, a number of factors led to the development and growth of management development and education. Among them include: ~~X~~

- New ideas and techniques from the United States.
- Changes in the structure and control of old industries.
- New industrial organizations born of new technology requiring more sophisticated management.
- Growth and mergers demanding special abilities and special knowledge.
- The welfare state calling for a different corporate image with a keener interest in the welfare of the employees and a concern for the role of the firm in the community.

By 1968 in the U.K. progress had been made in the field of management development and education. Professor Rose of London Business School - (Guardian 1970) - indicated that 120,000 managers or approximately 8% of all managers may have attended one kind of management course or another lasting for more than one week. He said, "the British have started to accept the concept that if the nation is to survive as a trading nation (industrial nation), the chief executive of the future must be an educated manager - and this applied not only to industry and commerce but to banking, hospitals and national and local governments."

But the Mant report (1970) commissioned by the British Institute of Management maintains some doubts upon the efficacy of sending experienced men on short courses and expecting what he describes as "instant results". The general tendency being that many companies are concerned with the quantity and quality of the management education available for experienced managers who in addition to facing the threat of obsolescence are finding it increasingly hard to communicate with the bright "young turks" of the Business Schools. Mant (1970) however focuses attention on the importance of managers as the backbone of any company and points out that very little *A* is understood about the way in which they acquire new knowledge as distinct from experience, and how they relate this knowledge to their everyday actions.

A recent study by Leggatt - the training of British managers - has shown that large organizations were more likely to use external courses for training senior managers, and that they can more easily bear the absence of senior managers from their jobs. The Action Society Trust (1962), for instance, investigated the aims of the top management of firms in sending people on courses. They interviewed managing directors and training officers of fifteen firms which had supported external courses. They supplemented their information with the results of a questionnaire given to executives of forty-five firms who had sent managers to Ashridge College. They found that senior managers were very vague and uncertain about what they hoped training would do. Most of these men were untrained themselves and regarded the training projects as "act of faith".

Training Officers, who usually had a number of years experience of sending men on courses had more definite general objectives but their criteria for selection were equally vague. Both groups, after a number of points showed general agreement upon the following purposes for training.

- Increased knowledge, particularly about administrative techniques in areas such as sales, finance and production - was an agreed aim for nearly all the firms. The majority of firms also stressed the need for broadening the manager's outlook about other specialities and about society as a whole, particularly as the men moved into general management.
- Attitude changes were sought by thirteen of the Ashridge firms but some of the Acton firms were **specific** about how far courses would be likely to affect attitudes.
- Improved social skills especially communication skills, were regarded as something which courses should and could affect positively.

- Improved intellectual skills of managerial decision-making as an objective were described in a number of ways. Usually the words used were something like improvements in interpersonal skills in management. Much of these things will be seen later that this aim is also very important to managers and management educators.

From the early development of management courses to the present time there seems to be a common awareness of what management training can do. There exists a vague desire to improve managerial performance through formal education and training. The general and greatest need appears to be at the point where the course suppliers and consumers - educational institutions and management - do agree upon how this should be done.

We shall see more of this in the succeeding sections. It should be remembered, however, that no single development and managerial training model or conceptual scheme embraces the whole breadth and complexity of managerial reality of effectiveness, even though each managerial developmental process in turn may be useful in particular instances. This is why (Tilles, 1963) management remains an art and for the practitioner to be effective must go beyond the limits of theoretical knowledge. Formal educational institutions, such as the Universities, need to give sustained critical attention to the nature of the social, economic and technical role of managers of our organisations.

This requires a review of their involvement in social growth. It is particularly necessary to anticipate their involvement in management development which puts into consideration the effect of social change under the impact of accelerating technology.

Educational institutions need to see themselves not merely as traditional seekers and purveyors of (descriptive) knowledge. They have to extend such knowledge and its normative application to the managers in our

organisations. Given the rate at which teachable management knowledge is growing and the rate at which social institutions of all kinds are changing, provision of instruction to adolescents only is not perhaps enough. Efforts need to be made for providing persons in all stages of their working lives both with the opportunities to learn and with skills of how to employ this knowledge in their day to day function.

Management as an academic discipline does seek integration with managerial practical work situation. This is important in so far as educational institutions within their limits may be able:

- (i) To advise upon the long term effects of development and training.
- (ii) To recognise that neither democratization of business ownership nor of administration is adequate to complement what meaningful managerial development and training will secure in the management process.

What (i and ii) above imply is that action needs to be taken. The action of course, cannot be taken in general terms, it will depend on the prevailing conditions and on those who take it. What it requires is that we need, more than ever before, to know more than we have known about managerial development and training, its nature and scope as well as what factors most influence managerial practices. The situation is not peculiar to British or Nigerian organizations alone, it is something brought about by socio-technical change in all sorts of organizations.

To achieve and maintain (socio-economic) progress, theoretical knowledge and practical application represent crucial points. Educational institutions ought to offer modest contributions to this knowledge. They have to provide an institutional mechanism whereas organizations have to support it, otherwise the wider context of the need for and implications of organizational change (analysis of the general change process together with the training of people to catalyze it) will continue to be resisted.

2.1.4 The U.K. Manager in Management Education

The value of executive courses had been demonstrated by the wide range of wartime training courses. After the war the demand by business for post-experience courses for managers was reinforced by the shortage of high quality management that was exposed by the years of full-employment and economic growth. As in other countries, the increasing complexity of managerial problems, the growing sense of social responsibility on the part of the business community and developments within the teaching of business studies themselves led to a wider acceptance, particularly among large companies of the view expressed by the General Electric Company that 'managing is a distinct and professional type of work which can be taught and can be learned' (Pierson and Howell, 1966).

Bearing in mind the significance of the above view, a question that emerges is, who are the (managers) students eligible to attend say in-service management courses in Britain? A study by Sydney (1956) showed that there might be 400,000 to 450,000 managers in British industry in the 1950's and felt that it would be optimistic to suggest that more than one per cent of them had received any formal training for their job. In 1966 Tickner quoted one of the largest British Corporations, Imperial Chemical Industries, as publicly estimating that of its top management (about 250 out of 113,000 employees altogether) two out of four entered the company's employ as chemist, one with other scientific qualifications and rather less than one in four with arts, economics, law or accounting qualifications. The remainder entered with no professional or university qualifications. Even if these estimates are only close to the truth, there would appear to be a wide market for management courses of all kinds still and a great challenge to potential organizers of such courses.

At intervals of approximately seven years between the above studies three studies were made of the backgrounds of the U.K. managers. The first of these being the Acton Study which started in 1951 looked at 51 companies each employing over 7,000 employees in all parts of the United Kingdom. In addition to studying how very large manufacturing companies seek to recruit, select and train their managers, it presented an analysis of the education and career history of over 3,000 managers within those companies. This investigation was concerned with all managers above the level of foreman.

The second study made by Clements (1958) was concerned with the careers in industry of managers in a more limited geographical area - the south east Lancashire Conurbation. He left the decision as to who should be classified as managers to the firms involved and felt that this approach worked adequately. Seven years later Clark (1965) focussed upon the social and educational backgrounds and career patterns of 818 managers - a sample from the public and private industry in an area roughly comparable to that of Clements' Study. He took the same approach and let the responding companies decide who were managers. One of the significant points that emerged from 1965 National Economic Development Council inquiry was that there was no uniformity in the U.K. industry practice as to what the term 'manager' included, as it covered a wide variety of functions and activities in different businesses. The (N.E.D.C.) investigation found that the term was defined to exclude foremen and supervisors, but included any personnel who is in responsible decision-making 'staff' positions as well as direct line management.

A comparison of the Acton, Clements and Clark studies present a historical review of the changes in management during the industrial period from the early 1950's to the later 1960's. (Even though, the populations under study were different, a comparison still shows indicative trends). Table 2.1 shows the educational background prior to University years.

From 1951 to 1965 the percentage of those who had completed only Secondary School (excluding Grammar School) Champman (1974) dropped from 33% to 15.5% whereas the percentage of managers who had completed Grammar School rose from 28% to 55.5%. This is surely an indication that in recent years, British managers have tended to have completed a higher standard of education.

TABLE 2.1 Education as Background of the U.K. Managers, (excluding University education)

Type of School	Acton Study 1951	Clements 1958	Clark 1965
Elementary Only	20%	25%	17%
Secondary (excluding Grammar)	33%	12	15.5
Grammar	28	33	55.5
Private	19	26	12

These studies show also that there has been a decided increase in the numbers of British managers who hold a university degree. See Table 1.2

TABLE 2.2 University Graduates Among British Managers

Acton Study - 1951	Clements Study - 1958	Clark Study - 1965
19%	25.4%	35.1%

A breakdown of the schooling of the managers according to age in the Clark Study, indicates the shift towards more years devoted to schooling by the younger managers, (Table 1.3). As Secondary education is now compulsory, the manager who has 'elementary only' education will become non-existent. Coinciding with the information from the three studies in Table 1.1., Clark discovered that only 36.6% of the managers of 55 years and over had completed a Grammar School education, while 71.3% of those 39 years and younger had completed Grammar School.

TABLE 2.3 Schooling of Managers According to Age - CLARK

Years of age	Elementary only	Secondary excluding Grammar	Grammar	Private	Total
Under 39	7.9%	10.4%	71.3%	10.4%	255
40-54	15.3%	16.9%	53.7%	14.1%	385
55 and over	34.3%	19.4%	36.6%	9.7%	175

By 1965, there seemed to be an apparent growth in the acceptance by industry of formal education as a criteria for promotion into management. Over one manager in three in Clark's sample was a university graduate and the proportion of younger managers with such qualifications is even higher. See Table 2.4.

TABLE 2.4 Percentage of Graduate Managers by Age - CLARK

Age	Under 40 years	Under 54 years	55 years and over
Percentage	52	31	20

Over half of the managers of under 40 years were graduates while only one in five of the managers of 55 years or over had graduated from a university. Previous studies point up to this trend.

TABLE 2.5 Percentage of Graduate Managers

Acton - 1951	Clements - 1958	Clark - 1965
19%	25%	35%

It is interesting to note that of the 35% whom Clark found had a University degree, well over 80% of this particular group held a degree in science or technology. His findings in this respect for the total group of managers whom he studied are compared with the two earlier studies.

TABLE 2.6 Scientists and Technologists Among U.K. Managers

Percentage of Scientists and Technologists.	Acton Study - 1951	Clements Study - 1958	Clark Study - 1965
	80%	73%	63%

It seems to be a popular belief, perhaps supported by sometimes irresponsible journalism, that the British educational system is geared to the elite; the 'right' school and university is all important. If the comparison of the three 'management background' studies is at all indicative of that, then the perception of the 'elite' paradigm is changing. It should be appreciated that Clements' studies were regional in outlook and focused upon South-east Lancashire and this may influence the comparison.

TABLE 2.7 Percentage of British Managers who had graduated from Oxford or Cambridge.

Acton Study - 1951	Clements Study - 1958	Clark Study - 1965
28%	38%	24%

Clark also investigated the interfirm mobility of managers (Table 2.8). He found that of the 818 managers in his 1965 study, over 65% had worked for more than one firm and that over 25% had been employed by more than four companies during their working life.

The trend which Clark found in interfirm mobility according to age showed that the older managers had been more mobile.

Source: Tables 2.1 to 2.9 (Acton Study, 1951; Clements, 1958; and : Clark, 1965) and Management education in the 1970's.

TABLE 2.8 Inter-Firm Mobility of Managers - CLARK

No. of Firms	Frequency of Managers	Percentage
1	280	34.4%
2	181	22.2
3	162	19.9
4	88	10.8
5	46	5.7
6 or over	57	7.0
Not classified	4	

The mobility was chiefly because older managers had more years in which to move. However, the percentage of younger managers who had worked for more than one firm was very little lower than the percentage of older managers (who had a longer time to move around).

Mobility would seem to be coming more usual and the pattern of starting with a firm as an office boy and staying with that firm until retirement as the manager tend to be phasing out. Trends in inter-firm mobility (Clark) by age is shown in Table 2.9 below.

TABLE 2.9

No. of Firms	Under 40 years		Under 50 years		55 years and over	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	104	40.8	116	30.1	60	34.3
2	59	23.1	88	22.9	34	19.4
3	52	20.4	69	17.9	40	22.8
4	23	9.0	48	12.5	18	10.3
5	11	4.3	25	6.8	11	6.3
6	6	2.4	39	10.1	12	6.9
	<u>255</u>		<u>385</u>		<u>155</u>	

Clements found a similar pattern too. He discovered among other things that:

- two fifths of the managers he studied had spent most of their working periods in one organisation.
- where managers had changed organisations, these tended to take place quite early in the man's career (i.e. before he had assumed much managerial responsibility).

It is hoped that the same pattern can be identified in the Nigerian situation.

2.1.5 Government's Training Action: The Industrial Training Act

The powers vested in the Ministry of Labour by the Industrial Training Act (1964) and taken over since April 1968 by the Secretary of State for Employment and Productivity has been of great importance in the British training system. Also, the advisory role of the Central Training Council is significant, but the essential change brought about by the Industrial Training Act has been the creation of Industrial Training Boards. It is through the Boards that the Act has to be made to work (See Glossary of Training Terms, 1970 p. 53).

The Industrial Training Act

In 1964, the British Government passed an ingenious piece of legislation called the Industrial Training Act. This Act empowers the Ministry of Labour, after consultation with the employers and workers concerned, to set up for each industry an industrial training board. This board must include a number of educationists in addition to representatives of the employers' and workers' organisations.

The Act covers most of industry and commerce, in addition to manufacturing industries, agriculture, banking, insurance, finance distribution and everything else within its scope.

The Objectives of the Act

The three main objectives of the Act can be summarised as follows:

- To ensure adequate supply of properly trained men and women at all levels of industry.
- To secure an improvement in quality and efficiency of industrial training.
- To share the cost of training more evenly among firms.

(See Industrial Training Act - General Guide, 1964)

The provisions and implications of the Act are set out in layman's language in the General Guide to the Industrial Training Act.

The Industrial Training Boards

There were thirty Boards in all (Williams, 1968), and all were created by statutory instruments of Parliament. The Boards have two statutory responsibilities to fulfil. They have also many valuable permissive powers, but it is the two statutory obligations that put teeth into the system.

First, the boards are responsible for ensuring that everybody in industry receives an adequate training: this means from managers to the lowest grade of manual worker in the organisation. However, this does not envisage that there is a prescribed training for all, rather the content and length of training must be related to the skills to be mastered.

Second, each board may impose a levy on every firm within its scope. This is necessary in order to meet the cost of training.

The Training Policies

Policies on training vary greatly between Boards. Some have been able to produce training recommendations quickly: others have found it a longer job. Many boards formed group training schemes, others have set up training

centres. Most Boards tackled the operator and craft end of the training spectrum first. Some made inroads on management training. Some Boards prefer to call their men in the field 'training officers' while other Boards prefer to stress their constructive purpose by using the term 'training advisers' (See Training Glossary - 1970).

Levy and grant policies also vary with Boards. How a levy is fixed is a matter for the Board, (which represents all the interests involved), to determine, Levy may be a percentage of the wages bill or may be calculated on a capita basis. After it has been approved by the Minister of Labour, it becomes compulsory and must be paid by the firm. Out of the levy, the Board pays grants to those firms whose training come up to the standard set. This grants system is similar, in its objective, to Nigeria's Industrial Training Fund (ITF). We shall discuss the Nigerian (ITF) later in the study.

The Levy and Grant system has a number of important consequences.

- (I) It spreads the cost of supplying the trained manpower needed by an industry over every enterprise in it. However, before the act (ITB) many training conscious firms had put much money and time into training only to find their employees taken from them later by firms which had borne none of the burden of training.
- (II) As grants are paid only to those firm's whose training (i.e. in-company) is at least as good as the standard laid down by the Board, this means that the Board must make recommendations with regard to the nature, content and length of training for which it will be prepared to pay. The Act made it clear that it is the duty of the Boards to make recommendations and also about the further education which should be associated with the training.

In this regard, the Minister of Labour made it known that he would not approve any such recommendations unless they include provisions for teaching 'related subjects'. Consequently, those firms who wish to claim grants are bound to free their employees to attend classes. The implication being that this will involve a great deal of development in the work of colleges of Further Education, Universities and other Institutions which provide this education.

- (III) Payment of grant depends on the standards reached: therefore firms must be open to inspection and methods must be devised - whether by test or other ways - to assess the training provided.
- (IV) As the Boards are composed mainly of people who are engaged in the industry there is very much less likelihood than there had been in the past training in out-of-date methods. The payment of grant will act as a spur to a firm to bring its technique into line with the best practices.

It must be noted that there is no compulsion on any firm to train workers, but rather, those that do not act will still have to pay the levy and will have no grant to their credit. This acts as an encouragement to smaller firms to group themselves together so as to offer an adequate joint training scheme, even though no one of them could afford to do it alone. In spite of the Government's intentions some believe (Chapman, 1972 p. 24) that so far, the Act has encouraged better management training for very large organisations and very little encouragement for the small ones, which it is argued, cannot afford to lose executives even for brief courses.

Central Training Council

The first report on management training and development issued by the Central Training Council came out in 1967. The Report influenced the recommendations by individual Training Boards. These individual Training

Boards' recommendations encouraged the development of industry related management education courses, and stimulated, in particular, management training in the small firms. Whereas the large organisations may be probably less directly influenced by the activities of the Training Boards, the grant system tends to help to counteract the dangers of 'lip-service' to training and what (Lynch, 1970) described as "the spread of Lanchester Syndrome throughout British industry."

For Business Schools to attract, particularly managers from small organisations, it has been observed that they have to be prepared to run short training programmes. It is suggested that there is a large market for managerial education in both large and small organisations. Sometimes the feeling that certain management training and development institutions tend to advocate the principle of marketing their programmes whilst ignoring what individual managers and firms expect from development programmes calls for more thorough investigation.

Training Approaches by Various Training Boards

The approach to management and supervisory training taken by various Boards can be illustrated by a number of industries. For example, the carpet industry training board provides grants for approved external courses to cover full salary, fees and expenses according to the length of the course. The Ceramics, Glass and Mineral Products (ITB) are even more specific. They provide grants for external as well as in-company management and supervisory courses to cover (75%) of Salary, expenses and fees. They calculate their grants in the following proportion:

100% of the first 50 pounds

75% of the next 100 pounds, and

50% of the remainder.

There is in all, a maximum grant of 150 pounds per course per week for managers. 100 pounds for supervisors to a limit of 250 pounds for any one programme. How long the grant maxima will continue to be operating remains to be seen. The conditions for the grants include designation for responsibility for training to named senior managers, written programmes for in-company courses and use of all courses only in furtherance of planned individual development.

The regulations of some boards, however, are not designed to foster attendance at external courses. The Gas (ITB), for example, gives grants for each week of attendance at Gas Council management course. For each officer undertaking approved systematic management training, the Gas (ITB) provides certain amounts of money, provided the officer is on or above the senior officer's salary scale. Since the establishment of the (ITB) it is interesting to observe that co-operative management education which had been in effect prior to it, has now been incorporated. For (E.I.T.B.) Engineering Industrial Training Board the first to be created and by far the largest board has different grant formulae.

The (EITB) is a vast network and has remained notable for the size of its levy. Its grant policy is to use general grants and it involves a 'performance rating' established for each firm. The 'performance rating' determines the level of general grant as the percentage of the levy paid (maximum of 160% of levy) based upon the current total pay roll. In spite of the fact that (EITB) has shown some 'nibbling' tendencies (Champman, 1972. p.28) to give grants according to the contribution the firm makes rather than according to the extent that the firm meets its particular training needs, accordingly, the Industrial Training Act has been observed to be of fundamental importance to the British Industrial Organisations (Pepman, 1972).

A study by Stretch (1967) "Some Implications of the Industrial Training Act of 1964" showed evidence of the significance of the Act. Firms were asked whether they undertook more training than before the Act. Table 2.10 summarises the Yes responses from firms.

TABLE 2.10 Firms' Response for Undertaking More Training

<u>Size of Firm</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Under 25 employees	10
Between 26 and under 100 employees	34
Between 101 and 250	20
Between 251 and 500	35
Between 501 and 1000	50
More than 1000	65

Source: Stretch, 1967, Unp'. Thesis (UMIST)

However, there are some indications that management training had been given a low priority whereas training efforts have in general improved as a result of the Act particularly within the (EITB). According to Stretch, lack of priority to management training is an ill omen for those who had hoped that the legislation would:

- (a) Bring to management an increased awareness of industrial training and therefore secure the objectives in the Industrial Training Act.
- (b) Improve the quantity and quality of management training through the wide application of modern management techniques.

He found that in all the firms he visited, contrary to expectation, management training was virtually non-existent and the training that exists is such that can be described as "training by exposure to the job." What the above discussion may imply is that management training and development should be seen in the light of the training needs of the U.K. managers and the economy as a whole.

CHAPTER 2 - SECTION TWO

MANAGEMENT EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

2.2.1 Introduction

Managerial development is becoming an increasingly complex field in Nigeria as it is in the U.K. Basically organisations in Nigeria are becoming aware that more effective management is as necessary for organisations' survival as for national economic development. Management development has therefore become an important feature in the Nigerian organisational and cultural life. Management training activities in the Nigerian institutions such as Universities, Polytechnics and Colleges of Technology, Nigerian Institute of Management, Centre for Management Development, the Nigerian Industrial Training Fund which is similar to the U.K. Industrial Training Board, and many others represent a new and potentially strong source for influencing organisational as well as industrial commitment in the country. (See Appendix C).

Organisations, both private and public, in Nigeria are increasingly accepting the need for policies related in different ways to management development. Whilst there are a burgeoning number of new skills or expertise which are expected of the managers in their present positions, the rate at which the Nigerian economy is expanding is adding new dimensions to the intractable problem of (see Management Education for National Development, Background Paper, 1975, P.2) "Serious Lack of Executive Capacity". The distinctive characteristic of industrialisation which Nigeria has entered into requires a constellation of high level manpower workforce with adequate managerial competences has to be developed around a particular specialised function such as management.

The specialised (management) function is in essence at the centre of economic institutions which (Karl Marx, 1936, pp.11-13; Max Weber in Parsons and Henderson, 1947 and other writers) have exerted tremendous impact on economic activities upon other social organisations. Adebayo (1970) observed that Nigeria's "Second National Development Plan 1970-74" was not completed due to lack of competent managerial workforce and this has reinforced (Marx and Weber's) 'specialised function' (i.e. management and its tremendous influence in economic activities. Even as far back as (1912) the assertion of Thorstein Veblen, p.193, in "The Theory of Leisure Class" has much to be learned in relation to the importance of those who direct social and economic affairs.

"Any society "community" may be viewed as an industrial or economic mechanism, the structure of which is made up of what is called its economic institutions. These institutions are habitual methods of carrying on the life process of the society in contact with the material environment in which it lives. When given methods of unfolding human activity in this given environment as have been elaborated in this way, the life of the society will express itself with some facility in these habitual directions".

However, the picture of industrialisation, economic institutions and 'specialised function of management' is only a partial picture of reality of national development, because the life of a society is a composite of many institutional factors. In such a frame of reference, Nigeria's societal and economic development (as a developing industrial and economic entity) may be viewed as containing many dependent variables, for example, the quality and quantity of available "total workforce", local as well as national and international economic conditions, each of which is influenced by factors initiated by organisations either in Nigeria or elsewhere. The direct chain of causation becomes the

guiding frame for discussing Managerial Development in Nigeria.

It will show :

Background to Executive Manpower Needs in Nigeria

Managerial requirements of the Economy

Training Establishments in Management Education and Development

Reflections on Management Issues and Problems.

2.2.2 Background to Executive Manpower Needs in Nigeria

As the economy of the country tends to expand, it demands increased supply of manpower at virtually all levels. Even before the country's self-rule an estimate of manpower requirements in the senior manpower category (managerial category) had been made by (Harbison, 1958) reported in Sir Eric Ashby Commission popularly known as (1959-60 Ashby Report).

Harbison's report, however, admitted that :

"No attempt has been made to predict what the exact number of persons in the high level manpower category is likely to be in the next decade. Nor is this a manpower survey, because as yet the statistical information is lacking for such a survey". Harbison (1958).

The report, of course, suggested minimum high level manpower targets for the period 1960-70, and called for bold educational planning and in the Nigerian circumstances, the report insisted on the need to achieve a certain minima (i.e. 80,000 for trained workforce as shown in the estimated figures below). The perennial problem has, of course, been that Nigeria's educational system lacks structural balance (Ajuogu, 1979). This implies that there were not enough places in educational institutions from where managerial talents could be drawn. Universities as well as other forms of education beyond secondary education had lagged very much behind - namely in the field of technology and agriculture. This was

so at the managerial, professional and sub-professional levels.

"The Commission also regarded the rate of flow of students in the schools as of paramount importance and thus strove to choose the rate which would generate the figures estimated by Harbison; namely :

- (a) 30,000 Senior managerial, professional and administrative posts.
- (b) 50,000 people with intermediate qualifications, and that
- (c) 20,000 of (a) above had to be graduates and those of the sub-professional (i.e. intermediate qualifications should call for 2 or 3 years of full time study after Secondary School".

Whether or not the above estimates were accomplished within the estimated period was another matter for there has been no statistical information to justify such a claim. But what has been apparent is that the economic and industrial expectation of the average Nigerian made urgent by "oil boom" in recent years and "indigenisation of enterprises" (Ajuogu, 1976) all have contributed to the pressing demand on managerial capacity from among Nigerians.

(Adebayo, Adediji, 1974, pp. 1-2) has decried the general incompetence among the Nigerian personnel and insufficient number of qualified personnel.

"It is not unknown in history for potentially great nations to fail to realise their full potentiality through their ineptitude, incompetence, lack of vision and mismanagement of their economies". Adediji (1974) .

The above statement reinforces what Kenney and Donnelly emphasised in relation to training and developing personnel of any given society.

"It is no exaggeration to state that a country's ability to use its resources efficiently and effectively depends to a large extent on its capacity and willingness to train and utilise its manpower". (Kenney and Donnelly, 1972), p.115.)

Nigeria requires managerial workforce capable of effecting positive economic and social development. Until formal educational institutions were established for executive training in Nigeria, the onus for industrial training and development rested on the public corporations and large private firms. As would be expected, many of them operated in company training schemes such as the Nigerian Railway Corporation, the Ports Authority, the then (ECN) Electricity Corporation of Nigeria, now Power Authority, and Telegraphic Division of the Ministry of Communication and Aviation, for their personnel. The (U.A.C.) United African Company also provides training at several centres in Nigeria. More often than not most of the training concentrated on craft skills than on managerial skills. Training for job mobility was neither possible nor encouraged. In line with the existing practice, many big banks (A.C.B.) African Continental Bank, Standard Bank (Nig.) Ltd., the Shell BP (Nig) Ltd., operate their own private training and development schemes. What may be implied is that industrial education and training as an organised sector lagged behind and was not given government support until recently. One possible explanation is that most of the managerial positions were staffed with expatriate personnel who possessed the managerial skills and competences.

The first real analysis of educational expansion within the context of "Economic Development" is given in the World Bank's (IBRD) Commission report. This commission (IBRD) International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, at the request of the Governments of the U.K. and Nigeria, provided a critique of the needs for higher education in Nigeria. The commission, in line with the Ashby Report which followed later, drew attention to :

"Lack of professional and managerial skills necessary to carry out an accelerated programme of economic development"

(ILC, 1968, pp.11-13) (See Vocational and Supervisory Training in Nigeria - International Labour Organisation, 1968).

However, not much is known about the role of industrial education in lifting an economy at an early stage of development. It is important to recognise as noted by (Doyle, 1973) p 5, that:

"there is a certain amount of historial evidence that education (and/or training) is one of the prerequisites to the movement forward into sustained growth." Ibid. 5.

Particularly, Japan, for example, bears witness to the contributions that a planned concentration on the development of professional and managerial skills can make to economic growth.

Managerial Needs of the Nigerian Economy

As has been noted earlier, the major hindrance to the effective implementation of programmes under the Second National Development Plan 1970-74 was as a result of lack of executive (i.e. managerial) capacity. This shortage of professional and managerial manpower resources extended to almost all (public and private) sectors of the economy - industry, agriculture, transport, communication, and other services. Several reports including those mentioned earlier and the inter-University Council (Fafunwa, 1974) as well as others have made references to the enormous problems of management in the Nigerian economy.

With the progress in the level of industrialisation and perhaps the consequent gradual social transformation in Nigeria, new organisations are bound to come into existence. Despite new ones the existing ones will tend to expand and become more complex. This may imply that appropriate

management inputs into the socio-economic system is a more practical necessity. It is also suggested that this will in turn exert greater influence on development needs and/or objectives of the managers.

The implication of well developed managerial workforce in Nigeria could be explained by relating it to the country's Development Plans - past and present - and how "lack of executive capacity" has affected meeting the target plans as has been documented by many commissions and individual studies illustrated in the "Background to Executive Manpower Needs in Nigeria" above. In spite of the fact that the First Plan postulated a growth rate of (4%) four per cent and the Second Plan (6.6%) about seven per cent, the Third Plan, 1975-80, which is the most ambitious plan since Nigeria's self-rule involving 30 billion expenditure, postulates a target growth rate of (9.5%) per annum.

The envisaged growth and expansion in the national economy imply that it must be matched by a conscious effort to provide the needed number and above all high quality of managerial manpower skills. This is necessary inasmuch as abundant material resources would be wasted unless they are matched by high productivity associated with managerial effectiveness which is the essential basis for achieving a high and secure level of economic well-being. It is interesting to observe that the Nigerian Government is conscious of the importance of management education and development. Of the objectives of the educational programme for the Third National Development, the following illustrate the new consciousness.

"To reform the content of general education to make it more responsive to the economic needs of the country.

To consolidate and develop the nation's system of higher education in response to the economy's manpower needs.

To rationalise the financing of education with a view to making the educational system more adequate and efficient; and

To make an impact in the area of technological education so as to meet the growing needs of the economy".

(Third National Development Plan, 1975-80, p.245).

The above objectives have important policy implications for the various levels of education and training in general and managerial and technological (i.e. professional) training and development in particular. In line with the policy objectives, the Report of the Public Service Review Commission (PSRC) 1972-1974) emphasised the relationship between management development and sustained economic growth. It argued that of the various problems facing public management in Nigeria the most serious is the shortage of experienced, skilled manpower. The main message in the Report is the need for enhancing a new and meaningful style of management in the Public Service, this means managerial skills and competences which would provide positive result. Results oriented managerial styles as used in the context of this study imply that the Nigerian managers and executives need to address themselves to managerial actions which result into tangible, practical and observable outcome. In line with this, the (PSRC) Report indicated that :

"Results oriented management is a vital factor in our drive for development, and the public service has to change and be strengthened to respond effectively to the demands of development". (Mgt. Tr. for National Dev. 1976) p.11.

Underlying the Commission's major recommendation is the need for more and better training and development. Also this implies that the Public Service needs more qualified, skilled and motivated people in the right places at the right time to achieve development objectives and transform grandiose paper plans into actual and practical results. The need is essentially becoming more crucial as the Public Services grow and expand over time. Even (Udoji Report, 1975) specifically recommended

certain management practice and results-oriented management in the Nigerian Public Service, and also indicated that in the choice of improvement priorities management development and supervisory training should receive greater initial emphasis.

Sources from "Udoji Commission" provided estimates of the training required in the Public Services in the initial period of their recommendation for senior managers and supervisors (First National Conference of Management Education in Nigeria, 1975) as summarised in table 2.2.1.

TABLE 2.2.1

SENIOR MANAGERS AND SUPERVISORS REQUIRING INITIAL TRAINING
IN THE PUBLIC SERVICES

Management Function	Estimated Number	Estimated Programme Duration
General Management	2,000	2 weeks
Functional Management	6,250	5 weeks
Junior/supervisory Management	25,000	2 weeks

Source : Compiled by M. O. Ajuogu from figures obtained from Udoji Commission Report.

Notes: It has been observed that the above target population only represents approximately (59%) of the senior managers in employment in the public sector, and (60%) of the supervisors.

The "Udoji Commission" - This Commission was set to deal with the structure of public service salary grading in Nigeria. Udoji Salary Award and Government White Paper on it represent the most complete examination of the Nigerian Public Service Salary grading yet made.

Background to Udoji, 1, 1975, p.125) West Africa No. 3006.

Further, the findings of a national survey on management development needs by the Centre for Management Development, gave support to the Udoji recommendation. For the profile of overall management performance in Nigeria, the sample of public enterprises (the National Survey, 1975) showed to be lower by (12.5%) when compared with that of private firms. Within management functions, finance posed the most acute problem with a performance rating of (22.9%) below that of the private sector. This endorses what Professor Chikobi (1978) observed as lack of proper accounting staff. Personnel management follows with (19.1%) and General Management is below by (13.8%). However, how this rating of performance level among different managerial functions was obtained was not shown because of lack of available data from the Centre (CMD). Also acute need was reported in the supervisory function, whose performance in the public enterprise is lower by (18.5%) than in the private sector.

Based on the Centre for Management Development Survey (Management Education for National Development : Background Paper, 1975, p. 5) the Centre estimated the detailed distribution of sub-sector and geographical location of the envisaged trainees as shown in table 2.2.2.

TABLE 2.2.2

ESTIMATED TRAINEES BY SUB-SECTOR AND GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION

Number requiring training	In Civil Service	In Public Enterprise	Lagos Area	Other Areas	Total
Top level managers	1,340	660	610	1,390	2,000
Senior managers and middle	4,140	2,110	1,490	3,760	6,250
Junior managers and supervisors	16,575	8,425	9,930	15,070	25,000

Source : Centre for Management Development - Lagos.

Some Reflections

In the large and international companies within the private sector training has been accorded more importance by top management than in the public sector. The situation probably derives from the relationship between managerial effectiveness and the economic profit orientation of the firms. Within the international companies in the private sector, it was observed that several Nigerians in Management positions have benefited from overseas training and development courses. It may be concluded that managers in private firms tend to receive more training than those in the Civil Service and they also tend to be more result oriented.

In considering these reports considerable provision has been made (by the Third Development Plan 1975-80) for the development of managerial manpower. It is currently estimated that only about 2.7 days a year are utilised by the Nigerian managers in programmes for self development.

It is interesting to observe that in a collaborative effort :

The Centre for Management Development (CMD),
 The Industrial Training Fund (ITF),
 The Administrative College of Nigeria (ASCON),
 Nigerian Institute of Management, (NIM),
 Universities, Polytechnics, Colleges of Technology,
 and Other Public and Private agencies,

have intensified efforts to increase the number and quality of managerial and supervisory manpower in Nigeria.

Initial Management Training and Development in Nigeria

The advent of political independence in (1960) marked a turning point in the country's interest in industrial and management education and training. There was Government aim to tackle managerial manpower resources to replace the expatriate administrators, managers and professionals who would (as a result of the Nigerianisation process in the public service,

and later the Indigenisation Decree, i.e. Business Promotion Decree, 1974) be leaving the country. This aim culminated in the appointment in (1959) of Sir Eric Ashby's commission "to conduct an investigation into Nigeria's needs in the field of Higher Education over the next twenty (20) years". The commission's Report assisted in providing the basis for the country's high level manpower needs. Its identified needs were based on the number of managers required to attaining the specified pattern of economic growth.

As a means of dealing with the management development bottleneck in the economy, management education and training programmes have been provided by formal institutions and professional bodies mentioned above. A list of the major educational and training institutions engaged in the management development scene in Nigeria is shown in Appendix D. Some management consultancy firms in the country also conduct short courses for management personnel and supervisors too.

It has been observed that in (1975) alone, about 220 programmes were being offered by various bodies and institutions, as shown in Table 2.2.3.

TABLE 2.2.3
PROGRAMME CLASSIFICATION AND INSTITUTIONS

Type of Establishment	Type of Programmes	Number of Programmes
Formal Educational Institutions	Academic degree - diploma programmes	20
Professional Institutions and "Consultancy Firms" *	Non-degree programmes	60
Government Agencies and Corporations	Non-degree-diploma programmes	30
Private business enterprises	Non-degree-diploma programmes	110

Source: Compiled by M.O.Ajuogu from information obtained from Centre for Management Development. Ilegbeju, Ikorodu Road, Lagos 1977.

(* In October (1974) the Centre for Management Development organised a National Conference on "Management Consultancy in Nigeria" at JOS. The Conference was the second in a series of National conferences that considered the need for the development of management consultancy as a profession in Nigeria. It examined, among other things, the positive contributions which such a development could make to the rapid economic growth of the country. The important outcome of the conference was the decision to maintain a Nigerian Association of Management Consultants as a professional body. The main objective of this body is to promote and regulate the management consultancy practice throughout the country".

