

THE ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT FOR MANAGEMENT EDUCATION AND  
TRAINING IN THE NIGERIAN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE ENTERPRISES

by

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CERTIFICATION

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT THE THESIS -

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D E D I C A T I O N

TO

ALL THE MEMBERS OF MY FAMILY  
AND ESPECIALLY TO

SIR GODWIN C. N. EKWUNIFE (Brother);

QZQ DAVID B. A. EKWUNIFE (Uncle);

COMFORT IFY NWUGO UGOOJI-EKWUNIFE (Wife);

AND

SAMUEL IFEANYI TOOCHUKWU UGOOJI-EKWUNIFE (Son)

They sent darkness to my careers way,  
and storms to quake its foundation;  
but like a miracle which holds an arm  
of one pushed into roaring tide,

You lifted me from their attempted harm  
and helped my shaken stride to be firm  
on the road to fulfilment's abode.

— Mmuobuasi.

## ABSTRACT

The need for effective management of both the public and private enterprises in Nigeria has been felt ever since the country attained independence. The rapid pace of industrialisation that followed independence, the Nigerianisation of the public service, and the retardation of management performance in both the public and private sectors, the failure of most state and federal corporations, as well as efforts to indigenise the economy as stipulated by the indigenisation decree, and the proliferation of new technologies: all called for a pool of professionally competent managers.

The purpose of this research work therefore, was to find out the extent to which Nigerian private and public enterprises had been willing to train and educate their management staff. The objective therefore was to identify the constraints that these organisations faced, with regard to the training of their management staff, to identify the characteristics of organisations that found it difficult to provide training and to recommend measures that would enable them train more of their management staff.

To achieve the above objective, 200 organisations were selected from a list of companies and organisations, which was provided by the Nigerian Employers Consultative Association (NECA), through systematic random sampling



procedures. The sample was made up of 47 government parastatals or corporations and 153 private companies and organisations established in all parts of the country. A questionnaire was administered to the Chief Executives and Training Managers of the 200 organisations, as well as 200 randomly sampled individuals in the management cadre of these organisations. The 200 randomly sampled individuals in the management cadre of these organisations, must have attended or participated in one training programme or the other. The field work which spanned over a period of six months also involved oral interviews and discussions with some of these three categories of personnel, as well as examination of in-plant, on-the-job, training programmes and observation of training sessions.

The data obtained from the field were analysed basically through the application of statistical tools such as chi-square test of differences between categories and the analysis of variance.

Major findings include the following: On the whole, most Nigerian organisations have accepted management education and training as a central philosophy on which to base their well-being and progress. They were found to show adequate support for the training of management personnel on fairly regular basis. On the average, the manager in each of the organisations studied, underwent training at least once in every two and a half years.

Most Nigerian organisations gave priority to the training of production and marketing management staff, and the benefit of management training primarily in terms of increased productivity and profitability. Yet the literature suggested that the areas of managerial deficiency in Nigeria were essentially financial control, delegation of responsibilities, industrial relations and participative management. They were given rather low premium as managerial goals, by most of the organisations studied.

Other findings include the facts that organisations situated in urban areas trained their management staff more often and regularly than those established in rural areas. In the training schemes of most of the corporations, the junior management and supervisory staff seemed to be neglected.

Some recommendations were made based on the findings of the study. Emphasis on management education and training must be placed equally on all aspects of management functions. Higher institutions in the country must begin to develop specific courses leading to advanced degrees in Research and Development to fill the crucial gap in management competencies in the country. There is need to take the problems of transfer of learning by ex-trainees seriously. Chief executives of Nigerian organisations must consider institutional management training as important as in-plant or on-the-job training.

The institutional management training is the source for new ideas for growth. A good measure of concessions must be granted small organisations and those situated in rural areas, to encourage them to train their management staff.

It can be concluded that although the concept of management education and training has now gained firm ground in the country, its practice needs to be improved if its potential is to be fully realised for economic growth. The benefits of management training are still viewed in narrow and parochial terms rather than as a process contributing towards the overall development of the economy. Institutional forms of training are still looked upon with suspicion, and the management staff in the lower rung as well as some management functions, seem to be neglected. These are the most critical problems facing management education practice in the country; in this regard there must be a change of attitude by the decision-makers, and recommendation be made and implemented if management training is to contribute effectively towards national development.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

##### 1.1.1 NEED FOR MANAGEMENT EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN NIGERIA

The need to produce in Nigeria a large cadre of indigenous management professionals became acute only after national independence. Until then, most of the management staff who operated in the country were foreigners from the colonial metropolis. The reasons for such a situation were not hard to find. In public administration, most of the Heads of Departments and Ministries were, until independence, employed by the colonial office in London to ensure the continued survival of the colonial system. In finance and industry, most of the institutions were owned by foreign, metropolitan concerns. Management decisions were taken mostly in the colonial metropolis, and reached the senior staff in the colony, themselves usually whites, as directives.

The danger that such a dependent situation posed for an independent country became apparent to Nigeria soon after independence in 1960, and led to various measures geared towards, firstly, the Africanisation of the Civil Service, and the promulgation of the indigenisation decree which sought to place ownership and control of business in the hands of local people.

These two measures, ironically, brought into sharp focus the dearth of management expertise in Nigeria. The

result has been, since the early 1970's, great importance has been attached to the role of training in our overall schemes of national development.

Even then, one can note that the implementation of management training schemes in the country has been a very slow process. As explained earlier, this situation was largely due to the fact that most management positions were held by expatriates, who received their training overseas. It took a decade after independence for Nigeria to take steps towards reducing her dependence on foreign trained management personnel. With the Indigenisation Decree (1971), leading to the departure of many expatriate management staff from Nigeria, there developed an acute need to train indigenous management staff.

As was the case in most other nations faced with similar problems, two approaches were invariably resorted to. These approaches were "Operation Stop-Gap" (Urwick, 1948) and "Operation Future" (Urwick, 1948). The first was the improvement of the quality of existing management staff through crash in-service training programmes designed to make existing managers perform their current jobs better and more effectively. The second, "Operation Future", was the continuous production of future managers, fully equipped with training, education and experience to ensure constantly rising standard of management.

Using Colonel Urwick's terms, Ifaturoti observed that "Operation Stop-Gap" could not do more than its name implied, that is, a palliative; for it to become permanently

effective, it must be dovetailed into the individual's continuous development or "Operation Future".

The strategy for the well-being of any society therefore must be based on conscious aims to raise the standard of living of all concerned. That strategy requires the regular production of an adequate number of skilled people to man the different levels of each enterprise, private or public. These skilled people are managers, professional men like accountants and engineers, technologists, technicians, and/or leaders who must have passed through the formal educational system, and must have undergone or undertaken specialised training in their fields and are flexible in mind enough to continue to up-date those skills and broaden their own perspectives. Furthermore, according to Professor Harbison (1960), we need to devise a strategy, the components of which are:-

1. The building of appropriate incentives,
2. The effective training of employed manpower, and
3. The rational development of formal education.

These three components are interdependent as progress in one area depends on progress in the other two.

One of the earlier attempts to find permanent solutions to the shortage of management staff in Africa took place at a meeting held in Addis Ababa under the auspices of the International Labour Organisation (I.L.O) in 1966. This meeting highlighted the need for developing managerial and entrepreneurial resources in Africa, and

lamented the shortage of middle management and specialist personnel. It also discussed the problems of re-integration of staff who had gone for courses of training, education or development, and those who would make use, and others who would effect the transfer; of the newly acquired experience and knowledge.

At the same meeting of the I.L.O. Technical Experts on Managerial and Entrepreneurial Development in Africa held in Addis Ababa (1966), two major problems were seen to be of paramount importance in most African countries in so far as the ownership and management of business enterprises were concerned. These were:

1. The need to replace expatriate personnel at all levels in the management of commerce and industry as quickly and as effectively as possible, and
2. The need to stimulate the growth of existing national enterprises and to create new ones in order to reduce the drain on foreign exchange reserve; to create opportunity for productive employment and thus raise living standards and to ensure that the control of the economic activities of the countries concerned was in fact, in the hands of their peoples.

The Nigerian Second National Development Plan, 1970-1974 dealt with Nigerianisation in details, and it

was based on the realisation that whatever nation ignored its entrepreneurs did so at its own risk. As Kibly (1963), found in his studies of specific indigenous enterprises, the principal causes of failure of most of them was deficient entrepreneurial capabilities. His studies were on Nigerian business performance in the rubber, baking and saw-milling industries. That the lack of capacity by the Nigerian entrepreneur was the main cause of business failure, was the same conclusion reached by Harris and Rowe (1965), in their study of 268 of the largest indigenous industrial firms in the country. The problems were recognised as:

1. Poor financial management and control;
2. Inability to cope with the demands of growth effect, for example, poor delegation of authority;
3. Defective management of marketing; and
4. Dissipation of effort by premature diversification.

Training to overcome those problems however, could not be the only solution to the entrepreneurs' problems. Kilby (1966) maintained that what was needed was the development of certain requisite entrepreneur characteristics relating to performance in the organisational and technological sphere and the avoidance of certain traditional, social and cultural factors common to all of Nigeria's ethnic groups that impeded

successful management practices. If this hypothesis is correct, according to Kilby, it implied that formal training and experience would not in themselves enable Nigerian entrepreneurs to substantially displace, over the next few decades, foreign entrepreneurs who then dominated the medium and large-scale industrial sector.

But there were findings which were opposed to the views advanced by Kilby. These findings were made at the Conference conducted by the Institute of Development Studies at Bellagio, Italy (1967), on "The Social Barriers to African Entrepreneurship" in Kenya. The Conference recognised two problems in the development of African business, namely, to bring Africans into an economy dominated by Europeans and Asians and to stimulate African entrepreneurship which demanded a high degree of initiative, originality and motivation. The Conference found that the problems of African Entrepreneurs were not those that were usually mentioned; money, skill or socio-cultural patterns. It found that the crucial determinant of entrepreneurial talent or progress was the ability to assemble or re-assemble from what was available to one of a new kind of activity and to re-interpret the meaning of things and fit them together in new ways.

Another crucial determinant suggested by the Bellagio Conference was the African businessman's unfamiliarity with his new market, once he left his local market for the more competitive outside market.

The relevance of the finding of the Bellagio Conference

for training is in marketing management, so that Nigerian's ingenuity as a craftsman, for example, could be matched by a corresponding imagination in selling what he made. Secondly, the problem here is not so much as to train Nigerians in the business methods of Europeans but to make expatriate and Nigerian businessmen more familiar with each other and each other's societies and establish personal relationships.

As in most other African countries, localisation took place initially in the civil service. The rate at which private expatriate organisations Nigerianised varied according to the intensity of external pressures and their own perception of the economic advantages derived from employing Nigerian managers.

To speed up effective Nigerianisation in the private sector, the training needs of Nigerian managers were recognised by Greaves (1971) as:

1. the development of a high level of professional competence of international standards,
2. understanding of the social, economic and political environment in which they operate, and
3. the continuous processes of change in which they have to operate.

Ugooji-Ekwunife (1982) stressed the significant contribution of overseas training of Nigerian managers to



the attainment of the needs stated above. By exposing Nigerian managers to the managerial demands of industrially-developed countries or even other developing countries at various stages of technological progress, they develop standards against which to compare their performance at home. However, what they learn elsewhere may not be practised in its entirety at home; hence the need for adaptation, improvisation or even innovation.