2.2.3 The U.K. and American Legacy

Management educational programmes in Nigeria are offered at various levels of management and directed to different target population. The current business education and/or management practices have been very much influenced by two major Western sources - the U.K. and the United States. For example, the first Nigerian University (the University of Nigeria, Nsukka) to offer a degree programme in business administration which started in October 1961, obtained technical assistance and faculty in-put from Michigan State University under the auspices of the U.S.A.I.D. scheme. It is also observed that over (50%) of the teaching staff of university-based management and business education received their graduate education in the United States. Further, it has been observed that business text-materials (books) have been predominantly of American sources.

The U.K. influence has also been considerable and is illustrated by the large number of Nigerians who have received professional education in the U.K., in spite of the pre-self-rule educational heritage. In line with the American University business programme orientation, it has become fashionable for the graduates of certain U.K. professional bodies in, for example, Accountancy, Secretaryship, Office and Supervisory Management, and Business Studies to promote the development of similar bodies and programmes in Nigeria (See Appendix C, section C)

General Pattern of Management Development Programmes in Nigeria

It is possible to identify the following distinct categories of management development and/or educational programmes in Nigeria.

University Undergraduate Programmes

These provide background knowledge of modern business life and business methods founded on basic disciplines and management practice. The normal programme duration is 3-4 years of full-time study dependent on entry qualifications of the students. Also the University of Lagos offers a 5-year part-time study programme. The bachelor's degree is normally awarded in business administration and Accounting, with certain specialisations in, for example, management, finance and marketing.

Postgraduate Management Education

At the moment the Faculty of Business Administration of the University of Lagos offers courses leading to the award of M.B.A. degree. The programme duration is 15 months after a first degree with some industrial and/or other relevant experience. Other Universities, for example the Institute of Administration at the University of Ife, the Ahmadu Bello University, the University of Nigeria Nsukka, offer other postgraduate degree and diploma programmes.

Professional and Semi-professional Programme

Polytechnics and Colleges of Technology offer professional courses with management subjects as part of the curriculum leading to the Certificate and/or Diploma examinations of their institutions. These colleges and polytechnics (Appendix D- Section E) provide teaching for their students whose objectives include the taking of external examinations for qualifications of certain professional bodies such as the Institute of Chartered Secretaries and Administrators, the Accountancy bodies, Institute of Marketing, Institute of Personnel Management and others, mostly based in the U.K.

Post-experience Programmes

There are several management related courses which are offered for practising managers and supervisors, most of which do not generally lead to a Certificate or Diploma (i.e. formal qualification). This field of non-formal qualification programmes as well as certificate ones attract mostly, for example, Centre for Continuing Education, some Polytechnics, Professional Management Institutions and other Government Staff Development Agencies (see Directory of Management Programmes in Nigeria, 1976-77, Centre for Management Development).

In the past few years, the demand for post-experience programmes in Nigeria has very much increased as a result of the establishment of the Industrial Training fund, together with the reimbursement and grant scheme attached to it. (This (ITF) Industrial Training Fund, the equivalent of the U.K. Industrial Training Board (ITB) will be discussed later). It was observed that during 1972/73 and 1973/74 periods alone, there was an increase of over (20%) in the number of post-experience programmes. Whereas the objectives of all programmes from those concerned with the general transfer of managerial techniques, knowledge and skills, and those concerned with the application of specific managerial techniques in a specified organisational setting, we have observed that transfer of functional techniques and skills to either pre- or post-experience managers in Nigeria will continue to pose some problems. The implication is that the need to adopt management education pattern that relates more to the needs of Nigerian managers should receive more attention of management and educational institutions, in spite of the practising managers, for example, U.K. based professional and American University based management training and/or orientation.

2.2.4 Problems of Development Efforts in Nigeria's Management Training

Problems relating to managerial development and training organisations that engage in them in relation to transfer of managerial skills and knowledge while they are becoming more defined are increasingly becoming more complex. Even the age-long controversy in the past about the academic content of management as a discipline, perhaps contributes to the confusion as to which training organisation and/or educational institution is best suited for the transfer of managerial skills. But with the ever increasing demand for management education and training either in an advanced economy or a developing one, the tendency is that many more organisations would tend to engage in providing training facilities. This may imply that some training organisations may fail to provide adequate and meaningful managerial training capable of meeting the demands of economic, social and industrial development, as is the case in developing African countries such as Nigeria.

In Nigeria, the provision of management education and other development efforts has been attempted by a laissez-faire and/or rational approach. In the laissez-faire approach, every existing institution defines its own market and tries to provide educational programmes which are perceived to be in demand without much regard to either what others are doing or to the particular needs of certain sectors of the national economy. The situation is such that "mushroom" organisations spring up overnight to advertise their "expertise" in providing the much needed management education. (First National Conference of Management Educators in Nigeria, 1975, p 10).

Many advanced countries (such as the U.K.) have become increasingly aware that the lack of co-ordination (co-operation among educational and training institutions), and systematic planning in the past tended to hamper management development and/or its contribution to the economy. The problems of laissez-faire management approach have resulted in persistent

shortages of "executive personnel" despite numerous development programmes being organised in the country. It has been the Government's belief in a rational managerial manpower development strategy which has been demonstrated in the reconstituted (NCMET) Nigerian Council for Managerial Education and Training. The Council in 1973 empowered the 'Centre for Management Development', its operational arm, to formulate and execute policies on management education, training and development at the pre-employment and employment levels whether in-company or away from the job. The exercise has enabled the Centre for Management Development to plan, co-ordinate and support management education, training and development in all the sectors of the country's national economy.

One possible question that tends to emerge is, does management education, training and/or development contribute to positive economic performances? For us to answer the question we have to note that the growth in organisations' interest in the subject of management development (whether in advanced economy or a developing one) are, for example, due to some of the following fundamental issues :

- (i) The increased complexity of a manager's job in the face of an accelerating technological change (Humble, 1975, p.66). This is why certain parts of the study questionnaire concentrated on the managers' job factors.
- (ii) The size of business and the introduction of new tools such as the computer.

It is suggested that because of (i) and (ii) above, many managers tend to be inadequate because "the job has outgrown them" (Humble, 1975). However, management 'obsolescence' is becoming a genuine issue, not a conference joke. It is also suggested, therefore, that unless much more attention is given at the planning stage to developing people's knowledge, skills and competences, important new projects and techniques will be

stultified as has been exemplified in Nigeria's (Second National Development Plan, 1970-74) because of 'lack of executive capacity'.

- (iii) The failure to produce enough men and women with positive management outlook. The shortage of managers of proven competences tends to be particularly evident when large organisations decentralise their operations, and have to face complex new problems of co-ordination and control. The need to ensure that managers improve their performance and have an opportunity to accept wider responsibility becomes obvious.
- (iv) Succession problems are invariably commonplace in every type of organisation. Organisations tend to develop their managers because the loss of a key executive can be problematic. Whereas the ratio of managers to the total workforce tends to be much higher than it used to be and calls for a greater number of managers, the main solution is developing one's own men rather than 'constantly' trying to buy in outside talents.
- (v) There is a growing awareness that organisations and their managers were in the past, in what I may describe as the "seller's markets". But in recent times things have changed. Managers brought up in the easy-going atmosphere of 'seller's markets' tend to be more concerned with security, and not with risk-taking and/or innovation, as is the case today.
- (vi) Organisations tend to create more vitality and personal growth of their managers through development. The problem of what to do with a manager, for example, who tends not to match up to the job standards also evokes the need for management development.
- (vii) The pressure of nationalism particularly with organisations with overseas subsidiaries to hand over (see for example, 'The Nigerianisation of the Public Services in the 1960's') to nationals tend to exert pressure on managerial development.

- (viii) By and large managerial knowledge and skills in detail make it obvious that more attention should be paid to development. Further organisations should more than ever before recognise that their managers are a precious capital resource which requires the same systematic attention as financial and physical resources.

On the basis of what we have discussed we considered it pertinent to include in the study questionnaire what the Nigerian managers felt about their skills. It is therefore suggested in the context of what has been discussed and as they relate to the Nigerian situation, that management education and/or development can contribute to positive managerial performance as a result of improved managerial skills.

- (a) Management development by whichever process (education, training or exposure to job situation) tends to improve individual manager's performance, through the dissemination of techniques and change of attitudes to work which could lead to improved productivity.

How management institutions assist in managerial performance

- (b) As a result of dissemination of managerial techniques, management teaching institutions tend to promote the flow of high quality individuals through higher education into managerial careers which are important for general development.

For management institutions to achieve (a) and (b) above, they tend to engage in advancement and general diffusion of knowledge. This role, therefore, requires considerable research involvement by them. Fundamentally this implies that management educational institutions have to promote organisational change through collaboration with business organisations. It is hoped that through purposeful and well directed management studies, research, consultancy service and perhaps the teaching process, a situation that could lead to a general questioning of

unproductive management styles and methods may arise. In effect, this could lead to an appreciation of other available options. On this understanding the study questionnaires included factors that would enable us to ascertain whether or not managers would prefer in-company or away-from-job schemes. Management education establishments by responding promptly and correctly to identifiable managerial skills-needs of an economy will, therefore, contribute to the individual manager's performance and national development. This implies that management training and development institutions should investigate deficiencies and gaps in managerial performance relative to good performance standards. Programmes that would meet the identified needs are then planned for the managers.

However, having indicated how and in which direction educational institutions could enhance managerial performance, it remains to be seen how most of the institutions engaged in management development in Nigeria would meet the current and future managerial needs of the economy. It also remains to be seen whether or not the viewpoints of the practising managers would be collaborated in setting out development programme objectives which tend to enhance their performance. As would be seen in Chapter four where the results of our findings will be analysed, we hope not only to discover what most Nigerian managers anticipate from development performances, but also the competences and skills possessed by the practising managers.

In considering what efforts are being made to meet the management needs of Nigeria's Development Plans, it is important to briefly outline the role of non-university management education and/or training institutions.

2.2.5 The Nigerian Manager and Management Training

The Centre for Management Development

On recognizing, particularly in the early 1960's, the need to develop indigenous managers, the Nigerian Government established the Nigerian Council for Management Education and Training and charged it with the responsibility for co-ordinating as well as obtaining agreement on programmes on management education and training in the country. This was considered necessary on two important accounts.

- (a) To avoid duplication of efforts by providers of management education and training.
- (b) To ensure that programmes offered by providers of training do reflect the needs of the national economy.

However, because of lack of financial resources and most importantly the Nigerian crisis in the second half of the 1960's, the first experiment in the planned co-ordination of management education and training was inhibited.

Under the general training efforts in the Second Nigeria's National Development Plan 1970-74, the Government decided to reconstitute the Council and set up the Centre for Management Development as its operating arm. The Council was, therefore, reconstituted in 1972 and the Centre became established in 1973. Its members were drawn from both providers and users of management training and they include Government departments, training institutions, public and private enterprises and the universities.

Council Functions

The functions of the council include :

- (i) To formulate and execute policy on management education, training and development both in the classroom and on-the-job.
- (ii) To co-ordinate and obtain agreement concerning programmes of management education and training including their subjects, standards, duration, frequency, type and cost.

- (iii) To maintain an up-to-date register of all available programmes and ensure adequate publicity and utilisation of these programmes and contribute to the development of a body of knowledge in the field of management development in Nigeria.
- (iv) To provide a means of exchanging relevant information and ideas on trends in management education and training and ensure that the Government more fully understands the problems of management in Nigeria.
- (v) To initiate or sponsor management development programmes and activities especially in those areas not adequately covered.
- (vi) To support the Industrial Training Fund in the effective utilisation of its resources for developing management skills.

As a co-ordinating and supporting body, the Council, through the Centre for Management Development will maintain links with the other agencies, institutions and associations (i.e. professional associations) concerned with the development of managerial resources, in addition to Administrative Staff College of Nigeria and institutes and faculties of administration of the various Nigerian Universities. Also as an operating arm of the Council, the Centre for Management Development (CMD) translates the policies of the Council into action.

In the Third National Development Plan 1975-80, it was estimated that (CMD) will intensify its training activities which will expose about 135,000 indigenous managers and supervisors to various forms of training and/or re-training. It is hoped that such activities will ensure that the average Nigerian manager devotes at least one week in the year for training which would enhance his skills and competences. During the period 1975-80, the main activities of the Centre have to be focused on :

- (i) Assisting in the organisational development of state corporations and the infusion of training consciousness in them.

- (ii) Training of management educators and trainers.
- (iii) Development of new schemes to fill identified gaps in the national system of management education and training.
- (iv) Provision and strengthening of training facilities.
- (v) Provision of equipment and teaching aids, audio-visual aids, research reports to other institutions engaged in indigenous management development in Nigeria.

Organisation of the (CMD) Centre for Management Development

Whereas the Director is the Chief Executive, the Centre is organised in departments which include research and planning, education and training consulting, technical service and support, administration, grants and liaison.

Research and Planning

The functional activities of the Centre greatly focus on research and identification of needs, which usually precede the development of action programme. The research activities, therefore, form the foundation on which training, consultancy and other major programmes are based. This approach, as would be expected, underscores my thesis' assumption that different individuals and/or organisations have different training needs.

Education and Training

On the basis of research results, the education and training department designs a number of management education programmes covering seminars, conferences and workshops.

Consulting and Advisory Service

Through policy statements and conferences the Centre promotes a high standard of consultancy services. Also the indigenous Business Advisory Services Unit (IBSA) sees to the specific management development needs of the small and medium businesses, particularly those taken over

by Nigerians as a result of the implementation of Business Promotion and Indigenisation Decree in 1974.

Grants and Liaison

The Centre maintains a policy of close liaison with all organisations and institutions with which it shares a common objective such as the Polytechnics, Professional Associations, and Chambers of Commerce. The Centre has also special relationship with the Industrial Training Fund in all matters concerning management and supervisory training, and in joint development of policies on grants for training and reimbursements. The Grant and Liaison department of the Centre serves as a central recipient and disburser of funds and other resources for management purposes.

International Co-operation

Some agencies of the United Nations such as the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the International Labour Organisation (ILO) have been assisting the Centre, particularly in the areas of research, behavioural sciences, small business development, training methodology, audi-visual aid, and administrative procedure. The role of UNDP personnel is advisory. The Nigerian personnel are assisted in developing the work of their various departments by the UNDP advisers in order to acquire the necessary expertise and experience so that they can operate on their own when the foreign personnel may be withdrawn. In addition, the UNDP makes available funds for much needed vehicles and equipment.

Industrial Training Fund (ITF)

The Nigerian Industrial Training Fund was set up under Decree No. 47 of 1971, and its aim is to promote and encourage the acquisition of skills in industry and commerce with a view to generating a pool of indigenous trained manpower sufficient to meet the needs of the economy. To finance the scheme, the Decree provides for contributions on the part of employers and subventions on the part of the Federal Government. The Fund is

financed by the Federal Government and employers. The (ITF) bears part of the cost incurred by employers in training their employees by providing them with grants for courses undertaken, a practice similar to that used by the U.K. Industrial Training Board.

Employers, however, get other benefits than grants. Other benefits include the general availability of trained and mobile manpower throughout the economy; the prompt attention and guidance of the training advisers of the Fund; and the access to the wealth of information and expertise which the Fund builds up over the years. In spite of the efforts made by the Government it has been noted that particularly in the private sector (Third National Development, 1975-80, p.392) "indigenous staff training activities are equally discouraging" as in the public services.

One indication is the level of co-operation accorded the Industrial Training Fund by firms operating in the country. For example, in the estimated 2,000 companies covered by the (ITF) Decree No. 47 of 1971, only about two in every five, i.e. 40% (800 companies) contributed to the Fund in 1975 period. Whereas only about (200 companies) or 25% of those that contributed showed concretised evidence of engaging in meaningful training activities. Analysis of the data obtained from the Fund reveals that there is also the problem of structural imbalance in the training activities provided. Table 2.2.4 below summarizes the imbalance of the training activities.

TABLE 2.2.4
TRAINING ACTIVITIES 1975/77

Type of Training Activity	Percentage Training Input
Managerial and Professional Staff	52%
Supervisory	4%
Technical and Crafts	16%
Marketing and Sales	3%
Operations	4%
Clerical, Accounting and Secretarial	2%
Others	21%

Source : Compiled by AJUOGU, M. from data collected from an interview (ITF) Head Office (1977). For cross check, see Third National Development Plan 1975-80.

The information given in the above table confirms what (Ajuogu, 1979) observed as "lack of support personnel" for the managerial and professional staff. This is one of the partial explanations for the much reported inefficiency and/or ineffectiveness on the part of the Nigerian Senior Staff. What this imbalance may imply is that for managerial and professional training efforts to be productive, other personnel whose performance outcome is critical to managerial effectiveness, require on their own sides meaningful training too. This is important because only training efforts which are rationally distributed among the total workforce in an economy tend to enhance managerial effectiveness and national development.

It is also observed that while the activities of the (ITF) in Nigeria centres around stimulating training in the contributing establishments in the country, it has been observed that establishments outside the Federal capital (i.e. Lagos) are lagging behind in training efforts. In 1977, for example, out of the 1,200 organisations who were members of the Industrial Training Fund 800 were from the Lagos zone alone. This confirms the

imbalance (Second National Development Plan, 1970-74, p.) in the distribution of industrial organisations in the country. Table 2B.5 presents a summary of geographical distribution of member organisations of the (ITF) 1977.

TABLE 2.2.5.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF MEMBER ORGANISATIONS :

FIRST HALF of 1977

Zones	Number	Percentage
Lagos	800	66%
Kano/Kaduna	200	16%
Ibadan/Ilorin	100	9%
Enugu/Owerri/Calabar	70	6%
Port Harcourt	30	3%
	<u>1,200</u>	<u>100%</u>

Source : Compiled by Ajuogu, M.O. from data obtained from ITF.

Note: Organisations included here were those with more than 25 employees. As most Nigerian organisations tend not to maintain comprehensive data of their operations, there was a problem of reliable population figures. To avoid giving misleading information the population data was not included in Table 2.2.5.

The (ITF) Industrial Training Fund and the Nigerian Training System

The (ITF) supports training in several ways as shown earlier. It also subsidises the cost involved in the in-company and away-from-job training provided that the training programme is an approved one. Approved training in this context is a course designed by the research and training committee of the (ITF).

The above procedure is important in order to ensure that training efforts are made to reflect the needs of the national economy. Since the larger part of training assistance goes to the in-service training, the role of employers in setting out training objectives and needs of the workforce is one important aspect of the Fund's determination to improve productivity. Employers' collaboration in determining the training needs of individual employees and the relevance of such training to the work process adopted by the Fund is in line with what Bennett and Reynier (1978) suggested in their U.K. study (The Education Experience).

The implication of collaborating with employers in setting out training needs and objectives is that this will enable most trainees to return to their jobs immediately after training. For organisations that have no in-company training facilities, the Fund may directly set up training centres for the training and upgrading of employees selected from among the nominees of employers and/or from the open selection process of the (ITF). In this case, nominal fees will be charged.

For the purpose of a management-training grant, "a manager is described as an employee whose responsibilities include : setting objectives, implementing policy-decisions, organising, planning and general direction of operation" (ITF, 1973). However, supervisors are distinguished from administrative managers by their responsibility for actual overseeing. (ITF) considers and often approves applications for subventions and grants required to augment the existing managerial training facilities on the recommendation of the Nigerian Council for Management Education and Training. Concerning professionals, technologists and other specialists (ITF, Policy Statement No. 1, 1973, p.11) grants are made for post-qualification training, sandwich courses, block and/or day-release courses leading to membership of a recognised professional body.

Programmes Overseas

Overseas courses for which a grant claim could be made must be approved, in the first instance, by the (ITF) before training is undertaken. At the end of an overseas course, a report of course attendance from the course organisers is one considerable factor to a claim for a grant. All these measures and procedures tend to explain the Nigerian Government's efforts in the country's managerial and professional manpower training for national development.

In spite of what has been discussed in this section, it is observed that more Government's efforts towards managerial development in Nigeria is needed. Before we discuss the study methodology, brief comment on other areas about how the Federal Government anticipates to combat administrative training in Nigeria.

Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON)

Brief Historical Background

In 1969 the Federal Government approved in principle the need to establish an administrative staff college. This was to serve as a model institution in the training of Civil Servants. However, before that time the Institute of Administration, University of Ife, had been asked in 1967 by the Federal Government to survey the training needs of the Federal Civil Service. As indicated elsewhere in the study objective about Government's action in relation to management development, the (ASCON) represents one significant aspect of the Government's commitment to enhance managerial and executive development in the country. One of the most important recommendations of the study was that there should be a Staff College responsible for all forms of high-level management training for the Federal Government.

Later, in 1968, the Public Service Commissioners for the Federal and State Governments urged the establishment of a National Administrative

Staff College. After a careful study of the above recommendations the Federal Government issued a White Paper on 30th April 1969, establishing an Administrative Staff College to cater for the development of Senior Executives. The Staff College has been established to be independent of the Universities but, of course, would co-operate with them.

(ASCON) objectives

In defining the role of the College, the White Paper indicated that it should serve the training needs of top executives, not only in Government but also in private business and industry. Since the inception of the College, it has organised seminars and various courses in Nigeria, particularly seminars on Management-by-objectives and Human Resource Management. It has also introduced, among others, Advanced General Management (AGM), and the Advanced Management (SDD) series of courses which are described below.

Management Training Programmes

Between 1976 and 1978, the Administrative Staff College organised, for example, a six-weeks Advanced General Management (AGM) course for two categories of management groups, namely :

- (i) Senior line and staff managers, and others of equivalent standing (i.e. those who are already in posts of major responsibility in their establishments).
- (ii) Younger managers and others whose abilities have already been recognised as qualifying them for accelerated advance to positions of more substantial responsibility.

Objectives of the Advanced General Management (AGM) Programmes

The aim of the (AGM) course has been geared towards increasing the level of managerial effectiveness in the private and public sectors of the economy in three major fields :

- (i) The identification and declaration of company or organisational objectives.
- (ii) The recognition of the resources available to management; and
- (iii) The effective direction of those resources towards declared objectives.

Structure of the (AGM) Programme

The course is usually in two parts. Each part lasts for three weeks. The areas covered in the six-week programme are broadly grouped as follows :

- (a) 'Ourselves and the People we Work With'
- (b) 'Managing Money and using Figures'
- (c) 'The Organisation-Birth, Growth and Purpose'
- (d) 'The World we Work In'
- (e) 'Creating and Using Material Resources' and
- (f) 'Organisation Information for Action'.

Between 1977 and 1978 nearly 130 executives took part in (AGM) programmes. Table 2.2.6 summarises the number of the (AGM) programme participants classified by sponsoring organisations.

TABLE 2.2.6

PARTICIPANTS ON (AGM) PROGRAMMES 1977/78 BY SPONSORING ORGANISATIONS

Year of Course	Participants' Organisations						TOTAL	
	Civil Service	Private Enterprises	Universities	Armed Forces & Police	Government Corporations		No.	%
1977	29(22.5%)	18(14%)	1(0.8%)	7(5.4%)	19(14.7%)		74	57.4%
1978	19(14.7%)	11(8.5%)	1(0.8%)	6(4.7%)	18(14.0%)		55	42.6%
TOTALS	48(37.2%)	29(22.5%)	2(1.6%)	13(10.1%)	37(28.7%)		129	100%

Compiled by M.O.AJUOGU : Information obtained from Administrative Staff College 1978.

The on-going management development processes in Nigeria have been described in order to bring to light areas of much need. It is also hoped that this will enable one to make some important recommendations for future development for managerial effectiveness.

Staff Development Division Advanced Management Programme

The Advanced Management (i.e. Staff Development Division (SDD) Course) is designed for senior government officials holding positions of responsibility whose scale of salary is GL.13 or above. Udoji Salary Commission placed GL.13 entry point at N.7,766 per annum (See Udoji Salary Grading 1975).

(SDD) Programme Objectives

The programme aims to assist senior public managers in determining :

- (i) organisational objectives and process of monitoring progress towards them.
- (ii) Management of human resources in their organisations more effectively, and
- (iii) Improving their capacity to employ modern management skills and techniques in the context of the public sector.

Programme Structure

Like the (AGM) discussed earlier, the course is divided into two parts, but unlike (AGM) one part of the course is carried out in Nigeria whilst the other part is done overseas. The first part of the course for which the Administrative Staff College (ASCON) is entirely responsible takes two weeks. During this period the course concentrates on issues of policy formulation and execution. The attention given to the policy executive particularly underlines the awareness that "what bedevils the Nigerian Development Plants" is not the question of "policy formulation", but rather "their execution", (Ajuogu, 1976; Adebayo Adedeji, 1974). The course also concentrates on the significance and implication of general staff training and development in the Civil Service.

The overseas part of the programme more often than not done in the U.K. (Royal Institute of Public Administration - London) and in the United States (Institute of Training and Organisation Development, University of Pittsburgh). Courses last for ten (10) weeks concentrating on specialised public management concepts and techniques including :

- (i) Organisational Analysis
- (ii) Management by Objectives
- (iii) Budgeting and Financial Management
- (iv) Quantitative Techniques
- (v) Problem Solving and Decision-making, and
- (vi) Leadership Styles.

It is observed that in 1977 and 78 a total of 195 officials from both Federal and State Governments took part in the (SDD) programmes. A summary of the participants' 'Grade-level distribution' is shown in Table 2.2.7.

TABLE 2.2.7
GRADE LEVELS OF (SDD) COURSE PARTICIPANTS (FEDERAL AND STATE
GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS) 1977/78

Year of Course	Total Number of Participants	Percentage of Participants					Total
		GL.16	GL.15	GL.14	GL.13	GL.12	%
1977	119	(13.8%) 27	(19.5%) 38	(16.0%) 32	(8.2%) 16	(3.0%) 6	(61.0%)
1978	76	(6.7%) 13	(13.3%) 16	(13.3%) 16	(5.1%) 10	(0.5%) 1	(39.0%)

NOTE: Compiled from data obtained from (ASCON) 1978.

It is also observed that since October 1978 a new programme has been introduced which aims to replace the (SDD) for a shorter duration. Participants would be expected to cover, among other things, the socio-economic structure of the economy and Human Resource Management in the Public

Sector. It is hoped that the new programmes would assist in reducing the cost involved in the overseas courses mentioned earlier. It is suggested, therefore, that such courses could be made residential in order to avoid the inconvenience of hotel and traffic distractions which tend to effect teaching and learning situations.

The Nigerian Institute of Management

The Nigerian Institute of Management is a professional body for managers and administrators from both the public and private sectors of the economy. Evidence has been shown as indicated by a number of writers (ALLSOPP, 1977; ANSOFF, 1965; DRUCKER, 1969) that good management is a necessity in raising living standards and general socio-economic development. With Nigeria's great potential resources and its executive manpower needs, it is envisaged that a great and challenging future awaits the Nigerian executives.

It is on the basis of good management in the public and private sector of the Nigerian economy that the Nigerian Institute of Management was established in 1961. Judging from the progress which has been made since its establishment, the Institute has not only assumed a new structure in the field of 'Management Development' but has also established itself as an important element in the socio-economic growth of the country. Basically, the increasing awareness of the role of Management Education and Training in the overall economic development of Nigeria is seen in the Nigerian Institute of Management's objectives, which are in line with the country's Development Plans since Self-Government in 1960.

Objectives of the Institute

Nigerian Institute of Management (NIM) objectives are as follows :

- (i) To encourage and develop the art and science of good management.
- (ii) To provide facilities for people to meet and discuss managerial practice and problems with a view to improving standards of managerial performance in the country.

- (iii) To collect and disseminate information on management subjects; and
- (iv) To encourage the provision of such facilities and assistance as may be required by those studying for professional examinations in Management Studies.

In order to accomplish its stated objectives the Institute has its headquarters in Lagos with geographically convenient access location, for example, at Ibadan, Jos, Port Harcourt and Enugu.

Background History and Financing of the Institute

The establishment of the Institute (NIM) was, like other institutions that followed later such as the (ASCON) and (ITF), discussed earlier, pp. , based on thorough assessment of needs. Before Self-Rule Clayton J.(1969) of the Federal Ministry of Commerce and Industry first outlined proposals for a Nigerian Institute of Management, aimed "to provide training and educational facilities for management and supervisors", (Mgt. Dev., 1969, p.66). Clayton's report was examined by a specialist sub-committee and by the Council of the Nigerian Employers' Consultative Association (NECA). The Association (NECA) in 1960 recommended that a Centre or Institute on the lines suggested in the Clayton's Report should be established. Another Report (Schuyler Hoslett, 1969) a consultant to the Ford Foundation of America, further stressed the pressing need for the services of such an Institute to provide residential courses in business management, conduct research, run conferences and provide consultancy services for business, government and professional organisations in Nigeria. In line with the above reports, members of the British Institute of Management in Nigeria and other practising managers and administrators, drawn from the public and private sectors of the economy, formed the Nigerian Management Group. This was later renamed the Nigerian Institute of Management.

Financing of the Institute

In the early days of the Institute, there was no full-time staff nor a director. Also there was no office, but in 1964 the Ford Foundation made a grant of £44,300 towards the work of the Institute. Subsequently, the first permanent Nigerian Director was appointed in 1967 with some permanent staff.

Training Programmes

Since its inception, the (NIM) Nigerian Institute of Management has been actively engaged in the development of Management Training to meet the shortage of high-level manpower which has often hindered the "full implementation of development plans" (Magt. Dev. 1969, P.68) in Nigeria. It has also taken over seminars previously organised by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). The Institute's annual conferences have provided platforms for thorough examination and discussion of the problems of management and development.

Comment

Whereas the overall objective of the (NIM) is to provide courses and seminars for managers of all categories in Nigeria which cannot be provided by any one company and/or educational and training institutions, the extent to which management education, training and development will succeed in Nigeria is to be seen in the future. It will be a measure of Nigeria's managerial manpower being able to meet the development needs of the country and its economy.

Despite all that has been discussed in this section, it is important to point out that what Nigeria needs most in relation to 'Management Development' is meaningful co-operation among the educational and training institutions in order to avoid wastages of training efforts due to training duplications. Duplication of training and development efforts may result in concurrent surpluses and deficiencies of managerial skills among the Nigerian managers.

2.2.6 Summary : The U.K. and Nigeria Management Training and Development

The U.K. and Nigeria are two different countries. Their cultures, organisations' environment, level of economic attainment are also dissimilar. But from what we have observed particularly in relation to their managerial development efforts, both countries tend to have their management education and training built in a similar way and upon the experience of the United States.

As has been shown in this part of the literature review, the U.K. as a highly industrialised nation, it has enormous need for keeping its managers and administrators up to date whereas Nigeria as a developing nation has the same needs too. Evidence has shown (Lee and Dobler, 1965) that "the effectiveness of any business enterprise or organisation is invariably limited or enhanced by the abilities (ie competences, or lack of it) of people operating it." What this implies is that the success or failure of any organisation is dependent upon the skills of its personnel.

In order to understand the environment in which the managers in both countries operate and how they view development objectives in their various organisations, it is important to investigate their management practices, skills and competences, since these have important bearings on managerial development needs. The implications of which we shall see in part two of the study - Chapters Four and Five.

In conclusion, we have observed that the effect of government actions in relation to management education and training as demonstrated in the U.K. Industrial Training Act 1964, and Nigeria's Industrial Training Fund of 1971 are immense. There are four important points which deserve some comment.

(1) Management training has been a conspicuous growth area over the past few years and the expansion has not been as a result of the mechanisms of

the free market operation without interference. Both internal and external training courses in the U.K. and Nigeria have been heavily subsidised and encouraged by for the U.K. the Industrial Training Boards (ITB) and for Nigeria, the Industrial Training Fund (ITF). This has happened at a time when the majority of training consumers and training suppliers (as have been demonstrated in the Nigerian Case) have had inadequate experience of management training, either to be clear about what benefits to expect from it, and/or to judge the products offered by external educators or by trainers (in the case of the U.K.) within the organisations themselves.

(2) The task of managers has many elements in common. However the complexity of management training scene must be emphasised for there are differences in the work undertaken and in the skills, knowledge, experience and vision required by managers in different sectors of an economy and at different managerial levels. This implies that, there must be very great variety of practice in management training reflecting the real variety of managerial activity. But this situation of "managerial activity variation" makes the way into the future managerial development unclear particularly in relation to methodology (education, training or on-the-job procedure).

(3) There are difficulties in evaluating management training because most training organisations structure their training without adequate attention to what the economy needs. This implies that analysis of needs should be emphasised rather than underrate the significance of analysis of training needs of the managers before mounting on programmes. There is, however, the increasing argument that by far the greater part of management training takes place in relation to forward thinking on a very short time-scale (Leggatt, 1972). This understanding according to Leggatt has evoked some opinions that however important management educators and trainers may consider management training, it is unlikely to come very high in the determination of priorities particularly at a time of great competition for very scarce resources. Leggatt is forthright to suggest that management training is at

present and seems likely to be in the foreseeable future at the mercy of now evaluative process of its worth. Having said this we need to appreciate that good managerial ability is increasingly becoming the scarcest of organisations' resources.

What we have observed is that unless recognition is given to the concept of "scarcity of managerial ability" supported by the concept of "allowing managers to participate in determining training objectives" the Belief that "managers are born" will becloud our vision for managerial training.

(4) It is observed that there is great amount of activity, however, in management training at the present time in the U.K. relative to the pre-war period. Whereas in Nigeria, management training activity has been accelerated by industrial expansion made urgent by her "oil boom" and "indigenisation and Nigerianisation policies" since her self-rule. In both countries there is growing evidence that some of the training activity is no doubt ill-judged and unsystematic (see Sofer, 1970 for the U.K. and for Nigeria, see Management Training for National Development. C.M.D., 1975).

In the light of new experience a majority of organizations today have embarked upon training programmes for managers, but few have sufficiently clarified and differentiated their objectives in management education (Leggatt, 1972, P. 164). At the same time, too little attention has been given particularly to the relation between a firm's training objectives and its general business objectives. Not many firms can provide anything beyond a rudimentary evaluation of how far their overall training programmes help them achieve their objectives, even though, at times, the demand for courses is strong and training activity is increasing.

The situation has, of course, not been helped by the early policies of a number of training boards which in the U.K. have had the effect of

subsidising management education and training with more attention to quantitative rather than qualitative criteria. It is suggested that effort is, therefore, needed in order to advance new thinking and practice in the field of management training and development. This can start from an appropriate goal analysis and determination of training needs. Why determination of development needs?

Most people spend a significant portion of their time in organizations in which there are discrepancies between their own objectives and behaviours and those of other workers; further, organizations themselves also differ in their development objectives. If these similarities and differences at the individual and organizational level are not taken into account in any management development efforts, there is little chance for successful development outcome. Kaufman (1976) has pointed out that most people set goals and objectives that are actually a means of reaching goals (usually unstated goals) and thus they confuse goals with the results of the application of means. For example, people may talk about "getting more education" as an objective, assuming that it has something to do with being more operationally competent or effective - a confusion of means and ends.

Where development and training objectives are hazy, the vagueness and the confusion of means and ends tend to discredit training or development initiative. Mager (1975) presents lucid discussion on development and points that training and development which does not give the insight and the ability for meeting the managers needs and closing gaps has very little to offer in the way of effective managerial function. In as much as the purpose of manager development and training is to provide a pattern which will highlight the difference between "where managers were before development" and "where they are after it", in searching for development objectives which tend to meet the practising managers' development needs, this study anticipates that by involving managers in the determination of development objectives, managerial training or development practice is likely to be enhanced.

C H A P T E R T H R E E

PART TWOCHAPTER THREE**3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY****3.1 Introduction**

The managers studied in the survey were drawn from private and public organisations employing between fifty and over 10,000 employees but not over 100,000 employees. During 1977 and 1978, questionnaires were administered to about 265 practising managers working in the U.K. and Nigeria. (Managers as used in the context of the survey include civil servants of managerial status).

For comparative purposes, managers or executives working in similar organisations in the U.K. and Nigeria were sampled. Different kinds of organisations were represented. This was necessary in order to include managers or executives of different occupational and vocational management orientation - manufacturing, public utilities, breweries, government departments, banking and other service organisations were represented.

While care was taken to see that the samples were reasonably representative of managers of both nationalities, however, such a claim would be misleading. Rather samples were chosen from the point of view of access.

3.2 APPROACH

Administration of Questionnaire

NIGERIA

In 1977 one hundred questionnaires were administered to practising managers in the private and public organisations. Later a follow up personal visits and interview took place in the months of June, July and August of 1977. During this time, 66 subjects completed the questionnaires, hence the initial response of 66%. 9 other managers posted their completed questionnaires direct to the investigator at Manchester. This increased the number of participants to 75. Additional 25 questionnaires were mailed to managers or executives in Nigeria in 1978. Out of this 13 questionnaires were duly completed and returned. The grand total response rate for the Nigerian managers came to 70%. The earlier response rate of 75% was attributed to the personal contacts and interviews which were undertaken in 1977. Of the 88 participants from Nigeria 9% were women.

THE U.K.

Later in 1977 100 questionnaires were administered by mail to practising managers in the private and public organisations in the U.K. Initially there was no personal contact, rather managers' names and addresses were obtained from the Yellow Books, Professional Journals, lists of names obtained from Branch Chairmen and officials of Professional Institutes such as British Institute of Management, Institute of Personnel Management, and the Institute of Purchasing and Supply. However approach was made to the British Institute of Management Headquarters in London where necessary assistance was obtained.

Of the one hundred questionnaires, 68 were duly completed and returned 11 were returned uncompleted because the executives were no longer with the organisations or were no longer at the addresses given. Other managers declined participation and returned the questionnaires blank. This gave a response rate of 68% which was very encouraging.

However, it is almost practically impossible even in a large scale study which requires some postal questionnaires, (in order to tap a variety of different points of view) to obtain anywhere near the 100% response rate we all dream of in the ideal research design.

Bearing in mind the main danger in a low response rate - that the very people on whom we have little or no information maybe those whose personal or organisational variables may have serious implications on development objectives, data had to be collected from more managers. This was considered necessary in order to avoid likely 'halo' response, even though (Smith, 1975, Moscow, 1971 and Bunker, 1965) suggested that 63% response rate was good in postal questionnaire (see D.C. Bowles, Ph.D. Thesis, 1976, pp 81-84).

Later on additional 30 questionnaires were administered. This time, personal contacts and discussion with certain members of (APMO) Association of Professional Management Organisation took place at Manchester Business School in early March 1978. (APMO) consists of members of the following Professional Bodies:

BIM	British Institute of Management,
IAM	Institute of Administrative Management,
IWSOM	Institute of Works and Supervisory Management,
ICMA	Institute of Cost and Management Accountants,
IPM	Institute of Personnel Management,
IWM	Institution of Works Managers,
IPS	Institute of Purchasing and Supply,
IProd.E	Institute of Production Engineers,
ICS	Institute of Chartered Secretaries and Administrators.

Most of these members assisted me in collecting the necessary data.

Out of the 40 later questionnaires 32 managers returned their completed questionnaires. This made the U.K. participants 100. The total response rate came to about 71% irrespective of those who declined participation, and irrespective of certain practical difficulties.

The Questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of 78 items. Each item consisting in turn of multiple choice question. Respondents' anonymity was guaranteed and participants were advised that the inclusion of their names was optional. In practice a good number of the U.K. managers in fact wrote their names while the reverse was the case with their Nigerian counterparts. The questions were framed in such a way that it was possible to investigate the personal and organisational characteristics of managers in the U.K. and Nigeria. As it was the purpose of this survey to find an empirical answer to the question of differences and similarities in managers' perception of management development objectives and management practices, one would embark on questions that are relevant to the investigation. Questions were therefore based on fundamental issues common to all managers rather than on techniques and practices alone.

To operationalise the potential factors - age, experience, etc. - which influence the participants' perception of development objectives a package of questionnaire which focussed on the participants personal and organisational demographics was developed. Details of the questionnaire were shown in Appendix B. The respondents were asked to rate their perceptions accordingly.

The following areas were covered:

(i) Individual demographics

Age

Work experience

Status

Highest educational qualification

Highest vocational qualification, etc.

(ii) Organisational demographics

Status

Rank (ie position of power) in the organisation

Size, etc.

(iii) Knowledge and managerial skills factors

Organisation theory, International marketing problems,

Implication of change,

Handling of conflicts between people etc.

(iv) Attitudes, opinions and management thinking

Allowing for attitudes of others

Risk taking

Application of models in decision making process, etc.

Questionnaire Framework

The history of cross-cultural observation as we know it is coloured by economic and cultural disparities, (Sirota and Greenwood, 1971). This at times compels and often encourages one to investigate the basis for adapting development and management practices which tends to meet the needs of practising managers irrespective of their cultural differences.

However, while cross-cultural observation and research have traditionally been impressionistic in methodology, the following studies are notable for employing a more objective approach. Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966); Bass et al. (1967, 1968 and 1969) and McClelland (1961), made use of Likert's Self-rating Scales. The present research has adopted the same self-rating scale questionnaire which has been validated and adopted by the above mentioned researchers. It seemed reasonable therefore to make use of such validated research questionnaires which were easily and relatively administered. This is important in order to enable one to test certain assumptions about differences and similarities among the U.K. and Nigerian managers. A similar

approach was taken in Heller-Porter study of British and American managers, in relation to perceptions of managerial needs and skills in the two national samples. Heller (1971) also adopted the same approach in his American British managerial attitudes to skills and leadership, and (Chapman, 1972) Ph.D. Thesis

While Heller-Porter motivational questionnaires were adopted there were some noticeable shifts in the wording of the questionnaires so as to meet the needs of the parameters to be investigated. The questionnaire used to obtain the data on managerial development objectives was based on the theoretical classification of needs - Maslow (1954). He ordered various needs and motives on the basis of their priority or prepotency. This system was used in developing some questionnaire items to investigate the managers' development expectations - hence some important objectives.

Scaling Method

Management development objectives data were based on 5 point self-rating scales which ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Managerial knowledge, skills and attitudes data were also based on 5 point self-rating scales - from no knowledge at all to thorough knowledge.

However, general managerial issues and scope of job and everyday job requirement data were obtained by a 7 points scale which ranged from very much to very little and very accurate to very inaccurate. (7 and 1 represented highest and lowest scores respectively). (See Appendix B for further details of the questionnaires).

Today many social scientists are beginning to look at the work of senior executives (in various forms of organisations) and at the structure of the organisations within which they carry out their duties. So, items relevant to the organisation at work were also included so that correlations between various factors could be explained.

Whereas subjective assessments based on self-ratings are often doubted because they tend to be liable to distortion and are the subject to many feelings as shown in the drawbacks of self-rating below. Yet such subjective assessments have two meaningful advantages over objective data on the following account:

- (1) They are usually adjusted to deal with the various matters under investigation.
- (2) They can be readily obtained from participants who are willing to do so by taking part in the investigation.

They demand little effort from respondents. (See Moser & Kalton, 1977).

We are aware that in modern society man's trustworthiness is strongly suspect bearing in mind numerous constraints governing managerial behaviour. However, in spite of the above mentioned advantages of self-rating method, there are certain drawbacks.

Self-ratings are entirely subjective as the assessment of attitude position is left to respondents. This implies that one may feel reluctant to rely on them with complex and emotion laden subjects on which the respondents may not be able to assess their own attitudes objectively. Other errors such as those of leniency and severity may happen, the former occurring with respondents who dislike being critical and the latter with those who set high standards. Moreover, when an opinion or object is being rated on self-rating scales by each respondent, there is also the danger of 'halo' effect, which means that respondents may classify an opinion or skill on each scale according to his or her general impression rather than according to the scale's meaning. For example, if a manager generally likes any certain point of view, he will score it favourably on all the skills.

The 'halo effect' of course, causes bias in the rating and it also introduces a spurious correlation between the various scales. Having discussed the merits and demerits of self-rating one has to ask; what is the justification for adopting self-rating scale for this particular investigation?

In adopting this approach, we are aware that one of the major methodological concerns in a study of this sort based on 'need-motivation' is how this should be measured. As there are no generally agreed criteria, the selection of measure or measures tend to be in effect a definition of 'need-motivation' in relation to development objectives for the purpose of this investigation.

In line with conceptualisation here - 'need-motivation' in relation to development objective is therefore a state of the readiness of the individual manager to aspire for goal oriented achievements characterised by effective response to a process or processes as perceived necessary by him or she for the accomplishment of such desired goals.

In order, therefore, to cover a wider range of possible 'need-motivation' perception of development objectives of the respondents, and to compensate for some of the disadvantages of the measures available within the above constraints it was decided to use five and seven point scales. Motivation (i.e. need-motive) concept therefore emphasises a symptoms approach of Psychological safety, social, esteem and self-actualisation needs which can be assessed with a wide range of techniques, from the purely objective, e.g. assessment by the interviewer to the totally subjective assessment by the respondent himself. Also due to practical considerations, the range of measures appropriate to this particular research has been considerably restricted to Likert's self-rating scales on the following accounts:

- (a) As quantitative data collection was to be wholly via self-completion questionnaires, the measures applied have to take the form we used.
- (b) It was wary of causing any anxiety to individual respondent as no provision for coping with this were incorporated in the research plan and it was decided that the scales should therefore be as covert as possible.

(c) The self-rating measures do have the additional advantage by making replies as non-threatening as possible and it was felt that greater 'honesty' would be achieved.

(d) Use of complementary sources of information (colleagues, bosses, subordinates, reports by someone else) other than the managers' whose perceptions of development objectives are to be measured were rejected as being likely to cause distortion which would be outside the scope of this research.

(e) The idea of using manager's records was not pursued not only on the grounds not to breach confidentiality by releasing their organisations documents but on the ground that it was not physically practicable to obtain such information in the two countries.

At the same time, if one starts with the assumption namely that man is a responsible being capable of being trusted, then the notion that he may be able to give us useful assessment of his correct viewpoints during a management survey is not an illogical expectation. The credibility and validity of the self-ratings by participants of managerial development objectives, knowledge, skills, attitudes and perceptions is based on this expectation as has been validated and generalised by earlier researchers (Heller, 1971) a study of British and American managers and Likert's (5 and 7 point scales) validated and used by Chapman in his doctoral thesis 1972 - a study of Education of Managers in the U.K. and Canada with special reference to Manchester and Calgary.

In Likert's self-rating scaling adopted for the purpose of this research the respondents are not asked to decide just whether they agree or disagree with a point of view or an item, but rather to choose between several response categories, indicating various strengths of agreement or disagreement.

In brief, the idea of using this kind of scaling methodology is that, instead of learning whether or not a respondent is favourably inclined on an issue (as judged by his or her actual position) for example, on attitude continuum, and/or instead of being satisfied with differences in kind, one attempts to measure differences in degrees.

Moser and Kalton (1977) suggest that the simplest way of measuring the strength of a person's attitudes (towards an issue or point of view) is to ask him to rate that strength himself. This emphasis supports the approach of this investigation, unlike for example, Thurstone's differential scales which are not only labourious to use but may not be easy for the investigator to gain the cooperation of a large number of persons able and willing to participate.

Another point in favour of the adopted self-rating scaling is that it does not need the services of outside judges. As the investigation involves 'need-motivation' test, it is viewed that the self-rating so far discussed is acceptable to the respondents and gives a behavioural and operating characteristics of managerial personality which tend to be more appropriate to the research approach adopted (ie to the underlying needs-motivation orientation of the scales used).

Some tests with similar aims such as Chapman's (1972), the approach does allow the respondents greater opportunity to express their individuality by incorporating, for example, 'neither' 'nor' or 'don't know', in the response category of the questionnaire scale. (See Appendix B for questionnaire details).

Treatment of Data

The computer programme selected for use was the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Niel et al 1975, an especially useful and wide-ranging set of analysis. Full use was made of the (SPSS) facilities in treating the U.K. and Nigerian samples.

The possibility of collapsing some groups within certain variables by the use of 'recode' and 'select if' procedure were used to a considerable extent to collapse and combine groups of variables which would otherwise be too small for meaningful analysis. The use of the recode process therefore yielded analysable variables which allowed for further statistical treatment. Whereas for descriptive purposes the original raw percentages and/or numbers as shown in the computer print-out were used.

STATISTICAL TESTS

A comparison of the U.K. and the Nigerian samples on certain personal, organisational and job factors, was undertaken in order to determine the extent to which the U.K. managers may be used as a comparison group. This is considered an important prerequisite to assessing the respondents' 'self-concept' of development objective similarities and/or differences between the two samples.

The following statistical testing methods were applied:

- a) Chi Square or cross-tabulation
- b) T-Test analysis
- c) Pearson's Correlation Co-efficient.

Whereas, each variable can be either discrete or continuous, it was considered important to use cross-tabulation - χ^2 (Chi Square) when both variables to be analysed were discrete. T-Test was used where one variable is discrete and the other continuous, and for variables which were both continuous, Pearson's correlation coefficient was applied. While each approach has particular strengths and weaknesses, they need to be seen, in the context of our study, as complementary to each other in the information they provide.

In spite of the weakness in the use, for example, of Chi Square (χ^2) in the analysis of our data, the more versatile nature of Chi square which arises from its additive property (Guilford, 1973) is of practical usefulness, particularly the virtue of squaring its deviations. This virtue, which is analogous to the additivity of the squared coefficient of correlation (r^2) where r itself lacks that property, enabled us to make tests (see Guilford) of combined data.

SOME COMMENTS

There are a number of factors (e.g. support from subordinates, peers other than cultural factors) involved in assessing the general environment within which organisations operate and within which managerial styles are employed. Assuming that a manager or an administrator has developed appropriate traits and flexibility of management style to motivate others; a question that may arise is: What is there in the organisational environment (e.g. status, rank, job content), which affects his ability to motivate individual members and coordinate their effort towards organisational goals? Fiedler et al (1971) postulate three factors of major importance:

- The manager's (leader's) position of power;
- The structure of the task; and
- The interpersonal relationships between the manager and his subordinates.

an organisation

Position of power in/as used in the context of this study relates to the formal authority which is identified with specific position in the organisational hierarchy. The task to be performed provides an important ingredient in the managerial situation. Whereas unstructured tasks, for example, in ambiguous situations allow considerable leeway, but make the job of the manager much more difficult, well-structured, particularly routine operations, allow little margin for creativity in managing.

Both position of power and task structure are determined by the formal organisation. However, interpersonal relationships between the managers and other members of the organisation are affected (of course, not in all cases) by the attributes^{of}/hierarchical structure. In some organisations, it appears that the dimension of the managers' positions of power in the system tend to be crucial and in turn influence their development needs and perceptions.

Position of power and task structure invariably provide a frame-work within which a manager can operate meaningfully, whereas poor interpersonal relationship can negate the entire system in the organisation. Where the organisational environment does not permit effective interpersonal relationship between the managers and other members in the organisation, small groups within the organisation may subvert the system by complete noncompliance. It has been identified (Morse and Reimer, 1956; Argyle et al., 1958), that organisations with better organisational environment, which facilitate effective management style, have a higher probability for success than those who lack the characteristics of favourable environment.

The presence of favourable organisational environment (climate) does not in itself guarantee or ensure managerial effectiveness. Appropriate behaviour patterns of managers can be enhanced through development and training programmes, but, in order to run meaningful development programmes (whether coaching or formal interorganisational educational schemes, which may include, on the job-training, case analysis) it is pertinent to ascertain managers' view-points on certain development objectives as contained in the study questionnaire (Appendix B).

From the managers' responses we shall be able to detect their development expectations and the impact, which their positions of power, for example, have on such development expectations.

As a first approach, a questionnaire asking identical questions, was sent to the sample of managers in each of the two countries. The U.K. sample is made up of 100 managers at a similar level in their organisations that are carefully matched to the Nigerian Organisations in size despite the degree of technology.

C H A P T E R F O U R

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 THE NIGERIAN CASE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This section of the study concentrates on the treatment of the data collected from the (88) eighty eight subjects from Nigeria who took part in the survey. They were, like the U.K. sample, drawn from practising managers and executives in the private and public sectors. These managers and executives served in organisations and institutions employing between 50 and over 10,000 persons. The purpose of the study, as has been indicated in Chapter One, is to examine and identify the practising managers' personal, organisational and cultural variables that most influence and predict their perception of development objectives

During the investigation it became clear that some degree of relationship existed between the managers personal and organisational variables which tended to influence their development objectives.

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS AND RESULTS OF THE NIGERIAN SAMPLE

This part of the study examines the participants' responses in relation to their personal, organisational and job characteristics. Also, it focuses on the participants' development perceptions. Table 4.1 presents summary distribution of the sample population about the managers' personal characteristics, whereas tables 4.3 and 4.4 summarise the respondents' organisational and job demographics respectively.

TABLE 4.1

Management Backgrounds

Summary distribution of personal demographic of sample
Nigeria (N = 88)

<u>AGE</u>		
<u>Range in Years</u>	<u>No. of Managers</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Up to 29	6	6.8%
30 - 39	33	37.5%
40 - 49	36	40.9%
50 and over	13	14.8%
		Mean age = 41 years S.D. = 8.3
<u>SEX</u>		
Male	80	90.9%
Female	8	9.1%
<u>WORK EXP. AS MANAGER</u>		
Below 10 years	42	47.7%
11 - 15 years	30	34.1%
16 - 20 years	7	8.00%
21 - 25 years	6	6.8%
26 and over	3	3.4%
		Mean age = 12 years S.D. = 8.0
<u>MANAGERIAL JOB MOBILITY</u>		
Only this organisation	36	41.00%
Under 5 organisations	47	53.00%
5 organisations and over	5	6.00%
<u>EDUCATION</u>		
Below 'O' level G.C.E.	12	13.5%
'O' level or equivalent	18	20.5%
'A' level G.C.E.	7	8.00%
Diplomas	16	18.2%
Degrees	35	39.8%

Tables 4.5; 4.6; and 4.7 show the managers' responses about their managerial knowledge, skills and attitudes, in that order. The respondents' development objective perceptions are summarised in table 4.8.

As shown in table 4.1 more than one half of the respondents among the Nigerian sample were aged 45 years and above. Whereas the average age of the respondents was 41 years, only 6.8% were below 30 years of age. This reveals that the Nigerian 'executive/managerial' workforce are invariably recruited from among older men and women. Despite the fact that women respondents are in the minority (8 female executives as compared with 80 male managers/executives) all of them were 40 years or more and none of these women in the sample has employment in the private sector of the economy. What has emerged is :

- (1) Why are there so few women among the Nigerian managerial workforce?
- (2) Why are the female executives/managers more attracted by government organisations than by the private firms and industries?

One reason that stands out conspicuously is that in general women's education in Nigeria is a recent phenomenon. Furthermore, education and/or training for industry and commerce which transcends the typist and/or clerical assignment was the preserve of men who tended to have had better opportunities for better education and training. Until recently, the general impression among the Nigerian public was that "a woman's place was in the kitchen". Because of that only few Nigerian women were given an early opportunity for better education and training let alone education and training in management skills that would make them managers.

The few that were fortunate enough to be educated and trained were more attracted by fulfilment in primary teacher education than in anything else. In spite of this general assumption of the woman's place in society, one other important explanation was the general poverty among the Nigerian people. Also, until very recently, only few privileged working class families in Nigeria could afford the luxury of sending women to school. Rather the general practice was that a woman should get married as early as practicable in order that the family could be able to educate the male offsprings. One important argument was that the benefits of good education on the part of the woman, who is likely to marry, fails to generate long term income into the family.

However, today the situation is rapidly changing and women tend to occupy their rightful places in institutions of higher learning; but whether or not female personnel would in future account for a meaningful proportion of managerial labour force in Nigeria remains to be seen.

The explanation for the second question lies in the inability of female executives to compete with their male counterparts in the private sector. This time not because of their education or training but possibly because of greater job security which government establishments afford. In an interview one female executive had this to say "I enjoy my job because it is nothing more than a pen and file affair. Once you have attended to some files even if it happens to be one or two, you could call it a day. At times from your breaktime, you can do your shopping or do something else. In spite of all these and what have you, your job is secured. I am told you couldn't get away with these sort of things in industry or a firm, let alone maternity leave and/or yearly overseas courses and conferences". She made me to understand that overseas conferences afford extra opportunities for officials to do some personal transactions which she did not elaborate. Whether

this kind of attitude is common among women executives and/or whether it is common among all executives in the government ministries and corporations in Nigeria calls for closer future investigation.

Managers' Work Experience, Job Mobility and Educational Background

As can be seen in table 4.1 above, the average work experience of the sampled Nigerian managers is 12 years. On the whole more than 50% of the managers sampled have above 10 years work-experience as managers. This implies that most of the sampled Nigerian managers like their U.K. counterparts (see Chapter 5) must have started work in their early youth. The early occupational engagement could in part account for more than one half of the respondents not obtaining degrees. As the table above indicates (35 managers out of the 88 managers) have one kind of degree or another. Among the managers with degrees ten were aged 40 and the rest were below 40 years. This implies that on average younger managers have better educational background than the older and experienced managers. Comparative analysis of the U.K. and the Nigerian managers has been given in Chapter 6.

Concerning job mobility, the younger managers, particularly those in staff (i.e. specialist positions) tend to have changed jobs more than the experienced line and older managers. Whereas experience increased with age, higher educational achievement decreased with age and the managers' work experience. Statistical analysis of the interaction of these variables is treated in section B of this chapter. Of the managers with below 'O' level G.C.E. none has changed jobs or organisations, but out of the 20.5% (i.e. 18 managers) with 'O' level or equivalent educational background only 2 have changed employment in their working lives. This group of managers is similar to what has been described elsewhere in the study as the company men or what Merton (1957) called the "locals" as distinct from the cosmopolitans as discussed in the U.K. sample.

Managers were asked whether or not their highest qualifications were directly relevant to the work they were doing. The responses from the managers as shown below indicate that many managers admitted that their professional qualifications are relevant to their jobs all the time. Whereas 33% (29) of the sampled managers admitted that their degrees are relevant all the time. When we relate the responses below to the number of degree holders in the sample (32) (table 4.1) above we would come to the conclusion that the managers' highest vocational qualifications and/or degrees are an important element in relation to the job of manager.

TABLE 4.2

Management Background

Relevance of Highest Qualification to Work

Q. Do you consider your highest qualification directly relevant to the work you are doing?

<u>Professional Qualifications</u>			<u>Degrees</u>
1.	58%	Yes, very relevant all the time	33%
2.	21%	Yes, very relevant from time to time	17%
3.	15%	No, not at all	36%
4.	6%	No response	14%

Comparing the above responses with the U.K. responses in Chapter 5 we can then conclude that the two have similar characteristics but with different weights. Whereas 7% (N = 100) of the U.K. managers admitted that their degrees are, all the time, relevant to the job they do, 33% (N = 88) of their Nigerian colleagues felt the same way. Both samples were higher up on the scale concerning the relevance of their professional qualifications. 53% (N = 88) of the Nigerian respondents (as compared with 37% (N = 100) of the U.K. respondents) admitted that their

highest professional qualifications are all the time relevant to the job they do.

What could be implied here is that whilst the U.K. managers show greater concern for professionally related highest qualifications, their Nigerian colleagues tend to show concern for both degrees and professional qualifications. Of the sampled managers (U.K. N = 100) 65% admitted that degrees are not relevant to the job they do whilst only 36% of the Nigerian managers (N = 88) felt that their degrees are not relevant to what they do. One possible explanation for the Nigerian pattern to have scored high on the relevance of both degrees and professional qualifications lies in the likelihood that Nigeria tends to draw from the U.K. as well as from the U.S.A. educational system. This adaptation essentially accommodates degrees and professional qualifications as necessary elements for modern management practices.

Further the respondents were asked whether they would have done without their highest professional qualifications and degrees. Their responses showed that 58% (51) admitted that they would not have done without their highest vocational qualifications and of the 35 managers and executives that obtained degrees only 4 respondents were uncertain. These responses go a long way to endorse the Nigerian managers' feelings about the importance of their degrees and/or their highest professional qualifications.

When degrees and/or highest professional qualifications are considered as to whether or not managers could have done without them, the managers' responses to some degree revealed the mis-matching of individuals with jobs. What could be observed in the Nigerian sample is that certain individuals with very good educational background were, due to, for example, ethnic or social considerations, placed in positions where they cannot apply their knowledge and skills. If some individuals are

wrongly placed in jobs, they are justified to indicate that they would have done without their degrees and/or their highest professional qualifications.

Managers' Organisational Factors

Concerning the managers' organisational demographics, respondents were selected from a variety of functional areas. This procedure has been considered necessary in order that a cross section of management function is represented. Further to the above procedure, both line and staff (i.e. specialist) managers (see definitions of line and staff as used in the context of this study) were included.

Managers who are in the top as well as those with no decision making authority were also represented; table 4.2 presents an analysis of the functions, status, rank and size of organisation of the sampled managers in Nigeria. It also summarises the respondents' span of control and their departments' rate of absenteeism. The summary comparison of the Nigerian and the U.K. managers' organisational factors is treated later in the study.

Managers analysed by function, status and rank

Of the eighty-eight managers in the Nigerian sample, about three quarters of them were drawn from functional areas other than from general management (table 4.3). Interestingly it is observed that all the twenty-seven managers in general management were among the fifty-four line managers in the sample. Among the fifty-four managers in the line position (table 4.3) more than one half (including those in general management) were from Finance, Production and Marketing.

A further analysis revealed that Finance, Production and Marketing constituted 32%, 24% and 20% of the line managers in that order. What this implies is that most of the respondents from Personnel/Administration, Research and Development, Purchasing and Public Relations operate on

advisory (i.e. staff) capacity.

Definition of 'Staff' (i.e. Specialist manager) and 'line manager' adopted in this survey are given in chapter 5.

TABLE 4.3

Management Background

Summary of Organisational Demographics

<u>FUNCTIONAL AREA</u>		
<u>Function</u>	<u>No. of Managers</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
General Management	27	30.7%
Finance	12	13.6%
Personnel/Admin.	17	19.3%
Marketing/Purchasing	8	9.1%
Production	8	9.1%
Research & Development	6	6.8%
Public Relations	10	11.4%
<u>STATUS</u>		
Line Managers	54	61.00%
Staff Managers	34	39.00%
<u>RANK</u>		
Top Decision making level	31	35.00%
Middle " " "	40	45.00%
Below Middle decision making	13	15.00%
No decision making	4	5.00%
<u>SIZE OF ORGANIZATION</u>		
Under 500 employees	26	29.5%
500 but under 10,000	53	60.00%
100,000 and over	9	10.5%
Mean = 8000		
<u>SPAN OF CONTROL</u>		
5 employees or under	10	11.4%
6 - 10 employees	16	18.2%
11 - 15	10	11.4%
16 - 20	7	8.0%
21 and over	45	51.0%
Mean = 16.5		
<u>ABSENTEEISM</u>		
Under 2%	67	76.0%
3 - 6%	12	14.0%
7% and over	9	10.0%

With regard to the managers' ranks, the table above shows that many respondents in the sample are top and middle decision making managers. Whereas few of the managers were below middle decision making in the hierarchy, on the whole only very few were of no decision making at all. Considering the responses as indicated on the table, what could be concluded is that in spite of a manager's status (i.e. whether he/she operates as a line or staff manager) his or her rank (i.e. position of power in the organisational hierarchy) is not affected by it. Basically managers' positions of authority in their organisations are not the direct result of whether or not they are line or staff managers. However, when dealing with organisations of varying sizes one has to exercise some caution in interpreting a manager's position of authority in the organisation. This is important because, for an example, the managing director of a small organisation may be chief executive, a position he may occupy by virtue of the size of his organisation. Though the study carefully avoided such small organisations, since the responses from them were excluded in the analysis.

Regarding job characteristics, responses shown on table 4.4 highlight the distribution of the participants' job dimensions in relation to :

The Managers' level of job autonomy;

Extent of their job variety;

Degree of their job complexity;

Extent the job allows the incumbent freedom of independent action;

How much feedback from co-managers;

Level of mechanical equipment involved in the managerial job.

For details of questionnaire items see (Appendix B).

TABLE 4.4Management BackgroundSummary Distribution of Job Characteristics

<u>AUTONOMY</u>	<u>No. of Managers</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Much	46	52.0%
Moderate	39	44.0%
Little	3	4.0%
<u>JOB VARIETY</u>		
Much	38	43.0%
Moderate	44	50.0%
Little	6	7.0%
<u>JOB COMPLEXITY</u>		
Much	31	35.0%
Moderate	25	28.4%
Little	22	25.6%
Uncertain	10	11.0%
<u>INDEPENDENCE OF ACTION</u>		
Much	34	38.6%
Moderate	26	29.6%
Little	20	22.7%
Uncertain	8	9.1%
<u>FEEDBACK FROM PEERS</u>		
Much	9	10.0%
Moderate	6	7.0%
Little	54	61.0%
Uncertain	19	22.0%
<u>USE OF MECHANICAL EQUIPMENT</u>		
Much	9	10.2%
Moderate	29	33.0%
Little	50	56.8%

Analysis of the figures in (table 4.4) above reveals that of the sampled managers, many enjoy a high level of autonomy in their jobs. More than half of the participants reported that they had much autonomy in their jobs. While on the contrary, one half of the respondents indicated that they use little mechanical equipment in the jobs they do.

The few respondents who reported that their jobs involved much mechanical equipment, 10.2% (N = 9), were mostly production managers. Those who reported that they make very moderate use of mechanical equipment 33% (N = 29), were invariably from the financial and bank managers. Whereas Public Relations and Personnel/Administration managers tend to make little use of mechanical equipment in their jobs, most of the managers responsible for technical training reported that their jobs involved the use of them.

What the above findings reveal is that the extent to which mechanical equipment is involved in a manager's job depends on the nature of the managerial job concerned.

But concerning freedom of independence of action in the managers' jobs, most of the managers who reported to have much independence of action were the specialist managers, particularly those engaged in research and production. On the other hand, among the respondents who reported little freedom of independent action were the staff managers in the Personnel and Administration. The implication here is that technical jobs requiring high level specialisation give the incumbent a greater degree of autonomy than a job requiring lesser degree of specialisation.

Of the 26 respondents (i.e. 29.6% of the sample) who reported moderate independent action in their jobs more than one half were from the marketing function. Contrary to expectation only very few of the top decision making managers in production reported to have had much independence on how to go about their jobs. The reason is that they have to operate along the line of highly structured schedule. What this implies is that the production managers tend to work under the conditions that will enable them to fulfil production targets and delivery commitments.

Lack of freedom of independence of action on how one goes about his job tends to endorse the view expressed by Kornhauser, (1962) as emphasised in the literature review of the earlier and related studies, that engineers tend to be power conscious.

Concerning job complexity, most of the respondents who reported that their jobs require them to use a number of complex sophisticated skills were almost evenly distributed among various management functions. However, Research and Development, relatively scored higher than others, followed by managers in production. But when respondents' reports on :

Co-managers in this organisation never give a person any

'feedback' about how well he or she is doing the work :

were analysed, it was observed that among the Nigerian participants, managers in the Personnel and Administration relatively get a higher level of feedback than the others. See Table 4.5A for statistical test.

Whereas Finance managers in the survey were almost uncertain as to whether or not they get feedback from co-managers, the general pattern showed that (table 4.3) about three quarters of the sampled managers get little feedback from their peers.

4.5 PARTICIPANTS' KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS AND MANAGERIAL ATTITUDES

The sampled managers were also asked to rate their knowledge and competences as well as their level of agreement or disagreement on certain management philosophies. As has been indicated earlier elsewhere, these ratings were made on a 5-point continuous from one extreme to the other (e.g. no-knowledge - thorough knowledge).

Table 4.5 presents the reactions of the participants, based on their responses to the statements below :

Table 4.5(A)

Relationships Between the Managers' Functions and Other Variables

<u>Function</u>	<u>Other Variables</u>	
	<u>Skill</u>	<u>Feed</u>
	<u>Sophistication</u>	<u>Back</u>
	(r) Value	(r) Value
General Management	.22	.30*
Finance	.31*	.22
Personnel/Adm.	.20	.38***
Marketing/Purchasing	.24	.24*
Production	.29*	.30*
Research and Development	.35***	.31*
Public Relations	.20	.20

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient:

- * Significant at .05 or better
- ** Significant at .01 or better
- *** Significant at .001 or better

We think it would be helpful to know something about your present knowledge, skills and attitudes as a manager.

Please rate yourself on each aspect below by circling the appropriate number closest to how you feel yourself.

TABLE 4.5(B)

KNOWLEDGE AREA

Responses of the Nigerian Managers (N = 88)

	No knowledge at all ₁	2	3	4	Thorough Knowledge ₅
The Theory of Organisation	3%	7%	28%	48%	14%
Group behaviour	4%	4%	27%	46%	19%
Application of Economic Theory	5%	16%	32%	36%	8%
The Implication of Change	2%	10%	38%	39%	11%
Motivation of people	0%	4%	17%	54%	25%
Union Policies	5%	24%	42%	15%	14%
Financial Management	8%	23%	34%	23%	12%
Dealing with peers	7%	5%	14%	46%	28%
International Marketing Problems	45%	29%	11%	20%	5%

(a) Scores obtained by assigning :

- 1 = No knowledge at all (i.e. very poor)
- 2 = Poor knowledge
- 3 = Neither good nor poor
- 4 = Good knowledge
- 5 = Thorough knowledge (i.e. very good)

One important conclusion from table 4.5B is that most of the Nigerian managers in the sample admitted that they have 'Thorough, i.e. 'very good', and 'good' knowledge in the motivation of people; almost (80%) admitted that. This is similar to the responses from the U.K. sample, where more than three quarters (76%) admitted the same. Also for managers who have 'neither poor nor thorough knowledge' there was no substantial difference. [Nigeria = 17% (N = 88) and the U.K. = 16% (N = 100)]. Table 6.3 summarizes the pattern of distribution of admitted

knowledge between the U.K. and the Nigerian managers.

The general observation is that both managers from the two nationalities feel very strongly about people and/or how to make their efforts to contribute to the achievement of organisational goals. Concerning other human relation areas such as 'Group Behaviour', including 'Dealing with Peers' and 'Union Policies', the respondents equally showed marked knowledge. It is interesting to observe that for the above mentioned areas, along with their knowledge of 'Theory of Organisation', the managers showed significantly greater awareness than in the other areas (tables 4.5 for Nigeria and 5.2 the U.K.). Detailed comparative analysis is given in Chapter 6 (tables 6.2 to 6.4) as mentioned above and also highlights the differences and similarities between the two samples.

With respect to the questionnaire items where (as discussed above) similarities were found between the U.K. and the Nigerian managers, it is quite likely to suggest that the criterion measure and/or the questionnaires may well contain biasing factors and may not be valid. On the other hand, it could be argued that managers who claimed to have good knowledge of 'how people behave in groups', for example, may have attributed to themselves such knowledge which they have not possessed.

However, when consideration is given to the factors where significant differences were found as shown in (table 6.2^{A,B,C}), we have to come to the conclusion that our results do not necessarily imply test and/or questionnaire bias. As marked differences were observed between the U.K. and the Nigerian managers in certain knowledge factors, the similarities of our findings in other factors are supposed to be valid and are not necessarily as a result of test and/or questionnaire bias (Campbell et al, (1969): Holley and Field (1975)). Boehm (1972) has pointed out that "differential validity" is proof of unfairness whereas "single-group validity" is only lack of proof of fairness. Thus the presence of similarities in certain knowledge factors and differences in others, suggests that our tests and/or questionnaires were fair for the managers

from the two different (the U.K. and Nigeria) ethnic groups.

Other areas of knowledge - 'International Marketing Problems', 'Financial Management' and 'Application of Economic Theory'; the admitted awareness were relatively low. Respondents' admitted score in 'poor and very poor, i.e. no knowledge at all' was highest in 'international marketing problems'. More than one half of the sample (63%) admitted lack of good knowledge of international marketing problems, whereas many managers reported inadequacy of knowledge of application of economic theory and financial management, in that order.

The most important conclusion from (table 4.5) is, once again, the close overall similarity in the Nigerian and the U.K. responses in the area of 'international marketing problems'. For very poor knowledge

the U.K. response was (35%) (N = 100) as against (44%) for Nigeria (N=88).

Also (28%) of the U.K. and (29%) of the Nigerian managers showed "poor knowledge". One possible explanation for this lies in the understanding that because of many years of established ties between the two countries, the U.K. educational system and/or orientation tend to influence that of Nigeria.

Concerning Union policies, it is not surprising to observe that among the Nigerian managers, less than (30%) of the participants reported greater awareness of Union policies. As one would expect, the extent of trade unionism in a free society tends to be in direct association with the level of a country's industrialisation. Consequently, in Nigeria, as a developing and/or industrialising nation, trade unionism is a new phenomenon relative to the British trade unionism. This implies that Nigeria's trade union problems are likely to be on the increase as the level of Nigeria's industrialization increases. This is why the U.K. managers' awareness of union policies is in the opposite direction compared to that of the Nigerian managers.