It seems obvious that a genuine effort to Nigerianize managerial posts can be speeded up by sending Nigerian Managers on oversea working courses. Greaves (1971), gave credence to this view when he maintained that the rate of Nigerianisation depends not only on external pressures and the ability and integrity of Nigerian managers but also on the commitment to Nigerianisation by the expatriate senior management and the overseas head office board of directors. His advice was to pay good attention to the type of expatriate manager who should be expected to speed up effective Nigerianisation. Such an expatriate manager, he advised, must be internationally recognised as a highly competent man technically, and he must be able and willing to teach Nigerian managers his skills. The first requisite ensures that he has something worthwhile to teach. The second one means that he will teach Nigerians and do his utmost to speed up Nigerianisation. Greaves concluded by suggesting the right types of expatriates. They should be the type of expatriates. They should be the type of expatriates with

the requisite qualifications. The attributes mentioned above should be their job descriptions, and should include amongst other things, the right type of human relations which they would be expected to show in their dealings with the people they would teach the job. Also, orientation and induction courses for them should be conducted here in Nigeria by both Nigerians and expatriates who have an up-to-date appreciation of the problems involved.

It is becoming increasingly obvious to developed and developing countries alike that their future survival as economic entities depends to a large extent on the management of their resources. Consequently, the problem of manpower has for the past few decades received the attention it deserves as a priority investment. For a developing country like Nigeria, the task of meeting the demand for trained managers is necessarily an acute one because there are so many other areas competing for the limited available resources.

The effective utilisation of foreign aid will provide a case in point. Aid takes a variety of forms, but in the economic sphere it may be given for a large scale development project like a dam; or it may take the form of the commencement or expansion of operations by a consultancy firm. In either case, the aid is only effective when there are sufficient managerial and technical skills available to ensure an economic level of plant utilisation when operations commence. If those

skilled are expatriates, only a proportion of the objectives will have been achieved, because, for obvious reasons, the recipient nation wishes to manage and control its own resources.

The problem, therefore, becomes one of understanding what the process of management is, in order that some management skills can be passed on to others. It is now becoming recognised that management is much more than the series of generalised principles that it was once thought to be. Studies carried out by Woodward, Burns and Stalker, Trist, Higgin and others (1964), indicated that management can only be understood and practised effectively in terms of a thorough knowledge of the environment in which it operates. This means that the process is subject to influence from the local culture, technology, ideology, economic policies, and the characteristics and backgrounds of managers and the managed. Consequently, there is more realisation that some knowledge of a manager's background can, and will, influence the manner in which he should be trained and developed, and therefore his performance. Greaves (1968), supported the findings of the studies made by Woodward et al by re-emphasizing the importance of education, training and re-training to the overall growth and development of the manager.

Hunt and Greaves (1969) observed that developing nations are strongly impelled to adopt technology, but to acquire the maximum benefits of the technology they require management talent capable of dealing with modern

factories in a developing country; but much to the disappointment of the economic planner, it has been found that it is far more difficult to put together an organisation that can operate these factories efficiently.

Principally, this is because developing nations lack the necessary trained managerial manpower. The experience of employers in Nigeria bears this out. In a recent survey involving fifty-two of Nigeria's largest public and private organisations (Omolayole, 1970), it was revealed that 75 per cent of these organisations considered the scarcity of men capable of stepping into positions of management as one of their foremost managerial problems. With growing industrialisation and the policy of Nigerianisation, employers in Nigeria are searching for sources of managerial talent to tackle the current problems and to train others for future organisational growth.

Hunt and Greaves (1969) went further to observe that in order to satisfy the management needs of the country, the natural tendency is to turn to institutions of higher learning because it is common knowledge that university graduates are prime candidates for positions of responsibility because of their higher level of education. Even if university graduates were available in adequate numbers, it is questionable in certain circumstances if they are equipped to assume the responsibilities of the managerial positions open to them. As Omolayole (1965), pointed out, there was often a clash between the qualified university graduate and the experienced boss who rose

through the ranks. The young graduates often complained that their experienced Nigerian bosses behaved as if they were not wanted and on the other hand the experienced Nigerians frequently said that the young men were arrogant and assumed the air of knowing all the answers and that they ensured maximum comfort for themselves with little desire for sacrifices. Before this time, it was a generally accepted fact that there were not enough students of business administration. Hunt and Greaves (1969), observed that the scramble for the number of Business Administration graduates at Ahmadu Bello University was evident of this. For example, the 148 students who graduated in 1968 had approximately fifteen organisations vying for their services. Three of these organisations were willing to take five or more of these graduates each, and in fact, two of the larger organisations succeeded in attracting over fifty per cent of the graduating class. With the above situation, it seemed that a number of managerial posts would continue to be filled from within the ranks by training on-the-job, and by attendance at appropriate external management development courses for the more promising in-takes at lower levels. Today, the situation is completely different.

The relationships between University-educated managers and traditional managers in the country can be illustrated with the situation in Northern Nigeria in 1969. Out of 167 Nigerian Managers in the major private and public organisations in Kano, Kaduna, Jos and Zaria,

only ten per cent had university degrees with thirty-four per cent educated beyond the secondary school level. The amazing fact is that sixty-six per cent of the managers had no education beyond the secondary school level. This is shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Distribution of Nigerian Managers and Level of Education in Northern Nigeria in 1969

Level of Education	Number of Managers	Per cent of Total**
Primary Education or less	29	17
Secondary Education	82	49
Post Secondary*	40	24
University Graduates	16	10
Total	167	100%

\* (Post-secondary means further education such as courses of study leading to diplomas or company training programmes).

\*\* Figures rounded to nearest whole percentage.

What is perhaps even more impressive is that in examining this group which had no schooling beyond the secondary level, it was found that seventy-nine per cent of them held responsible positions in senior and middle management. This is shown in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Distribution of Nigerian Managers with Secondary Education and Less in Northern Nigeria in 1969

Level of Management*	Number of Managers	Per cent of Total**
Top Management	1	1
Upper Middle Management	14	12
Lower Middle Management	73	66
First Line Supervisors	23	21
Total	111	100%

\* Levels of management were determined on the basis of responsibility. Top management people were those involved in major policy decision making. Upper middle management were involved in major policy decisions at the departmental level (main departments such as finance, production, marketing, etc). Lower, middle management were people who had the job classification of departmental assistant or head of minor departments such as purchasing or office manager or as management trainees. First line supervisors were just above the foreman level in the chain of command.

\*\* Figures rounded to nearest full percentage.

The fact that these managers without university education are doing well indicates that the nation can benefit tremendously from looking at management development not necessarily as over-shot educational activity, but as part of resource development process.

The question that management education and training is then faced with is: "Is sufficient attention being given to this reservoir of talent ? Can people in intermediate ranks be developed to help fill the managerial void which confronts private and public industry today ?" (Hunt and Greaves, 1968, p.25).

Looking more closely at the data on Nigerian managers in the Northern States of Nigeria, another issue seems to be raised. Is management education being neglected ? In the total sample of these Nigerian Managers, only twenty-eight per cent had received any form of management education. The following table serves to illustrate the findings.

Table 1.3: Distribution of Nigerian Managers and Type of Management Education Received in Northern Nigeria in 1969

Type of Management Education Received	Number of Managers	Per cent of Total*
No management education	121	72
Courses at technical schools level	20	12
Company managerial development course	21	13
Degree or Diploma in Management Studies	5	3
* Total	167	100%

\* Figures rounded to nearest whole percentage.



The important point the survey by Hunt and Greaves revealed was that there is a large body of manpower which is in need of development. Hunt and Greaves maintained that alternatives should be examined in the light of present conditions and decisions made as to the best way of dealing with the training requirements of this group. They suggested that a variety of methods should be employed; some of the more obvious methods they suggested, being:

1. Formal classroom education;
2. Company training programmes;
3. Formal classroom education coupled with on-the-job training; and
4. Self-development education.

They concluded by asserting that, at all management levels, there was a need for training and upgrading of persons now on the jobs from the smallest business venture to the largest public corporation. The large organisations are fortunate in that they can mount personnel training programmes on their own. It is the great number of the small and medium sized organisations that are at a disadvantage. They do not have the staff nor the finance to support their own training programmes. They are not only the group with the largest number of members, but in most cases they also have the greatest need and demand for training.

### 1.1.2 AN OVERVIEW OF MANAGEMENT EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN NIGERIA

The History of Management education in Nigeria is closely bound with its colonial experience. As is generally known, management education at the university level originated from free enterprise economy of the United States of America (Udo-Aka, 1982). At the initial period, the academic input came from members of faculty of economics who were interested in business practice focussing mainly on accounting, finance, transportation, money and banking. The Wharton School of Business, established in Pennsylvania in 1881, was the first of its kind in the world. By 1900, there were 13 such schools and by 1919 the number had risen to 48. Today, almost all colleges and universities offer management-related courses at both undergraduate and postgraduate degree levels (Udo-Aka, 1986).

Britain, unlike the United States, did not offer formal management-related courses before 1960. Before then, however, Polytechnics and Technical Colleges in Britain offered short-term courses for experienced managers. The neglect of management education in the British educational system might have resulted from the belief that management skills and knowledge could only be acquired from on-the-job experience and not through formal programmes taught in academic institutions. History has since shown that such a neglect of management education was costly to the British economy in the face of intense international competition.

Nigeria, understandably inherited the British system of education. It will be recalled that neither the Yaba College which was established in the early 1930s nor the University of Ibadan established in 1948 offered management-related courses until very recently. Higher education focused on law, medicine, classics, history, geography and economics. At the beginning, the Colleges of Arts, Science and Technology were concerned with the training of intermediate grades rather than higher level manpower, (Dike, 1969). They trained engineering assistants rather than engineers, medical assistants rather than fully qualified doctors, teachers rather than education officers. Nigerians were not being developed to perform management functions.

The only avenues for employment of literate Nigerians were in the Civil Service and in teaching, though not at decision making levels. In view of the high prestige associated with working in the Civil Service, it was unusual for university graduates and even technicians during the colonial period to prefer employment in the limited private sector organisations. This state of affairs had implications for the development of management education in Nigeria.

For one thing, the few Nigerians who were employed in private firms started at the clerical levels and rose through the ranks by dint of hardwork, personal sacrifice and self-development. It still took a long time for those who entered private sector employment at a later period

with higher educational qualifications to be trusted with managerial responsibilities. Nevertheless, those of them who had leadership potential were given on-the-job training in Nigeria and Overseas.

Deriving from the philosophy and apparent bias of British education, the Civil Service believed in on-the-job training rather than planned continuous development throughout one's career. Once a person entered the Service, his obedience, knowledge of rules, and long experience would see him through. He did not need to learn any thing new outside his job. As a result, Civil Servants developed "an all-knowing", "who-can-teach-me" attitude which has lingered on even till today (Udo-Aka, 1986).

It should be mentioned also that as the economy developed and the few large firms started to employ Nigerians to supervisory and managerial positions, the first generation of Nigerian managers entered the private sector through the Civil Service route. That generation of managers later occupied leadership positions in the private sector. As for the public corporations and state-owned enterprises, those holding managerial and leadership positions have traditionally been posted from the main stream of the Civil Service. The point being emphasized here is that the Civil Service orientation of the first generation of Nigerian managers negatively affected the pace of management development in the country.

The origin of management education in Nigeria dates

back to 1959 when the Federal Government set up the Ashby Commission to advise on the country's needs in the field of post-secondary and higher education. In its report published in 1960 titled Investment in Education, the Commission recommended among other things:-

- (a) establishment of three universities;
- (b) introduction of management education at the University and Polytechnic levels.

The title of the Ashby Commission report is very significant, in that for the first time in Nigeria, the development of human resources was identified as an investment. A year after the publication of the Ashby Commission report in 1960, a degree programme in Business Administration was offered for the first time in a Nigerian University - the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. Today, management development is carried out at various levels by the following organisations:

- (a) Statutory Bodies;
- (b) Non-statutory organisations bodies and professionals; and
- (c) Higher Educational Institutions.