However, only (5%) of the sample indicated 'no knowledge at all' as compared to the U.K.'s (3%) (N = 100). The general conclusion, as shown on table(4.5) is that most of the Nigerian managers have 'neither poor nor thorough knowledge' of union policies; whereas their U.K. counterparts (of course, due to their level of industrialization) have thorough knowledge.

Tables (4.6 and 4.7) present the feelings of the managers in skills and attitudes areas. The reports of respondents in table (4.6) concerning their skills in :

Dealing with conflict between others;

Allowing for the attitudes of others;

Noting signs of stress in others;

confirm the observations as shown in table (4.5) in relation to the manager's knowledge of human relation problems. The participants reported that they have 'good' and 'competent' skills in the above mentioned areas; whereas the managers who indicated to have 'good skills' in 'Dealing with conflict between others' and 'Allowing for attitudes of others', were evenly distributed; more respondents indicated a greater degree of competence in noting signs of stress in others than in the other skill areas. The implication of the observations being a reflection of managerial knowledge and skills problem abilities geared towards 'man-management' for the accomplishment of organisational goals.

TABLE 4.6

SKILL AREA

Rate your own competence on :					
	<u>Percentage Response</u>				
	1	2	3	4	5 ^(b)
Developing subordinates	4%	13%	51%	32%	-
Predicting outcome of proposed organisation change	3%	8%	32%	43%	14%
Making decisions in conditions of uncertainty	2%	7%	41%	36%	13%
Using models in decision making	12%	22%	26%	33%	7%
Dealing with conflict between others	2%	2%	19%	54%	23%
Allowing for attitude of others	2%	3%	19%	54%	22%
Noting signs of stress in others	Nil	2%	19%	48%	31%
Using systematic approach to deal with problems	3%	8%	25%	50%	14%

- (b) 1 = No skill (i.e. very incompetent)
 2 = Incompetent
 3 = Neither competent nor incompetent
 4 = Slightly competent
 5 = Competent

It is also interesting to note from the data on table (4.6) that almost one half of the managers showed weak rating for 'Developing subordinates'. This reflects the general attitudes of Nigeria's body politic where a subordinate's achievement or advancement tends to constitute a threat to the top executive's position of power. However, negative attitude to developing subordinates in the Nigerian context is greatly manifested more by ineffective managers than by efficient and effective managers, which (Adedeji Adebayo, (1974)) is one of the root causes of 'lack of executive capacity' from among Nigerians.

Though (28%) of the U.K. respondents indicated that they were slightly competent in developing subordinates, the explanation for this is not known in as much as they rated themselves very high in other areas of 'man-management'. On the whole, the Nigerian participants showed lesser competency in that area.

On the ability to predict outcome of proposed organisation change, there was similarity of rating, 14% of the respondents from both countries indicated that they were competent (tables 4.6 (Nigeria) and 5.3 (the U.K.)). The above finding is similar to what Crotty (1974) in 'Continuing Education and the Experienced Manager', observed to be the weak-effect area of the American MBA's and (MDP) Management Diploma Programme participants. He recorded for the MBA's 13.8% and 12.0% for the MDP's as their ability level (i.e. U.S.A. managers) to predict and effect organizational change. This means that the ability to predict outcome of organization change is a common problem area not only among the U.K. managers but among the U.S.A. managers too. This observation constitutes a fertile ground for further investigation.

One other important conclusion from the table above is that in some areas there was not a marked difference between the Nigerian and the U.K. responses.

It could be argued that perhaps the questionnaire was not sufficiently sensitive to detect a difference. This is not so. The results rather reflect identical educational and economic background of the two groups.

On the basis of what has been seen from the table above, hypothesis 4 which states that managers and organisations that differ in their educational orientation tend to differ in their managerial skills, is confirmed. What this implies is that the two countries' educational orientation are similar. Consequently, the knowledge and skills of the

sampled managers in both countries tend to be similar in specific areas as revealed above.

Table 4.7 summarises the respondents' ratings of their attitudes and opinions. As shown on the table almost three quarters of the respondents felt that people are the most important factor in bringing about change. Another significant reflection of the special recognition by most managers of the role of their organisation's workforce.

For the question of : 'there is usually one best way to solve managerial problems', the response was not particularly surprising. Whereas (22%) neither agreed nor disagreed, the result was that most of the managers strongly disagreed with the statement.

The conclusion is that the finding endorses the contingent aspects of organization as has been documented by a number of researchers (Heller (1976), Bowey (1972), Haire et al (1966) Inkson et al (1970). The paramount practical implication on the Nigerian managers' response is the desirability of managers being sensitive to situational factors which require different behaviour for different managerial problems.

When the response for 'risk-taking' and the desirability of changing one's plans in the middle of doing something are considered, we may come to the conclusion that only very few Nigerian managers in the sample do take risks in the things they do or change their plans in the middle of doing something. Whereas there was no substantial difference between the Nigerian response who 'strongly agreed' and their U.K. counterparts (see statistical analysis, Chapter 6), the general pattern is that most of the U.K. managers (45%)(N = 100) (table 5.4) agreed to take risks compared with (35%)(N = 88) of the Nigerian managers.

TABLE 4.7
ATTITUDES AND OPINIONS

Show how much you agree with :					
	1	2	3	4	5
	SD	D	NN	A	SA
People are the least factor in bringing about change	50%	23%	13%	10%	4%
There is usually one best way to solve managerial problems	41%	24%	22%	13%	-
I like taking calculated risks in things I do at work	6%	18%	38%	35%	3%
I dislike changing my plans in the middle of doing something	4%	25%	32%	34%	5%

SD = Strongly disagree

D = Disagree

NN = Neither agree nor disagree

A = Agree

SA = Strongly agree

One possible explanation for the Nigerian managers not to take much calculated risks in what they do at work could be that their organisations, though quite likely to be ambitious to expand, may lack some factors such as capital and/or 'management support capabilities'. Whereas on the U.K. side the opportunity for expansion coupled with other factors (availability of funds, job security, 'management support capabilities', i.e. technical expertise from the rank and file) would induce the managers to take calculated risks in what they do at work.

Table 4.8 shows a summary of the Nigerian managers' responses on development objectives on the statements below :

People have different viewpoints about what they expect from management development schemes. Below are a number of statements that express different points of view.

Indicate by circling the number under the description which is closest to the way you feel about each objective.

TABLE 4.8
IMPORTANT DEVELOPMENT OBJECTIVES

<u>Variable Items</u>	<u>% Strength of Agreement - Disagreement</u> <u>(N = 88)</u>				
	<u>Strongly Agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>
To prepare for a new job	30.0%	26.8%	11.4%	11.0%	20.8%
Learn more about modern management techniques	29.5%	50.0%	5.7%	14.8%	-
Get a better knowledge of relevant academic discipline	8.0%	38.0%	30.0%	14.0%	10.0%
Broaden attitude	25.0%	54.0%	7.4%	11.0%	2.6%
Learn improved methods of handling problems	32.0%	52.0%	8.0%	8.0%	-
Increase managerial confidence	35.0%	46.0%	6.0%	9.0%	2.0%
Increase profitability	28.0%	35.0%	4.0%	30.0%	3.0%
Gain deeper insight into problems of organization	30.0%	50.0%	3.0%	9.0%	8.0%

An important conclusion to be drawn from the information above is that many managers in the sample were uncertain as to whether or not 'knowledge of relevant academic discipline' is an important development objective. Whereas they felt very strongly in the objectives to 'learn improved methods of handling problems'; 'increase managerial confidence'; 'gain deeper insight into problems of organization', and 'broaden attitude' in that order.

Development objectives were towards general management rather than suitability of one's job, almost about one half of the managers felt

that 'to prepare for a new job' is an important development objective. This observation reflects on the respondents' feelings on whether or not they could have done without their highest qualifications in their jobs. What this implies is that managers who felt that their capacities are under or over stretched tend to feel that development programmes should prepare the participants for new jobs.

It is interesting to observe that there is substantial similarity between the U.K. and the Nigerian response (see Chapter 6). However, there is marked difference in the strength of agreement and disagreement between the managers from the two countries. The observation that more than three quarters of the sampled managers feel that :

Modern management techniques (79.5%);
 Broadening of attitude; (79%) ;
 Improved methods of handling problems; (84%);
 Increase managerial confidence; (81%);
 Insight into problems of organization; (80%);

are significant issues in managerial development and underscores the importance of involving practising managers in determining development objectives, which is certainly very important in their personal growth and which is essential to the success of most managers.

4.6 THE INTERACTION EFFECTS OF PERSONAL AND OTHER FACTORS

To ascertain the relationship between personal and organizational variables as they relate to the managers' perceptions of development objectives and/or needs, the means of each dependent variable (i.e. perceived development objectives) were sorted out on two way cross-tabulation using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Appendix C11. summarises the Means and Standard Deviations of the variables which were subjected to Chi-square test for significance effect.

Also Table 9A presents Inter-correlation among the variables as perceived by the Nigerian managers.

TABLE 4.5^a: Inter-correlation among the variables as perceived by the Nigerian Managers

3	4	5	8	15	5	12	11	14	16	19	22	24	25	27	26	27	28	29	52	51	60	70	38	35	20
3	-																								
4	.24**	-																							
5	.05	.09	-	-																					
8	.14	.10	.06	-																					
15	.0	.04	.02	.08	-																				
6	.07	.09	.06	.05	.05	-																			
12	.07	.25**	.34***	.01	.24*	.07	-																		
11	.29**	.11	.04	.02	.03	.39***	.45***	-																	
14	.25**	.19*	.23*	.27*	.42***	.12	.04	.26*	-																
16	.35***	.13	.04	.27**	.03	.04	.03	.14	.48***	-															
19	.05	.01	.09	.18	.04	.39**	.08	.07	.02	.18*	-														
22	.04	.09	.22*	.35**	.15	.04	.11	.27*	.04	.10	.12	-													
24	.02	.01	.10	.06	.10	.09	.01	.03	.14	.49***	.11	.04	-												
25	.12	.02	.15	.06	.13	.15	.28*	.19	.12	.11	.39***	.10	.12	-											
27	.05	.09	.10	.12	.15	.27*	.12	.21*	.02	.08	.20*	.05	.05	.06	-										
26	.06	.02	.13	.01	.14	.22*	.06	.07	.13	.03	.14	.14	.08	.35***	.13	-									
27	.17*	.06	.16*	.11	.12	.09	.03	.06	.06	.18*	.19*	.16*	.04	.18*	.02	.02	-								
28	.01	.12	.32***	.07	.13	.06	.02	.19*	.08	.09	.02	.16*	.18*	.06	.11	.11	.25**	-							
29	.02	.21**	.16*	.03	.27**	.32**	.03	.09	.03	.04	.14	.10	.08	.02	.04	.34***	.23**	.27**	-						
52	.27**	.02	.10	.03	.09	.02	.19*	.09	.06	.06	.18*	.03	.01	.16*	.11	.01	.04	.18*	.09	-					
51	.07	.06	.09	.26**	.03	.01	.09	.08*	.02	.27**	.09	.19**	.11	.09	.06	.34***	.20*	.04	.13	.03	-				
60	.09	.27***	.12	.34***	.11	.01	.06	.16*	.33**	.35**	.01	.20*	.01	.06	.12	.06	.18*	.02	.12	.11	.03	-			
70	.09	.02	.07	.20*	.08	.11	.02	.08	.10	.16*	.02	.09	.09	.18*	.02	.09	.06	.04	.34**	.04	.13	.08	-		
38	.09	.09	.18*	.11	.04	.24**		.34*	.07	.11	.12	.09	.11	.09	.01	.07	.11	.24**	.06	.18*	.04	.04	.11	-	
35	.03	.05	.26**	.12	.04	.10	.18*	.12	.27**	.08	.04	.02	.06	.18*	.06	.01	.20*	.03	.07	.11	.09	.05	.06	.19*	-
20	.11	.08	.04	.22*	.08	.04	.01	.11	.09	.19*	.02	.07	.11	.03	.02	.11	.01	.48*	.03	.08	.10	.02	.11	.08	.08

* Significant at .05 or better. ** Significant at .01 or better. *** Significant at .001 or better.

Inter-correlational Variables

- 3 = Age
- 4 = Age completed full-time education
- 5 = Highest Educational Qualification
- 8 = Sex
- 15 = Mobility (No. of Organisations worked as manager)
- 6 = Highest Vocational Qualification
- 12 = Would you have done without your degree?
- 11 = Would you have done without your Highest Voc. Qualification?
- 14 = Work Experience as Manager
- 16 = Maximum Length of Time Worked as Manager
- 19 = Organisation's Size
- 22 = Development expectation for a new job
- 24 = Development objective to get better academic knowledge
- 25 = To broaden one's attitude
- 26 = To learn improved method of handling problem
- 23 = To learn modern management techniques
- 27 = To increase managerial confidence
- 28 = To increase profitability
- 29 = To gain deeper insight into problems of organisation
- 52 = Attitudes of changing plans at the middle of something
- 51 = Risk-taking at work
- 60 = Autonomy about how one goes about his job
- 70 = Level of feedback at work
- 38 = Knowledge of international marketing problems
- 35 = Knowledge of union policies
- 20 = Rank (Position of power in the organisational hierarchy).

Between certain variables, significance of $P > .05$, $.01$ and $.001$ levels were observed and in each case the direction of relationship is briefly described.

Further, T-tests were carried out, for example, the means of one category of the sampled managers, such as the "cosmopolitans" and the "locals" (i.e. mobile and less mobile managers) were compared in relation to :

- (1) What respondents feel development objectives should be;
- (2) What respondents feel about their skills, knowledge and attitude;
- (3) How they feel about their managerial job characteristics.

The Interaction Between Development Objectives (D/O) and other Variables

The identification of relationships between respondents' personal, organisational and job variables as they affect their feelings about their jobs will provide some realistic understanding of what influences their development objectives and needs.

It should be clear from the results which are discussed below that the effects of any organisational and/or personal variables on perception of (D/O) development objectives, are dependent, at least, on a number of other variables. Tables 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 summarise the effects of the variables investigated on development objectives, knowledge or skills and situational job characteristics of the managers. From these results (table 4.7) below, it is clear that the effects of any organisational factor on a manager's perception as to what development objectives should be and/or managerial knowledge and skills (table 4.8) below, depend on a number of other factors. This tends to support the assertion by Porter and Lawler (1965) that "Organisations appear to be too complex for a given variable to have consistent unidirectional effect across a wide variety of types of conditions".

INTERACTION EFFECTS OF VARIOUS MANAGERIAL VARIABLES

TABLE 4.9

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEPTION OF DEVELOPMENT OBJECTIVES AND
OTHER VARIABLES

Development Objective Variables	Dependent Variables	Direction of Interaction	χ^2	df	Level of signi- ficance
1. Learn modern management techniques	Control of conflict	Managers that are less competent in handling conflict showed greater concern for modern management techniques than competent managers	26.9	2	.001***
2. Learn modern management techniques	Change plans in the middle of doing things	Managers who dislike changing their plans in the middle of doing something show less concern for modern management techniques than managers who change their plans	22.7	2	.01**
3. Learn improved methods of handling problems	Ability to take risk in what one does	Managers who tend to take more risk in what they do at work tend to show more concern for improved methods of handling problems than those who take less risks.	26.4	2	.001***
4. Learn improved methods of handling problems	Job frustration	Managers who are less frustrated by what they do at work show greater concern for improved methods of handling problems than managers who are frustrated in what they do at work.	26.4	5	.01**
5. Increase managerial confidence	Allowing for attitudes of others	Managers that are poor in allowing for attitudes of others show greater concern for managerial confidence than managers who allow for attitudes of others in what they do at work	36.2	2	.001***
6. Increase Managerial confidence	Social Scientists contribution to management	Managers that are uncertain of what social scientists can contribute to management show less concern for increasing their managerial confidence	30.9	2	.001***

TABLE 4.10

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL FACTORS AND OTHER VARIABLES

Personal Factors	Dependent Variables	Direction of Interaction	χ^2	df	Level of Significance
1. Highest Educational qualifications	Personal initiative in what is done	Managers with degrees and full professional qualifications of degree level exercise greater personal initiative in what they do at work than managers with lesser qualifications	15.6	3	.01
2. Highest Vocational qualifications	Position enables one to finish job started	Managers with higher vocational qualifications tend to have greater chance of completing work begun than managers with lesser vocational qualifications	26.2	2	.001
3. Highest Vocational qualifications	Degree of personal initiative in the job	Managers with full membership of professional bodies (Management, Banking, Accountancy, Purchasing and Marketing) tend to exercise more personal initiative in their jobs than others	15.7	2	.01
4. Job mobility	How well done job affects others	Managers who have greater concern for how well done their jobs affect others are less mobile than managers who have less concern for how well done their jobs affect others	19.8	3	.001
5. Experience	Controlling; conflict	The more experience a manager has the more skilled he tends to admit in controlling; conflict between people in organisation	8.08	4	.05
6. Experience	Degree of job frustration	More experienced managers show low degree of job frustration than managers who are less experienced	11.1	5	.05
7. Experience	Changing plans in the middle of doing something	Inexperienced managers show greater degree of changing their plans in the middle of doing something than experienced managers	10.4	4	.03

Whereas, as shown in table 4.8 above, a manager's sex, for example affects the extent to which his or her job provides "clues of how well one is performing", table 4.9 shows that there was no significant difference between a manager's sex and his or her managerial knowledge or skills, except in the area of financial management and knowledge of international marketing. For the former the difference was statistically significant at .005 level while for the latter it was merely approaching .07 level of significance.

TABLE 4. II

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE NIGERIAN MANAGERS' SEX AND
MANAGERIAL KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS

Knowledge or skills variable	Male (N=80)		Female (N=8)		F Ratio	Level of significance	Direction of relationship
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D			
Organisational Theory	3.67	0.88	3.88	0.64	1.9	.51	Not significant
Group Behaviour	3.79	0.86	4.00	0.58	2.2	.52	Not significant
Economic Theory	3.33	1.04	2.89	0.20	1.1	.23	Not significant
Implementation of change	3.49	0.90	3.00	0.75	1.4	.14	Not significant
Motivation of People	3.93	0.84	4.12	0.64	1.7	.53	Not significant
Union Policies	3.35	1.07	3.13	1.25	1.3	.58	Not significant
Financial Management	3.14	1.08	2.00	0.93	1.3	.005*	Male managers more skilled
Dealing with peers (colleagues)	3.87	1.10	3.88	1.36	1.5	.98	Not significant
International Marketing Problems	2.26	1.35	1.38	0.74	3.3	.07*	Male managers more skilled

* P < approaching .05 level of significance, two tail

** P < .01 or better, two tail

From the results above, it is not unexpected to observe that the Nigerian female executive is different from her male colleague in financial management and international marketing knowledge or skills. This

reflects on the social background as well as the educational orientation of the Nigerian women (PI54), which in the past concentrated around 'child education' and domestic matters alone. Whereas in the U.K. sample, comparison of the female and male managers' knowledge failed to produce any statistically significant difference.

One possible conclusion from the above findings is that managerial knowledge and/or skills are affected by the socio-cultural milieu in which the manager operates. This is in line with Blau's findings (1968), that managerial skills are affected by organisation's internal phenomena, the prevailing socio-cultural factors and the level of the prevailing economy as shown in the Nigerian case.

When the nine knowledge and skills variables were further analysed in relation to the manager's age group, it was discovered that the respondents' groups failed to reach .05 significant level, except in 'Dealing with peers', $P > .04$; whereas in the case of 'Group Behaviour' it was approaching (6%) significant level.

Unlike the U.K. result (even though the difference was not significant statistically) the Nigerian younger managers (the under 40's) tended to be more skilled in 'Group Behaviour' than those who are forty years and over. For 'Dealing with Peers', the older managers were more skilled as revealed in table 4.I2.

Concerning age-groups and development objectives and status, and rank, a further T-tests revealed no significant difference statistically and it is, therefore, considered necessary not to include such tables in the results. Rather correlation coefficients of the variables were obtained for analysis.

TABLE 4 -I2

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE NIGERIAN MANAGERS' AGE AND MANAGERIAL
KNOWLEDGE OR SKILLS

Knowledge or Skills Variables	A G E				F Ratio	Level of signifi- cance
	Under 40 yrs		40 yrs or over			
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
Group Behaviour	4.00	0.62	3.67	0.94	2.29	.06
Dealing with Peers (colleagues)	3.58	1.13	4.06	1.04	1.16	.04
Two-tail						

The relationship between certain managerial knowledge and managerial skills are presented in table 4 .I3

TABLE 4 . I3

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MANAGERIAL KNOWLEDGE AND OTHER SKILLS

Skills and Knowledge Variables	Dependent Variables	Direction of Interaction	χ^2	df	Level of signi- ficance
1. Motivation of people	Allowing for attitudes of others	Managers that are com- petent in motivating people show greater concern for allowing for attitudes of others than managers who are not competent	13.7	4	.001
2. Motivation of people	Noticing sign of stress in people	Managers that are com- petent in motivating people show greater skills in moticing signs of stress than managers who are not	26.3	4	.001
3. Motivation of people	One	Managers who are high in working alone show little or no concern for motivation of peo- ple than managers whose work involves contact with many people	24.5	2	.01

contd....

Table 4.13 conted.

Skills and Knowledge Variables	Dependent Variables	Direction of Interaction	χ^2	df	Level of significance
4. Developing sub-ordinates	Control of Conflict	Managers who are competent in developing subordinates are more skilled in dealing with conflict between people in organisation than managers who are less competent in developing their subordinates	12.9	2	.02
5. Developing subordinates	One	Managers whose work involves greater measure of working alone show little enthusiasm in developing subordinates than managers who work with other people	29.4	2	.001
6. Using models in solving problems	Allowing for attitudes of others	Managers who tend to disagree in the use of models in problem solution tend not to allow for the attitude of others in what they do at work	24.5	4	.001
7. Financial Management	Control of conflict	Managers that have greater skill in financial management tend to have lesser skills in dealing with conflict between people than managers who are less competent in financial management	20.8	2	.01
8. Financial Management	Using systematic approach in handling problems	Managers who are competent in financial management show greater skill in using systematic approach in handling problems than managers who are not	27.1	2	.001
9. International marketing problems	Degree of job frustration	Marketing managers that have higher job frustration tend to have poorer knowledge of international marketing problems than managers with thorough knowledge of international marketing problems	34.4	20	.01

While these results made clear the overall concurrent validity of the various tests applied, it seemed wise to investigate further the possible moderating effects of personal, job and organisational variables on the relationships reported in this section. Conceptually one may consider the specific effect of these variables upon the manager's development objectives, and/or managerial knowledge and skills while relating them to the manager's job factors. Table 4.12 presents the various scores' relationship.

The criterion measure regarding autonomy (i.e. independent action of how one goes about his or her job) and managerial job experience was significant at .05 level for the Nigerian managers. Whereas job variety and the degree of application of personal initiative was significant at .001 level, the same significant level (.001) was noted for job mobility and job experience. Similar result was observed (table 4.19) in the U.K. sample particularly in job experience and independence of managerial action.

The findings below support our hypothesis (12), which stated that 'the degree of freedom (i.e. autonomy or independence) about how a manager goes about his job is directly related with his work experience as a manager'. But, contrary to expectation hypothesis (15) which indicated that the extent to which a manager gets feedback at work tends to be in positive association with the motivation (i.e. the development objective) to broaden his attitude. As shown below (table 4.12) coefficient value ($r = .08$) was not at all near the (5%) significant level.

TABLE 4.14

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB DYNAMICS AND OTHER VARIABLES

		No. of Managers	r Value	Level of sig- nifica- nce	Direction of relation- ship
Autonomy	Vs Job Experience	88	.46	.05	Autonomy increa- ses with manag- erial job exp- erience
Job Variety	Vs Personal Initiative	88	.48	.001	The use of per- sonal initiative is in direct association with the degree of managerial job variety
Position in the organisa- tional hierarchy	Vs One working alone	88	.09	(NS)	Not significant
Job mobility	Vs Job Experience	88	.43	.001	Less experienced managers are more mobile than the more experienced ones
Use of model on job	Vs Skill in international marketing problem	88	.39	.01	International marketing skills is in positive association with the use of mod- els in problem solutions
Handling of conflict between others	Vs Using system- atic approach in handling problems	88	.26	.05	Managers who are good at handling conflicts between people are also good in using systematic approach
Feedback	Vs Objective to broaden attitude	88	.02	(NS)	Not significant
Opportunity to finish work begun	Vs Using system- atic approach in handling problems	88	.03	(NS)	Not significant

Concerning hypothesis (17) which stated that 'The extent to which a manager's knowledge of international marketing problems is associated to the extent to which he uses models in decision making' is confirmed. The relationship was statistically significant at ($P \approx .01$) with 'r' value of (.39). Whereas hypothesis (18) which showed that 'The extent to which a manager works alone, is directly related to his rank in the organisational hierarchy' was not supported by our findings. The relationship between handling of conflict between people and use of systematic approach was significant at ($P > .05$) level.

Our results also confirm the expectation that 'job variety' is in direct association with the exercise of 'personal initiative' unlike routinized managerial job. When 'opportunity to finish job already started' was related to using 'systematic approach in handling problems' contrary to expectations the result failed to reach (5%) significant level.

Hypothesis (20) which stated that 'the extent to which managers tend to have the chance to finish completely any work problems they have started is associated to their skills in using systematic approach in solving problems' was rejected.

In comparing the above results with the U.K. sample (table 5.19) we discovered that whereas younger managers (in both groups of samples) were more mobile than the older managers, as was expected in the case of the Nigerian sample, there was a significant difference ($P > .001$) between job variety and the exercise of personal initiative and between the older and the younger managers in the exercise of personal initiative. Further it was observed that whilst there was significant difference between (U.K) the more experienced and younger managers in the exercise of personal initiative (table 5.19) there was no significant difference in the Nigerian case. Rather what was observed, as shown in (table 4.12) was a significant difference due to job variety.

The observation reflects on the managerial attitudes of most Nigerian executives which tends to encourage exercise of personal initiative among the younger managers. But whether or not the exercise of such personal initiative tends to enhance or deter managerial effectiveness among the younger managers in Nigeria requires further investigation.

It could be argued that the above findings on the one hand is a reflection of the desire to tackle the 'lack of executive capacity' (Adedeji Adebayo, 1974) in Nigeria, and on the other, what I may describe as lack of managerial direction which tends to erode 'executive capacity' in Nigeria. What most of the observations imply is that (Managerial/Executive) work-force in Nigerian need more than ever before more positive managerial direction.

C H A P T E R F I V E

CHAPTER FIVE

TREATMENT OF THE U.K. SAMPLE

Introduction

Given the strategic role of management in modern organisations, the attitudes and viewpoints of managers towards management development tend to be very important. In the U.K. especially, during the past years, many studies such as, Mant (1969), Rose's Management Education in the 1970's, Leggatt (1972), B.I.M. Report on practices and attitudes in Management (1975) Training Services Agency discussion paper (1976) and Report of Interfirm comparison 1978, had raised some important points on the relationship between management education and the job of the manager.

The trend that came out of most of them is that organisations will be doing more training and development in the next few years. The main reasons given, tended to be that organisations are becoming more aware of the training and/or development needs of practising managers.

This implies a need to be clear about how companies want their managers to be trained and developed. But as has been indicated elsewhere, the study is concerned with the establishment of the variables that most influence the managers' 'perception' of development objectives in the U.K. and Nigeria. This section of my study is therefore devoted to the analytical description of the characteristics of the U.K. managers who took part in the survey.

5.2 Managers' Management Background

Of the 100 U.K. managers who participated in the survey, Table 5.1 presents an analysis of their age groups.

TABLE 5.1 Management Background - Managers' Ages

<u>Range (Years)</u>	<u>Number of Managers</u>
Up to 29	12
30 - 34	13
35 - 39	20
40 - 44	12
45 - 49	15
50 - 54	14
55 and over	14
	<hr/> 100
	Mean age 42 years
	S.D. 9.8

Table 5.1 above shows that 28% of the U.K. managers who participated were 50 years and over, 60% were between 30 and 50 years, while only 12% were below 30 years of age. The mean age of the sampled managers is 42 years.

TABLE 5.2 Background to Management - Function

<u>Area</u>	<u>Number of Managers</u>
General management	24
Finance	16
Production	9
Marketing	7
Personnel/Adm. and Training	27
Research and Development	6
Purchasing	7
Public Relations	4
	<hr/> 100

Table 5.2 above presents analysis of the functions of the managers who took part in the survey. (For comparative analysis of the U.K. and the Nigerian managers see Table 6.1). 27% of the managers surveyed were engaged in Personnel/Administration and Training. This group constituted the highest

participants. It reflects the readiness with which personnel in administration respond to outside people. Participants engaged in general management were second with 24% while those engaged in finance constituted 16% of this group of the samples. Public relations managers were relatively fewer, and the main explanation is that in the majority of cases, Personnel/Adm. deal with their organisations' public relations matters.

Within the above functional areas, two groups of managers were delineated

- (a) The line managers and (b) the staff or specialist managers.

Definitions of Line and Staff managers as used in the context of this study.

- (I) Line manager refers to a member of an organisation who is responsible for the success or failure of a section of the organisation in performing part of the principal work of the organisation, see French & Saward (1977).
- (II) Staff (Specialist) manager refers to a member of an organisation who provides specialized services or advice to line managers in the organisation.

A number of interesting points emerged from Tables 5.1 and 5.2.

- (i) Staff i.e. specialist managers were on the average younger than the line managers. Only 36% of the Staff managers were aged 50 and over, compared with 60% of line managers. Line and Staff managers perceived differently as to their development objectives (see analysis of test Table 5.28).
- (ii) Whereas young men and women under the age of 40 years were often found in specialist managerial positions, they were more often seen in Personnel and Training. This is a reflection of where their services are most needed.
- (iii) It was also observed that in relation to what development objectives should be, the Staff managers perceived differently from the line managers. A T-test analysis revealed (see Table 5.28) statistically significant differences in development objectives perception between the line and staff managers.

On further analysis some interesting points emerge.

- (1) Among those with degrees only one manager had a doctorate degree, whereas 5 managers had master degrees, the rest were first degree holders.
- (2) Concerning the female participants, more than half have obtained degrees compared with about 15% of their male counterparts: i.e. women are better qualified. One important reason is that before a woman could rise to a managerial status in an organisation she has to be highly qualified. This is so because most of their male counterparts rose from the shop-floor level after many years of engineering apprenticeship.
- (3) No female manager has qualifications below 'O' level G.C.E. Participants were also asked about their highest vocational qualifications. Table 5.4 indicates the pattern of their highest vocational qualifications.
- (4) Both male and female managers with degrees are predominantly found in Personnel/Administration and Training, whereas professional qualifications are found among finance, banking and general managers.
- (5) Of the female participants less than 13% were line managers.
- (6) None of the managers whose highest qualification is below 'O' level G.C.E. is in a specialist position.

TABLE 5.4 Management Background - Highest Vocational Qualifications

<u>Qualification</u>	<u>Number of Managers</u>
No Vocational Qualification	16
Professional Qualification but no membership	19
Membership of Professional Bodies	64
No Response	1

This table shows that almost for every three managers that participated in the study, two were members of one professional body or another. Most managers had more than one professional membership. The professional membership popular among the U.K. managers included:

- (1) Membership of the British Institute of Management.
- (2) Membership of the Institute of Personnel Management.
- (3) Membership of the Institute of Cost and Management Accountants.
- (4) Membership of the Institute of Chartered Accountants.
- (5) Membership of the Association of Certified Accountants.
- (6) Membership of the Institute of Bankers.

All the bank managers that took part are members of the Institute of Bankers. This, of course, is not a legal requirement, rather it reflects the strong vocational education orientation of the banking profession.

In order to establish how managers felt about the significance of their highest educational or vocational qualifications, they were asked the following questions:

- (1) Do you consider your highest qualification directly relevant to the work you are doing?

(a) Professional Qualification

1. Yes, very relevant all the time.
2. Yes, very relevant from time to time.
3. No, not at all.

(b) Degree

1. Yes, very relevant all the time.
2. Yes, very relevant from time to time.
3. No, not at all.

The following table shows the participants' response.

TABLE 5.5 Relevance of Highest Qualification to Work

<u>Professional Qualification</u>			<u>Degrees</u>
1.	37%	Yes, very relevant all the time.	7%
2.	38%	Yes, very relevant from time to time.	19%
3.	20%	No, not at all.	65%
4.	5%	No response.	9%

What this table indicates is that 75% of the participants admitted that their highest professional qualifications are very relevant to the job they do. Only 7% admitted that their degrees are relevant all the time to the job they do.

This means that most of the U.K. managers that were sampled regarded their highest professional qualifications to be directly more relevant to their jobs than their academic degrees. It did not, of course, reveal any indication that by comparison they regarded professional qualifications to be superior to academic degrees. Rather it explains the implied educational and training orientation of most people in business in the U.K. that academic degrees are not relevant to business activities all the time.

As shown in Tables 5.4 and 5.5, the main explanation for the high proportion of professionally qualified non-University graduates among the U.K. managers in this sample lies more in the value attached to on-the-job training and experience. Another explanation lies in the high prestige of careers outside commerce and industry (Weinshall, 1977) which attract university academic graduates.

The following figures were obtained from the present survey.

TABLE 5.6 Management Background - Managers' Age at Completion of Full-time Education.

<u>Range (Years)</u>	
Before 15	18%
16 - 20	50%
21 - 25	26%
26 and over	6%

N = (100)

Mean age 18.7

S.D. 3.9

The above table reveals that among the U.K. managers that took part in the study sixty eight per cent (68%) of them had completed their full-time education before they were 20 years old. The average age of 18.7 years means that the average manager in the U.K. could not have obtained a university degree. The possible alternative for these people who entered industry and commerce between 15 and 20 years was to undertake part-time studies focused on professional qualification. In a study by John Deeks (1970), "The owner-managers and managers of small firms", the result also showed that about a third of the U.K. managers (229)* had received an elementary schooling only, about a quarter had attended secondary grammar schools and about a fifth had attended secondary modern schools or their equivalent. Fourteen per cent of the managers in his study had been educated privately perhaps through part-time studies and six per cent had attended secondary technical schools.

This early cessation of full-time education which is common with existing practising U.K. managers endorses the opinion that college academic degrees postpones the student's purposeful contact with reality of business world. While on the contrary, for instance in the U.K., it is believed that a college degree is essential and is regarded as the "minimum credential for almost any type of non-routine work". Denison (1962), Fortune (1970), article, and De Bettignies & Lee Evans (1971) have indicated that academic degree is essential for managers in industry and commerce. But contrary to this expectation, the present study reveals that professional qualifications tended to be more appealing to the U.K. managers. (See Tables 5.4, 5.5 and 5.6).

Fortune's (1970-1971) article identified that nine out of ten U.S.A. business executives had been to college in 1964, 96 per cent had been in 1968 and while three out of four had obtained a degree in 1964, 83 per cent had at least a bachelor's degree. It found that the European situation was different, due to their educational orientation and/or educational systems. Nonetheless, it discovered that one out of four European executives (as against one out of twenty in the U.S.A.) has not attended an institution of higher education

for degrees. The Fortune survey also revealed that among the European (business leaders) executives, the French and the Finish have received more university level education than their colleagues and are closest to the U.S.A., while the least educated are the British, the Danish, the Dutch and the Norwegians in that order. See Table 5.7.

TABLE 5.7 Comparison of the Educational Level of European and American Business Leaders.

	B	DK	SF	G	GB	I	NL	N	S	USA
% of persons with a higher education in the total labour force*	N/A	(2.0)	2.1	N/A	(3.3)	N/A	1.4	2.6	2.1	19.
% of executives with a higher education	85	51	91	81	50	78	60	63	77	83

* OECD 1969: Statistics of the Occupational and Educational Structures of Labour Forces in 53 Countries, Paris.

De Bettignies and Evans 1971 - The Cultural Dimension of Top Executives: A Comparative Analysis. See Culture and Management 1977.

B = Belgium

DK = Denmark

SF = France

G = Germany

GB = Great Britain

I = Ireland

NL = (Netherland) Dutch

N = Norway

S = Sweden

USA = United States of America.

To run a large industrial organisation would appear to be increasingly a complex job whereas it requires men of great ability with special skills and college degrees. However, the controversy over the extent to which educational qualifications (i.e. university degrees) influence or determine success in individual careers such as management needs to be investigated further. Whereas, occupational status is more closely related to educational attainment than to other measurable factors, see Jencks (1972),

there are still enormous differences between managers with the same amount of educational or professional qualifications in the U.K. Detailed analysis has been treated in Chapter 6 - Comparison of educational and professional qualifications of the U.K. and Nigerian managers.

What has come out clearly is that managers in the U.K. admit that their highest professional qualifications are more relevant to their jobs than their academic degrees. The implication being that managerial skills, particularly the human and conceptual, can only be adequately developed by on-the-job experience, and in this sense maintained that years spent at university has according to Jencks great opportunity cost. I would rather indicate that this opportunity cost would pay-off in the long run bearing in mind the complexity of managerial job due to, for example, new technology, international competition, educational level of modern workforce, etc.

Another explanation of the findings above being that most U.K. managers were no doubt brought up in close contact with business before they were 20 years old, and by virtue of their social background they tended to have the most complete access to all forms of professional education, training and experience, which reflected the type of education and training that business required.

As opinions about the relevance of academic degrees to business tend to change, however, an intensive study of British industry in the early 1960's testifies to the misgivings which many British firms have about long years spent in formal education. See Birch and MacMillan (1972). Availability of education does not appear to explain why educational profile of the U.K. managers swings to professional qualifications since relative to the rest of Europe (Heller, 1976) the availability of education is very high in Britain.

It was noted earlier that the explanation is more of "the value" which industry attaches to professionally oriented training and, experience which according to their nature and scope, does not require long absence from the job environments.

Participants were also asked whether they would have done without their highest professional qualifications and degrees. Their responses are shown below.

TABLE 5.8 - Management Background

<u>Questionnaire item</u>	<u>Professional Qualification</u>		<u>Degree</u>
Would you	23%	1 Yes	46%
have done	14%	2 Don't Know	33%
without your	63%	3 No	21%
highest qualification?			

N = (100)

Analysis of Table 5.8 shows that 63% of the managers who took part indicated that they could not have done without their highest professional qualifications. 23% admitted that they would have done without theirs and only 13% were uncertain.

For degrees, 46% of the managers felt that they would have done without their degrees in their jobs, while only 21% admitted that they could not have done without their degrees and 33% were not decided.

Following the observations made from the preceding tables and the responses obtained from Table 5.8, one may come out with the following conclusions:

That the average U.K. manager is of the opinion that professional qualification is more relevant to the job that managers do than academic degrees (see Table 5.7). That degrees, as revealed in Table 5.8, could be dispensed with in the job of managing while professional qualifications cannot.

Some Reflections on the Observations Above.

It is viewed that because of the age long partnership between professional or vocational oriented training and experience and the U.K. industry and commerce, the U.K. management practice and thinking would be slow in accommodating university degree entrants. In spite of the changing attitudes of academics towards industry and commerce in recent years, by way of having business departments in the universities and/or Business Schools, managers without university degrees will continue to predominate the U.K. management circle for some years to come.

The above results suggest that the U.K. managers' frame of reference based in part upon professional training (leading to membership of the U.K. professional institutions) influence their perceptions of their jobs and the particular aspect of their qualifications seen as relevant to them. Such perceptions support hypotheses .2. and .4. .

The complexity of this picture (relevance of qualification) may be due to the sample managers' perceptions reflecting divergent job characteristics (i.e. conditions for job tasks resulting from differential managerial tasks). This implies that perception of the relevance of qualifications to job should be compared among managers with identical qualifications (i.e. either those managers with degrees alone or professional qualifications alone) and/or among managers who work under similar job conditions.

Statistical treatment of the findings discussed above are shown elsewhere in the study.

Management Programme participation

In order to ascertain managers' participation in management development courses, they were asked if they had attended any away from job management course. The response showed that 73% of the managers confirmed that they had

attended a course, while 23% said no and 4% gave no response. They were also asked: How important do you consider the course you have attended is to your job? Table 5.9 shows how they responded.

TABLE 5.9 - Management Background

<u>Degree of Importance</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Very important	18
Fairly important	45
Not very important	9
Not at all important	2
Don't know	18
No response	2

N = 100

The minority (i.e. 2%) who indicated that the course they had attended was not important at all must have perhaps attended it without being aware of the course content. This, of course, could not have been the only contributory factor. Other factors which are not considered here may be involved (e.g. course objective).

Bennett and Reynier (1978) in a study of British managers indicated that there is a continuing demand for management education. Though they emphasised that the future growth area is in-company training and development activities. Their study revealed that more training is done in-company than externally, and that twice as many managers are trained internally as externally.

In order to ascertain the managers' viewpoints on whether they would like to attend (in-company or away from job) development course even if there is no promotion prospect due from it. Tables 5.10 and 5.11 reveal the pattern of the managers' responses.

TABLE 5.10 - Management Background - Management Development Programme Need

<u>Questionnaire item</u>	<u>Response pattern</u>	
Would you like management development scheme which would enhance your managerial style even if no promotion would be involved because of it?	Like	82%
	Uncertain	14%
	Don't like	4%
	N = 100	

Table 5.10 shows that out of the 100 managers in the survey 82 of them would like to attend management development course which would enhance their style of management even if no promotion would be involved because of it.

This finding is in keeping with Bennette & Reynier study (1978) which indicated that there is a continuing demand for management education in Britain and that of 141 organisations surveyed the major need (63%) was seen to be in training for general management. The study also revealed that two-thirds of the organisations actually requested help, advice and support on the areas such as, management techniques, human skills, supervisory management. This level of demand that the U.K. managers' needs for development will tend to be positive for many years to come. In order to indicate the likely direction training and development programme would take, participants were asked whether they would prefer 'Away from job' or 'in-company' schemes. The table below shows the participants' preferences.

TABLE 5.11 - Management Background - Managers' Preference for Development Schemes

In-company	38%
Away from Company	58%
Undecided	4%
	(N=100)

Table 5.11 revealed that more than half of the managers prefer away-from-job development schemes to in-company ones. This observation is not similar to that of Bennette & Reynier (1978). However their study compared organisations' external and internal training rather than the perceptions of the participants. Bennette & Reynier were of the opinion that organisations prefer internal training to external training.

The above responses highlight an interesting point. Whereas organisations preferred management development schemes to be in-company, managers tend to prefer development schemes which are outside the company environment. It is implied that organisations do tend to prefer in-company training on two major accounts:

- a) It tends to be easily tailored to the organisations' needs.
- b) It also tends to be more effective cost and time wise.

For the managers it could be explained that they tend to prefer external schemes so that they can share understanding, ideas and techniques with managers from other organisations. What could be argued is that organisations' perception of development process may not be necessarily similar to those of the practising managers in the organisations. Whereas managers' perception of development process may tend to be perhaps reflected on social encounter in an atmosphere free from the monotony of job environment, organisations' perceptions may be guided by 'cost-time' consideration.

However, how far in-company and/or away from job development schemes satisfy the expectations of organisations on the one hand and those of their managers on the other require further investigation. Bennette & Reynier in looking for ways to improve courses and services asked organisations to criticize constructively what is on offer at present. They came out with the conclusion that courses (external) are too academic and "jargonized", the quality of instruction is not always as high as it should be, and that course contents are not relevant to managers' jobs.

Bennette & Reynier's observation (even though that the statistical treatment is not presented to indicate the relationship and effects of the managers' personal and organisational factors) is important both for what it has and failed to reveal. One may ask: whether it could be implied that the British academics are not as yet able to reflect upon the needs of industry and commerce?

The above question anticipates further researches on the implication of professional qualifications and college (academic) degrees in industry and commerce in the U.K. organisations. From what has been observed in Tables 5.6 through to 5.9, most managers involved in this survey tend to value their professional qualifications more than college academic degrees. It is also observed that their educational background (see Table 5.7) tended not to be high. It is implied that low level highest educational background coupled with early contact with industry and commerce arising from the managers' early completion of full-time education are but a partial explanation of why Bettignies & Evans (1977) indicated that the British are least educated of the European Business (Leaders) executives. That tends to support the findings of this study.

Having ascertained the managers' preference for development schemes Table 5.11, they were asked to indicate ideally how long they would prefer courses to be. Their responses are shown in the table below.

TABLE 5.12 - Management Background - Preference of Course Duration

Questionnaire item 57.

Ideally how long would you prefer management courses to be?

Under 4 weeks	75%
4 weeks but less than 3 months	18%
3 months but less than 5 months	1%
6 months but less than 9 months	2%
9 months and over	1%

N = 100.

One important conclusion from the above table is that most of the sampled managers prefer development courses of very short duration.

Some Important Development Objectives Reflecting Needs or Viewpoints

Given the 'motivation-reward' implications of development discussed above and the role of managers in organisations, the attitudes and reactions of managers to development objectives are especially important. Although much has been discussed in management literature about development, but there is surprisingly very little systematic treatment on the managers' individual feelings on what important objectives should be. To ascertain their viewpoints on important development objectives the respondents were asked a series of questions (see Table 5.13).

As the data in Table 5.13 indicates, attitudes are divided concerning what should be important development objectives. While (47 per cent) of the sample agreed that 'to prepare for a new job' is one important development objective, (17 per cent) disagreed, whereas (14 per cent) strongly agreed, only (5 per cent) strongly disagreed). The remainder were uncertain. It seems that more than one half of the sample - 47% that agreed and 14% that strongly agreed (i.e. 61%) felt that to prepare for a new job is an important objective. The above findings do not mean that the managers were not concerned about other objectives. The second statement in Table 5.13, 'learn more about modern management techniques' demonstrated that a majority of the sampled managers regarded that objective as very important.

Out of the hundred managers in the sample 56% agreed it was important, (31% strongly agreed, 11% were uncertain and only 2% strongly disagreed). Similarly a majority of managers felt the notion that to "Get a better knowledge of relevant academic discipline" is important development objective. Over 50 per cent (i.e. 44% who agreed and 14% who strongly agreed) saw that as important. However 11% disagreed with that viewpoint while only 6% strongly disagreed, the remainder were uncertain. Other questions were asked.

A substantial number of the sampled managers regarded "to broaden attitude" as important development objective. Of the 100 managers that took part, only 8% were either uncertain or disagreed, the rest regard it as very important. Following the next statement 'Learn improved method of handling problems', as it is expected, more than three quarters felt that it is

important. Out of the sampled managers (100) 63% agreed and 28% strongly agreed while only 1% disagreed, 7% were uncertain.

Most of the participants also expressed the viewpoint that to 'increase managerial confidence' is important development objective. 60% of the (100) managers felt that is important, 31% strongly agreed, only 4% disagreed and 5% were uncertain. They were also asked whether to 'increase profitability' is an important objective? The responses showed that 42% agreed, 30% strongly agreed, whereas 19% were uncertain only 3% strongly disagreed and 5% disagreed.

About the viewpoint to 'gain a deeper insight into problems of organisation', 61% of the respondents agreed, 28% strongly agreed whereas 11% were uncertain. No respondent disagreed.

The viewpoints indicated above are summarised by responses to the statements in Table 5.13.

TABLE 5.13 Important Development Objectives

People have different viewpoints about what they expect from management development schemes. Below are a number of statements that express different points of view. Indicate by circling the number under the description which is closest to the way you feel about each objective.

<u>Variable items</u>	<u>(100)* % Strength of Agreement-Disagreement</u>				
	<u>Strongly agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly disagree</u>
	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
To prepare for a new job	14%	47%	17%	17%	5%
Learn more about modern management techniques	31%	56%	11%	-	2%
Get a better knowledge of relevant academic discipline	14%	44%	25%	11%	6%
Broaden attitude	37%	55%	7%	-	1%
Learn improved method of handling problems	28%	63%	7%	1%	-
Increase managerial confidence	31%	60%	5%	4%	-
Increase profitability	30%	42%	19%	5%	3%
Gain a deeper insight into problems of organisation	28%	61%	11%	-	-

(100)* number of managers in the U.K. sample.

Since the U.K. business community is large in size and the managers' scope and nature of jobs varied, it is unlikely to have uniform viewpoints towards perception of important development objectives. Certain development objectives which may be of central importance, for instance, to a banking firm may fail to command the same level of significance to a manufacturing firm. However, the response shown on Table 5.13 above indicate that of the eight development objectives viewpoints about:

- (1) 'To prepare for a new job'
- (2) 'Get a better knowledge of relevant academic discipline'
- (3) 'Increase profitability'

varied from strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree and strongly disagree. For the remaining five:

- (1) 'Increase managerial confidence'
- (2) 'Gain deeper insight into problems of organisation'
- (3) 'Learn improved method of handling problems'
- (4) 'Learn more about management techniques' and
- (5) 'Broaden attitude' responses were more on 'agree' and 'strongly agree' with only few managers being undecided.

This means that more than three quarters of the sampled managers felt that the above five development objectives are very important, while more than one half of them felt that the former three are important. As the above results have made clear the overall pattern of the managers' perception of development objectives, in summary the evidence reveals that managers regard the eight objectives as significant factors for development programmes. The relationships between these findings and the managers' personal (age, education, experience) and organisational data (rank, size, autonomy, feedback, etc.) characteristics are treated elsewhere in the study. See Chapter Six for the statistical analysis.

It is to be suggested also that whereas the managers will not be expected to possess an equal depth of knowledge and skills in every functional section of an organisation, they are however, expected to have reasonable knowledge and skills to perform their jobs. They are also expected to acquire more in their functional areas which specifically relate to their jobs.

The following statements were used to tap the managers' feelings of their knowledge on the theory of organisation, application of economic theory, motivation of people, union policies, financial management, implication of change and international marketing problems.

TABLE 5.14 Area of Knowledge

We think it would be helpful to know something about your present knowledge, skills and attitudes as a manager. Please rate yourself on each aspect below by circling the appropriate number closest to how you feel yourself.

<u>Statements</u>	<u>% Responses of the U.K. Managers N = (100)</u>				
	No Knowledge at all				Thorough Knowledge
	1	2	3	4	5
The theory of Organisation	-	10%	34%	41%	15%
Group behaviour	2%	14%	23%	50%	11%
Application of economic theory	7%	23%	35%	30%	5%
The implication of change	4%	12%	29%	48%	7%
Motivation of people	2%	6%	16%	53%	23%
Union policies	3%	25%	23%	33%	16%
Financial management	12%	13%	28%	28%	19%
Dealing with peers	7%	8%	18%	42%	25%
International marketing problems	35%	28%	22%	13%	2%

As revealed in Table 5.14 above, 15% of the sample rated their knowledge of 'theory of organisation' as thorough, 41% showed they have good knowledge, 34% indicated fair knowledge, whereas 10% rated themselves to have poor knowledge. No respondent admitted to have no knowledge at all. Perhaps a major reason for this is suggested by another response 'the implication of change' which indicates that managers are concerned with the application of organisational theory in their management practice. Interestingly only very few managers in the sample admitted to have no knowledge at all in the three other areas that followed - 2% for 'How people behave in groups', another 2% for 'Motivation of people' and 3% for 'Union policies'.

However, the responses on 'international marketing problems', 'financial management' and 'application of economic theory' showed very high percentages of 'no knowledge at all' in that order. Of the overall 'knowledge area' respondents showed very little knowledge for 'international marketing problems'. Only 2% of the sample indicated to have 'thorough knowledge', 13% for 'good knowledge', 22% for 'fair knowledge' and 28% for 'poor knowledge', the rest (35%) admitted to have no knowledge at all.

What this observation points out is that more than one half of the sample tended to have low priority for 'international marketing problems' even though that this is not a survey of marketing managers alone. One may ask whether this finding could imply to reflect on the general economic situation in the U.K. (unemployment, inflation, higher price rises, etc.) which is not usual with the U.K. economy in the past three or four decades. This may constitute a good area for further future investigation.

For example, the prices rise according to the EEC price index, February 1978, (See JPSM June, 1978) by countries, the figures were: the U.K. 9.5 per cent, France 9.2 per cent, Ireland 8.3 per cent, Belgium 5.4 per cent, Netherlands 4.6 per cent, Luxembourg 3.3 per cent, while Germany was 3.1 per cent.

These figures imply that international marketing knowledge is not to be left to marketing managers alone. Managers in other functional areas need to be aware of the 'implications of international marketing. This is so because particularly with a trading nation such as the U.K., managerial decisions (finance budgeting, stock and materials control, and labour) need to take account of international as well as local market conditions.

It is interesting to note that marketing research techniques are traditionally employed in the identification and analysis of market opportunities related to products and services which customers need whether for the home market or for export. These techniques (Chisnall 1977) should now be more widely used so that organisations - in both sectors of a mixed economy - develop sensitive antennae which will help them to be more responsive to the public. It could be argued that if managers fail to respond to the new market conditions and do not accept their enlarged responsibilities to customers (home or abroad) the force of competition will make itself felt - if it has not started to be felt.

Chisnall (1977) for example, has noted with concern "the successful infiltration of even British home motor-market by foreign competitors who, according to him, offered comprehensive conditions which appealed to motorists."

Whereas the influences on buying behaviour are often covert and complex, management should face the new challenges of their markets. Whereas customers may not always articulate their inhibitions and expectations it is the responsibility of management in general and marketing management in particular to develop what Ansoff (1969 described as 'wide-open windows of perception' on the business scene. The radical changes in international market which have taken place over the past few decades are but some of

the factors requiring managerial expertise. To-day, many factors affect the dynamic nature of the market situation both locally and internationally; inept trading practices, waste of scarce resources, insensitivity to new market demands, are but some of the manifestation of lack of international marketing knowledge.

Archer (1976) emphasised that the British architects, designers and engineers command commissions from all over the world; yet the collapse of sales of British products in market after market, industry after industry has been associated with the absence of adequately updated designs and models, which implies in essence lack of some international marketing problems. He asserted that "the situation must in part be blamed upon the professions and institutions from which the executives are drawn." The evidence from his study (Design as an Element in a New Approach to Britain's Industrial Future) suggests, however, that for historical reasons British society and in particular those sections of the society which provide managers, policy makers and opinion formers tend to be uncomprehending in matters of innovation and design. This is essentially connected with international marketing.

The evidence from the respondents about their 'knowledge of international marketing problems' as shown on Table 4.14 supports Professor Archers findings. When 'union policies' was considered, 33% admitted to have good knowledge. 16% rated themselves as having thorough knowledge, whereas 23% admitted to have fair knowledge, only 25% and 3% of the sample indicated poor knowledge and no knowledge at all respectively. This implies that more than 70% of the sampled managers have great concern for union matters, whereas more than this proportion showed such enthusiasm for international marketing problems.

Similarly for 'dealing with peers' and 'motivation of people' more than one half of the sample responded to have 'good' and 'thorough knowledge' - 76% for the latter and 67% for the former. The concern for 'union policies',

'dealing with peers' and 'motivation of people' imply the willingness of organisation executives to act as, what James S. Brown described "good corporate citizens, from their responsibility for labour relations as well as industry self-interest. Particularly the concern for 'union policies' tend to indicate that thoughtful managers do realise that the failure to deal with union issues would probably subject them to even greater labour relations confrontation with workers and perhaps possible government regulations in the future.

Managers were also asked about their problem solving abilities. They were asked to rate their skills on the following statement:

Rate your own competence on each of the activities below by circling the appropriate number. Table 4.15 summarises their responses.

TABLE 4.15 PROBLEM SOLVING AND SOCIAL SKILLS

<u>Statements</u>	<u>Response of the U.K. Managers N = (100)</u>				
	<u>(No Skills)</u> <u>V.Incompetent</u>	<u>Slightly</u> <u>Incompetent</u>	<u>Neither</u> <u>Comp/Incomp</u>	<u>Slight</u> <u>Competence</u>	<u>Comp.</u>
Developing Subordinates	3%	22%	46%	25%	1%
Predicting outcome of proposed organisation change	2%	5%	31%	48%	14%
Making decisions in conditions of uncertainty	2%	2%	21%	56%	19%
Using models in decision making	15%	33%	28%	20%	4%
Dealing with conflict between others	1%	1%	18%	50%	30%
Allowing for attitudes of others	-	6%	20%	41%	33%
Noting signs of stress in others	2%	3%	24%	47%	24%
Using systematic approach to deal with problems	7%	9%	32%	42%	10%

The readiness of managers to play their roles in problem solving and social skills deserve closer examination. Perhaps some of the findings reported in Table 5.13 can be explained in the light of respondents' view points about their

level of competences in dealing with organisational problems. Not unexpectedly less than thirty per cent of the sampled managers admitted to be competent in "using models in decision making". But for "Noting signs of stress in others" the reverse is the case. Only less than five per cent felt they were very or slightly incompetent. In all, more than one half of the managers admitted to have reasonable level of competence in all the statements dealing with social skills. The only exception being in 'Developing Subordinates' where less than one third regarded themselves as slightly competent and/or competent.

But for skills requiring the application and use of techniques such as 'Using models in decision making' and 'Using systematic Approach in dealing with problems' surprisingly the participants rated themselves very low. For the former only four per cent, admitted to have competent skill and only ten per cent for the latter. On the statement dealing with social skills, for example, 'allowing for attitudes of others' no manager felt he had no skill, and only one manager in the sample admitted to have no skill in 'dealing with conflict between others'.

Some Implications

The implication of the findings above tend to be that many managers in the sample have greater concern for man-management and human relations issues in their organisations. They tend to make less use of technically contrived, methodological, application of formulae in the solution of organisational problems. It is noteworthy that there is meaningful significant difference between the abilities or competences of managers in handling technical and social matters, as has been revealed in the table above. Despite the fact that the answers were varied, what is observed is that skills or competences in man-management emerged easily as having been acquired by the majority of the participants. This supports Leggatt's findings (The Training of British Managers, 1972) that every organisation in his study at that time identified skill in man-management as first priority.

This can perhaps be argued that in view of the critical condition of industrial relations in the U.K. it is believed that managers tend to consider the acquisition of such competences possibly as imperative. An alternative explanation could be the fact that competence in industrial relations is considered to refer only to a limited range of skills which are easily acquired.

However, with the complex nature of modern organisations the later explanation appears simplistic. A possible explanation could be that management and/or human relations are perhaps considered to be required by managers as a group (ie all managers) despite their occupational specialism, whereas technically oriented competences are required by few managers in specialist positions.

In spite of the above explanation one could suggest that the high percentage admission for social problem solving skills among the participants could be as a result of the nature of the jobs of the actual people who took part in the study. The findings, in short, may plausibly be due to managers being under personal pressure not to understate their individual skills or competences. Factors such as personal ego may perhaps entice the individual to give an impression that he is competent where he is not. But whereas managers are mature and reasonable individuals we have to regard their responses as genuine.

On the other hand as many managers who admitted that they have limited skills in 'using models in decision making' also admitted to have limited knowledge of 'international marketing problems' (see table above) one has to admit that their ratings, no matter how subjective tend to represent their feelings.

The above findings support the secondary hypotheses 8, 10 and 12. Hypothesis 8 states that 'the degree of competence with which managers deal with conflict between people is related to the degree of skills they have in

allowing for attitudes of others.' While hypothesis 10 states that "individuals whose knowledge of international marketing problems is limited, tend to be limited in the use of models in decision making." Statistical analysis of this observation is treated in Chapter 6. But for making decisions in conditions of uncertainty three quarters of the sampled managers rated their competences high.

Comparing the raw percentage scores in the above table, we have to conclude that most managers are more competent in man-management than in the use and application of highly structured managerial techniques, for example, decision models. This may imply that managers tend to pursue maximum efficiency through effective maintenance of man-management and union policies. Such approach tends to lean towards Hellár's statement (see Industry, Education and Management - A Discussion Paper July 1977). Heller maintains that organisations (companies) which make good products, pay good wages and treat people well at declining real cost per unit of production cannot go wrong. Managers who use the above management style tend to maintain achievement through the exercise of supportive role in people. This is what Blake & Mouton describe as managerial style with greater concern for people. As has been observed in the study the issue of not using models in decision making is not singular hence international marketing problems.

Observations concerning the above issues do not intend to show that managers take inappropriate decisions by not using 'model concept' or that a nation's economic recession could not be attributable to years of international mismarketing. Rather it points to areas as badly needing further and indepth researches. This is important especially to a nation whose economy is essentially based on export markets. Awareness of international market problems should therefore be the concern of managers as a group because such problems do affect their organisations' decision potential which tend to strengthen or weaken their competitive abilities in international markets. It is observed

therefore, that if managers de-emphasise involvement in marketing problems (particularly for a nation that deals much in export trade like the U.K.) policy making as a tool of corporate strategy becomes (Skinner, 1969) a liability and tends to affect manufacturing, labour and other decisions.

In effect, the connection is much more critical and much more sensitive. It is hoped that the U.K. managers (as a group) not only export or marketing managers, would be more aware that what appeared to be a routine organisational decision in marketing tend to limit certain (see Skinner: Manufacturing - Missing Link in Strategy) important options; binding its facilities, equipment, personnel and basic controls and policies to noncompetitive posture which may take some years to recoup.

In summary, some of the observations imply that in order to avoid recurrence of what (Noel Hall, 1966) described as the 'English Disease' (ie that marketing in the industrial sphere is the cancer left by some fifteen years of controls in large parts of the U.K. economic life up to 1954, followed by an overprotected and persistently inflationary home market) it appears that there is need for further studies concerning international marketing problems.

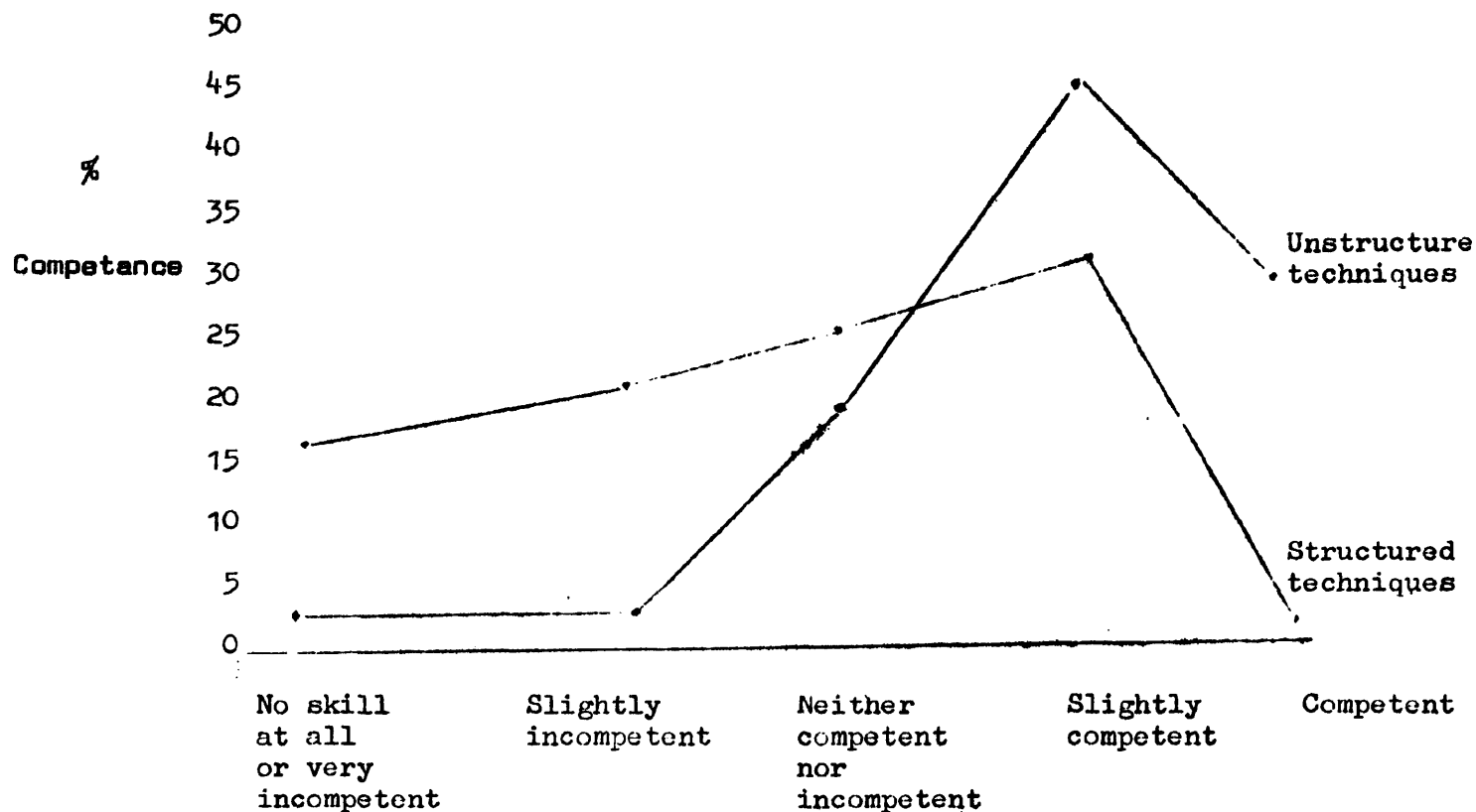
Conclusion

What emerged from the pattern of the results of the sampled managers (problem solving skills) is that most of the competences of the participants do not seem to relate to the application of structured techniques in the solution of organisational problems. When the skills are considered in terms of two broad categories ie the use and application of structured and unstructured techniques in problem solving, the notion is that more managers are less competent in the former than in the latter. Fig. 4p. 216. illustrates the average percentage of admitted skills and competences, of the managers. For purposes of illustration 'using models in decision making' and 'using systematic approach to deal with problems' represent the structured technique while

'allowing for attitudes of others' and 'dealing with conflict between others' represent the unstructured technique as used in the context of this analysis.

Figure 4

Average % Level of managerial problem solving competences in the application of structured and unstructured techniques.



The figure above shows that corporate practice in the use of models which I have described here as 'structured techniques' is not what it could be. This observation is in line with what (Stobaugh, 1972) observed that many company executives tend to use decision models and rules which reflect their own attitudes towards risks, rather than initiate structured or most appropriate techniques.

5.5 Attitudes and Patterns of Managerial Philosophy and Personal Factors

To understand their pattern of thinking and management attitudes towards certain management philosophies, they were asked to rate their level of agreement or disagreement on the statements shown below.

"Show how much you agree with each statement by circling the appropriate number."

TABLE 5.16 ATTITUDES AND OPINIONS

Statements	<u>Pattern of Response of the U.K. managers (N=100)</u>				
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
People are the least important factor in bringing about change	55%	24%	11%	8%	2%
The Social Scientist can make a valuable contribution to management	13%	24%	27%	34%	2%
There is usually one best way to solve managerial problems	27%	46%	14%	11%	2%
I like taking calculated risks in things I do at work	9%	19%	25%	45%	2%
I dislike changing my plans in the middle of doing something	9%	28%	22%	37%	4%

As shown above, most managers regard people as important factors in bringing about change in an organisation: a finding comparable to that of Leggatt (1972).

As would be expected more than (70%) of the sample have the opinion that there is no one 'panacea' best way to solve managerial problems. This supports the 'contingency approach' discussed earlier in the literature review. Whereas the managers tended to solve managerial problems in differing methods the responses also indicated that many managers felt uncertain about what contributions Social Scientists could make to management.

Opinions about risk taking showed that many respondents tended to take calculated risks in the things they do at work, whereas responses concerning changing one's plans in the middle of doing things opinions of the managers were varied.

Conclusions to be drawn are that:

Most of the U.K. managers in the sample like taking risks in the things they do at work. What this reveals is that the managers are invariably seeking rather (Sayles 1964) what is described as a "moving equilibrium"; where the parameters of the managerial system such as division of labour and control are evolving and changing. Those managers are in effect comparable to what Sayles referred to as "managers who can deal with uncertainties, deal with ambiguities and with 'battles' that are never won but only fought well."

They maintain the view that there is no one best way of solving managerial problems, (a view that has been widely documented) Lorsch (1970), Doney (1972) and Heller (1977).

They tend to dislike changing their plans in the middle of doing something, whereas they feel that people are most effective means in implementing change.

In spite of all these, most of the managers in the sample are uncertain about what social scientists can contribute towards management.

Managerial Work Experience, Span of Control, Size of Organisation and Job Mobility

The responses concerning the questionnaire items about the managers' working life experience and their work experience as managers are shown on Tables 5.17 and 5.18 below. Table 5.17 shows that most of the managers have between 21 and 40 years working life experience, whereas Table 5.18 indicates that many managers (48%) have less than 10 years experience as managers. The observation implies

TABLE 5.17 MANAGEMENT BACKGROUND. MANAGERS' LIFE WORK EXPERIENCE

Range (Years)	%
Below 20 years	37%
21 - 30 "	40%
31 - 40 "	21%
41 and over	2%
N = 100	
Mean = 24.3	
S.D. = 6.5	

that as would be expected more than one half of the sampled managers could have been promoted to managerial responsibility from the rank and file after working for many years in their respective organisations. The study of Clark (1965) supports this and Clements (1958) found similar pattern.

TABLE 5.18 MANAGEMENT BACKGROUND. MANAGERS' WORK EXPERIENCE AS MANAGERS

Range (Years)	%
Below 10	48%
11 - 15	23%
16 - 20	14%
21 - 25	7%
26 and over	8%
N = 100	
Mean = 14.2	
S.D. = 2.4	

The conclusion to be drawn is that for some years to come many U.K. organisations would tend to recruit their managers from among long serving employees.

Concerning work experience and its effects on the manager's management practice and/or development objectives perception the managers' responses were

thus put to statistical tests. The result of the test (Table 5.19) supports hypotheses which state that a manager's work experience is related to (1) the degree of freedom (ie independence) with which he goes about his job; (2) the managers job mobility; (3) the level of feedback from colleagues.

TABLE 5.19 Job Environment

<u>Variables</u>	<u>Manager</u>	<u>r.Value</u>	<u>Level of Sig.</u>	<u>Direction</u>
Significance of Development course attended	100	.23	.01	Older managers
Managerial job mobility	100	.41	.001	Younger manager
Level of feedback from peers	100	.22	.01	Younger manager
Cooperation from colleagues	100	.21	.05	Younger manager
Cooperation from bosses	100	.20	.05	Older managers
Independence, i.e. level of freedom in how one goes about his or her job	100	.17	.05	Older managers
Profitability (i.e. objective to increase profit)	100	.16	.05	Older managers

The criterion measure regarding work experience and independence of how one goes about his work was significant at .05 level as shown in the correlation table above. What this implies is that younger managers do depend on reference groups and/or tend to follow the pattern of an established procedure in how they go about their duties. But when the test was further related to (item 71) "exercise of personal initiative in what managers do at work" there was no significant difference between the older and the younger managers. What rather came out was that a negative (r value of .14) was rather approaching .07 (0694) level of significance. Whereas the older managers have more independence in how they go about their job, the younger managers tended to exercise slightly greater personal initiative in their jobs.

One possible explanation being that whereas the older managers occupy most of the line positions where independent actions are exercised (Lundgreen, (1976) the younger managers dominate the staff (i.e. specialist and advisory) positions.

In essence the specialist function cuts across departmental boundaries which as it is expected requires a greater amount of personal initiative on the part of the incumbent. But for experience and job mobility (much of which is discussed later in job immobility of experienced managers) the result is that of a negative relationship. Younger or inexperienced managers tend to change jobs more than would the experienced managers. As also would be discussed later, part of the explanation is that their educational backgrounds tend to give them greater 'mobility advantage' over the experienced manager.

Concerning the managers' experience and the development objective "to increase a firms profitability" the relationship shows that the more experienced a manager is the less he sees 'profitability' (Table 5.19) a central factor for development motivation. This result suggests that the perception of experienced managers in the sample supports the view expressed by Roger (1976) that profit motive - a good enough motivation in the old days - is now somehow anti-social.

The observation implies that profit-making motive is obviously as much a part of the business function as producing goods or services or distributing them, but in present day business conditions, the relationship of profit to the total business operation has considerably altered and no longer dominates business thinking.

Span of Control and Size of Organisation

Whereas Table 5.20 describes the number of subordinates directly under the control of each manager, Table 1.18 describes the managers' size of organisation. Table 5.20 shows that more than one half of the managers have less than 15 subordinates directly under them. With this one half, many managers have between 1 and 5 subordinates under their control which corresponds with the span of control envisaged by Urwick (1947). Urwick in his structure of organisation maintained that the span of control of any manager should not

TABLE 5.20 MANAGEMENT BACKGROUND. SPAN OF CONTROL

<u>Number of Subordinates</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
1 - 5	26%
6 - 10	14%
11 - 15	15%
16 - 20	12%
21 - 50	12%
51 - 100	9%
101 and over	12%
N = (100)	
Mean = 29	
S.D. = 9.7	

exceed more than five, or at most six subordinates whose work interlock. He stated that this is because the manager has to supervise not merely individual subordinates but the numerous interrelationships between them. Also he was of the opinion that the maximum feasible span of control determines how far specialization can go by the addition of subordinates and may set a limit to delegation.