We may briefly discuss the work of some of the major training bodies so as to be able to estimate the extent of availability of training programmes for the various management cadre in Nigeria.

(a) Statutory Bodies:

As observed earlier, one of the fundamental issues

that have consistently attracted the interest and concern of succeeding governments in Nigeria since Independence in 1960 has been that of Manpower Development.

Right from the beginning of Nigeria's Nationhood, it was apparent that the rate of national development and technological advancement devolved not so much on the availability of means and resources but on the articulation and effective utilisation of Nigeria's vast human and material resources. The Federal and the then Regional Governments in Nigeria realised early enough that if the attained political independence was to have any meaningful impact on the general well-being of its citizens, it must be complemented promptly and definitely by a rapid transformation of the nation's economy to achieve self-reliance.

The initial efforts aimed at achieving rapid national development were concentrated on the expansion of the nation's formal educational institutions. Although these efforts led to considerable increase in the number of people trained, they did not lead to the acquisition of the skilled knowledge and varied technological expertise required to meet the needs of special and vital sectors of the economy.

It became increasingly clear, in government, commerce and industry, that the growth and economic advancement of the country required in addition, the services of trained workers and professionals who possessed technological skills and or executive capacity to provide specialised

services of all sorts.

Thus, in response to identified needs of the economy, during the Second National Development Plan (1970-1974), the Federal Government of Nigeria established three (3) Federal Parastatals charged with responsibilities for Manpower Development and Training, namely:- the Industrial Training Fund (I.T.F) in 1971; the Nigerian Council for Management Development and Training (N.C.M.D) in 1972, and the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON) in 1973.

(i) The Industrial Training Fund

The Industrial Training Fund was established by the Federal Military Government during the Second National Development Plan period (1970-1974), and was charged with broad responsibilities for manpower development and training. Its enabling Decree, No. 47 of 8th October, 1971, defined its objectives as the promotion and encouragement of the acquisition of skills in commerce and industry with a view of generating a pool of indigenous trained manpower sufficient to meet the needs of the economy.

The Decree spelt out the function to be carried out by the Industrial Training Fund in the projected National Development Plans and which would result in raising the proportion of the nation's economically active population in order to produce a greater ratio of effective labour force participation, efficiency and increased productivity

in the overall national economy. To be able to generate this needed pool of skilled and efficient indigenous manpower, the Governing Council of the Industrial Training Fund is empowered by the decree:

1. to provide facilities for training of persons employed in commerce and industry;
2. to approve such courses and facilities provided by other persons;
3. consistently and regularly to consider operational areas of commerce and industry that require special manpower development actions and to recommend the kind of training needed, the standards to be attained, and to ensure that such standards are met;
4. to assist persons in finding facilities for training for employment in commerce and industry;
5. to conduct or assist other persons to conduct research into any matter relating to training in industry.

The Decree establishing the Industrial Training Fund (Section (6)(1)) stipulated two sources of finance for the Fund:

- (a) Annual levy of 1% of annual turnover or 3% of annual payroll of the contributing company, whichever was higher; and



- (b) Annual subvention from the Federal Government.

All employers with permanent employees on their payrolls were liable to subscribe to the Fund. (Appendices D-G).

Since the inception of the Fund, it has pre-occupied itself with assistance to employers in order to realise the following broad objectives:

1. that training is made an integral part of each company's operational policy;
2. that training needs are identified and appropriate training plans and programmes developed to meet the needs ascertained;
3. that training levy paid to the ITF is seen as co-operative venture between employers and the Federal Government of Nigeria and not regarded as an indirect means of taxation;
4. that training programmes implemented by employers are periodically evaluated in order to determine their effectiveness.

The Fund undertakes several activities in the area of management education. For example, it provides regular assistance to enterprises in the identification of their training needs and the implementation of training programmes designed to meet the ascertained needs. Through regular company visits, the Fund has assisted many corporate establishments, in drawing up their annual training plans

in addition to the afore-mentioned assistance. Well over 2,345 company visits are made to companies located in all parts of the country by the Fund's staff every year (Tudun-Wada, 1986).

The Fund runs a series of short-term training programmes for training Managers, Instructors, Foremen and Supervisors drawn from commerce, industries and other establishments and institutions. These programmes are designed to achieve a rapid and most effective multiplier-effect in the training and development of employees. Between 1974 and 1983, the underlisted Training Workshops, Courses, Seminars, were developed, regularly up-dated and implemented for employers' nominees:

- (a) Basic Secretarial Duties Course
- (b) Train-the-Trainer Workshop
- (c) Industrial Safety Workshop
- (d) Instructional Techniques Workshop
- (e) Development of Training Personnel
- (f) Evaluation Techniques Workshop
- (g) Preparation and Use of Training Aids Workshop
- (h) Industrial Productivity Workshop
- (i) Training Function.

The above-named manpower training and development programmes are executed annually all over the country.

The Fund operates In-Plant Training Schemes for Small and Medium-Sized Companies. These activities are aimed at

bringing about improvement in the work processes and/or layout of one or more productive sectors of individual firms. This programme which was initiated in 1979, has grown so popular with medium-scale employers in the manufacturing and processing industries that the Fund is **finding it difficult to cope with the employers' requests.**

The Fund has already developed a large number of training aids, learning elements and audio-visual software items to enrich the contents of all its training courses, workshops and seminars. In 1978, the Fund had just about 30 training films, now it has over 100 well-selected films in the area of engineering craft studies, general management, marketing, commercial education, accounting, instructional technology and industrial safety. It has recently developed its own studio in Jos where training films can be produced in video cassettes.

Again, the Fund collects data on the manpower situation in the country, using field surveys and personal interviews. Over the last five years, it has produced two editions of the "National Directories of Training Facilities and Resources for Manpower Development at Formal Training Institutions in Nigeria".

The Fund has developed an edge-punched card system of employers' training and levy records. The data from these cards are periodically analysed and the resultant information have proved to be of immense value in providing more effective industrial information services to enquirers.

In collaboration with some specialised organisations, the Fund is actively involved in various aspects of education and training. The Centre for Management Development (CMD) handles almost all the Fund's training programmes, dealing with management staff in the private sector and consequently, the ITF makes annual grants to the CMD to cover the Centre's annual operational budget. Between 1974 and 1982, the Fund spent over N6 million as grants to the Centre for Management Development (CMD) to enable it formulate policies and co-ordinate the various management and supervisory training efforts in the economy.

Other identifiable professional bodies benefit from grants from the Fund. For example, in 1975, the Fund paid a grant of N35,000 to The Nigerian Institute of Management (NIM) to support its management development efforts for small-scale industries. This grant enabled their financial management capability. In that same year, the Fund sponsored a 12-week training course in Hotel Management for 19 participants from Nigeria, at the International Centre for Advanced Technical and Vocational Training in Turin, Italy. This training programme was designed to provide assistant managers and senior supervisors in a cross-section of major hotels in Nigeria with improved hotel management knowledge and practice.

Since 1981, the Fund has been organising an Annual National Training Conference within the first week of the month of November. This annual conference, brings together most of personnel involved in Human Resources

Development both in public and private organisations. Besides, many top executives involved in policy formulations and decision-making affecting the national goals and economy, were always invited to participate in the conference. The Eighth Annual National Training Conference of the Fund has been scheduled to take place in Kano City, the Kano State Capital, from Tuesday, 1st to 4th, November, 1988. The details about the Fund's operations are as shown in Appendices D-G.

The Fund has also been encouraging the Nigerian Association for Training and Development (NATAD), a non-profit making indigenous professional association which is committed to the development of professionalism in the field of training and development. The nominees of the Association were sponsored to appropriate overseas conferences.

(ii) The Centre for Management Development

The Centre for Management Development (CMD) is a resource institution established in 1973 by the Federal Government of Nigeria as the operational arm of the Nigerian Council for Management Development (NCMD) which has overall responsibility for the promotion and coordination of management education and training in Nigeria.

The major roles of the Centre include:

1. assessing the country's managerial manpower needs;

2. developing resources for management teaching, training and consultancy;
3. institution building to meet the needs of national development;
4. assessing the type and the quality of programmes for the development of the country's managerial manpower, and
5. improving the quality and enhancing the use of management, consulting, research and training.

The Centre's programmes are designed primarily for:-

1. entrepreneurs and managers in the public and private sectors of the economy;
2. management educators, trainers, consultants, industrial extension officers, researchers, human resource specialists in institutions and agencies;
3. planners of managerial manpower at the federal, state and organisational levels, and
4. Nigerians whose employment and self fulfilment depend upon enhancing their managerial and supervisory effectiveness.

The Governing Council of CMD, the Nigerian Council for Management Development, consists of:

1. a chairman appointed by the Head of State on the recommendation of the Minister;

2. nine persons with extensive knowledge of and close association with management training, industry and commerce, each chosen by the Minister on his individual merit and appointed by the Head of State;
3. two representatives of the Nigerian Employers' Consultative Association;
4. two representatives of labour organisation;
5. four representatives of professional management training institutions;
6. one representative of the Ministry charged with the responsibility for matters relating to the Council; and
7. the Director-General, Centre for Management Development.

Specific functions of the NCMD as spelt out in Section 2 of Decree No. 15 of October, 1976 which gave the Council and the Centre legal existence include:-

1. advising the Minister (Federal Ministry of National Planning) on policies, plans and programmes for the enhancement of the number, quality and effective utilisation of the managerial manpower resources of the country in all sectors of the economy;
2. formulating policies and guidelines for the co-ordination of management education and training activities throughout the country;

3. developing and promoting high national standards of management education, entrepreneurial development and supervisory training programmes;
4. keeping and maintaining institutions and their training programmes, including their subjects, locations, standards, duration, type and costs;
5. assessing training institutions from time to time with a view to determining their competence and whether they deserve financial support from the Council, and
6. providing a forum at which representatives of both the public and private sectors of management training institutions could exchange information and ideas on trends in management education and training.

The function of CMD as stated in Section 16 of the Decree in addition to any assignments that may be given by the Council include:-

1. providing the Council the background information and other technical data necessary for the Council's policy-making and co-ordinating functions;
2. providing management advisory and consultancy services to Nigerian enterprises;



3. establishing and maintaining an up-to-date library for management studies;
4. publishing journals, research papers and books on modern management and supervisory techniques, and
5. sponsoring, promoting and conducting research into all aspects of management and allied subjects in relation to the Nigerian situation.

In addition to these functions, the Federal Executive Council in 1977 directed CMD to undertake a comprehensive survey of management development activities in the country. CMD was also mandated to carry out more active training in the private sector. (See Appendices H and I).

For the purpose of carrying out its functions, CMD is organised into major departments and several operating units:-

1. Administrative and Technical Services Department (ATS), made up of the following divisions: Personnel, Library for Management Studies, Technical Services, Budget and Accounts and Estate Services.
2. Industrial Co-ordination and Development Department (ICD). This department comprises the following divisions: Education and Training, Research, Publications and Conference Management.

3. Management Services Department (MSD);  
comprising Consulting Services Division,  
Small Industrial Services Division and  
Public Enterprises Division.
4. Director-General's Office: The activities  
of this Department are supervised and  
co-ordinated by the Director-General's  
Office. They are Planning, Development  
and Monitoring, Council Secretariat,  
Institutional Liaison and Support, Public  
Relations and Information, Internal Audit  
and Area Offices Administration.

The two area offices located in Aba and Kano render services to the eastern and northern states respectively.