The results of the responses support hypothesis (13) which asserts that the number of subordinates under a manager is in positive association with the size of the organisation. But while (26%) of the managers in the sample adopt and apply the span of control limit recommended by Urwick many more managers have 51 subordinates or more.

What this observation implies is that span of control of subordinates in an organisation is a function of organisational size and the operating systems. Organisational operating system as used in this context refers to whether an organisation operates on:

(A) A unit basis (i.e. without local, provincial, national or international branches) where Branch official takes no directives from a head office and/or where communication system is restrictive.

(B) Unit with branches basis (i.e. where an organisation has a chain of branches either on local or provincial basis) where a head office manager can have direct control of more than 50 branch officials to whom he can delegate. The U.K. banking organisation illustrates this phenomenon of 'branch system' as contrasted with the U.S.A. 'Unit system'.

Concerning respondents' size of organisation the Table 1.18 shows that (40%) of the managers belong to organisations employing between 1,000 and over 10,000 workers. This means that the study carefully avoided the inclusion of very large multi-national organisations. Rather organisations with provincial and local branches were included. The inclusion of such organisations of over 10,000 employees and/or with many branches could be part of the explanation for the participants' span of control exceeding the (1-5) employees Table 5.20 as anticipated by Urwick. Whilst the span of control (Urwick) cannot exceed six or eight subordinates, we have to appreciate that the span of managerial responsibility (Roger 1976) is determined by the extent to which assistance is needed and perhaps the extent of managerial operation.

TABLE 5.21 MANAGEMENT BACKGROUND. SIZE OF ORGANISATION

<u>Range (Number of Workers)</u>	<u>Responses</u>
10 - 49	11%
50 - 99	8%
100 - 499	23%
500 - 999	18%
1,000 - 9,999	24%
10,000 and over	16%
	N = (100)
	Mean = 3140
	S.D. = 550

Span of control can therefore only be set by a study of the concrete situation. Unlike the span of control envisaged in a shopfloor situation, the span of managerial responsibility broadens as we move upwards in the organisational hierarchy. In essence, "the span of managerial responsibility" Drucker (1974) is wider than the span of control in the ordinary sense. However where good practice would counsel against stretching the span of control, "a manager should always have responsibility for a few more men than he can really take care of. Otherwise (see Drucker) the temptation is to supervise them, that is, to take over their jobs or at least, to breathe down their necks."

Control as used in the context of the study should be seen in the light of management techniques and systems developed to provide a flow of management information and need no longer be a compound of hunch and/or standing behind the subordinate. As has been observed in the above tables 5.20 and 5.21 span of control and size of organisation are straight forward organisational matter. The dynamics of the two tend to envisage delegation of responsibility - a question of management trust and expediency.

When an organisation grows in size (as is the case with organisations operating Unit with branch systems) a point may be reached when it can be far more effectively managed and controlled by regrouping the functions so as to give "local" that is branch managers greater responsibility which will reduce the head office's span of control to a meaningful proportion.

Managerial Job Mobility

The pattern of managerial job mobility as revealed in Table (5.22) tends to be in accord with what Merton and Kitt (1952) described as the 'locals' as differentiated from the 'cosmopolitans'. More than one half the sampled managers have been in one organisation since their working life. In effect, the manager who has been in one organisation all his life (company man) is one who is regarded as having totally committed his career aspirations to his

employing company and as having indicated he wishes to remain with it indefinitely.

TABLE 5.22 MANAGEMENT BACKGROUND. JOB MOBILITY

<u>Number of Organisations</u>	<u>Responses</u>
This organisation	53%
Under 5 organisations	40%
5 organisations and over	7%
	N = (100)

The result here suggests that many of the sampled managers who tend to be the 'locals' (i.e. 53%) tend to have high level of loyalty to the employing organisation. They are in essence not prepared to seek for jobs elsewhere. The above findings support the research hypotheses 3 and 14.

Hypothesis 3 states that managers whose educational backgrounds are low tend to maintain high employer loyalty than managers whose educational backgrounds are high. As more than (50%) of the sampled managers have not changed employment during their working life; and as managers' educational and skills requirements continue to be higher and more demanding over time the implication is that lack of higher educational achievement is tied up with the inability to change job.

The result of the statistical analysis carried out to test hypothesis (14) supports the assumption that managerial job immobility is in direct association with the managers work experience. Pearson's correlation coefficient ($r=.48$) between job experience and job immobility (no. of organisations worked as a manager) was significant at .001 level whereas the result between highest educational qualification and job mobility ($r=-.21$) was negatively correlated at .01 level of significance (Table 5.23).

Action Society Trust (1951), Clements (1958) and Clark (1968) in their studies had similar results. These studies indicated that the U.K. managers had been less mobile than the average. Action Society Trust (P.151) states that top managers have not had marked experience outside (i.e. outside their own organisation), and even outside their own line of work.

These studies equally showed clearly that some two-fifths of the managers and directors studied had spent all their working life in one firm. They also observed that where changes had been made between the managers and firms these tended to take place quite early in the man's career (generally before he had assumed much managerial responsibility). This pattern of what could be termed 'modest mobility' among the U.K. managers appears to be fairly characteristic of the situation prevailing in the U.S.A. (Wright Mills, 1955; Mabel Newcomer, 1955) in the 50's.

The implication of the results so far discussed is that the majority of the U.K. managers can draw only from a limited range of experience which immobility entails. Unlike say Germany or France, Ajuogu (1976), where a manager can easily move from an industry to a government department or vice versa and/or from one kind of organisation to another, these results do not demonstrate such characteristics for the U.K. sampled managers.

It could be argued that managerial job immobility accounts, in part, for the high demand for development programmes (Table 5.12) of very short duration for experienced managers who are likely to move into higher management positions. This observation is demonstrated by three-quarters of the sampled managers (Table 5.12) showing the willingness to participate in development programmes which are ideally under four weeks duration as contrasted with only 4% of the managers willing to participate in programmes of about three months duration or more. How effective development programmes of extremely short duration for people with limited educational background remains to be seen.

Considering the results of this section of the study and related studies before it, all in all, one could conclude that inasmuch as a great majority of the U.K. managers have limited experience outside their own organisations, managerial job immobility would continue to remain with managerial workforce for some time to come. Whereas long experience is the hallmark of most careers in organisations, and those of managers are rarely exceptions to the rule (Mills 1955) further research is needed not only for the causation but for the effects of managerial job mobility. Also further investigation is needed as to what are the effects of development courses of extremely short duration e.g. four days, have (for managers with limited educational background and who have remained in one job all their lives) in management practice and/or how can such courses avoid the perpetuation of managerial mediocrity?

Having observed the hallmark of most careers in organisations and those of the sampled managers, it could also be argued that the managers' job satisfaction appears to be very important in job immobility and employers loyalty. This observation tends to be consistent with the 'Theory of work adjustment' proposed by Dawis, Lofquist, and Weiss (1968) which holds that job retention (otherwise job immobility) is the result of mutual satisfaction between the worker and his organisation.

What is implied is that organisations seek to retain the satisfactory workers whose abilities fulfil the organisations' needs. At the same time it is viewed also that workers seek to remain in the organisations that fulfil their needs too. However the important and of course an unresolved issue is whether managerial job immobility or employer loyalty among the U.K. managers is a self imposed selection process, determined by the managers' inability to adjust to demand conditions outside their own organisations is yet to be explained. This needs further and closer future research.

If self-imposed selection process (inability to adjust to new demands) outside own organisation is the case here which of course is not, then it would appear to be unproductive to insist on changing the manager's management styles and practice, whereas the managers may tend to have limited experience to draw from.

In spite of the wisdom of job involvement which employer loyalty creates (see Lodahl and Kejner (1965), and Lawler and Hall (1970) who defined job involvement as "the degree of psychological identification with ones job", investigations as to what factors most influence the existing pattern of employer loyalty together with their effects on managerial practice require thorough further investigation.

Having discussed managerial work experience, span of control, size of organisation and job mobility in the context in which they are used in the research, we have to discuss by pooling together the managers' perceptions of development objectives in relation to work experience, sex, and their job characteristics.

5.6 Perceptions of Development Objectives, Work Experience, Sex and Job Demands

In discussing the research hypotheses, pertinent findings for each table described in the section will be taken in turn.

Hypotheses 3, 7 and 2.

Mean levels of managers' perceptions of development objectives for different objective categories (see Appendix C Table 1) and the correlation matrix (Table 5.23) support the assumptions that managers with low educational background tend to maintain higher employer loyalty than managers with higher level of educational background, and that more and less experienced managers (Table 5.24) perceive differently about what development objectives should be.

The correlation matrix, however, does not support hypothesis 2 since pearson's correlation coefficients which associate development objectives with highest educational qualifications are not statistically significant at the .05 level except in "to broaden attitude objective". Consequently the assumption that differences in perception are the direct results of the differences in managerial orientation due to differences in educational background is not upheld. Rather, differences are due to the interplay of a number of other personal factors such as job experience and job demands e.g. level of "feedback", (Table 5.23), Status (Table 5.28).

Hypothesis 11

The assumption that the degree of competence in handling social problems in an organisation is associated with the objective (i.e. development motive) to learn improved method of handling problems is not supported by our results. The mean reports of the above development objective (4.20) and (3.40) of the managerial competence in using systematic approach in handling social problems in organisations showed the absence of statistical significance of .05 level as indicated in inter-correlational matrix (Table 5.23). Pearson's coefficient correlation of (0.01) failed to reach statistical significance. A further t-test analysis produced no statistical significance either.

TABLE 5.23 : Inter-correlation among the variables as perceived by the U.K. managers

	3	4	5	8	15	6	12	11	14	16	19	22	24	25	23	26	27	28	29	52	51	60	70	38	35	20
3	-																									
4	-.12	-																								
5	.08	.07	-																							
8	.19*	.10	.16*	-																						
15	.08	.04	.21**	.08	-																					
6	.03	.09	.06	.06	.05	-																				
12	.07	.11	.44***	.01	.37***	.07	-																			
11	.39***	.16	.04	.02	.03	.43***	.06	-																		
14	.49***	.16	.09	.40***	.49***	.21**	.04	.20	-																	
16	.42***	.16*	.04	.17*	.03	.04	.03	.14	.60***	-																
19	.01	.01	.09	.18	.04	.01	.08	.07	.02	.18*	-															
22	.20*	.09	.14	.06	.13	.12	.10	.20	.17*	.10	.12	-														
24	.03	.01	.10	.06	.10	.09	.01	.03	.14	.12	.11	.04	-													
25	-.13*	.02	.16	.06	.13	.15	.05	.19	.12	.11	.21**	.10	.12	-												
23	.01	.08	.18*	.16*	.15	.05	.12	.01	.21**	.38***	.17*	.05	.05	.06	-											
26	.06	.02	.13	.01	.14	.01	.06	.07	.13	.03	.14	.14	.18*	.48***	.13	-										
27	.22**	.06	.13	.17*	.12	.09	.28**	.06	.16*	.09	.19*	.16*	.04	.11	.02	.22**	-									
28	.01	.16*	.15	.07	.13	.06	.02	.08	.18*	.09	.02	.05	.22**	.06	.11	.11	.34***	-								
29	.02	.06	.13	.03	.10	.03	.08	.09	.03	.04	.14	.10	.18*	.02	.04	.29**	.23**	.35***	-							
52	-.10	.19*	.10	.03	.09	.02	.17*	.09	.06	.06	.04	.03	.01	.02	.15*	.01	.04	.07	.01	-						
51	.07	.06	.09	.07	.03	.01	.09	.18*	.02	.27**	.09	.20**	.11	.19*	.26**	.33***	.23*	.04	.14	.03	-					
60	.09	.35***	.19*	.11*	.11	.01	.06	.06	.11	.04	.01	.16*	.01	.06	.12	.06	.09	.02	.10	.13	.03	-				
70	.11	.02	.07	.13	.08	.39***	.02	.08	.27**	.16*	.02	.09	.18*	.34***	.20**	.16*	.06	.04	.03	.04	.13	.20*	-			
38	.03	.09	.16*	.11	.04	.37***	.40***	.02	.07	.11	.12	.23**	.11	.09	.01	.16*	.18*	.08	.03	.22**	.04	.04	.22**	-		
35	.03	.05	.08	.12	.04	.10	.04	.12	.06	.18*	.24**	.02	.06	.34***	.06	.01	.18*	.03	.01	.14	.29**	.19*	.06	.09	-	
20	.19*	.08	.04	.39***	.08	.04	.01	.11	.09	.23**	.02	.17*	.11	.03	.32	.11	.01	.05	.03	.01	.10	.02	.11	.18*	.03	-

* Significant at .05 or better. ** Significant at .01 or better. *** Significant at .001 or better.

Inter-correlational Variables

- 3 = Age
- 4 = Age completed full-time education
- 5 = Highest Educational Qualification
- 8 = Sex
- 15 = Mobility (No. of Organisations worked as manager)
- 6 = Highest Vocational Qualification
- 12 = Would you have done without your degree?
- 11 = Would you have done without your Highest Voc. Qualification?
- 14 = Work Experience as Manager
- 16 = Maximum Length of Time Worked as Manager
- 19 = Organisation's Size
- 22 = Development expectation for a new job
- 24 = Development objective to get better academic knowledge
- 25 = To broaden one's attitude
- 26 = To learn improved method of handling problem
- 23 = To learn modern management techniques
- 27 = To increase managerial confidence
- 28 = To increase profitability
- 29 = To gain deeper insight into problems of organisation
- 52 = Attitudes of changing plans at the middle of something
- 51 = Risk-taking at work
- 60 = Autonomy about how one goes about his job
- 70 = Level of feedback at work
- 38 = Knowledge of international marketing problems
- 35 = Knowledge of union policies
- 20 = Rank (Position of power in the organisational hierarchy).

TABLE 5.24 The Relationships Between British Managers' Working Experience and Perception of Development Objectives and Other Variables.

<u>Variable Names</u>	<u>Older Managers</u>		<u>Younger Managers</u>		<u>Level of Significance</u>		<u>Direction of Relationship</u>
	<u>Means</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Means</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>F. Ratio</u>	<u>Significance</u>	
Development Scheme	4.91	0.83	4.80	1.90	2.90	.001	Younger manager view schemes more.
To prepare for a new job	3.48	1.12	3.68	1.39	1.55	.172	Not significant.
Learn more management techniques	4.17	0.64	4.41	1.09	2.97	.001	Older managers show greater concern for more management techniques.
Relevant academic discipline	3.44	1.10	3.82	1.29	1.40	.289	Not significant.
Broaden Attitude	4.28	0.67	4.45	0.91	1.67	.050	Older managers showed more concern for broaden attitude.
Improved methods of handling problems	4.23	0.61	4.18	1.00	2.77	.001	Younger managers show greater concern for methods.
Increase managerial confidence	4.16	0.07	4.45	0.96	1.75	.400	Not significant.
Increase profitability	4.00	0.90	3.77	1.51	2.79	.001	Younger managers show more concern for profitability.
Gain deep insight into Org. problems	4.16	0.60	4.41	0.95	2.49	.004	Older managers regard to gain insight into problems more.

Two tail

Hypothesis 5

Evidence for the expectation that the managers' preference to attend development course is in positive association with their managerial work experience is supported by the presence of statistical significance of .001 level (Table 5.24). Interestingly and as would be expected this was negatively correlated, being that the more inexperienced the managers, the more their concern to attend management development programmes.

Work Experience as a Function of Development Need

Hypothesis 3

The general pattern of the managers' development objectives in relation to their working life experience (as shown in Table 5.26) support the expectation that experienced managers tend to have different development objectives from the inexperienced managers. Of the development Objectives variables used to test this hypothesis, five out of the eight variables reached (.05 or more) significant levels. However, the test analysis above provides no evidence that the hypothesised relationship exists in the following development objectives which failed to reach the .05 significant level:

- (1) To increase managerial confidence
- (2) To get better relevant academic discipline, and
- (3) To prepare for a new job.

Hypotheses 6, 10

Hypothesis 6 predicted a direct relationship between sex and managers' work experience, whereas hypothesis 10 stated that managers' highest educational qualification is in positive association with the managers' sex. The expectations of the above hypotheses were supported by the results of the findings (Table 5.23). Pearson's correlation coefficient ($r = .40$) in the intercorrelational matrix which supports hypothesis 6 was significant at .001

level, whereas sex with highest educational qualification was significant at .05 level ($r = .16$).

For hypothesis 9 which stated that managerial knowledge is in positive association with the managers' sex (i.e. male managers tend to be more knowledgeable than their female counterparts) was not supported in spite of slight mean and standard deviation response differences. The t-test analysis shown below indicates that the relationship does not exist (Table 5.25).

TABLE 5.25 The Relationship Between the U.K. Managers' Sex and Managerial Knowledge

<u>Knowledge Variables</u>	<u>Male N=83</u>		<u>Female N=17</u>		<u>F. Ratio</u>	<u>Level of Significance</u>
	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>		
30 The Theory of Organisation	3.60	.85	3.68	0.94	1.23	.53
31 Group Behaviour	3.56	.94	3.43	0.94	1.05	.82
32 Application of Economic Theory	3.09	.97	2.68	1.19	1.52	.23
33 The Implication of Change	3.39	.96	3.56	0.81	1.40	.47
34 Motivation of People	3.89	.89	3.87	0.95	1.14	.67
35 Union Policies	3.45	1.06	2.81	1.22	1.32	.41
36 Financial Management	3.33	1.23	3.00	1.41	1.32	.42
37 Dealing with Peers	3.77	1.10	3.37	1.31	1.40	.33
38 International Marketing Problems	2.20	1.15	2.12	0.95	1.46	.41

Note: not significant even at .05 level, two tail

Neither the coefficient of correlation (see the inter-correlational matrix Table 5.23) nor the t-test applied provided convincing evidence that the relationship between the managers' sex and managerial knowledge is not the result of chance. A plausible explanation could be that whereas the female managers in the sample tend to be better qualified than their male counterparts (60% of women and 15% of male managers indicated to have obtained degrees) male managers have many more years of work experience as managers than their female counterparts.

The results imply that the long established experience of the male managers tends to be balanced off by the 'knowledgeable inexperienced' female managers' enhanced educational qualifications. But when the effect of work experience is related to the knowledge of 'Organisation theory' (variable 30) the tendency is that the younger managers averaged slightly higher. The mean difference of (0.06) between managers with above 20 and below 20 years of experience was significant at .079 level (see Table 5.26 below). Whereas there are marked mean differences between the old serving managers and less experienced managers in the 'Application of Economic theory' (mean difference = 0.49) and 'international marketing problem knowledge' (mean difference = 0.27) none of the above approached the .05 significant level (Table 5.26).

TABLE 5.26 The Relationship Between the U.K. Managers' Experience and Managerial Knowledge

<u>Knowledge Variables</u>	<u>Below 20 yrs</u> (N = 77)		<u>Above 20 yrs</u> (N = 23)		<u>F.Ratio</u>	<u>Level of Significance</u>
	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>		
The Theory of Organisation	3.61	.79	3.54	1.05	1.76	.07
Group Behaviour	3.49	.92	3.72	.98	1.13	.67
Application of Economic Theory	3.12	.99	2.63	1.00	1.02	.89
The Implication of Change	3.38	.96	3.50	.85	1.25	.57
Motivation of People	3.89	.91	3.86	.88	1.05	.93
Union Policies	3.25	1.12	3.54	1.01	1.25	.58
Financial Management	3.33	1.22	3.04	1.36	1.25	.48
Dealing with Peers	3.64	1.18	3.95	.89	1.75	.14
International Marketing Problems	2.23	1.09	1.95	1.13	1.06	.81

Hypothesis 8

The expectation that managers' development objectives are directly influenced by their status in the organisation (i.e. line managers tend to have different development objectives from staff managers) was supported by statistically significant difference between mean development objectives as

reported by staff and line managers (vars: 23, 25, 26 and 29) (Table 5.27).

TABLE 5.27 Means and Mean Differences of Development Objective Perception of the U.K. Line and Staff Managers

<u>Development Objectives</u>	<u>Line Managers</u> (N = 46)	<u>Staff Managers</u> (N = 54)	<u>Mean Difference</u>
23 To learn more modern management techniques	4.08	4.33	0.25 *
25 Broaden attitude	4.23	4.40	0.16 *
26 Learn Improved Method of Handling Problems	4.19	4.25	0.06 ***
29 Gain deep insight into Organisation Problems	4.19	4.24	0.04 *

* Significant at .05 level or better

** Significant at .01

*** Significant at .001

Two tail

When the above objectives (23, 26 and 29) were further analysed alongside other (D/O) Development Objectives (Table 5.28) the same significant levels were achieved. Though the analysis provides no evidence that the hypothesized difference in perception exists with every development objective measures used as shown below. What this leads to is that differences in the perception of development objectives are due to the inter-action of the individual manager's personal and organisational factors.

TABLE 5.28 The Relationship Between Status and Development Objectives as perceived by the U.K. Managers

<u>Development Objective</u> <u>Variable Names</u>	<u>Line Managers</u> (N = 46)		<u>Staff Managers</u> (N = 54)		<u>F.Ratio</u> <u>Value</u>	<u>Level of</u> <u>Significance</u>
	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>		
To prepare for a new job	3.23	1.19	3.77	1.11	1.16	.60
Learn more modern management techniques	4.08	.62	4.33	.84	1.83	.04 *
Get relevant academic discipline	3.34	1.14	3.70	1.14	1.01	.98
Broaden attitude	4.23	.60	4.07	.81	1.82	.04 *
Improve methods of handling problems	4.19	.50	4.25	.85	2.90	.001*
Increase managerial confidence	4.17	.70	4.27	.85	1.46	.19
Increase profitability	3.95	1.03	3.96	1.09	1.13	.67
Gain deep insight into organisation problems	4.19	.58	4.24	.79	1.89	.03 *

Job Factors

The questionnaire (Appendix B), also contained a description of the general nature and scope of the manager's job. Hackman and Lawler (1971), for instance, feel that the task attributes of a job (variety, autonomy, task identity and feedback) must be understood in order that the job conditions be known and as to what extent they influence or moderate the incumbent's needs in the sense to motivate him to react (either positively or negatively) to a situation.

The manager's job would seem to have all four or most of these task attributes mentioned above. This is so because his job context (Waver, 1977) tends to have more variety than the regular assembly line job where a person constantly repeats a very limited number of operations. More autonomy is also envisaged to exert influence, since workers (Hackman & Lawler) may decide how they want to do their jobs. For a number of years, (Argyris, 1965; Davis and Werling, 1960; Vroom, 1964), positive relationship between work autonomy and job context and/or job satisfaction has been documented. The typical worker is therefore thought to be invariably motivated for example when his or her relationship to the job process is characterised by greater self-regulation, particularly where personal initiative is required.

Whereas explanation has been proposed in a variety of different contexts, such as through greater prestige, more control over work and greater ego gratification from the challenge and variety of work (Khan 1972). Feedback is also important in as much as managers are expected to see to the effective management control of their individual functional as well as organisational units.

To determine if job context tends to be the moderator of the relationship between perception of development objectives or needs the correlation matrix was also applied to the results of the dynamics of the manager's job context.

In the sample concerning job routine (i.e. the general nature and scope of the manager's job demands, whether or not they influence the manager's development objectives, important relationships were evident between job characteristics and development objectives. In the sample characterised by greater risk variability in task demand (item 51) correlation between responses and risk variability indices were significant at (.05 level or better for the development objectives shown below.

TABLE 5.29 Relationship between the managers' job context and their perception of development objectives

<u>Development Objectives</u>	<u>Pearson's Value</u>	<u>Significant Level</u>
(22) To prepare for a new job	.20	.05
(26) Learn improved method of handling problems	.33	.001
(23) Learn more management techniques	.26	.01
(25) To broaden attitude	.19	.05

Whereas the development objective 'to broaden attitude' on the other hand correlated significantly with:

- (60) Autonomy .001 i.e. the extent to which a task permits a manager to decide on how to go about his work.
- (68) Working alone .05 The extent the job can be done by one working alone.
- (62) Peer Cooperation .05 How much cooperation one gets from other managers at work.
- (70) Feedback from peers .01 Extent to which co-managers give a person any feedback about how well he or she is doing the job.
- (61) For job variety i.e. How much variety and/or the extent managers do many different things at work, this was negatively correlated at .05 significant level with a weak correlation (r value = 0.15). Other development objective variables showed no significant relationships with variability in job demands, (see intercorrelational matrix among the primary variables in Table 5.23.

The data shown on (Table 5.23) would appear to lead to the following conclusions:

- (a) (Items 22, 26, 23 and 25) of development objective factors indicate that the U.K. managers who take calculated risks in the things they do at work (item 51) show greater concern for development objectives which enable them (item 26) to learn improved methods of handling problems and for programmes which encourage them to learn more management techniques (item 23). They also display interest in developments which give them the scope for (item 22) a new job as well as schemes that broaden (item 25) their managerial attitudes.
- (b) (Items 24, 27, 28 and 29) the extent to which managers increase their managerial confidence, increase profitability, obtain relevant knowledge of academic discipline and gain deeper insight into problems of organisation do not appear to be significantly related to the ability of managers in 'risk taking' in what they do at work.
- (c) (Item 25) indicated that the extent to which a manager displays certain level of autonomy (item 60), works alone (item 68), obtains peer co-operation and receives feedback is in positive association with his desire to broaden his managerial attitude.
- (d) Managers whose job dynamics stress greater task variety (Item 61) are negatively associated with "to broaden attitude" development motivation, than those whose job dynamics are rather more of a routine.

C H A P T E R S I X

CHAPTER 6

6.0 COMPARISON OF THE TWO SAMPLES - U.K. AND NIGERIA**6.1 Personal, Organisational and Demographic Variables**

Table 6.1 shows the distribution of personal and organisational factors of the U.K. sample and the Nigerian sample.

Function

Morris (1977), defined job function as what the individual considers his normal occupation is in an organisation. This definition lacks objective interpretation, and is inadequate for our purpose. Rather we have to adopt (Drucker, 1954) the guideline that the job assigned to an individual should constitute a distinct phase of the work process - a phase that enables him to see a distinct result from his work. The distribution of sample (both groups) only represents major broad categories of managerial job functions. In both groups General, Personnel/Administration and Training, and, of course, finance managers were well represented, constituting more than one half of the population. Whereas Marketing/Purchasing, Production including Research and Development were smaller.

What this observation may imply is that a manager's function is one of the factors that determines his accessibility or lack of it by social science investigators. However, we have no evidence to suggest that such a manager would not respond positively to investigations directly connected with his specific occupational interest as opposed to, perhaps, general ones.

TABLE 6.1 Summary Distribution of Personal and Career Demographies of
Sample Population

	U.K. (N=100)	Nigeria (N=88)	Combined
<u>FUNCTION:</u>			
General Management	24	27 (30.7%)	51 27%
Finance	16	12 (13.6%)	28 14.8%
Personnel/Adm. & Training	27	17 (19.3%)	44 23.4%
Marketing and Purchasing	14	9 (9.2%)	23 12.1%
Production	9	8 (9.0%)	17 9.0%
Research and Development	6	6 (6.8%)	12 6.3%
Public Relations	4	10 (11.4%)	14 7.4%
	<u>100</u>	<u>88</u> (100%)	<u>188</u> 100%
<u>AGE</u>			
Up to 29	12	6 (6.8%)	18 9.5%
30 - 39	33	33 (37.5%)	66 35.0%
40 - 49	27	36 (40.9%)	63 33.5%
50 and over	28	13 (14.8%)	41 22.0%
	<u>100</u>	<u>88</u> (100%)	<u>188</u> 100%
<u>SEX</u>			
Male	83	80 (91%)	163 86.7%
Female	17	8 (9.0%)	25 13.3%
	<u>100</u>	<u>88</u> (100%)	<u>188</u> 100%
<u>STATUS</u>			
Line Managers	46	54 (61%)	100 53%
Staff Managers	54	34 (39%)	88 47.0%
	<u>100</u>	<u>88</u> (100%)	<u>188</u> 100%
<u>RANK:</u> (Managerial level)			
Top	24	31 (35%)	55 29.3%
Middle	53	40 (45%)	93 49.5%
Below Middle	21	13 (15%)	34 18.0%
No decision making	2	4 (5%)	6 3.2%
	<u>100</u>	<u>88</u> (100%)	<u>188</u> 100%

TABLE 6.1 (Continued)

	U.K. (N=100)	Nigeria (N=88)	Combined	
<u>WORK EXPERIENCE AS MANAGERS</u>				
Below 10 years	48	42 (47.7%)	90 47.8%	
11 - 15	23	30 (31.1%)	53 28.2%	
16 - 20	14	7 (8.0%)	21 11.2%	
21 - 25	7	6 (6.8%)	13 7.0%	
26 and over	8	3 (3.4%)	11 5.8%	
	<u>100</u>	<u>88</u> (100%)	<u>188</u> 100%	
<u>HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS</u>				
Below G.C.E. 'O' level	5	12 (13.5%)	17 9.0%	
'O' level or equivalent	41	18 (20.5%)	59 31.4%	
'A' level G.C.E.	25	6 (8.0%)	31 16.5%	
Diplomas	6	16 (18.2%)	22 11.7%	
Degrees	23	36 (39.8%)	59 31.4%	
	<u>100</u>	<u>88</u> (100%)	<u>188</u> 100%	
<u>HIGHEST VOCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS</u>				
No vocational qualifications	16	15 (18.0%)	31 16.5%	
Professional qualification but no membership	19	53 (59%)	72 38.3%	
Membership of Professional bodies	64	20 (22%)	84 44.7%	
No Response	1	NIL (1%)	1 0.5%	
	<u>100</u>	<u>88</u> (100%)	<u>188</u> 100%	
<u>MANAGERIAL JOB MOBILITY</u>				
This organisation	53	36 (41%)	89 47.3%	
More than one organisation	47	52 (59%)	99 52.7%	
	<u>100</u>	<u>88</u> (100%)	<u>188</u> 100%	
<u>SIZE OF ORGANISATION</u>				
Under 500 workers	38	23 (26.5%)	61 32.4%	
500 but under 10,000	53	56 (63%)	109 58.0%	
10,000 and over	9	9 (10.5%)	18 9.6%	
	<u>100</u>	<u>88</u> (100%)	<u>188</u> 100%	

It was also observed that whereas most of the U.K. female managers were in specialist (i.e. staff) positions, and were more or less of middle and below middle management ranks; more than one half of their Nigerian female executives were in line management and were at the top of the management hierarchy.

Concerning length of service, the mean work experience of the samples was 4.8 years (S.D. = 1.60). The median was 3.2 years. There was a large proportion of managers (U.K. & Nigeria) who had worked for only one organisation. Among those that had worked in more than one organisation were the staff managers. They were relatively better qualified and were also seeking for more responsibilities.

Statistical tests were carried out elsewhere in the study, (see for example, the results of table 6.2⁰).

Some Important Objectives

For the sampled managers, means and standard deviations of their psychological states of perception of development objectives are presented in Table 6.1. Levels of perceived knowledge, skills, competences and job dimensions (i.e. the scope and general nature of the managers' jobs) are presented in Tables 6.3, 6.4 and 6.5 respectively.

TABLE 6.2(A) Variable means and standard deviations. Perception of development objectives

<u>Variable Items</u>	<u>U.K. (N=100)</u>		<u>Nigeria(N=88)</u>		<u>Mean Difference</u>
	<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	
To prepare for a new job	3.53	1.18	3.10	1.19	0.43+
Learn more about modern management technique	4.22	0.80	4.14	0.68	0.08+
Get a better knowledge of relevant academic discipline	3.54	1.20	4.08	0.70	0.54-
Broaden attitude	4.33	0.73	4.09	0.70	0.24+
Learn improved methods of handling social problems	4.22	0.78	4.13	0.69	0.09+
Increase managerial confidence	4.23	0.71	4.22	0.69	0.01+
Increase profitability	3.97	1.06	3.89	0.98	0.08+
Gain deeper insight into problems of organisation	4.22	0.71	4.13	0.78	0.09+

NOTE: The mean scores relate to a five point scale. High score is considered important development objective whereas low score is considered less important. A score of (4.0) and over is considered high and a score of less than 2.5 is considered low.

As shown in (Table 6.2(A)), eight different development objectives statements were used to ascertain the managers' view-points on what development objectives should be. A measurement of the importance of the eight objective statements for the U.K. and the Nigerian managers, was obtained by comparing the means of the two samples.

Respondents were asked to rate their feelings about what they expect from development-related objectives on a five point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The table above shows the average importance scores on each development objective of the two groups.

Age, work experience, job mobility and size of organisation

Concerning the respondents' age, it is interesting to observe that most of the managers in the study were less than 50 years of age and reflects on the size of most organisations investigated in both countries. It implied that the age of the managers were in direct relationship with the size of their organisations. Older managers were more in large organisations implying that most managers grow with their organisations, whilst young manager predominated in the small and medium size organisations. Further analysis revealed that all the managers aged 50 years and over were in general management function and were employed in large organisations (those employing 10,000 workers or over). It was also observed that these managers were among those that had maintained a higher degree of employer loyalty. Detailed analysis had been carried out elsewhere in the study. See Table 5.23. and Table 4.9A.

Sex, Status, Rank, and Educational Background

As shown in the table, only (13.3% : N=25) female executives were in the samples. Of the 25 females only 8 were among the Nigerian sample, a reflection (see Chapter 5) of a point of view, which is now fading, that a woman's place was in the kitchen. Most of the female executives from both groups as has been shown elsewhere in the study, were relatively more qualified. Whereas the U.K. female executives were employed in the public, as well as private sectors of the economy, their Nigerian counterparts were virtually all in the public sector where they enjoy greater employment security. The implication of lack of job security in the private sector for the Nigerian female executives is in line with what Howard (1970) noted as "why managers on the whole (the U.K.) are not keen in joining trade unions," because trade unionism tended not to provide them with job protection or security. However, for the Nigerian female executives it may be argued that they tend to lack managerial effectiveness and leadership in the private sector.

General Comment

Before discussing national comparisons, there are two qualifications of our findings which should be highlighted.

First, none of the eight development objective statements are really unimportant. Even the lowest rated objective still has a mean of not less than 2.5. Table 6.2(A) showed the lowest mean score of (3.10) which is above the middle of the scale (is within what could be described as moderately important).

What this implies is that all the objectives are of at least some importance, whereas the distinctions among them were rather relative in nature. Second, it could be argued that the managers in this study responded to the questionnaires not only as they really felt but, in addition, as organisations and managerial values (perhaps as their own job contexts) dictated they should feel.

It is possible, however, that 'managerial job context' did affect the results to some extent, but the basic validity of our current findings tend to be supported by job-related motive, such as challenge (Sirota and Greenwood 1977) utilization of skills, perceived advancement opportunities and so on.

6.2 The U.K. and the Nigerian Managers' Objective Perception

While it is obvious that perfect similarities and/or differences do not exist between the ratings of the U.K. and the Nigerian managers the ordering of the ratings are still remarkably similar to each other despite the means score values. As shown in (Table 6.2A) the objective, for example, 'To prepare for a new job' was, among the eight objective statements rated very low by each of the two groups.

Also, the undermentioned objectives showed identical (rating) pattern in the two groups (U.K. and Nigeria) in spite of the differences in the mean score strength.

TABLE 6.2B Mean Scores and Percentage Response Pattern of the U.K. and the Nigerian Managers.

			High and Low Responses.			
<u>Mean scores</u>			<u>U.K.</u>		<u>Nigeria</u>	
<u>U.K.</u>	<u>Nigeria</u>		<u>%</u>		<u>%</u>	
			High	Low	High	Low
4.33	4.09	Broaden attitude	92	I	79	I4
4.23	4.22	Increase managerial confidence	9I	4	9I	II
4.22	4.14	Learn more about modern management techniques	87	2	79	I5
4.22	4.13	Learn improved methods of handling social problems	9I	I	84	II
4.22	4.13	Gain deeper insight into problems of organisation	89	0	80	I7

U.K.(N=100) NIGERIA(N=88)

This method has been applied in order to indicate whether or not the two groups perceived alike irrespective of the strength of each group's ratings.