(iii) The Administrative Staff College of  
Nigeria (ASCON)

In the early 1950s, the major preoccupation of the Nigerian government was to ensure the placement of Nigerians in key positions in the Federal Civil Service. A Nigerianisation Division was therefore established to ensure not only the reservation of a list of post for Nigerians, but also the advancement of opportunities for Nigerians to gain experience in exercising the responsibilities of senior posts. However, not much of training was embarked upon then. By the middle of the 1960s, however, training as a component of manpower development had become widely recognised in the Civil Service. This view was confirmed in the following statement:

With the tremendous expansion in government service, arising from rapid changes in the political, economic and social life of the country, coupled with the complexities of the problems of development that had to be achieved, it had become clear that training could solve a variety of manpower problems which could militate against optimum productivity (Allison, 1966, pp.8-9).

As a mark of the new training awareness, the Federal Military Government in 1967, commissioned a survey on the Training Needs of the Federal Civil Service. The Wolle Report noted that:

there is an acute shortage of trained personnel in the administrative and professional cadres or groups in the service, and revealed an urgent need for systematic, sustained and regular programme (Wolle, 1967, pp.11-12).

Accordingly, the Nigerianisation Division was reorganised and redesignated the Staff Development Division to ensure the promotion of training consciousness throughout the services. A Management Training Programme Unit was subsequently established within the Division to administer middle, advanced personnel and top management courses in pursuance of this objective (Ugooji-Ekwunife, 1982).

Between 1970 and 1978, Advanced Management Courses designed to assist senior public managers in determining objectives and monitoring progress towards them, in managing the human resources in their organisations more objectively, and in improving their capacity to employ modern management skills and techniques in a public-sector

setting, were organised by the Management Training Programme Unit. The first part of the programme, covering a period of two weeks, was organised in Nigeria. The second part, extending over a period of ten weeks, took place either at the University of Pittsburg, U.S.A., at the Royal Institute of Public Administration in London, or in respect of Training of the Trainers Programme, at the Advanced Centre for Technical and Vocational Training, Turin, Italy.

These overseas courses were largely multinational in nature, and only a few places could be reserved for Nigerians. Even where the courses were solely organised for Nigerians, the facilities were found to be limited and it soon became glaring that there was need to have more comprehensive courses designed, that would be suited for the Nigerian situation. Meanwhile, the report of the Public Service Review Commission of 1972-74 had stressed the need for more locally-based training programmes in the country as well as the need for institution-based training linked to and supporting work-centred training. This meant redesigning both the curricula and the methodology to ensure their relevance. For example, more sandwich-type courses would be needed, balancing classroom training in theory with work-site training in practice. This approach would apply to senior and middle-management training as well as to that for technicians, operators and craftsmen. This position was reinforced by Udoji when he declared:

We recommend placing initial emphasis on management development and supervisory training, as is proposed in the Guideline to the Third National Development Plan. Management development is crucial to the success of an organisation since managers have the ultimate responsibility for meeting the objectives of the organisation (Udoji, 1972-74, pp.32-36).

All these developments in thinking about the need for management training, and of basing it in a local institution led to the promulgation of Decree No. 39 of 1973 which established the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON).

The objectives of ASCON, as set out in Decree 39 are as follows:

1. to provide higher management training for the development of senior executives for the public and private sectors of the Nigerian economy;
2. to provide and arrange for a comparative study and investigation of the principles and techniques of management and administration, and for exchange of ideas and experiences and for promotion of a better understanding between persons connected with management and administration in the various spheres of national life;
3. to conduct research into problems of management and administration arising in different spheres of national life;

4. to award grants, scholarships or travel fellowships for research in public administration and allied subjects;
5. to establish and maintain a library;
6. to undertake, organise and facilitate study courses, conferences, lectures, seminars and the like to promote the aforesaid objectives; and
7. to undertake and provide for the publication of journals and research papers and books in furtherance of the aforesaid objectives.

In November, 1978, the Federal Military Government reviewed the history and modus operandi of the College and directed that, to enable the College cope adequately and effectively with the training needs and requirements of the public service, it should henceforth restrict its role to the training of public officers. In order to meet the enormous and wide-ranging needs of the public sector (Federal and State Civil Service, Parastatals and Local Government), the College now combines the roles of an Administrative Staff College with those of a Civil Service College and undertakes both Development, Training and Job-related Management Training for all categories of public servants in Grade Levels 08-16 (see Appendix J).

(b) Non-Statutory Professional Bodies

There are several of these bodies, the most important ones being the following:

(i) The Nigerian Institute of Management:

The Nigerian Institute of Management was registered as a non-profit making organisation, limited by Guarantee under the Nigerian Companies Act Cap. 37 on the 24th of January, 1964 (Ejiofor, 1982). The Institute is a professional body of managers and administrators from all sectors of the Nigerian economy. It is an independent, non-political, non-profit making national organisation. Its objectives are:

to encourage and develop the art and science of good management; to provide facilities for interested persons to meet and discuss managerial practice and problems with a view to improving standards of managerial performance in Nigeria; to collect and disseminate information on management subjects; and to encourage the provision of such facilities and assistance as may be required by those studying for professional examinations in management subjects (Nigerian Institute of Management, Lagos, 1964, pp.17-19).

The Institute has a number of committees, including Membership, Education, Training and Programme, Medals Award and Library and Publications Committees. These constitute the main departments that execute the Institute's activities (see Appendix K).

(ii) The Nigerian Institute of Personnel Management:

A non-profit making organisation, this Institute was launched in 1973 on the occasion of the Sixth Annual

Personnel Management Conference held in Lagos. It started as the Personnel Management Association of Nigeria on November 15, 1968. The objectives for which the Institute was established were:

1. To create a forum for the discussion of matters concerning Personnel Management.
2. To unite the efforts of all those who feel the need to achieve and maintain a high standard of Personnel Management in the Federal Republic of Nigeria.
3. To improve the general level of Personnel Management Education by organising lectures, debates, seminars, and by the publication and distribution of appropriate educational literature and such other activities as would enhance the realisation of the objects and aims of the Institute, and to provide generally an organisation for the promotion and encouragement of the art and practice of Personnel Management including provision for training and examination of candidates to qualify for membership of the Institute; and to take steps as may be necessary from time to time to advance and secure professional status for the Institute in the art and practice of Personnel Management in the Federal Republic of Nigeria (see Appendix L).



The Institute is governed by a Council which is made up of the President, Vice-President, National Secretary, Assistant National Secretary, National Treasurer and five unofficial members.

The business of the Institute is conducted by special committees established to take care of all matters affecting its existence. Such committees are: Membership Committee, Examination Committee, Conference Committee, Training and Education Committee, Research and Publications Committee and Endowment Fund Committee.

Membership is open to all functionaries and specialists in Personnel Management, and indeed to all managers of human resources, whatever organisational nomenclature used. Application for admission to membership is made on the prescribed form and forwarded to the National Secretary of the Institute along with an enrolment fee of ₦10.00 refundable only in case of non-acceptance of the application. The Institute has the following grades of members:

1. Affiliate Members: The category of members could be either practising personnel or persons holding positions of authority in which the knowledge or principles of Personnel Management is desirable but who because of age, qualification or length of experience do not qualify for any other grade of membership or persons, who though

qualified for other grades of membership, are at the time of their application resident outside the country.

2. Student Members: Applicants who satisfy the membership committee that they could benefit from and are pursuing an approved course of studies leading to the Graduateship Examination in Personnel Management could become members. The basic educational qualifications shall be the West African Examinations Council School Certificate or G.C.E. Ordinary Level or the Institute's Preliminary Examinations.
3. Graduate Members: Persons who have passed the Graduate Membership Examinations of the Institute or are exempted from the whole examinations in virtue of having passed in all the relevant subjects conducted by a comparable examining body or are Graduates of a recognised University who at the time of their application are performing executive or advisory duties in personnel function of management, such persons being also deemed by the Council to possess such personal qualities as would conform to a standard essential to successful Personnel Management.

4. Associate Members: Graduate members who not being less than twenty-five years of age, hold a post in Personnel Management or specialist function in personnel management at the time of application and possess such personal qualities as are deemed by the Council to conform to a standard essential to successful Personnel Management.
5. Members: This category of members are selected from Associate Members who, not being less than thirty years of age have spent further four years holding a post in Personnel Management or specialist function in Personnel Management after their election to the grade of Associate. Or those who not being less than thirty-five years of age at the time of their application, have competently performed executive and/or advisory duties in personnel function of management for at least ten years and possess such personal qualities as are deemed by the Council to conform to a standard essential to successful Personnel Management.
6. Fellows: This grade is filled at the pleasure of the Council from the class of members who not being less than forty-five

years of age must have held for at least fifteen years a management post of which at least two must have been spent in Personnel Management or a specialist function of Personnel Management.

Corporate Members are Companies, Corporations and similar institutions. They are admitted in their corporate capacity at the discretion of the Council.

(iii) The Management Consultancy Profession In Nigeria

On July 3, 1976, the Nigerian Association of Management Consultants (NAMCON) was born. By this significant event, NAMCON became the first of the professional bodies to be conceived and founded by the Centre for Management Development (CMD) in the discharge of its task of co-ordinating and advancing management education in Nigeria.

Other such bodies founded by Centre for Management (CMD) include Nigerian Association of Small Scale Industries. This was founded in 1979.

The management consulting profession is made up of two professional bodies:

- (a) the Nigerian Association of Management Consultants, (NAMCON), and
- (b) the Institute of Management Consultants of Nigeria (IMCON).

According to its Memorandum of Association, the objectives of the Nigerian Association of Management Consultants (NAMCON) among others, are to:

1. to provide a basis through the medium of the Association for joint consultation between management consultants in private practice and government or other national bodies and interested organisations on the subject of efficient management and matters appertaining thereto;
2. promote and elevate the profession of management consulting as a whole; create, disseminate, and
3. promote interest in the development of the philosophy and practice of management consultancy, and to encourage training programmes for management consulting; and
4. establish and maintain high standards of professional conduct and character among management consultants.

Others are to:

1. promote contact and exchange information among members through meetings, conferences and other activities, and
2. do any and all things which shall be lawful and; foster and encourage members

and other persons to undertake voluntary work for the purpose of furthering the objectives of the association.

It also has the authority to:

1. confer, consult, maintain contact and co-operate with any persons, associations, societies, institutions or bodies of persons established in Nigeria or elsewhere having objectives in whole or part similar to those of the association and to represent Nigeria management consulting internationally;
2. develop and establish regional and local branches to set up regional committee; and
3. make arrangements for carrying on the work of the association for above purposes.

NAMCON engages in many educational activities. It organises lectures, seminars and symposia. It is a member of the Joint Economic Council (J.E.C), a consultative committee of professional bodies comprising NIM, ICAN and NAMCON set up with the objective of looking at current economic issues and making positive suggestions to government. Together with the CMD, and IMCON, it organises an intensive consulting orientation course - the Management Consulting Training Course - for trainee consultants. The induction course covers the following areas and activities:

1. A one-week course on introduction to management consulting, and current problems of Nigerian Management;
2. A period of one and half weeks spent in studying consulting in each of the following areas, namely: general management, financial, marketing, production and personnel management, information system and data processing, and small enterprise management; a one-week workshop during which trainees accompanied by an instructor visit selected firms in small groups for actual consulting purposes.
3. A course evaluation session lasting one day.

The Institute of Management Consultants of Nigeria, (IMCON), is a non-profit making organisation of individual Management Consultants in Nigeria. The Institute was formally launched on May 25, 1979. The Institute is one of the professional associations conceived and planned by the CMD in the discharge of its role as coordinator or management development activities in Nigeria. It is a company limited by guarantee and not having a share capital.

The idea of forming a body to bring together management consultants was mooted in October 1974 in Jos by the then Chairman of the NCMD, Chief Chris Ogunbanjo. Further step towards the formation was taken on November 24, 1975 when the ILO Project Manager with the CMD,

Ede Gennaro, again made concrete proposals to CMD management for its establishment. In May 1978, the CMD crossed the Rubicon by organising a national workshop for management consultants. The formation of the Institute followed a resolution adopted at the National Workshop which was held at the University of Ibadan on May 26 and 27, 1978. A seven-man steering committee headed by Dr. A. Banjo was set up, charged with the responsibility of doing the groundwork necessary for formal inauguration including the drafting of a constitution, arranging for the registration of the Institute, designing application form for membership, inviting the prospective members to apply, and convening the inaugural meeting. In one year, the committee accomplished its assignment. A screening committee selected 83 members out of the over 200 applicants and elected 27 other Nigerians who have made significant contributions to management consulting in Nigeria. The 110 became the foundation members of IMCON.

The objectives of the Institute as set forth in its Memorandum of Association are, among others, to establish and promote the forum for the development of Management Consultancy as a profession, stimulate general interest in the importance of the profession in the management of commerce, industry, public enterprises, and encourage and maintain high standards of professional practice with a code of ethics among management consultants in Nigeria.



Membership of the Institute is open to practising Management Consultants who satisfy appropriate standards in academic qualification, experience and competence. The candidate must possess any qualification recognised by the Institute in any of the basic disciplines such as Social Sciences, Engineering, Accountancy, Law, Business Administration and Technology. He must have at least five years post-qualification managerial experience of which two years must be in Management Consultancy. The candidate is also required to possess competence in the field of Management Consultancy Specialisations and show evidence of successful execution of consultancy assignments. Members so admitted are classified as fellows: F.I.M.C, and members.

(iv) The Nigerian Association of Schools of Management Education and Training (NASMET):

The Nigerian Association of Schools of Management Education and Training (NASMET) is an association of all schools of management in all the universities, polytechnics and colleges of technology in Nigeria.

It brings together all the departments or faculties or schools of business, public administration, marketing, management, accountancy, finance, banking and insurance, in all the institutions of higher learning in Nigeria.

The story of the founding of NASMET goes back to May 1975, when the CMD organised the first National Conference of Management Educators in Nigeria in Benin. One of the outcomes of the Workshop was the setting up of

a committee to plan the formation of an association for management educators. However, not much was achieved at that stage beside creating an awareness of the need for some form of professional body.

Another set of activities also spear-headed by the CMD three years later in 1977 yielded the desired result. What is today NASMET in fact emanated from two papers produced by Professor Akin Mabogunje, then Chairman of the Nigerian Council for Management Development (NCMD) and Udo Udo-Aka of the Centre for Management Development. Professor Mabogunje's paper was titled "The Coordination and Standard Setting Functions of the Nigerian Council for Management Development", while that of Udo-Aka was titled "Strategy for Education and Training Activities". The two papers were considered at the second meeting of the Education and Training Committee of the CMD held on 30th April, 1977. The meeting was called to produce guidelines for the CMD to enable it carry out its management education and training functions effectively.

The committee recommended that the task of effecting coordination should be tackled by organising visits to tertiary educational institutions, professional associations and the National Universities Commission, and that the visits should be undertaken by the two top-most officers of the NCMD, namely, the Chairman and the Director-General, the Chairman was to visit the Universities while the Director-General was to visit the polytechnics and professional associations. The objectives of the visits

were to: explain the coordinating role of the Council (NCMD); emphasize the importance of schools of management and administration in national development, discuss the problem of academic staff shortage in management schools and discuss the importance for curricular to reflect and meet the needs of the Nigerian environment. They were also to explore the possibility of forming an association of management institutions as an instrument for achieving the coordination of management training activities in the country (Ejiofor, 1982).

The meeting recommended that the NCMD "should set up a high level national committee of formal educational institutions responsible for supplying new entrants into the managerial cadre" (Ejiofor, 1982, p.11). This national committee was to be made up of schools/departments of Management/Business Studies in universities and polytechnics, the Nigerian Council for Management Development (NCMD) and the National Universities Commission (NUC). The committee was to be charged with the responsibility for preparing the groundwork for a national workshop of management education and training institutions to be organised by the CMD, and geared towards the formation of an association of Management Education Institutions in Nigeria (Ejiofor, 1982).

(v) Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (ICAN):

The accountancy profession in Nigeria is as old as the profession itself elsewhere. The establishment or the

origin of accountancy in Nigeria is hampered by poor record-keeping by our ancestors for they took records by making marks on walls, graves, on sand, on tree trunks, on anything that could be written on. Unfortunately, there were no interpretable data to suggest any trend in development of this profession (Okpechi, 1985).

The idea of establishing a professional body of Accountants and auditors in Nigeria was first mooted towards the end of 1960 (Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria, "10th Anniversary Brochure, 1975", Lagos, ICAN Press). The proposal materialised on 29th December, 1960, with the inauguration of the "Association of Accountants in Nigeria", the fore-runner of the present Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria. Within the few years of its existence, the Association was recognised nationally and internationally as businessmen, industrialists and government functionaries came to realise the importance of the accountancy profession in national development.

The Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria was established by Act 15, in 1965. In the Chambers of the Senate House, the "charter" was formally presented to the Institute by the then Federal Minister of Education. By the 31st December, 1965, the membership of the Institute stood at 250. This period truly marks the beginning of practice of the profession in Nigeria. Soon after the body was chartered, Nigeria was plunged into a period of political unrest which gave rise into a civil

war (1967-1970). Thus, the young chartered body could hardly find its feet until about 1975.

No sooner than the young chartered body (ICAN) was about to resume services and active operation, there emerged a splinter body, the Association of National Accountants of Nigeria (ANAN). A group of Nigerians with differing accountancy qualifications came together and on 1st January, 1979, formed the Association of National Accountants of Nigeria (ANAN). In July 1980, the ANAN Bill was officially gazetted and was passed into law on 8th September, 1981 by one arm of the National Assembly, the House of Representative (Sosanya, 1985).

The 1965 ICAN Act specifies the following as the objects and duties of the Institute: to determine what standards of knowledge and skills are to be attained by persons seeking to become members of the accountancy profession and to raise those standards from time to time as circumstances may permit; to secure, in accordance with the provisions of the Act, the establishment and maintainance of registers of fellows, associates and to publish from time to time a list of those persons, and to perform, through the Council of the Institute, all other functions conferred on it by the Act (ICAN, 10th Anniversary Brochure, 1975, Lagos: ICAN Press). Objects not contained in the Act but which are vital for the maintainance of professional competence and integrity are as follows:

1. to provide a central organisation for Accountants and Auditors in Nigeria;
2. to maintain a strict standard of professional ethics; and
3. to provide for training, examination and local qualifications of students in accountancy ("ICAN, 10th Anniversary Brochure, 1975", Lagos: ICAN Press).

In the case of ANAN, the Bill was designed to amend the ICAN Act, 1965, by:

removing the monopoly being enjoyed by ICAN, creating a healthy competition among the two bodies. Furthermore, the ANAN would within the accountancy profession: facilitate the evolution of a yardstick for standard; create the avenue for the training and production of high calibre professional accountants needed in the country; and facilitate the freedom of choice and transfer of technology (Sosanya, 1985, p.11).

(vi) The Nigerian Institute of Bankers (NIB):

Although modern banking was first introduced in Nigeria in 1892, it was not until 1959 that firm foundation for banking in Nigeria was laid (Nwankwo, 1980). Not only was the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) established in 1959, but also, the foundations of the Nigerian money and capital markets were laid in that year. For instance, the Treasury Bill Ordinance, forming the basis for the first issue of Treasury Bills in 1960, was promulgated in 1959. The Barkack Committee, in 1959 submitted its report as a result of which the Lagos Stock Exchange was

established on 5th June, 1961. The Investment Company of Nigeria (which was later reconstituted to form the Nigerian Industrial Development Bank Limited in 1964) was established in 1959, same year when the first public issue of shares and the first Federal Government Development loan stock were issued.

Finally, 1959 saw the biggest number of new commercial banks established in the country. For instance, of all the eight commercial banks established in the country between 1959 and 1962, four were established in 1959 alone, ignoring the purely Agricultural and Cooperative Banks of former Eastern and Western Nigeria which opted to be licensed as commercial banks in 1962. But, it must be emphasized that the most important single feature of the period 1959-70 was the establishment of the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) in 1959. It is from this that all other things follow (Nwankwo, 1980).

Unlike the free banking era up to 1952, entry into the banking industry requires a licence. Any company wishing to establish a banking business in the country is required to address an application to the Federal Ministry of Finance through the Governor of the Central Bank. In processing the application, the CBN, among six key sets of information which the application must contain, will scrutinize a set of information of the detailed programme of staff training and development, and management succession, such as will facilitate the

training and exposure of the Nigerian personnel.

As at the end of February 1982, there were six merchant bank, four development banks, one savings bank, the Central Bank and twenty-two commercial banks in operation in the country, excluding some state-owned banks recently granted banking licence. To the above are added nine representative offices of foreign banks in the country. These act as liaison offices between the parent banks and their correspondents in the country. They do not undertake banking business but are sources of business contact and information for their parent companies.

There is the Bankers Committee. This Committee is made up of all the Chief Executives of the Commercial and Merchant Banks with the Governor of the Central Bank of Nigeria as the Chairman. The Committee is the supreme body in the banking profession that provides the forum for the exchange of views, formulation of policies and finding solutions for common problems.

The Bankers Committee has two operating angles. One is connected with operations while the other concerns manpower training and development in the banking industry. Within the operations are the Bankers Clearing Houses and various banking institutions. The clearing houses, which operate everywhere the Central Bank has a branch in the country, are run by committees with a representative of the Central Bank as the Chairman and five other members drawn from among member banks serving as controlling authority. The committee sees the implementation of



the Clearing House "rules", propose amendments to such rules as well as changes in the regulations affecting the day-to-day running of the clearing houses subject to agreement by the Bankers Committee. The various banking institutions, apart from seeing to the day-to-day smooth operation of their activities, carry out the rules and regulations such as the Bankers Tariff as stipulated by the Central Bank and Bankers Committee.

Within the training angle of the Bankers' Committee are two main institutions and the training schemes of the various banks in the country. The first institution is the Nigerian Institute of Bankers. According to its Memorandum and Articles of Association, the objectives of the Institute are among others:

1. to help promote banking education in the country with the view to helping staff employed in the banking industry to acquire modern banking techniques and prepare them for higher responsibilities in the various institutions;
2. to advise Government and collaborate with them in formulating policies for the banking sector of the economy;
3. to facilitate consideration and discussion of matters of interest to bankers and the public;
4. to hold and further help to secure the observance of professional ethics and

traditions in the banking systems;

5. to maintain discipline in the banking profession;
6. to hold and conduct examinations in banking; and
7. to issue certificate to those who satisfy the conditions of their award.

(c) Pioneer Business Schools and Management Development Institutions:

The priority now accorded to management studies is further reflected in the status given to this field of studies within the academic organisation of institutions of higher learning, where along with the traditional disciplines such as the Arts, Sciences, Law, Agriculture and Engineering, it is also established as a Faculty or School. In some cases where Management Studies are initiated at the level of a Department or College within a large Faculty or School, this is usually a temporary arrangement, the ultimate goal being the expansion and development of Management Studies into a full-fledged Faculty or College.