The overall similarity in objectives ordering pattern (not the score values) is not surprising. Managers (Marshall, 1977) tend to have identical or stereotyped thinking about their jobs and people. However, as can be seen from the table above, the two groups are not entirely identical both in their objectives hierarchies or score values. Whereas objective ratings

are similar, it is obvious, that differences between the two groups do exist. For example, while the development objective to 'Increase managerial confidence' was rated first, (mean value = 4.22) by the Nigerian group, it was rated 3rd, (mean value 4.23) by the U.K. group.

For the U.K. managers that were surveyed, they rated the objective to 'Broaden attitude' highest. Whereas the ratings for the objectives:

'Learn improved methods of handling social problems; and

'Gain deeper insight into problems of organisation', was similarly ordered by both groups.

To ascertain the relationships between the two groups' development objective variables and their personal factors, for example, work experience, two statistical analyses (Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Student's T-Test) were applied.

TABLE 6.2(C) Relationship Between Development Objectives and Personal Factors of the U.K. and the Nigerian Managers.

<u>Objective Items</u>	<u>Personal Factors</u>				<u>Size of Organ-isation</u>
	<u>Nation-ality</u>	<u>Work Experience</u>	<u>Educational Background</u>	<u>Job Mobility</u>	
		(r) Value	(r) Value	(r) Value	(r) Value
To prepare for new job	U.K.	0.17*	0.14	0.13	0.12
	Nigeria	0.18*	0.17*	0.16*	0.14
Learn more about modern management technique	U.K.	0.21*	0.18*	0.15	0.17*
	Nigeria	-0.12	0.15	0.13	0.15
Get a better knowledge of relevant academic discipline	U.K.	0.14	0.10	0.10	0.11
	Nigeria	-0.16	0.12	0.25**	0.18*
Broaden attitude	U.K.	0.12	0.16*	0.13	0.21*
	Nigeria	-0.11	0.15	0.08	0.17*
Learn improved methods of handling social problems	U.K.	0.13	0.18*	0.14	0.14
	Nigeria	0.11	0.14	0.13	0.10
Increase managerial confidence	U.K.	0.16*	0.13	0.12	0.19*
	Nigeria	0.13	0.16*	0.13	0.21*
Increase Profitability	U.K.	0.18*	0.15	0.13	0.12
	Nigeria	0.18*	0.32***	0.14	0.16*
Gain deeper insight into problems of organisation	U.K.	0.13	0.15	0.10	0.14
	Nigeria	0.11	0.18*	0.21*	0.13

* P 0.05, ** P 0.01, *** P 0.001

The managers in the sample (both the U.K. and the Nigerians) were differentiated in two ways in relation to their perceptions of what development objectives should be. Whereas (Table 6.2A) summarises the participants' mean scores on the eight objective statements, Table 6.2C shows the correlation between these objective items and the respondents' work-experience as managers, their educational background, job mobility and size of organisation.

The results showed that the objective items:

'To prepare for a new job'

'Gain deeper insight into problems of organisation'

were significant at (5%) level (i.e. Nigerian Sample) with the managers' educational background and the extent they were able to change job and/or employment. It is also observed that the development objective to 'Increase profitability' was (among the Nigerian managers) significant at 1 per cent level with their educational background. The interaction being that those managers with less educational background tend to regard 'to prepare for a new job' as a major development objective. These managers are also less mobile than those with higher educational background.

It is interesting to observe that the same group of managers (i.e. those who are less mobile and handicapped by lack of better educational background? tend to have different development motives from those who have better educational background. This confirms our hypothesis which states that managers with low educational background tend to maintain higher employer loyalty than managers with higher level of educational background. It is also important to note the relationship between (U.K.) highest educational qualification and other variables.

Statistical treatment of the relationship between status and Managerial skills, Development expectations and Job factors as perceived by the U.K. and Nigerian managers is shown in Table 9 of Appendix C.

The relationship, for example, between autonomy (i.e. the freedom in deciding how one goes about ones job) correlated (U.K.) with (HEB) highest educational background at .05 level of significance with (r) value of (0.19) (N=100).

TABLE 6.3 Managerial Knowledge in Specific Areas. Pattern of distribution of knowledge between the U.K. and the Nigerian Managers.

<u>Statements</u>	% response U.K. N=(100)			% response Nigeria N=(88)		
	<u>Low</u>	<u>Average</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Average</u>	<u>High</u>
Theory of Organisation	3	34	56	10	28	62
Group Behaviour	16	23	61	8	27	65
Application of economic theory	4	12	77	21	32	44
The implication of change	16	29	55	12	38	50
Motivation of people	8	16	76	4	17	79
Union policies	28	23	49	29	42	29
Financial	25	28	47	31	34	35
Dealing with peers	15	18	67	12	14	74
International marketing problems	63	22	15	84	11	15

Table 6.3 summarises the overall responses on the nine knowledge factors between the two (U.K. and Nigeri) response groups. It can be seen that in three of the nine variables, there appear to be some differences between the U.K. and the Nigerian groups. These variables are:

- (a) Application of economic theory;
- (b) Union Policies; and
- (c) International Marketing problems.

In particular the highest response in the U.K. sample is at the 'competent' point (i.e. good knowledge level) with only (15%) on the question concerning "international marketing problems." The Nigerian responses in (a)

and (b) above were greater than the U.K. responses at the average point (Table 6.3). However, the middle percentage score of the Nigerian sample (11%) concerning "international marketing problems" was the lowest compared with (22%) for the U.K. Even the (11%) compared with the responses in other knowledge areas, for example, 'implication of change and financial management', was still the lowest.

It is not surprising to observe that (whereas both samples never admitted high level of competence in the 'international marketing problems') the U.K. respondents on the whole appeared to be more knowledgeable. One possible explanation is that many U.K. managers were in organisations that dealt more in international markets than their Nigerian counterparts. This implies that the more an organisation engages in international or (export) markets, the more is the likelihood for its managers to be knowledgeable in the problems posed by international marketing (Liander et al., 1967; Moyer, 1968; Kramer and Kahler, 1977).

In spite of the observation that there are some differences between the two samples, there is no clear evidence that engagement in overseas trade guarantees knowledge of international marketing problems. This is so because, whereas both the U.K. and the Nigerian samples showed greater awareness at the "average and/or competent points" in other knowledge areas, the respondents' scores (both groups) on international marketing problems were relatively low. This observation therefore calls for further investigation on the impact of the manager's knowledge of international marketing or lack of it on his perception of his development needs.

However, most of the knowledge factors were towards 'man-management' rather than 'technical-management' or production orientated management; see Blake and Mouton, 1962; The Managerial Grid) the two groups' admitted level of competence was identical in 'Motivation of People' and 'Dealing with Peers'.

But in the knowledge on 'application of economic theory', as would be expected, The U.K. group contrasted with the Nigerian group.

One possible and important conclusion from the observation is that managerial knowledge of 'application of economic theory' increases with the level of economic advancement in which the managers operate. This confirms our assumption (hypothesis 4), that managers and organisations that differ in their economic and/or educational orientation tend to differ in their managerial knowledge and skills.

General Observations

It would be concluded that:

There ~~are~~ certain similarities between the U.K. and the Nigerian respondents' pattern of admitted managerial knowledge. Where the pattern showed ~~some~~ similarities, the general trend (Table 6.2) indicated that the U.K. group was higher on competence scale than the Nigerian group. This result may reflect the economic and industrial capacities of the two countries. Also certain observed contrasts, for example, on 'Union policy matters', it may be concluded that they are also due to the disparity, in economic and industrial advancement between the two groups. What this implies is that trade unionism and its associated improvement of the social and economic conditions of working people is relatively a new phenomenon in Nigeria. Whereas the U.K. trade union dates back to at least 1886 (French and Seward, 1977), it is not surprising to observe that the U.K. managers are more knowledgeable in trade union matters than their Nigerian counterparts.

Among the nine knowledge categories, admitted knowledge of motivation of people, produced (79%) the highest area of competence for the Nigerian sample and the second highest for the U.K. sample (76%), whereas the knowledge of 'application of economic theory' (77%) ranks highest for the U.K. sample.

Nevertheless, in the overall picture, similarities between the two national groups are much more noticeable than differences. Both the U.K. and the Nigerian samples claimed to be most knowledgeable in:

- Motivation of people;
- Dealing with peers;
- Group behaviour;
- Theory of organisation.

They are less knowledgeable in international marketing problems and their admitted knowledge in the 'implications of change' indicated that only

about one half of the sampled managers in each of the two groups rated themselves high.

As has been discussed in Chapter Five, the presence of similarities in some and differences in other knowledge factors (Boehn, 1972) suggests that the questionnaires and/or tests used were fair for the managers from the two different national groups. It could be argued (Tables 6.3 & 4) that different results may indicate proof of unfairness, of the questionnaire, whereas similarity may indicate lack of proof of unfairness, however, our results do not necessarily as noted by Holley and Feild (1975) in their study imply questionnaire insensitivity or bias.

For managerial problem solving and social skills, as will be seen from Table 6.4, the two samples are more dissimilar compared with Table 6.3 above.

In comparing the respondents' managerial skills, the responses were classified into high, middle and low. The managers in the sample were asked to circle a number (a five-points scale ranging from 1 the lowest to 5 the highest) which is closest to their individual level of competence. The summary of the responses rearranged and classified into high, middle and low is shown on Table 6.4 below.

TABLE 6.4 Problems Solving and Social Skills. Percentage response between the U.K. and the Nigerian Managers.

	% response U.K. (N=100)			% response Nigeria (N=88)		
	<u>Low</u>	<u>Middle</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Middle</u>	<u>High</u>
Developing subordinates	25	46	29	17	64	29
Predicting outcome of proposed organisation change	7	31	62	11	40	49
Making decisions in conditions of uncertainty	4	21	75	9	48	43
Using models in decision making	48	28	24	34	48	18
Dealing with conflict between others	2	18	80	4	21	75
Allowing for attitudes of others	6	30	64	5	22	73
Noting signs of stress in others	5	24	71	2	21	77
Using systematic approach to deal with problems	16	32	52	11	33	66

For the managers' abilities to solve social and organisational problems, there are two specific items in relation to which both samples gave themselves very similar rating.

- (a) Dealing with conflicts between others;
- (b) Noting signs of stress in others.

For (a) and (b) above the U.K. high percentage responses were (71%) and (80%) and those of Nigeria were (77%) and (75%) respectively. Nevertheless, areas of dissimilarities are most noticeable in relation to 'Making decisions in conditions of uncertainty' and 'Predicting outcome of proposed organisation change' (in which the U.K. managers felt more competent). Whereas only (29%) of the sampled managers in both groups rated themselves to be high in 'Developing subordinates' many managers in the Nigerian sample rated themselves to have average ability.

One possible explanation for the Nigerian managers' concern, to develop their subordinates (particularly among what could be described as effective managers in successful organisations) may be related to industrial expansion in Nigeria which has been enhanced and made urgent by the "Indigenisation of Enterprises Decree" in 1974.

The Indigenisation of Enterprises Decree came into effect on April 1st, 1974. The objective of the Indigenisation is primarily to promote greater and more effective indigenous participation in the economic life of Nigeria. The Decree created both opportunities and challenges to management (See National Budget, 1974-75, Federal Govt. of Nigeria. Govt. paper Ministry of In%. (FC P487/474/2000. 1974 pp 12-13.

In the context of the study an effective manager is one who not only knows and does the right thing but stops doing what should not be done. This is similar to what Drucker (1972) emphasised as one who has the skill to wrestle for part of his day with important economic decisions. This may imply that more than ever before, management practitioners in Nigeria have both opportunities and challenges in relation to sound economic decisions.

Also, successful organisation as used for our purpose here reflects on an organisation which has allowed conditions which maximises human productive strength. One of such conditions which tends to maximise human productive strength, is the reduction of "worker absenteeism" in organisations. Analysis of the groups responses on rate of "worker absenteeism" revealed that the Nigerian sample reported greater rate of absenteeism than the U.K. group. Of the sampled managers (Nigeria, N=88) more than (30%) (N=88) reported 3 per cent or more rate of absenteeism, as compared with only (18%) for the U.K. sample (N=100).

Whereas the expectation that worker-moral should be related to absenteeism and invariably turnover (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Vroom & Deci, ed., 1977) the extent to which managerial ineffectiveness influences the rate of absenteeism require further indepth study. However, a plausible connexion between absenteeism and managerial ineffectiveness is not as obvious as between absenteeism and job dissatisfaction but (Vroom, 1964) has discussed the view. apparently prevalent in guiding research on job satisfaction which emphasised that job satisfaction variations are due to variation in job characteristics. However, under conditions not marked by job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, the presence of managerial inefficiency and/or effectiveness could affect the rate of absenteeism in organisations as revealed in the study.

It is suggested as a result of our results, that absenteeism is one organisational phenomenon which reflects workers' hostility towards ineffective management. The findings imply that the more effective a manager is in his/her organisation (after other constraints have been removed such as job dissatisfiers - pay, job design), the less the rate of absenteeism.

6.3 DISCUSSIONS

Methodological and Theoretical Issues

The following problem areas of the study have been identified :

- (i) How to adequately represent objective perception of development needs and/or objectives from the raw data based entirely on individuals' self-ratings.
- (ii) The overall design of the entire survey questionnaires.

Certain aspects are considered important for discussion in our overall design of the study. These are :

- . The development of appropriate conceptual and contextual categories of development objectives to the practice of management.
- . The strategy adopted for the study samples - individual feelings and organisational factors.
- . The adequacy of the drafting of the questionnaire items.
- . The measurement and procedure.
- . Further areas of research.

Development Objectives Feelings - Individual and Organisational Factors

Any consideration of a manager's Development Objectives feelings must take account of the constraints imposed by the setting in which behaviour (i.e. feeling) occurs. The size, structure and technology of an organisation, for example, are not immediately reducible to behaviour (managerial feeling) and so have not traditionally (Kakabadse, 1977) been the concern of psychology. Yet, in the past decade, it has been realised that these institutional characteristics such as structure, account for a considerable amount of influence in the more traditionally psychological aspects of organisational behaviour as exemplified in the managers' feelings. This is in line with what Pugh (1969) observed that tends to

influence the manager.

"The reality of the structured social relationship has led to a consideration of concepts such as control, authority and power, to complement the study of leadership (managerial leadership), authoritarianism and influence and is the development which best warrants the use of the term organisational psychology." (Pugh, 1969).

It is the attempt to discover aspects of the organisational and individual factors which are psychologically meaningful to the manager's development needs and/or objectives that have led to our concept of "Development Objectives Perception", as used in the study. Even a manager's position of power is considered to affect his or her individual feelings as well as the dynamics of his environmental job context. Katz and Kahn's (1966) open systems concept with its distinguishing features of interaction with the manager's psychological job environment tend to support our 'Development Objective Perception'.

Since our study is specifically concerned with factors (Personal and Organisational) the inclusion of 'job factors' as important managerial characteristics, is in line with the contingency concept and the systems thinking; (Heller, 1972). Those factors (personal, organisational and job) which we have considered in the survey have been diagrammatically presented in the study 'Vibrating System of Development Objective Interaction' in figure 2.

Questionnaire Items

As every conceptualised factor (personal and/or organisational) relates to the wider managerial job environment, the two sampled groups revealed in some cases identical 'development objectives' (table 6.2^{b-c}). Whereas some similarities existed in 'development objectives perception'

different managerial functions produced different managerial behaviour (feelings). For example, centralised authority-based-function (reflecting a manager's position of power) encourages managers to take risks in what they do at work (item 51) than would managers who are low in the organisational hierarchy. This observation tends to be in line with Payne's (1975).

Payne places organisational characteristics (for example, position of power) as more tangible than environmental job characteristics. This implies that as a manager assumes the phenomenological construct of the organisation members, organisational factors tend to be considered more important than other variables. However, job environment involves many other things. It involves contextual characteristics and/or characteristic behavioural processes that are occurring in a social system. It is then apparent that the managers' development objectives and needs reflect their values, attitudes and beliefs. Consequently, their feelings about what they want from development programmes may be highly influenced by their attitudes, values and beliefs. These may, in turn, be influenced by organisational, personal and job factors.

But if the managers' job environments are seemingly universalistic and adaptable without modification across cultures and/or across occupational categories, then managers can easily respond to the same kind of development needs, if not, needs of individual managers are bound to vary. The tendency would be that there may exist certain relationships between the managers' personal and organisational factors and/or between job and organisational variables. These relationships have been revealed in the study results.

Measurement and Procedure

It is implicit that the manager's own needs, values and attitudes affect his perception and that the job context affects his managerial attitude, values and feelings. One of the most fundamental problems that

we faced throughout this study is how can one methodologically adequately represent the interaction effects of the personal, organisational and job variables (age, educational background, size, structure, risk, feedback and others) used in the survey. For our purpose, the distinct methods of evaluation have been described in the literature review. This is briefly described.

- (i) Data was collected from individual managers about how they felt development objectives, and these feelings or perceptions were related to some other variables such as their personal factors and job context.
- (ii) Managers were attributed an organisational skills and knowledge score (e.g. mean scores) derived from the views of themselves, and these were then related to some other variables about the managers.
- (iii) The managers' variable scores were grouped (the U.K. on the one hand the the Nigerian samples on the other) for the managers studied, and then related to the total group perception scores. In this way the individual groups constituted the unit of analysis separately and jointly.

As we hope to indicate, our study falls within (i) through (iii) and because of practical difficulties in utilising and testing the interaction effects of all the variables used to ascertain the managers' points of view, most of the analysis focused on development objective feelings of the respondents rather than on all the variables used in the questionnaire.

Overview of Studies with Identical Methodological Approach

- * { Relationship between (job context) climate and other variables
when data are collected from the same individual.

A number of writers have adopted this approach. For instance, in 1970, Stern explored the relationship between a person's perception of his job context (climate) and personality factors. Using Need-Press-Theory

as a framework Murray (1938) has developed personal characteristics measure and job climate measure. However, the relationships between personal characteristics (personality) and organisational factors (George and Bishop, 1971) were more successful in finding relationships between them. Whereas Halpin and Croft (1963) observed positive relationship between personality and organisational structure. They showed that type of organisational factors as perceived by the individual is directly related to the organisation's structural characteristics and the individual personality traits of its members. This implies that the traits of our managers as members of given organisations are influenced and affected by the organisation's structural characteristics such as position of power (authority) or centralisation vs decentralisation.

A similar study (Friedlander and Margulies, 1969) has demonstrated the interactive relationship between people and their job environments. However, Payne (1975) warns that in using this methodological approach "there are relationships between an individual's perception of the (job context) climate of an organisation and his personality characteristics and attitudes to the job. The relationships are of moderate strength and researchers need to be careful in assigning causal directions to relationships among these variables " (P.115).

Hutchin and Nonneman (1966) in their study compared personality (personal factors) and perceived job environment at the organisational level of analysis. They found that personal factors related to the environmental factors in medical schools. Schools, according to them, which had a student body high on economic values, tended to do well. They found that performance was related to environment and that institutions with the environment high on intrinsic motivation and low on extrinsic motivation and encapsulated training, tend to perform better in terms of numbers of students graduating with good marks. They also found that environments

high on intrinsic motivation tend to be associated with students whose values are theoretical, non-economic and non-religious but aesthetic. What could be implied here is that as different school climates produced different motivation, it is pertinent to assume that different managerial job climates tend to produce different development motivation.

However, indices of differences between an individual and his culture or organisation, whether as a result of differences arising in personal characteristics or perceptions of the (job context) environment require further investigation. This is important, whereas public organisations, for example, are structurally differentiated from private organisations, the extent of the similarity or difference between the manager's development motivation and job environment is a function of organisational factors such as position of power in the organisational hierarchy.

By and large, studies of this type produce moderately strong relationships between the manager's personal, organisational and job factors. Having said that, one should be aware of the areas where there is a low level of feelings of what development objectives should be. The variety of personal factors involved in the study, some of which, for example sex, training orientation, have raised important issues about the value of our investigation. It is for this reason that we have to examine further the results of other studies (Katz and Kahn, (1966); Porter et al (1975)).

Complexity of the Organisational Setting: The Theoretical Model

A theoretical model that captures the complexity of the organisational setting has been advanced by Kahn, Wofe, Quinn, Shoek and Rosenthal (1964) and Katz and Kahn (1966) p.186. They also emphasised that the expectation of individuals are influenced by the structure of the organisation and its sets of rewards. Within this model, a manager may use perceived benefits in a paradigm to evaluate an on-going activity (March and Simon, 1958; Thibaut and Kelley, 1959; Homans, 1961; Blau, 1964, and Blau, P. 1974). This implies that the manager would evaluate his

development needs in relation to the 'Expectancy Theory'.

Given the managerial job context, the theoretical model we have adopted provides for the integration of these broad categories of personal, organisational and job characteristics. Dubin, Champoux and Porter (1975) observed that managerial commitment to an organisation or lack of it may be influenced more by psychological or personal factors than by other factors. Our findings are in line with the assumption that managers who are influenced by their personal and psychological factors tend to be committed to their organisations, and also they tend to maintain high organisational tenure (Toyne and Rumpel, 1978).

It is suggested that this commitment in turn exerts positive influence in the perceptions of the managers' development needs. But factors such as lack of promotion or authority tend to have negative effect on the managers' feelings (Stevens, Beyer and Trice, 1978). Also, fixed personal factors (e.g. education, sex) or positive dimensions of the task such as high managerial level or advanced technology tend to exert positive influence. At the same time personal 'fixed factors' may in turn be influenced by dynamic factors (e.g. cultural and sociological factors).

There are some reasons for our using personal, organisational and job role (i.e. job conditions) to explore managers' feelings of their knowledge, skills, as well as their feelings about what development objectives should be.

First, the research has suggested that job context and organisational commitment or identifications are compatible; (Emery and Trist, 1960; Rotondi, 1975), and/or complementary, (Hrapchak, et al, 1972).

Second, it is suggested that some characteristics of the managerial job (whether or not across culture or across organisations) share identical job expectation (such as the ability to control conflicts, the skills to develop subordinates, the knowledge and competence in the application

of managerial concepts).

Third, it has further suggested that it is possible that members of an organisation may be tied to their organisation through their job commitment since the organisation provides opportunity to pursue such a commitment.

Sheth (1973, pp. 50-56) noted that organisations or company orientation, company size and the degree of centralisation are important specific factors influencing authority. He also noted the above factors in turn influence the managers' perceptions. Sheth's model, however, suggests that the influence of the environment on the structure of authority (position of power) tends to be minimised by 'situational factors' which are normally handled in an 'ad hoc' fashion. This implies that managerial behaviour is modified by situational factors. Wind Y. and Webster (1972) on the other hand, observed some explicit distinction between the influence of organisation and job environmental factors on the positioning of power adopted by the firms. However, (Grønuhaud, 1976) points out that only little empirical evidence exists to support the assumed level of importance of either set of variables. Whereas task-oriented authority is in direct relationship with higher autonomy in how one goes about his job as revealed in chapters 4 and 5 of the results. This observation is in line with the view emphasised by Davis et al (1974) that authority structure exerts an active influence on the managers' development motivation, as do other organisational and environmental job factors.

These factors also exert influence across cultures and across organisations.

Our findings also confirm the proposition that the perceived development objectives of the managers in the U.K. and Nigeria are different, and that the differences are due to multidimensional organisations' 'dynamic factors' such as advanced technology and personal 'fixed factors'.

such as the manager's level of education as shown in the comparative analysis of the study. This means that perception of certain development objectives is not uniform across all managerial levels and/or across cultures or across organisations.

Some words of note

In interpreting the study results, some limitations of the research should be kept in mind :

First, our results described perceived development objectives and job content not actual objectives.

Second, the sample managers were drawn from organisations with different organisational structure. Whereas, for example, centralisation of authority may be found in a public organisation, decentralisation of power may be preferred in a private sector organisation such as banks, as we have shown elsewhere in the study.

Third, no data was presented covering other people's perceptions about the sampled managers' skills, knowledge, their job and other variables.

In spite of the mentioned limitations, our findings indicate that the traditional generalisations that every manager anticipates a stereotyped sort of development objectives would be misleading, particularly when applied across cultures. The results imply that the involvement of practising managers in setting programme objectives might provide fruitful starting points for future development investigations.

Theorists and researchers have sought to explain and predict the influence of organisational factors on feelings (i.e. behaviours) by using a contingency approach (Arbor, 1975). In discussing our results, we have also adopted the 'contingency approach' and have taken organisational and job factors as contingent variables. Whilst the managers' 'fixed personal factors' (e.g. education and sex) represent the independent variables, organisational and job characteristics represent the

dependent variables. A particularly fruitful application of this idea is in the area of job attributes (such as task and/or job complexity), stimulated largely by the findings of Turner and Lawrence (1965), and (Hulin and Blood, 1968, pp. 41-55). Their findings were in line with what has been observed in this study (i.e. significant interaction between the individual's personal characteristics and job context discussed in chapters 4 and 5).

Concerning the relationship between the managers' job demands and their perception of Development Objectives, our results showed that correlation between responses and risk variability indices were significant at ($P > .05$) level or better; job complexity correlated with autonomy at ($P > .001$) level and peer-feedback ($P > .01$); whereas 'job variety', i.e. how much variety and/or the extent managers do many different things at work (item 61) correlated negatively at ($P > .05$) significant level (see chapter 5).

In chapters 4 and 5 our attempt through chi-square and t-test analysis showed that there was direct relationship between a manager's work-experience ($P > .01$), whilst sex and managerial knowledge were subjected to t-test (table 5.25) we found that there is no significant difference between the knowledge of the female and male managers. This may indicate the homogeneity of response, in that both female and male managers perceived their knowledge in a similar way; or that responses are heterogeneous in that there is a similar dispersion of response throughout organisations and levels of managers concerning managerial knowledge. However, we have to exercise care in interpreting the above conclusions in as much as the number of females in the sample were not large enough to warrant conclusive generalisation. The inclusion of the above evidence provides useful information for further investigation.

Males and Females in Management

The items used for the presentation of results (knowledge items) indicate no significant association between sex and managerial work experience, $r = .22$ ($P > .001$), and between sex and the desire to "increase managerial confidence", $r = .17$ ($P > .05$), whereas sex correlated with rank at ($P = .001$) with ($r = .38$). Women in our sample (both samples - Nigeria and the U.K.) were, however, in the minority (8) for the Nigerian group and (17) for the U.K. group. But the recognition (Miller and Form, 1964, pp.512-3) that women are a permanent part of the labour force and will continue to compete with men for jobs, is largely responsible for the insistence of labour unions on anti-discrimination clauses in labour contracts and perhaps observance of seniority rules concerning both men and women.

Our findings may imply that since women, in the past, tended to enter industrial organisations at the lower level (Miller and Form) and accept menial and routine jobs, this may have had the indirect effect of upgrading men to managerial positions. Consequently, women are left behind in the managerial positions. This tends to be one important reason why women are fewer among the managerial workforce. It could be indicated therefore that the barrier to upward occupational mobility (particularly managerial category) of women is reflected in the very small proportion of female managers in the sample. This is in line with what has been observed among U.S. managerial workforce (Biles and Pryatel, 1978; Miller and Form, 1964). Miller and Form even emphasise that both men and women spurn females as bosses, men especially feel that women superiors lower their managerial job status.

Those U.S.A. studies by Miller and Form, and Biles and Pryatel, further emphasised that the reason females are very few in the managerial positions is that "women bosses are accused of being too emotional, autocratic, partial, sensitive and overdemanding". Our study, however,

did not investigate the above accusations nor the attitudes of female and male managers at work. Rather our data focused on managerial skills or knowledge and managerial development objectives. Our findings concerning managerial knowledge suggest that female managers cannot be said to have less abilities (see chapter 5). Concerning the scarcity of female executives, Biles and Pryatel's study (1978, pp. 572-77) lend support to our observation. The study observed that .75% of the U.S.A. female workforce contracted on what the researchers described as "female professions" (i.e. secretary-stenographer, elementary school teacher and waitress). It was suggested that even when females achieve higher-level administrative jobs, they do not often lead to top management positions. This may imply that female positions tend to be ancillary ones from which they help to attain organisational goals.

Whereas there is wide-spread notion that women have a low level of commitment to work, our study failed to reveal this. In actuality, and in keeping with Biles and Pryatel's results, what we have discovered is that women managers work for the same reasons as men; and that women who managed to attain managerial positions exhibit equal amounts of managerial knowledge and skills.

Reflection on Some Implications

Disparities in job levels, age, educational background, work experience do exist between the female and male managers. What is harder to find is agreement on the reasons they exist and whether or not there is any substance to the reasons. What this implies is that if the myth of man and woman in management is to be dispelled, further investigation is required about women and their capability to assume managerial positions whether in the public or private sector organisations.

Some of the notional myths which are at the root of managerial

positions of women are :

1. That women are emotional and as a result they do not tend to make successful managers and because they tend to fail to make rational decisions. This proposition anticipates according to Burrow (1976), p.23, that there is a fear that a profit-and-loss crisis will shatter women. However, whereas a counter proposition anticipates that women are not too emotional (see Biles and Pryatel) to be entrusted with life-and-death situations in hospital provides a fertile ground for further investigation as to why women continue to be in the managerial minority even though they tend to have higher educational backgrounds than their male colleagues (as shown in chapter 5 of our study).
2. That women are poor economic risks (Lynch, 1973, p.9), and quit jobs when they get married or have children. Further it is also believed that occasional maternity leaves disrupt managerial efficiency and effectiveness. Evidence from our study (The U.K. sample) is in line with the U.S.A. study result, Department of Labour's Myths and Reality (1974) in revealing no significant difference between the male and female managers on commitment to managerial duty. Rather what was observed is that female Nigerian managers, particularly among those in the public sector organisation (see chapter 4) tend to be less committed to duty due to, for example, maternity leaves and other reasons associated with marriage and social conditions in Nigeria.

Whereas, for example, in the United States well over half the women in management ranks are mothers (Lynch, 1973; Roble, 1973; Burrow, 1976) misconceptions surrounding women's capacity to assume management positions still tend to prevail, despite researches and plain common sense. One possible cause of this misconception seems to revolve around the notion that the woman's place is in the home.

General Comment

As indicated elsewhere, data was collected between 1977 and 1978, and from managers of both countries. The study questionnaires relied on subjective (self-opinion) what Marshall in her Ph.D. thesis (1977) described as 'symptom-oriented' rather than objective-base (i.e. disease-based).

The results of our (χ^2) chi-square. Pearson's coefficient of correlation and students t-test revealed the differences and similarities in the two groups (i.e. the dimensions along which the sampled managers from the two groups were measured). The statistical analysis of the measures used enabled us to understand the effect of personal, organisational and job factors in the sampled managers' development needs and/or their feelings. This in turn enabled us to make some suggestions for future research.

Two of the three dominant factors of the analysis (personal and organisational factors) consistently produced more significant influence on the respondents' feelings about their development motivation. For example, educational background, experience, size of organisation, status and others exerted a marked influence. Even job characteristics exerted remarkable influence not only on development needs but also in the exercise of managerial skills and competences. Since job factors exerted considerable influence in the amount of skills the managers are expected to have in order to be efficient and effective, it may be argued that the objective 'to increase managerial confidence' which significantly correlated with 'job complexity' in the analysis, for example, illustrates the level of readiness at which managers tend to subscribe to programmes that offer opportunities to enhance their managerial expertise.

Development motivation is a state of readiness to enhance one's functionary commitment, it is therefore a function of the interaction of an individual's job commitment, organisations as well as personal characteristics which tend to build over time. In considering (conceptually)

the generality of results and (practically) priorities for attention, the latter distinction is extremely important. Real development motivation and/or need is one which entices the individual to react positively to a situation which in effect signals certain expectations. On such dimensions the data and method of collecting them may already be faced with some difficulties and would require 'some qualifications' before being used as a basis for action.

It may be suggested that any development objective which operates all the time in 'management practice' can be said to be crucial. It should, in effect, be a priority for attention and can be seen as a development need which is likely to be the more firmly rooted than others. Therefore, it is more likely to have direct appeal to would be participants in management development programmes.

6.4 Psychological and Methodological Implications

One of the less obvious advantages of latitudinal over longitudinal studies is that the former (Marshall, 1977) can be achieved with minimum of interference in the respondent's personal life. In effect, this has both methodological and ethical implications. A major concern here is that the approach of social scientists in any area (as interventionists) tend to have some effect on the mental process of the respondents and/or their behaviours, perceptions and so on.

Where the psychological state of the respondents are affected, it would not be easy, therefore, to obtain the true reading of the actual response of the sampled managers. This is a particularly crucial problem in longitudinal research on people's perception of themselves and their needs, their managerial skills and competences, whether the contact is by questionnaires, or by interviews. It is feared that it is likely to sensitise the individual to attribute to him/herself, for example, certain attributes of managerial skills or competences which he or she does not possess.

In this case, the ultimate response outcome may, entirely, be beyond the knowledge and control of the researcher. Evidence of the powerful nature of such an effect comes from the small sample interviewed in Marshall's study (1977). For some managers in our sample, it can be argued that the Social Scientist's approach (i.e. the researcher) tends to be an impetus to give an objective response of their feelings about their managerial skills and competences, whereas for others, it could exert some pressures which tend to compel them to conceal their feelings. However, we have to recognise that this is not merely a methodological problem of obtaining distorted results, it is rather one of the ethics of perhaps interfering in the person's own feelings, which is in effect asking him or her to reveal himself or herself to an unknown outsider.

The data-distortion consequences of a study such as this one were kept to a minimum through our data collection approach. Whereas it can't be completely claimed that the data collected were hundred per cent free from subjectivity, the data collection approach adopted emphasises on confidentiality as shown in our initial survey letter figure 4 , to the sampled managers.

FIGURE 4

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANCHESTER INSTITUTE OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
P.O. Box 88, Manchester M60 1QD
Telephone 061-236 3311

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

Dear Sir,

MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT IN THE UNITED KINGDOM AND NIGERIA

As part of our research we need to compare the views of a sample of Nigerian managers with the views of a sample of British managers. Would you please help us by taking part and sending us your views.

We have designed the enclosed questionnaire so that answering our questions will not take a lot of your time. Please answer every question.

Most of the questions do not have right or wrong answers, so you can be completely frank. Your replies are Strictly Confidential.

Yours sincerely,

Dr. J. M. Smith -
Lecturer in Management Sciences

M.O. Ajuogu M.Sc(Ed) Dip.Ed.Ind, A.S.C.A,
M.Inst.P.S., D.B.S.

A more explicit approach on such subjective (self-rating) study is not however advised unless adequate provision can be made for assessing and coping with the effect of the respondents' subjectivity. In longitudinal research, it would perhaps be both necessary and desirable to combine research questionnaires and interviews with as (Marshall, 1977) has suggested "subject counselling". In this way it can be argued that the interviewer may, in fact, feel the need to adopt counselling role as situations warrant, in order to dispel anxieties on the part of the respondents. This is suggested to have certain advantages :

- It would be possible to elicit much franker data by actively involving the respondents in the research process. In doing this, it is hoped that we would then gain access to the 'ultimate' objective as well as objective criteria of development needs of the managers.
- It is also hoped that one can reap the benefits of managers' known feelings. Results will be different from those collected by a completely unobtrusive observer which are often (Marshall, 1977) unrealistic, although common in this sort of study, but nonetheless of value.

The first advantage is particularly important. In present circumstances a variety of mechanisms appear to be operating (cultural and educational orientation, for example), to prevent respondents reporting :

- Lack of managerial skills or awareness
- Preference for the socially desirable responses and/or
- Lack of faith in the confidentiality of the research data.

Perhaps, only the development of a long-term, non-threatening, even supportive relationship between the researcher and the respondents can fully justify breaching (even if unknowingly) the respondents' defence in any way. The findings reported in this study suggest that this is a

potentially acceptable research methodology even in such a sensitive area of self-rating of one's managerial abilities. The high response rate of above (70%) suggests that management development objectives setting is a topic of considerable importance to managers in the sample and one which they regard as central to their managerial effectiveness. The response also suggests that the managers are prepared, given appropriate circumstances, to enhance their managerial confidence by partaking in development programmes which meet their development expectations.

Organisational and Job Characteristic Questionnaires

Whilst it is, no doubt, a widely accepted measure of validity, the respondents' satisfaction with the format and the coverage of the Job Characteristics questionnaire suggest that the scale had largely achieved its main structural objectives. This is achieved by allowing individual managers, despite a wide variety of cultural, organisational as well as functional circumstances, adequate opportunities for self expression of their job content.

Nonetheless, in retrospect certain criticisms can, however, be noted.