Nations which failed to take full cognisance of these developments, have had to pay heavy penalties for their negligence. For instance, Britain has paid and will continue to pay heavily for the low priority she placed on management studies. On this, Moore (1968) observed that:-

there has been great disappointment in this country (Britain) over the last decade concerning our economic growth and general economic performance - particularly compared with other countries of Europe and elsewhere. On the analogy that there are no bad regiments, only bad commanding officers, this suggests that the qualities and capabilities of management leave something to be desired (Moore, 1968, p.234).

It must be noted that the recognition of the important role of management education in economic development does not end in the mere accommodation of management studies as a university course. It means further the establishment of management studies on a level equivalent to traditional Faculties of a University and the provision of adequate human resources and physical facilities for efficient prosecution of its programmes. This would rule out small-scale or half-hearted arrangements which are often at a serious disadvantage especially in an area where the positive collaboration of the business community is necessary for successful execution of the programmes.

(i) Universities:

In virtually all Organisation of African Unity member-countries, business studies are organised, if not initially, at the Faculty level, certainly with a view of their being upgraded to that status. In Nigeria, the University of Nigeria was the pioneer in management education at university level. The law establishing the University of Nigeria, Nsukka (1961), recognised the

important role which management studies would play in fulfilment of desirable national objectives with respect to general development. It made provision for the establishment of Colleges of Management Studies, i.e. Business Administration and Finance among others (The University of Nigeria Law, 1961, Statute 6). As the University developed and the Faculty system of academic organisation took shape, Business Administration became a Faculty of its own in keeping with the world trend and in response to national priorities. On this, the first Chancellor of the University of Nigeria said:

We must frankly admit that we can no longer afford to flood not only the white collar jobs at the expense of basic occupations and productive vocations which can be so intelligently directed to create wealth, health, and happiness among the greatest number of our people, particularly in the fields of agriculture, engineering and business administration (Azikiwe, 1960, p.5).

Other Universities in Nigeria have since followed the trail blazed by the University of Nigeria in the field of Management Sciences. A close study of the developments in these other Nigerian Universities will confirm that the trends there are consistent with those at the University of Nigeria. Both at the University of Lagos and Ahmadu Bello University, although management studies were first introduced as departments, they soon grew into full-fledged faculties or schools of business administration. This also appears to be the trend at the University of Benin.

A brief history of the development of the Business School of the University of Nigeria may therefore illustrate the strains and stresses which Universities in Nigeria have undergone in their attempts to establish Faculties of Business Administration in the country. After its establishment in 1961, it took quite some time before the rationale for education and training of managers became accepted.

During the early life of the School, the concept of management itself was strange to the average Nigerian. There was gross limitation of staff. The background of the early students was deficient for full blown scientific management studies. Hence the aims and objectives of the Business School at that stage were somewhat narrow (Okoye, 1978). The programmes were designed for developing in students the qualities of understanding, judgement, and communication leading to administrative action, which they should be able to express in performance in administrative and managerial positions of importance. It was to provide students with a fundamental training in important aspects of business and governmental organisation, administration and control. It was also to concern itself with efficient functioning of administrative procedures throughout organisations, and also strive to equip students to fill positions of responsibility in Commerce, Industry and Public Service. The programme thus limited its scope to the mechanics and procedures of management. It adopted the universal

management approach and could not bring to focus, the development of analytical ability for practising management with facility in scientific decision-making, applying quantitative tools, and operational management.

The 1973/74 session ushered in a new phase in the development of the school. Young lecturers with MBA and Ph.D., many of whom had got their first degrees from the School, joined the School after training in the United States of America, Canada and Europe. They infused the degree programme with the ideas which they had acquired and developed. Such idea was that unless the School put in well structured programmes in scientific management techniques, it would fall behind international standards in management education. Hence the aims and objectives of the School were revised.

At the moment, the Faculty has bachelor's, M.B.A. and even Ph.D. programmes. The postgraduate programme in particular offers in-depth education in teaching and research in selected areas in business administration, such as Accountancy, Finance, Management and Marketing.

#### (ii) The Polytechnics:

Management education at the Polytechnics level began to receive attention only after the country became independent in 1960.

Yaba College of Technology, the oldest of the polytechnics in the country, started offering Diploma courses in business subjects in 1963. The Polytechnic at

Ibadan which is a successor to the Technical College, Ibadan, has also been running courses in business subjects at the diploma level for over fifteen years. The Auchi Polytechnic, formerly Technical College, Auchi, has been running courses in business subjects at diploma level for the past thirteen years. The Kaduna Polytechnic, which was established in 1968, started offering diploma courses in business studies in 1969.

The College of Science and Technology, Port Harcourt, started its business studies programme since the establishment of the Institution in 1971. The Kwara State College of Technology, Ilorin which was established in 1973 has a school of Management and Vocations offering various courses in business management. The College of Technology, Calabar, which also came into being in 1973, has a department of business studies in which diploma courses are offered in business studies.

The following table shows the programme and courses in business management in various institutions for the 1985/86 session (Udo-Aka, 1986).

Table 1.4: Programmes and Courses in Business Management in Various Institutions

Name of Institution	Courses and Programmes
Yaba College of Technology	Ordinary Diploma Course: Accountancy, Company Administration, Secretarial Studies, Supervision and Management. Higher National Diploma Course in: Accountancy, Company Administration.
Institute of Management and Technology, Enugu.	Ordinary Diploma Course in: Accountancy, Business Management and Public Administration, Secretarial Studies, Banking, Insurance, Higher Diploma Course in: Accountancy.
The Polytechnic, Ibadan.	Ordinary Diploma Course in: Accountancy, Secretarial Studies. Higher Diploma Course in: Accountancy.
Auchi Polytechnic	Ordinary Diploma Course in: Accountancy, Company Administration, Secretarial Science.
Kaduna Polytechnic	Ordinary Diploma Course in: Accountancy, Commerce, Marketing, Purchasing and Supply, Secretarial Studies. Higher Diploma Course in: Management Studies, Personnel Management, Certificate Course in: Production Planning and Inventory Management, Supervisory Management.
College of Science and Technology, Port Harcourt.	Ordinary Diploma Course in: Accountancy, Business Administration, Secretarial Studies.



Table 1.4: (Continued)

Name of Institution	Courses and Programmes
Kwara State College of Technology, Ilorin.	Ordinary Diploma Course in: Accountancy, Business Studies, Secretarial Studies. Higher Diploma Course in: Accountancy.
College of Technology, Calabar.	Ordinary Diploma Course in: Accountancy, Company Administration, Secretarial Studies.

The Polytechnics as management educators are at present mainly concerned with organising courses to meet the middle-level manpower requirements of the rapidly expanding business and industry in Nigeria. In this connection, the institutions have made a significant attempt in developing courses of a general managerial nature and of special functional management areas. On a limited scale, the institutions are also engaged in conducting seminars and management clinics for businessmen and professional organisations.

## 1.2 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY

It follows from the above discussion that (a) a need for management education exists in Nigeria, and (b) that opportunities for the training of all cadres of management staff also are available in the country. A third factor required to make management education and training a salient feature of the nation's economic

life is the demand for the training of the management staff. This should come from employers and the executives of business organisations. Research findings have indicated, however, that management training is approached with a high degree of ambivalence in most Nigerian establishments (Mmuobuasi 1983). There are companies which are clearly averse to providing training programmes for workers: such companies obviously think it made better economic sense to recruit those already qualified to hold positions. There are some companies which are willing to train only a certain category of senior staff because they traditionally do not envisage that Nigerians can ever perform successfully in certain positions. The analysis provided by the survey conducted by the Nigerian Institute of Management in 1975 is significant in this context. The survey reported that none of the managing directors and general managers responded that they anticipated a Nigerian being appointed as Chief Executive Officer within the foreseeable future. Similarly, the position of the financial director in most of the establishments was regarded as so sensitive that the shareholders preferred a representative from "home office".

The situation was even worse in the production and technical sections of the establishments surveyed. Most of the respondents felt that Nigerianisation should be approached with caution in these sectors, and that at best Nigerians could only attain middle-level positions. The survey found that it was only in administration that

Nigerians were being willingly trained to replace the expatriate staff.

The foregoing discussion shows that willingness to train management personnel depends on a number of factors. These include the type of function performed by staff, organisational policy, the responsibility and status of the managers' position, and the company's analysis of cost and benefit of training its staff compared to direct hiring of qualified individuals. This obviously leads to a discussion of the relationship between education per se, and training. The most distinct difference between the two is the fact that while the former provides general aptitudes, the latter is job-specific. While education makes the individual more adaptable to situations and therefore ensures greater ability to conceive and adopt innovation, the former is required for greater productivity at the work situation.

Yet, despite its obvious role in productivity, as stated earlier, training is looked upon with scepticism by a high proportion of people in both the public and private organisations. They usually argue that training is unnecessary, is costly in terms of both money and time, is usually done for the wrong reasons or in the wrong way, and far from having proved its worth, it has been disappointing in its results. Reilly (1979) pointed out that there was some truth in these criticisms. While many accept the value of training in routine skills and techniques, Reilly noted that they adhered to the view

that administrators were born and that provided they had a sound education, they would acquire the necessary knowledge and skills through experience at work. While accepting that training is emphatically not a substitute for education, Reilly believed that there was evidence to support the stand that training for management functions was of crucial importance, and that in the modern world, education and experience alone were not sufficient. Again, although training is obviously costly in terms of money and time, Reilly believed that the cost of not training could even be higher, except that it was not easily quantifiable.

Most observers have noted the rather disappointing results achieved by training programmes. The reasons are many, but the identification of these reasons indicates that it is not training per se that is criticized but the role of training needs to be considered within the perspective of the overall schemes of national development. Reilly noted that the early training programmes initiated in developing countries were envisaged merely as avenues for replacement of expatriate staff and could not immediately transform the recipients' thinking from the old 'colonial' ways to some mysterious dynamic approach to administration and management, which could come only after years of education and experience. Training was a continuous process that should concern a person throughout his/her career, and if it was to help make all organisations more effective, the total administrative system must be

conducive to staff development and regard training as an integral part of the whole process.

The ability of an organisational set-up to use training effectively to generate managerial efficiency therefore depends on the overall structure of that organisation. Several defects which detract from the effectiveness of training have been noted (Reilly, 1979). These include the lack of participative management, a poor standard of supervision and the inability or reluctance to ensure that responsibility is delegated. Others include acute shortage in key areas, inadequate systems for maintaining personnel records, and a shortage of adequate manpower planning data. The existence of these and many other deficiencies makes it difficult to absorb and apply training. Equally fatal to the success of training is the lack of an administrative tradition of excellence, which may then bring extraneous factors to bear in the making of decisions affecting, for example, selection of staff for training, and how the persons who have just returned from training may be deployed.

Thus, a researcher interested in management education has definite choices. He can look at the plethora of curricula available in training institutions and suggest improvements. He can also evaluate the resources available in these institutions. But there is a strong need to look at the set up of the organisations to which the final product of training will return. As this introduction has shown, the willingness of the organisation to train depends

on a number of factors. Decisions regarding whom to train are also based on various considerations, including the type of organisation, corporate policies, organisational perception of the sensitivity of the position, and several other administrative characteristics of the organisation. In a developing country, where most administrative structures have not fully developed into permanent institutions and where corporate ethos and standards have not crystallized well enough to permeate each facet of corporate life, there is the need for training to serve as a catalyst for promoting corporate efficiency and for training to be treated as an essential ingredient among others in the process of management improvement. Bottle-necks within each set of organisation which impinge upon the effectiveness of training must be removed.

### 1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is principally to examine the extent to which Nigerian corporations and business establishments are willing to train their management personnel. Over the past two decades, management education has grown by leaps and bounds in Nigeria, but as we have said earlier, the effectiveness of management education programmes to generate increased productivity within organisations, by and large, depends on certain characteristics of the organisations from which the trainees are selected and to which they return after training. If these characteristics are known, we could then suggest ways by which the dysfunctional ones could

be replaced by more productive-oriented ones.