(1) As the questionnaires covered the level of co-operation the managers tend to get from their :

- (a) bosses
- (b) peers, i.e. colleagues
- (c) subordinates,

which tend to influence their development motivation; they did not include attitudes and/or opinions of (a), (b) and (c) about the sampled managers. Further, there was no additional information in relation to the respondents' personal factors such as the level of income, the existing promotion procedure of the organisation and/or the managers' prospects of being promoted to the next higher rank so that the impact of such variables could be measured in terms of development needs.

6.4.2 Problem Areas of Sample Representativeness and Comparability.

Consideration of the various problem areas of cross-cultural research (Frijda and Jahoda, 1966, pp.110-127) point to the number of variables involved which tend to complicate and make elaborate the research designs. In spite of the numerous variables (personal, organisational and job context) involved, one major difficulty has been shown to lie in ensuring common standards and/or equivalence of interpretation of responses across different cultures. The approach we applied to overcome such problems is similar to one which has been clearly described by Reuning (in Reader, 1963, p.3).

1. Our survey questionnaire was intended to create a situation which would be understandable without too much explanation. (The fact that the questionnaire used between the two nationals required no translation from one language to the other, of course, offered some practical utilities.
2. The questionnaire framework maintained the character of the inviting action;(i.e. it presented a challenge to the manager's managerial skills and abilities, and offered some opportunities to the interviewees as to their perceived development needs and/or objectives.
3. The approach was such that the variables which were used to elicit responses for analysis were such that they reflected the respondents' total managerial situation as shown in the diagram below. These factors were viewed to transcend beyond cultural boundaries which on the one hand tend to moderate managerial actions, skills and abilities, and on the other which underscore the motivation for one's development needs and/or objectives.

Figure 5 bears a resemblance to Negandhi's (1973) comparative management model, and Frijda and Jahoda's (1966) conceptual framework in cross-cultural studies. However, our diagram indicates that all the above factors tend to influence management practice and management development in every cultural setting. 'Management Practice' is used here as the way in which the manager runs an organisation in order to achieve managerial efficiency and effectiveness.

potentially acceptable research methodology even in such a sensitive area of self-rating of one's managerial abilities. The high response rate of above (70%) suggests that management development objectives setting is a topic of considerable importance to managers in the sample and one which they regard as central to their managerial effectiveness. The response also suggests that the managers are prepared, given appropriate circumstances, to enhance their managerial confidence by partaking in development programmes which meet their development expectations.

Organisational and Job Characteristic Questionnaires

Whilst it is, no doubt, a widely accepted measure of validity, the respondents' satisfaction with the format and the coverage of the Job Characteristics questionnaire suggest that the scale had largely achieved its main structural objectives. This is achieved by allowing individual managers, despite a wide variety of cultural, organisational as well as functional circumstances, adequate opportunities for self expression of their job content.

Nonetheless, in retrospect certain criticisms can, however, be noted.

(1) As the questionnaires covered the level of co-operation the managers tend to get from their :

- (a) bosses
- (b) peers, i.e. colleagues
- (c) subordinates,

which tend to influence their development motivation; they did not include attitudes and/or opinions of (a), (b) and (c) about the sampled managers. Further, there was no additional information in relation to the respondents' personal factors such as the level of income, the existing promotion procedure of the organisation and/or the managers' prospects of being promoted to the next higher rank so that the impact of such variables could be measured in terms of development needs.

As our findings indicated in chapters 4 and 5, in a relatively stable traditional society (such as the U.K. and Nigeria) management practice and development objectives needs have been such that produced a range of personality types which is not inconsistent with major organisational and cultural demands.

6.5 Conclusion

In considering the complexity of the process (the interlocking variables) such as presented in the summary figure above, it defies interplay of causal analysis by the methods at present at our disposal. Consequently one is tempted to emphasise that investigation of this cross-cultural nature is likely to be very important if only adequate methods of objectively assessing personal factors (i.e. personality types) have been established, at present (Vernon, 1964) these methods tend not to be adequately available.

Given the elements of differences and/or similarities, the linear deterministic system implied in our summary diagram (figure 5) becomes appropriate for our purpose insofar as it didn't ignore the factor feedback from other people in the organisation that may directly affect both the nature of development needs of the individual and his/her management practice, and which would, in turn, affect his/her efficiency and/or effectiveness. More recently, external elements which influence management practice and development have become so obtrusive that a conception of the managers' total job environment as a self-contained system is now highly unrealistic. These external elements particularly technology, tend to exert a kind of multiplier effect on development motivation. The findings that most managers in the two samples showed greater concern for the objectives "to learn modern management techniques" and "to increase managerial confidence" illustrate the implications of technology on managerial practice on the one hand and development motivation on the other.

One further important implication of the study may well be that a high general level of development need, "to increase managerial confidence" among managers in both samples, may be a sign of the managers' eagerness to enhance their managerial efficiency and effectiveness. Such a level of development motivation would indicate, for example, that most managers have interesting but challenging and involving jobs.

The obvious advantages of providing managers with intrinsically (internally mediated) development objectives pertinent to their context, is that such objectives tend to be internally self-satisfying. Furthermore, whereas such objectives are being perceived as important for meaningful managerial performance, they are most likely to encourage managers to seek to be more effective.

Thus, our measure of development objectives perception may provide good evidence of how useful it is to involve practising managers in deciding managerial programme objectives. It also provides important evidence of how certain development objectives tend to motivate the practising managers in spite of cultural differences.

The results of the present study suggest that the dynamics of the nature and scope of the manager's job may be very important factors to be assessed in the determination of development programmes for individual managers. Therefore further research in this particular area, should examine not only the influence of managers' general development needs, but also the effects of various aspects of individual manager's job characteristics, and how they affect or influence his or her desire to develop himself. The research also indicates that the self-rating process of development objectives (i.e. allowing managers who are to benefit from development programmes to take part in deciding which development objective is to be included in development schemes that would satisfy their needs) should be encouraged to be used.

It is hoped that the participation by managers in deciding development objectives programmes may be a vital process for management development schemes to be relevant to the needs of programme participants. This, of course, will enrich their management practices, in that those who tend to participate in development programmes are those whom 'expectancy theory' would predict as being most appropriate individuals to benefit from development programmes.

At this point we can ask the following questions : What does the strength of the manager's personal factors such as 'work experience' and his 'development objective' relationship tell us about him? For example, does strong (positive or negative) relationship exist? If a strong (positive or negative) relationship exists, we would assume that the sampled managers are effectively differentiated in their perception of development objectives according to the number of years they have worked as managers. In addition, the relationship would indicate development goals which most appeal to managers of different age groups. But if there is no relationship between the managers' development goals and their work experience, it could be considered that there is identical development goals perception by managers of different work experiences. This implies that perception of development objectives is important because it has the power to influence both younger and older managers.

Further, in the area of job experience, we have emphasised that experience is not the only factor that predicts development motivation, rather development motivation is caused by a combination of other variables such as educational background, position of power in the organisational hierarchy, the extent to which the job provides feedback, and so on. This observation is consistent with Hackman and Lawler's (1971) study of blue-collar workers, where they found that jobs that provide positive feedback, autonomy, variety and task identity motivate people more than jobs that lack the above characteristics. Due to what has been observed,

as revealed in (chapters 4 and 5 and chapter 6 Tables 6-2^A and 6-2^C), it then becomes appropriate to be more concerned about which sort of managers and what kind of motives or needs satisfy their development expectations.

From the study, we have shown that there is enough consistency to allow us to conclude that the establishment of managerial development objectives is a process that can (with certain modifications) be set across organisations and across culture, because of similarities of development expectations of managers due to the general nature of the job of "managing" despite cultural differences. The process implies a clear understanding of :

1. The multi-dimensionality of programme objectives setting across-culture and/or across organisations of different characteristics.
2. The involvement of practising managers in setting out what the 'development objectives' should be which would reflect what managers expect from development schemes.
3. The varying degrees of influence which personal, organisational, and job environmental factors may exert on the manager's development motivation.

6.6. Suggestions for Future Research

Whilst many of the research findings are based on the U.K. and the Nigerian organisations, the results do have certain validity outside these two countries. Both methodological and conceptual implications can be easily transferred to other organisational settings. We can expect the development objectives perceived by the managers in the sample to be applicable to managers in a wider range of organisations. However, not in the same relative strengths because of, for example, certain technological advance between cultures.

The profiles of individual respondents that tend to have "development expectations" are also likely to have meaning wherever "managerial job demands" exist, and that managers' personality characteristics could be similar to those found here. However, only by replication of the study on different, for example, population and overtime can the full extent of the results generality be assessed. In order to compare these groups meaningfully, the research design will need to be expanded to include some measurement of "objective assessment" as distinct from "subjective" (i.e. self-assignment of the manager's personal, organisational and job factors). Understanding of the impact of organisation-size (particularly whether it is a fast-changing or stable private or public organisation), structure and general job environment on managerial development motivation can make not only an important conceptual contribution, but help to guide strategies for managerial practice and/or management development.

To put these findings in context, further investigation "vertically" as well as "horizontally", is needed. As with any piece of social psychology research which isolates and studies only part of an individual (in this case his perception) it has touched on "neighbouring areas", which for practical reasons (limitations on data collection and conceptual manipulation capabilities); it was not possible to cover in depth. Each of these areas is, in itself, a possible overlapping research project both across-organisations or across-cultures. Those which are relevant to this thesis can be grouped under the following headings:

- The individual's awareness of development need;
- Development objective criteria in management practice;
- Management practice and managerial skills, knowledge and competences;
- Management practice and scope and nature of the managerial job.

The Individual's Awareness of Development Need

The individual's self-awareness, motivations and aspirations (and how these change) are important determinants of his approach to and expectation of his development needs. These, of course, not only change with age, experience and educational background of the managers but also in response to changing conditions both in the organisations and the world outside.

In the context of the sampled managers (the U.K. and Nigeria) this study is only a first step in a more likely lengthy process of examining the "status quo" and planning action for its future improvement. By identifying the perception of the development needs of the managers, it has pointed to "areas of programme requirement" but this is not more than a preliminary basis from which improvement can be suggested in development and training schemes. Research could, therefore, be used to generate ideas as to what development actions are appropriate and for which categories of managers. In order that such a study would be adequate, the sample needs to be broadened to include company representatives (employers) as well as employee managers. This means that both the manager's development expectations and the organisation performance interests are adequately represented. The advantage of this procedure is that if these two "sides" can, in fact, be involved in discussing what they expect from managerial development courses; programmes to which both are interested and committed can be more fruitful.

Development Objective Criteria in Management Practice

Another important consideration to effective development programme is the awareness of and willingness to change, if situations warrant. Whereas organisation "norms" and "orientation" tend to change, for example, in response to economic and technological changes, these

variables among others, determine the individual manager's development needs and motivation. This is important insofar as changes do not appear to take place only in the manager's own organisation but in others and in the "world society" as a whole.

Management Practice and Managerial Skills, Knowledge and Competences

The relationship between managerial skills or knowledge and development motivation deserves further systematic investigation than it received here. The two most important dimensions (skills and knowledge) as far as the manager in his work role is concerned, appear to be those of "international marketing knowledge" and "skills in developing subordinates". Factors such as the manager's "functional job", his or her ability or lack of it to cope with this, the part the manager's function plays in the whole organisation, the extent to which his expertise in (e.g. marketing) is required and the extent to which the manager is involved in activities outside his or her particular function, all have significant bearing on his or her development perception and motivation. Such investigation will be of considerable topical interest and should be carried out with continual reference to changes in the society's values and expectations.

Management Practice and the Nature and Scope of Managerial Job

As a follow-through of this study, further study of the dimensions of job context in different types of organisations in other cultures is required so as :

- a) To establish "universal" nature and scope of managerial job context and how they predict managers' development perception and/or management practice.
- b) Examine the relationship between the technical and human factors of the managerial job and the managers' development feelings.

- c) Assess the effectiveness of relationships between technical-oriented and people-oriented managerial jobs (in different organisations from which we gathered data for this study) and the managers' development motivation.

SUMMARY

It has not been easy to maintain balanced perspective, however grand the aim, in a study which was designed to focus on a number of inter-related factors some of which are personal whereas others are not. The reader of this thesis has to bear in mind that "the similarities" of perceptions have not been comprehensively emphasised as "the differences" in the sampled managers. On the whole, the sampled managers showed similar development motivation or expectation which reflected the general nature and scope of their job contexts, even though they had unidentical personal factors such as sex, educational background and age.

However, Heller (1974) whose work we have so frequently referred to and Marshall (1977) had the same problem of balance.

A P P E N D I C E S

Appendix A:

The different orientations of traditional management theorists and human relationists resulted, in part, from different assumptions about the nature of man. McGregor set forth two alternative views of people which he termed "Theory X" and "Theory Y".

Theory X

1. Management is responsible for organising the elements of productive enterprise - money, materials, equipment, people - in the interest of economic ends.
2. With respect to people, this is a process of directing their efforts, motivating them, controlling their actions, modifying their behaviour to fit the needs of the organisation.
3. Without this active intervention by management, people would be passive - even resistant - to organizational needs. They must therefore be persuaded, rewarded, punished, controlled - their activities must be directed. This is management's task. We often sum it up by saying that management consists of getting things done through other people.

Behind this conventional theory there are several additional beliefs - less explicit, but widespread:

4. The average man is by nature indolent - he works as little as possible.
5. He lacks ambition, dislikes responsibility, prefers to be led.
6. He is inherently self-centered, indifferent to organizational needs.
7. He is by nature resistant to change.
8. He is gullible, not very bright, the ready dupe of the charlatan and the demagogue.

Theory Y

1. Management is responsible for organizing the elements of productive enterprise - money, materials, equipment, people - in the interest of economic ends.

2. People are not by nature passive or resistant to organizational needs. They have become so as a result of experience in organizations.
3. The motivation, the potential for development, the capacity for assuming responsibility, the readiness to direct behaviour toward organizational goals are all present in people. Management does not put them there. It is a responsibility of management to make it possible for people to recognize and develop these human characteristics for themselves.
4. The essential task of management is to arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward organizational objectives.

These theories can be related to the need hierarchy in the sense that the traditional view of direction and control rely on the assumption that lower-level needs are dominant in motivating people to perform organizational tasks. It assumes that the average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can. He works to satisfy physiological and safety needs primarily through financial gain. He may be motivated through the threat of punishment and must be coerced and controlled in order to ensure performance. It does not take into account the motivation generated within the individual for achievement in order to enhance self-respect and move toward self-actualization.

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. It assumes that individuals have potential for development, will seek responsibility, and will be motivated by esteem and self-actualization needs which, if met, will satisfy both individual and organizational objectives

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANCHESTER INSTITUTE OF SCIENCE AND TECH.DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCESMANAGEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME (optional).....

ORGANISATION.....

Please indicate by circling the appropriate number in the following:

Which functional area listed below best describes your job? (1)

General Management.....1
 Finance.....2
 Production.....3
 Marketing.....4
 Personnel and Training.....5
 Research and Development.....6
 Corporate Planning.....7
 Public Relations.....8
 Others (please specify).....9

Are you: (2)

A line manager.....1
 A staff manager (i.e. specialist)?.....2

To which age group do you belong (3)

Under 20 years.....1
 20 - 24 years.....2
 25 - 29 years.....3
 30 - 34 years.....4
 35 - 39 years.....5
 40 - 44 years.....6
 45 - 49 years.....7
 50 - 54 years.....8
 55 and over.....9

At what age did you finish continuous full time education? (4)

Before 15 years.....1
 16 - 20 years.....2
 21 - 25 years.....3
 26 - 30 years.....4
 31 and over.....5

What is your highest educational qualification? (5) & (6)

e.g. G.C.E., O/L., B.Sc., etc.

Please write in.....

What is your highest professional/vocational qualification? (6) & (7)

Please write in.....

Are you: (8)

Male.....1
Female.....2

Do you consider your highest qualification directly relevant to the work you are doing? (9) (10)

	<u>Professional Qualification</u>	<u>Degree</u>
Yes, very relevant all the time.....1		1
Yes, very relevant from time to time.....2		2
No, not at all.....3		3

Would you have done without your highest qualifications in your job? (11) (12)

	<u>Professional Qualification</u>	<u>Degree</u>
Yes.....1		1
Don't know.....2		2
No.....3		3

How long (excluding services in the armed forces) is your working life to date? (13)

Below 20 years.....1
21 - 30 years.....2
31 - 40 years.....3
41 and above.....4

How long is your working life as manager (irrespective of whether you have been in the same or different organisations?) (14)

Below 10 years.....1
11 - 15 years.....2
16 - 20 years.....3
21 - 25 years.....4
26 and over.....5

How many organisations have you worked for, as a manager? (15)

Only this organisation.....1
Not more than 4 organisations.....2
5 organisations and over.....3

What is the maximum length of time you have spent in any one organisation (including your present organisation) as manager? (16)

Below 5 years.....1
6 - 10 years.....2
11 - 15 years.....3
16 - 20 years.....4
21 and over.....5

Have you attended any away - from job management development course? (17)

Yes.....1
No.....2

How important do you consider the course you have attended is to your job if answer to last question is yes? (18)

Not at all important.....1
Not very important.....2
Fairly important.....3
Very important.....4
Don't know.....5

How large is your organisation? (19)

Less than 10 employees.....1
10 but below 50 employees.....2
50 but below 100 employees.....3
100 but below 500 employees.....4
500 but below 1000 employees.....5
1000 but below 10000 employees.....6
10,000 and over.....7

Where are you situated in the hierarchy of your organisation. (20)

Top decision making.....1
Middle decision making.....2
Below middle decision making.....3
No decision making at all.....4

How many employees work directly under you?

(21)

Under 5 people.....1
 6 - 10 people.....2
 11 - 15 people.....3
 16 - 20 people.....4
 21 - 50 people.....5
 51 - 100 people.....6
 over 100 people.....7

SOME IMPORTANT OBJECTIVES

People have different viewpoints about what they expect from management development schemes. Below are a number of statements that express different points of view. Indicate by circling the number under the description which is closest to the way you feel about each objective.

	<u>Strongly agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>	
To prepare for a new job	5	4	3	2	1	(22)
Learn more about modern management techniques.	5	4	3	2	1	(23)
Get a better knowledge of relevant academic discipline	5	4	3	2	1	(24)
Broaden attitude	5	4	3	2	1	(25)
Learn improved method of handling problems	5	4	3	2	1	(26)
Increase managerial confidence	5	4	3	2	1	(27)
Increase profitability	5	4	3	2	1	(28)
Gain a deeper insight into problems of organisation	5	4	3	2	1	(29)

KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS AND ATTITUDES

We think it would be helpful to know something about your present knowledge, skills and attitudes as a manager. Please rate yourself on each aspect below by circling the appropriate number closest to how you feel yourself.

	<u>No knowledge at all</u>				<u>Thorough Knowledge</u>	
The theory of organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	(30)
How people behave in groups	1	2	3	4	5	(31)
Application of Economic Theory	1	2	3	4	5	(32)
The Implications of change	1	2	3	4	5	(33)
Motivation of people	1	2	3	4	5	(34)
Union Policies	1	2	3	4	5	(35)
Financial Management	1	2	3	4	5	(36)
Dealing with peers	1	2	3	4	5	(37)
International Marketing problems	1	2	3	4	5	(38)

PROBLEM SOLVING SKILLS

Rate your own competence on each of the activities below by circling the appropriate number.

	<u>No Skill</u>				<u>Competent</u>	
Developing subordinate	1	2	3	4	5	(39)
Extracting relevant information from written data	1	2	3	4	5	(40)
Predicting outcome of proposed organisation change	1	2	3	4	5	(41)
Making decisions in conditions of uncertainty	1	2	3	4	5	(42)
Using models in decision making	1	2	3	4	5	(43)

SOCIAL SKILL

	<u>No Skill</u>				<u>Competent</u>	
Dealing with conflict between people	1	2	3	4	5	(44)
Allowing for attitudes of others	1	2	3	4	5	(45)
Noting signs of stress in others	1	2	3	4	5	(46)
Using systematic approach to deal with social problems	1	2	3	4	5	(47)

ATTITUDES AND OPINIONS

Show how much you agree with each statement by circling the appropriate number.

	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Neither agree nor disagree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Strongly Agree</u>	
People are the least important factor in bringing about change	1	2	3	4	5	(48)
The Social Scientist can make a valuable contribution to management	1	2	3	4	5	(49)
There is usually one best way to solve managerial problems	1	2	3	4	5	(50)
I like taking calculated risks in things I do at work	1	2	3	4	5	(51)
I dislike changing my plans in the middle of doing something	1	2	3	4	5	(52)

OTHERS

Are there any circumstances which frustrate you and make you less effective as a manager? Please write in.....(53) &
(54)

Would you like a management development scheme which would enhance your (managerial style) even if no promotion would be involved because of it? (55)

Like.....3
Uncertain.....2
Don't like.....1

Do you prefer management development schemes which are? (56)

In-Company.....1
Away from job.....2

Ideally how long would you prefer management courses to be? (57)

Under 4 weeks.....1
4 weeks but less than 3 months.....2
3 months but less than 5 months.....3
6 months but less than 9 months.....4
9 months and over.....5

EVERYDAY ACTIVITY

This part of the questionnaire asks you to describe as objectively as you can about your job. Try to circle the number closest to how you do your job.

To what extent does your job require you to work with mechanical equipment? (58)

<u>Very little</u> <u>mechanical</u> <u>equipment</u>				<u>Moderately</u> <u>Mechanical</u> <u>Equipment</u>			<u>Very Much</u> <u>Mechanical</u> <u>Equipment</u>
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

To what extent does your job require you to work with people outside your department? (59)

<u>Very little</u>				<u>Moderately</u>			<u>Very Much</u>
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

To what extent (i.e. how much autonomy) does your job permit you to decide on how to go about your work? (60)

<u>Very little</u> <u>autonomy</u>				<u>Moderate</u> <u>autonomy</u>		<u>Very much</u> <u>autonomy</u>
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How much variety is there in your job? That is to what extent do you do many different things at work? (61)

<u>Very little</u> <u>variety</u>				<u>Moderate</u> <u>Variety</u>		<u>Very much</u> <u>Variety</u>
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How much co-operation do you get from other managers ? (62)

<u>Very little</u>				<u>Moderately</u>			<u>Very Much</u>
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

How much co-operation do you get from subordinates? (63)

<u>Very little</u>				<u>Moderately</u>			<u>Very much</u>
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

How much co-operation do you get from your bosses? (64)

<u>Very little</u>				<u>Moderately</u>			<u>Very much</u>
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

HOW ACCURATE IS EACH OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT IN DESCRIBING
THE GENERAL NATURE AND SCOPE OF YOUR JOB

Once again try to be objective. Write a number closest to the nature and scope of your job in the blank spaces.

<u>Very Inaccurate</u>	<u>Mostly Inaccurate</u>	<u>Slightly Inaccurate</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>	<u>Slightly Accurate</u>
1	2	3	4	5
<u>Mostly Accurate</u>	<u>Very Accurate</u>			
6	7			

The job requires a person to use a number of complex sophisticated skills.....(65)

The job requires a lot of co-operative work with other people.....(66)

The job is quite simple and repitive.....(67)

The job can be done adequately by one working alone...(68)

The job is one where a lot of people can be affected by how well the work gets done.....(69)

Co-managers in this organisation never give a person any 'feedback' about how well he or she is doing the work...(70)

The job denies a person any chance to use his or her personal initiative or discretion in carrying out the work.....(71)

The job itself provides a person with very few clues about whether or not the person is performing well.....(72)

The job gives a person considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how he or she does the work.....(73)

The job provides a person with the chance to finish completely any work he or she starts.....(74)

WE THINK IT WOULD BE HELPFUL TO KNOW SOMETHING ABOUT YOUR ORGANISATION'S SALES, PROFIT AND ABSENTEEISM

Please circle once again the number closest to your organisation in relation to the following:- (75)
Home Sales last Financial Year.

Under 25%.....1
25% but not more than 50%.....2
50% but not more than 75%.....3
75% but not more than 95%.....4
95% and over.....5
Does not apply to my organisation.....9

Overseas sales last financial year.....(76)

Under 25%.....1
25% but not more than 50%.....2
50% but not more than 75%.....3
75% but not more than 95%.....4
95% and over.....5
Does not apply to my organisation.....9

Net profit last financial year (on capital employed) (77)

A loss last year.....0
A profit between 0 - 4%.....1
A profit between 5 - 9%.....2
A profit between 10 - 14%.....3
A profit between 15 - 19%.....4
A profit between 20 - 24%.....5
A profit between 25 - 34%.....6
A profit between 35 - 44%.....7
On profit over 45%.....8
Does not apply to my organisation.....9

Number of people absent in your section last year. (78)

2% or under.....1
3 - 6%.....2
7 - 10%.....3
11 - 15%.....4
Higher than 15%.....5
Don't know.....9

APPENDIX C : PART 1

Table 1

Tables 1 - 4

Means and Standard Deviations of Management Development
Variables as perceived by the U.K. Managers (N=100)

Scale NO		Mean Score on objective index	Standard Deviation
22	To prepare for a new job.....	3.530	1.176
23	Learn more about modern management techniques.....	4.220	.760
24	Get a better knowledge of relevant academic discipline.....	3.540	1.150
25	To broaden attitude.....	4.330	.726
26	Learn improved method of handling problems.....	4.230	.709
27	Increase managerial confidence.....	4.230	.709
28	Increase profitability.....	3.960	1.063
29	Gain a deeper insight into problems of organisation.....	4.220	.705

Table 2C

Means and Standard Deviations of Knowledge skills
and attitudes as perceived by the sampled managers
U.K. (N=100)

Scale No	Variable name (knowledge, skills and attitudes.)	Mean Score on competency index	Standard Deviations
30	The theory of or ganisation.....	3.610	.883
31	How people behave in groups.....	3.540	.937
32	Application of Economic theory.....	3.030	1.010
33	The implication of change.....	3.420	.934
34	Motivation of people.....	3.890	.898
35	Union policies.....	3.340	1.112
36	Financial Management.....	3.290	1.258
37	Dealing with peers.....	3.700	1.142
38	International Marketing problems...	2.190	1.116

APPENDIX C

Table 2c (Continued)

No	<u>Skill Area</u>	Mean Score	S.D.
39	Developing Subordinates.....	3.970	.886
40	Extracting relevant information from data.....	3.810	1.110
41	Predicting outcome of proposed organ- isation change.....	3.670	.853
42	Making decisions in conditions of uncertainty.....	3.880	.808
43	Use model in decision making.....	2.650	1.086
44	Dealing with conflict between people.....	4.070	.782
45	Allowing for attitudes of others...	4.010	.882
46	Noting signs of stress in others...	3.880	.879
47	Using systematic approach to deal with problems.....	3.390	1.024

Table 3C

No	<u>Opinions & Attitudes Area</u>	Mean Score	S.D.
48	People are the least important factor in bringing about change....	4.210	.740
49	The Social Scientist can make a valuable contribution to Mgt.....	3.520	1.420
50	There is usually one best way to solve managerial problems.....	2.150	1.087
51	I like taking calculated risks in the things I do at work.....	3.120	1.037
52	I dislike changing my plans in the middle of doing something.....	2.990	1.087
53	Job frustration.....	3.700	1.126
55	Preference of management development course.....	4.102	0.810

APPENDIX C Means and Standard Deviations of the Scope and general nature of job activity as perceived by the U.K. Managers
Table 4C (N=100)

<u>Scale</u> <u>No</u>	<u>Nature and Scope of Job Area</u>	<u>Mean</u> <u>Score</u>	<u>SD</u>
58	Extent of job requirement to work with mechanical equipment.....	2.470	1.800
59	Extent to work with people outside own department.....	5.250	.989
60	Autonomy.....	5.610	1.136
61	Variety.....	5.860	1.206
62	Peer co-operation.....	5.470	1.114
63	Subordinates co-operation.....	5.830	1.101
64	Co-operation from own bosses.....	5.310	1.285
65	Job complexity.....	5.160	1.650
70	Feedback.....	3.370	1.709
71	Personal initiative.....	2.180	1.424
73	Opportunity for independence in how job is done.....	5.330	1.518
74	Opportunity to finish job started.	5.121	3.837
75	Home Sales last financial year....	5.720	3.125
76	Overseas Sales last financial year	3.710	1.820
77	Net profit last financial year (on capital employed.....	3.820 4.540	1.210 .860
78	Rate of absenteeism in own dept. last year.....		

Appendix C (Tables 1, 2, 3 and 4) above presents the means and standard deviations of the responses of the U.K. participants in the various variable categories on which statistical tests were carried out.

APPENDIX C Part two: NigeriaRespondents mean scores and Standard Deviations
as perceived by the Nigerian Managers(N=88)Appendix C Table 5

<u>Scale No.</u>	<u>Development Objectives Variables</u>	<u>Mean Scores</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
25	Broaden Attitude	4.09	.70
27	Increase Managerial Confidence	4.22	.69
26	Learn Improve Methods of Handling Problems	4.13	.69
29	Gain a Deeper Insight into Problems of Organisation	4.13	.78
23	Learn More About Modern Management Techniques	4.13	.68
28	Increase Profitability	3.89	.98
24	Get Better Knowledge of Relevant Academic Discipline	4.08	.70

Appendix C Table 6Problem Solving Skills and Competences

<u>Scale No.</u>		<u>Mean Scores</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
39	Developing Subordinate	4.17	.70
42	Making Decisions in Conditions of Uncertainty	3.52	.89
41	Predicting Outcome of Proposed Organisation Change	3.52	.89
43	Using Models in Decision Making	3.00	1.15
44	Dealing with Conflict Between People	3.95	.78
45	Allowing for Attitudes of Others	3.96	.80
46	Noting Signs of Stress in Others	4.10	.74
47	Using Systematic Approach to Deal with Problems	3.62	.93
<u>Attitudes and Opinions</u>			
51	I Like Taking Calculated Risks in Things I do at Work	3.01	.94
52	I Dislike Changing My Plans in the Middle of Doing Things	3.99	.97
50	There is Usually One Best Way to Solve Managerial Problems	2.08	1.08

Appendix C Tables 5 - 8 represent the basis of analysis for the Nigerian sample.

Appendix C Part Two Table 7

<u>Scale No.</u>	<u>Knowledge Area: (N=88)</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
34	Motivation of People	3.94	.88
37	Dealing with Peers	3.85	1.10
31	How People Behave in Groups	3.81	.83
30	Organisation Theory	3.67	.83
33	The Implication of change	3.42	.88
35	Union Policy	3.32	1.10
36	Financial Management	3.09	1.13
32	Application of Economic Theory	3.27	1.03
38	Dealing with International Marketing Problems	2.21	1.32

Appendix C Table 8
Daily Job Activity and General Nature
of the Managerial Job: (N=88)

NO.	EVERYDAY JOB ACTIVITY	Mean Scores	S.D.
60	To what extent (i.e. how much autonomy) does your job permit you to decide on how to go about your work?	5.445	1.081
61	How much co-operation do you get from Subordinates?	5.989	1.119
62	How much variety is there in your job? That is to what extent do you do many different things at work?	5.182	1.402
63	How much co-operation do you get from your bosses?	5.727	1.122
64	How much co-operation do you get from other managers?	5.648	1.241
59	To what extent does your job require you to work with people outside your department?	5.739	1.450
58	To what extent does your job require you to work with mechanical equipment?	2.841	1.787
<u>GENERAL NATURE OF JOB</u>			
66	The job requires a lot of co-operative work with other people	5.807	1.163
	The job gives a person considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how he or she does the work	4.750	1.563
65	The job requires a person to use a number of complex sophisticated skills	4.547	1.747
67	The job is quite simple and repetitive	2.534	1.774
72	The job itself provides a person with very few clues about whether or not the person is performing well	3.011	1.784
70	Co-managers in this organisation never give a person any 'feed-back' about how he or she is doing the work	3.011	1.610
71	The job denies a person any chance to use his or her personal initiative or discretion in carrying out the work	2.511	1.749
69	The job is one where a lot of people can be affected by how well the work gets done	5.826	1.566
74	The job provides a person with the chance to finish completely any work he or she starts	5.091	1.551
68	The job can be done adequately by one working alone	2.102	1.561

Appendix C Table 9

The Relationship Between Status and Managerial Skills, Development Expectations and Job Factors as Perceived by the U.K. and Nigerian Managers.

	<u>Nigeria (N=88)</u>		<u>U.K. (N=100)</u>		<u>F.Ratio</u>
	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	
<u>Knowledge Variables</u>					
Theory of Organisation	3.67	.83	3.61	.88	1.78
Group Behaviour	3.81	.83	3.54	.94	1.54
Implication of Change	3.42	.88	3.42	.93	1.25
Motivation of People	3.94	.88	3.89	.89	1.87
Union Policies	2.32	1.10	3.34	1.11	2.94***
Financial Management	3.09	1.13	3.29	1.25	1.76*
Dealing with Conflicts	3.95	.78	4.07	.78	1.85*
International Marketing Problems	2.21	1.32	2.19	1.11	1.02
Using Models in Decision Making	3.00	1.15	2.65	1.08	1.05
<u>Development Variables</u>					
To Broaden Attitude	4.09	.70	4.33	.73	1.83*
Increase Managerial Confidence	4.22	.69	4.23	.71	1.05
How to Handle Problems	4.13	.69	4.23	.71	1.89
Modern Techniques	4.13	.78	4.22	.76	1.80*
Increase Profitability	3.89	.98	3.96	1.06	1.25
<u>Job Factors</u>					
Autonomy	5.44	1.08	5.61	1.14	2.90***
Job Variety	5.18	1.40	5.86	1.21	1.85*
Cooperation from Peers	5.65	1.24	5.47	1.11	1.80*
Cooperation from Bosses	5.72	1.12	5.31	1.28	1.40
Use of Mechanical Equipment	2.84	1.78	2.47	1.80	1.16
Job Complexity	4.55	1.75	5.16	1.65	1.89*
Working Alone	2.10	1.56	4.14	1.63	2.45**
Clues of Performance	3.01	1.61	4.22	.97	1.94**
Chance to Complete Work Begun	5.09	1.45	5.72	3.83	1.02
Dealings Outside Own Department	5.74	1.75	5.25	.98	1.16
Personal Initiative	2.51	1.75	2.18	1.42	1.80*

Significant at or better * = .05;

** = .01;

*** = .001

APPENDIX D

INSTITUTIONS ENGAGED IN PROVIDING MANAGEMENT
EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN NIGERIA.

Section A. SOME NIGERIA UNIVERSITIES.

1. University of Ibadan:

Department of Economics
(Accounting and Finance within the Economics Degree.)

2. University of Nigeria Nsukka. Enugu Campus.

Departments of:-

Accounting, Finance, Marketing and Management.

3. Ahmedu Bello University, Zaria

Departments of:-

Business Administration, Accounting, Administrative
Studies and Adult Education and Extension Services
Unit.

4. University of Ife:

Institute of Administration

Industrial Research and Development Unit, and
Department of Economics.

5. University of Lagos

Departments of:-

Accounting, Finance, Business Administration and
Centre for Continuing Education.

6. University of Benin

Department of Economics and Business Studies.

7. University of Calabar

Department of Management Studies.
(In the Faculty of Social Sciences).

APPENDIX D (Continued)

Section B. SOME POLYTECHNICS AND COLLEGES OF TECHNOLOGY

1. Yaba College of Technology:
Department of Management and Business Studies.
2. Staff Development Centre
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna.
(a) Department of Management Studies.
(b) Department of Commerce.
3. College of Science and Technology, Port Harcourt.
School of Business Studies.
4. Institute of Management and Technology, Enugu.
Division of Management and Business Studies.
5. College of Technology Ilorin, Kwara.
School of Management and Vocations.
6. The Polytechnic, Ibadan
Department of Commerce.
7. Auchi Polytechnic, Benin City.
School of Business Studies.
8. College of Technology, Calabar
Department of Business Studies.
9. Departments of Business Studies at colleges of technology
Sokoto, Imo, Niger and Benue States.

Section C PROFESSIONAL MANAGEMENT BODIES

1. The Centre For Management Development.
2. Industrial Training Fund.
3. Institute of Personnel Management of Nigeria.
4. Nigerian Institute of Chartered Accountants.
5. Institute of Works Managers, Nigeria Branch.
6. Nigerian Society of Cost and Management Accountants.
7. Federal Ministry of Establishment Staff Development
Division.
8. Institute of Supervisory Management, Nigeria.
9. Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON).
10. The Nigerian Institute of Management (NIM).

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