This research therefore, is an attempt to find how organisations in Nigeria support management training, to examine how decisions regarding whom to train are arrived at, how those who receive training are deployed and how free they are to utilize the new knowledge.

#### 1.4 THE STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The central problem investigated by this study was: How willing are Nigerian business executives to train their management staff ? This problem is further broken down into the following research questions:

1. In which types of business organisations in Nigeria does the training of management personnel receive the greatest support ?
2. Are younger organisations more willing to train their management staff than older, more established organisations ?
3. Are Nigerian companies more willing to train certain cadre of management staff than others ?
4. Is the support given to management training related to the size of the organisation and therefore to the model of management utilized in each of the establishments ?
5. Do Nigerian business executives prefer certain types of training models to others ?

6. Are organisations in urban centres more willing to train than those in rural areas ?

### 1.5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this study, the operant conceptual variable is "organisational support". This concept is capable of several interpretations, but is used to denote the "organisational environment that best promotes" (Ugooji-Ekwunife, 1982, p.29) or the "organisational climate within which an activity gains the greatest legitimacy or encouragement" (p.29). A third operational definition the term connotes is that of "organisation situational variant", which may be composed of organisational context, structure, process, physical environment, as well as value and norms.

James and Jones (1974) identified the following as the situational variants within an organisation and the elements each variant is made of:

1. Content: involving ownership and control, age, resources available, function and level of technology;
2. Structure: including the size of the organisation, the level of centralisation of decision-making, and the specialisation of procedures;
3. Process: involving leadership, status and power relationships, levels of



communication;

4. Physical Environment: including space characteristics.
5. Systems Values and Norms: involving such elements as the level of impersonality, adherence to formalities, approaches to problem-solving, level of predictability.

As Forehand and Gilmer (1964) had earlier observed, these organisational perspectives which distinguish one organisation from another are relatively enduring over time, and influence the behaviour of people in the organisation. Although, this model has received several criticisms (Campbell et al, 1970, Litwin and Stronger, 1968), it is used as the basic framework for this study. In the main, therefore, the theoretical framework for the study shows relationships between decisions to train, the selection of trainees, the success of innovation and transfer; and such variables as the context of the organisation (ownership, origin, policies), its structure (size), the processes operant within the organisation (whether democratic or authoritarian, centralised or decentralised), and the values and norms held within the organisation (impersonal/parochial; procedure-bound/whiniesical).

### THE HYPOTHESES

Based on the typology of situational variables within an organisation that can influence policy, the following hypotheses were developed to test the policies of the organisations selected towards the training of their management personnel:

1. There are no differences in the various types of organisations regarding their willingness to train their management personnel.
2. The age of the organisations and therefore their modes of origin, will not influence their desire to train the management personnel.
3. The attitudes of Nigerian business executives towards management training, and therefore the overall corporate policies regarding management education will not be more favoured towards the training of certain management cadres than others.
4. Willingness to train the management staff will not be dependent on the size of the organisation.
5. There will be no significant differences in the modes of management training

preferred by Nigerian business executives.

6. Willingness to train management staff will not be related to the environment in which the organisation is situated; in other words, there will not be any significant differences in the management training policies of rural and urban organisations.

#### SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study is significant in several respects. In the first place, it will provide data which the Industrial Training Council can use to determine which organisations are likely to default in making their annual contributions to the Industrial Training Fund for the purpose of workers' education and training in the country. The essence of salience is to produce a classification of phenomenon, and this study will help make the classification of organisations based on willingness to train or their likelihood of supporting training possible.

Secondly, the study should draw out lessons for making such decisions on whom to train, where to send trainees, and how to organise the work environment so that it can benefit from the new knowledge acquired by trainees.

## 1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study involved corporations spread throughout Nigeria. Its results therefore can be extended to include all organisations in Nigeria.

## 1.7 DEFINITION OF TERMS

Management: For the purpose of this study, we will regard and address management as a group of class of people. Management also connotes a distinct kind of activity or process. Management is the process of utilizing material and human resources to accomplish designated objectives. It involves the organisation, direction, coordination, and evaluation of people in the process of achieving predetermined goals.

In his own contribution, George, Jr. (1972) maintained that management is the process of setting and achieving objectives by influencing human behaviour within a suitable environment. Taylor, 1903), spoke of management as knowing exactly what one wants men to do, and then seeing that they do it the best way and cheapest way. This definition as noted, contains three essential elements: a goal, or an objective; a means by which that goal, or objective can be attained; and the utilization of human effort.

Organisation: An organisation is a system, having an established structure and conscious planning, in which people work and deal with one another in a coordinated

and cooperative manner for the accomplishment of recognised goals (Beach, 1975). Beach further observed that "when we speak of an organisation as a system, we mean that it consists of many interdependent constituent parts, and that there are sub-systems within the whole system. When we speak of structure, we mean that there is a degree of formality involved and that the members have designated roles to play" (1975, p.32). He was of the opinion that conscious planning implies rationality, direction, and choice. People worked in organisations in a coordinated and cooperative manner. He concluded by emphasizing that their (people's) behaviour, is not undirected and random. Rather, he maintained that the activities were purposeful and goal-seeking.

Training: Training is those activities which are designed to improve performance on the job which the employee is presently doing or is being hired to do. It can be extended to include the necessary activities to enable the employee to move to an immediate higher level position in the organisation but still within his same basic area of activity (Burt, 1967). For example, a stenographer may receive training so she can now be moved from stenographic pool to a position as a private secretary within the organisation.

Employee Education: Employee education is defined as those Human Resource Development activities which are designed to improve the overall competence of the employee in a specified direction and beyond the job now held. When the worker is being prepared for a place in the organisation different from what he now holds - this is employee education (Black, 1967, p.46).

Employee Development: Employee development is concerned with preparing the employee so that he can move with the organisation as it develops, changes and grows. The result could be a new job at a higher level or an expansion of the current activities of the employee into new fields which are as yet undetermined. It is concerned with the future of the organisation and the individual in directions which are not clearly definable (Lippitt, 1968).

Formal Management Education and Training: This approach refers to systematically arranged management education and training programmes in which the participants or trainees are enrolled or registered to follow established courses, either on a full-time or a part-time basis. The programmes are normally held within the walls of institutions, and follow established norms set by school-type learning (Bergevin, 1967). The essential distinguishing characteristic of this system is that it involves a combination of registered enrolment and work to a syllabus which leads to some sort of certification. It is a parallel to (or a part of) the regular school, college or university provision.

Non-formal Management Education and Training: This system connotes "alternative to institutional" - hence the term "out-of-institution training" (Okedara, 1981). The rubric of Non-formal Education and Training covers training and instruction outside the formal education and training system, and ranges from individualised apprenticeships to course programmes designed for a number of group of course participants. This can take a period of one week or a little more. This system is designed to refresh memory,

up-date knowledge or teach an innovation in the modern techniques of jobs at hand. These programmes may be run within or outside the work-place i.e. shop-floor.

Informal Management Education and Training: Under this system, learning tends to come unintentionally and accidentally as managers engage in their daily routines, such as working together as a team, solving problems, listening to and watching bosses giving directives and working, listening to radio and watching television programmes designed for education and reading newspapers. The characteristics of this type of education and training include:

- (i) absence of any form of planning;
  - (ii) absence of any stated goal, purpose or objective;
  - (iii) learning programme is accidental in nature;
  - (iv) a life-long experience;
  - (v) lack of awareness on the part of the learner
- (Bergevin, 1967).

#### 1.8 ORGANISATION OF THE WORK

The rest of this thesis is organised as follows:-

Chapter Two : Review of Related Literature.

Chapter Three : The Methodology.

Chapter Four : Analysis of the Data.

Chapter Five : Discussion of Findings.

Chapter Six : Summary of Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### 2.1 GROWTH IN IDEAS ON MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

Management is most commonly defined as "the art of accomplishing work through other people" (Ubeku, 1974). The simplicity of this definition usually beclouds the complexity of the art and the need for thorough and specialised training for those who practise the art. Most people are prone to think lightly of specialised institutional training for managers on the grounds that, firstly, management is such an everyday activity that everyone, when given the chance, can do it, and secondly, that by the time a person has risen in his occupation to become a manager, that person must have acquired those skills and competencies referred to, for efficient performance at his or her new station. At any rate, most argued that those skills and experiences required of the manager, are unlikely to be developed overnight, by classroom instruction, no matter how well-planned this may be.

This scepticism over the efficacy of specialised instruction in the development of managerial skills and competencies still lingers on in industrial and business circles both in this country and even in advanced countries, and in fact, provides the background for the present study. The assumptions that inform this scepticism, namely, that management is a simple art, that



experience is the vehicle which the art can best be inculcated, and that a specialised training programme cannot be as efficacious as experience in imparting management skills, are completely rejected in this study.

The fact that management is a complex art can be appreciated if it is understood that it took the western world almost two hundred years to perfect management techniques up to their present form, and that much ink has been spilt trying to explain what management is, and that management styles could promote the greatest efficiency. Management, it is usually said, is as old as human civilisation. Wherever people have lived in groups, it has become necessary to organise them and manage their scarce resources to gratify the goals of the social unit. Yet, when we talk of scientific management, that is, the application of not only experience, but of verifiable knowledge to the solution of management problems, it seems true that the mid-1870s provided the starting point.

As noted by George (1972), the 1700s were ripe for the introduction of an improvement in manufacturing techniques and the development of a new approach to management. The industrial revolution brought with it a breakdown in the provincialism of management concepts, and with these broadened horizons, managers began to look for ways to improve both manufacturing and management. For the first time also, there began to appear several works by many economists, who began to write on the role

of management in an organisation. Before outlining their concepts of management, many of these classical economists began by describing the sort of person that would make a good manager. Samuel P. Newman (1835) for example, defined the manager as a good undertaker having a combination of qualities, rarely found united in the same individual. Among the qualities suggested by Newman were unusual share of foresight, perseverance and constancy of purpose in carrying out his plans into execution, ability to superintend and direct the efforts of others and to execute his office well, discretion and a strong character. Equally important was the ability to conduct some branches of production successfully, a considerable amount of knowledge, both of the state of the world generally, and of the details of particular employments and pursuits.

Earlier on, Adam Smith had produced simpler list of "order, economy, and attention" ! (1793, Vol. 11, p.119). J. S. Mill (1826) added yet two important qualifications to the list: fidelity and zeal; while Alfred Marshall (1892) suggested self-reliance and promptness as worthy virtues for the well-qualified manager.

George (1972) notes that in those early years, many of the economists of this period distinguished between the functions of a manager and the functions of the organisation. Each one, however, seemed to place special emphasis on some particular function. Turgot (1922),

for example, was concerned primarily with direction and control, while Say (1817), was struck with the importance of planning. Bowker (1886) on the other hand, felt that organising and directing were a manager's chief functions. Of all these writers, Newman alone appeared to have the sharpest focus when he wrote that a manager's functions are "planning, arranging, and conducting the different processes of production" (1835, p.51). Laughlin (1896), writing at the close of the century about the duties of management said,

The manager who selects the site of the factory, controls the finances, buys materials and sells the goods; who deals with the workmen, allotting their tasks, and classifying their labor; who watches the market, knowing when to sell and when to withhold his goods; who can find out satisfactorily what purchasers really want, and adapts the character of his goods to these wants ... is a rare man (1896, p.53).

These writings represent virtually the first attempts to express the functions of management as an emerging theory. In doing so, these writers laid the groundwork, as it were, for Fayol and others who were to follow half a century later.

Of the five generally recognised functions of management (planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and controlling), several economists quite early seemed to consider planning the most important. Laughlin (1896) gave the reason behind this when he wrote:

He who controls a large capital actively engaged in production can never remain at a standstill; he must be full of new ideas; he must have power to initiate new schemes for the extension of his market; he must have judgement to adopt new inventions, and yet not be deceived as to their value and efficiency. (Laughlin, 1896, p.223).

The economists paid very little attention to training, despite de Laveleye's plea that "... it is the duty of the employers of labour ... to come to the aid of the dispossessed workmen by instructing them". (Laveleye, 1884, p.96). Marshall's comment on the profitability of training was that

Whoever may incur the expense of investing capital in developing the abilities of the workman, those abilities will be the property of the workman himself; and thus the virtue of those who have aided him must remain for the greater part, its own reward. (1892, p.272).

Along this same line, de Laveleye joined other nineteenth century economists in a plea for good business education, noting that "the first care, however, of a government should be to create institutions that will serve as training schools for good industrial managers". (1884, p.116).

The organising function was conceived very broadly by these men, with van Buren Denslow giving one of the most interesting concepts of organisation as follows:

It is through the subserviency of the employer to the public, followed up by the subserviency of each employer to his or her own employer, that the entire force of employees may be held to the work of satisfying a public want. This is organization in industry. (Denslow, 1868, p.183).

The control aspect of management was barely mentioned by most of the writers. Similarly, the unity of command principle received more attention from Bowen and Bowker, with Bowen throwing especially sharp barbs at committees:

Committees of management are proverbially negligent or meddlesome, inharmonious and unsuccessful: one executive head, and a very able one, is an essential prerequisite of success in any large undertaking. (Bowen, 1870, p.124).

Marshall noted that even at the bottom level of an organization, split responsibility was unwise, pointing out that "a machine is not so well cared for when two men share the responsibility of keeping it in order, as when one man has the whole management of it". (1872, p.353).

In the early years, the economists were mostly concerned with control to prevent theft, but quickly seemed to have turned to the idea of control to prevent waste.

The influences of several writers in this era have had very profound effect on management practice. Carl von Clausewitz (1780-1831) wrote extensively on the management of large armies in war and considered rigid discipline as a requisite for any organization. Although Clausewitz

was never in charge of a large-scale military operation, his writings discussed thoroughly the many considerations of a person in such a position. Though principally concerned with the management of armies in war, Clausewitz considered his concepts applicable to the management of any large organization, stating that business was simply a form of human competition greatly resembling war. Clausewitz prescribed careful planning as a necessity in managing a large organization, with the first requisite being to define one's objective. He also emphasized that all decisions must be based on probability, which to him was the theory of trying to prepare best for what might happen.

Perhaps, Clausewitz's major contribution to management was that managers should accept uncertainty and should act on the basis of thorough analysis and planning designed to minimize this uncertainty. Foreshadowing Taylor (1911), Clausewitz advocated decisions based on science rather than hunch, and management based on analysis rather than intuition.

Charles Dupin (1831), nineteenth century French engineer, wrote extensively on industry, work and the welfare of workers. From 1816 to 1820, Dupin made a study of the English Navy in an effort to discover the bases of the efficiency of that organization which the French should adopt to build a strong Navy. The principles of management that Dupin recognised and wanted copied from the British Navy pertained to personnel

management and human relations.

Dupin also advocated integrity in management - specifically, the prompt payment of debts and honouring engagements and agreements. Though these ideas do not seem novel today, Dupin's consideration of integrity and honour in 1820 represents one of the first enunciations of the concept as a factor in effective leadership and management.

As an engineer, Dupin's contribution was largely in the development of scientific, mechanized production in the early nineteenth century; yet his writings on management show greater concern with human factors such as personnel and employee welfare than with the more technical aspects of production.

Perhaps, Charles Babbage (1831), more than any other author during this period, contributed to the initiation and development of the scientific approach to the study of management. He was conscious that principles of organisation were applicable to every field where coordination of human effort was essential to the attainment of some common purpose. Babbage was primarily concerned not with designing or making machines, but with their use and the organisation of human beings for that purpose.

In general, Babbage (1832), recommended that data obtained as a result of rigid investigation should be utilized in managing an enterprise. He also indicated

that management should find out the number of times each operation was repeated each hour; that work should be divided into mental and physical efforts, that the precise cost for every process should be determined; and that the worker should be paid a bonus in proportion to his own efficiency and the success of the business. Babbage emphasized the importance of division of labour, indicating that greater profit could be made by specializing, that the time required to learn a certain process could be cut considerably, and that the skill acquired in that process could be increased by division of labour. Babbage put it this way:

That the master manufacturer, by dividing the work to be executed into different processes, each requiring different degrees of skill and force, can purchase exactly the precise quantity of both which is necessary for each process; whereas, if the whole work were executed by one workman, that person must possess a sufficient skill to perform the most difficult, and sufficient strength to execute the most laborious of the operations into which the art is divided (1832, p.173).

In the area of time study, Babbage stated:

If the observer stands with his watch in his hand before a person heading a pin, the workman will almost certainly increase his speed, and the estimate will be too large. A much better average will result from inquiring what quantity is considered a fair day's work. When this cannot be ascertained, the number of operations performed in a given time may frequently be counted when the workman is quite unconscious that any person is observing him. Thus, the sound made by ... a loom may enable the



observer to count the number of strokes per minute ... though he is outside the building .... (1832, p.250).

Babbage also emphasized the importance of balance in processes and the principle of optimum size of the manufacturing unit for each class of product. His list of injunctions to the manager, as catalogued below, included the following:

1. Study the effects of various tints of paper and colours of ink to determine which is least fatiguing to the eye.
2. Determine how best to frame questions.
3. Determine demand from statistics based on income.
4. Centralize the production processes for economy.
5. Inaugurate research and development.
6. Study factory location relative to the proximity of raw materials, considering whether the raw material gained weight or lost weight relative to the finished product.
7. Use a beneficial suggestion system because "every person connected with it should derive more advantage from applying any improvement he might discover. (1832, p.257).

In reviewing these early writings about management, we note one feature common to most of them: they were firm-oriented. Adam Smith and his successors centered their comments around the firm, the manager's job in meeting demand, the role of planning to achieve economical operations as well as to supply customer demand, and so on. This, of course, is not unexpected in an emerging industrial economy. As we shall see, however, the emphasis shifted as the economy matured.

Early nineteenth century writers dealt principally with fundamentals. No unified theory of management was developed, but they did recognize and understand the functions of management and often discussed many of management's interesting and little-recognized aspects. Their writings along with those of the economists served to reinforce the growing idea of management's importance to the developing firm and at the same time encouraged other scholars to analyze further this emerging concept.

The early writings, however, provided little insight into the solution of general management problems, one of which concerned wages and wage systems. This problem, emphasized by the industrial revolution, was one of labour efficiency. Sensing that large organizations were losing their power of direct supervision, managers were seeking incentives as a substitute. One of the first practitioners of this new management concept was Henry R. Towne.

Towne (1886) was instrumental in establishing modern management methods in his company's shops. He emphasized that shop management was equal in importance to engineering management in the efficient direction of an enterprise and emphasized that only through exchange of information between themselves could entrepreneurs benefit from the experience of others.

Towne contended that profit sharing was neither an equitable adjustment nor a correct solution to an economic problem. The gain that one department could make through its increased efforts could be lost in another. Hence, he advocated the determination of the cost for each element of production. For this reason, he called his plan gain-sharing rather than profit-sharing, and maintained that to assure this "gain-sharing", general and professional education for all managers was imperative.

Towne's plan guaranteed a definite wage rate to each employee, with the gain that each department made above the scientifically determined standard split equally between employer and employee. Towne realized that this determined cost should be fixed after a study of three to five years to present rate cutting.

In his third paper, "Evolution of Industrial Management", written in 1921, Towne contrasted the status of scientific management in 1886 and in 1921, noting particularly the establishment of industrial management courses in technical colleges and universities. Without

doubt, Towne's main contribution to management is that he set the climate and atmosphere for the later application of scientific methods. Of lesser importance was his plan of gain-sharing as a system of wage payment.

At the same time as Towne was promoting scientific management in the U.S.A, Captain Henry Metcalfe was working on his system of management control in Frankfort. The Metcalfe (1885) theory of management was based on system and control. He visualized and insisted that all authority should emanate from a given source, with a flow back to that source of detailed information concerning expenditures and accomplishments.

In 1886, Taylor joined the American Society of Mechanical Engineers and heard Henry R. Towne read his paper "The Engineer as an Economist". This paper had a profound impact on Taylor, since it probably first directed his attention to management as something separate from and in addition to innate executive ability and asserted that management must also include a composite collection, marshalling, and analysis of all facts and accounts (wages, supplies, expences) pertaining to or having any effect on the economy of production and thereby the cost of the product.

In 1903, Taylor outlined his basic principles and philosophy of management. These were as follows:

1. The objective of good management was to pay high wages and have low unit production costs.

2. To achieve this objective, management had to apply scientific methods of research and experiment to its overall problem in order to formulate principles and standard processes which would allow for control of the manufacturing operations.
3. Employees had to be scientifically placed on jobs where materials and working conditions were scientifically selected so that standards could be met.
4. Employees should be scientifically and precisely trained to improve their skill in so performing a job that the standard output could be met.
5. An air of close and friendly cooperation would have to be cultivated between management and workers to insure the continuance of this psychological environment that would make possible the application of the other principles he had mentioned.

Taylor's major thesis was that the maximum good for all society can come only through the cooperation of management and labour in the application of scientific methods to all common endeavours. He genuinely believed that man started with a given amount of natural resources and that his only means of utilizing these was through

the application of human effort. Further, he saw that the greater the effort, the greater man's wealth. To maximize output with a given level of effort, Taylor felt that the scientific method had to be applied to worker selection, job determination, creation of proper environment, and training to determine properly the task for each man. If under these conditions, the worker achieved a level of excellence in output, he was to be rewarded; if standard output was not achieved, he was to be penalized. Realizing that these concepts were contrary to actual practice in many instances, Taylor called for a mental revolution on the part of both labour and management so that they might understand these principles and cooperate in the spirit of work harmony in order to improve their respective lots - attaining higher wages for labour and increased output at lower cost for management.

George (1972) summarized Taylor's typology of scientific management as follows:

First: Develop a science for each element of a man's work, which replaces the old rule-of-thumb method.

Second: Scientifically select and then train, teach, and develop the workman, who in the past, chose his own work and trained himself as best as he could.

Third: Heartily cooperate with the men so as to insure all of the work being done in accordance with the principles of the science which has been developed.

Fourth: The work should be equally divided between the management and the workmen. The management should take over all work for which they are better fitted than the workmen, while in the past almost all of the work and the greater part of the responsibility were thrown upon the men. (1911, pp.36-37).

Note that although scientific management, according to its early proponents, had clear objectives, it was left to the Taylor Society in its early days to enunciate the thirteen aims of scientific management, among which were:

- To assure the highest opportunity for individual capacity through scientific methods of work analysis and of selection, training, assignment, transfer and promotion of workers;
- To assure by training and instructional foremanship the opportunity for workers to develop new and higher capacities, and eligibility for promotion to higher positions;

- To develop self-confidence and self-respect among workers through opportunity afforded for understanding of one's own work specifically, and of plans and methods of work generally;
- To develop self-expression and self-realisation among workers through the stimulative influence of an atmosphere of research and valuation, through understanding of plans and methods, and through the freedom of horizontal as well as vertical contacts afforded by functional organization;
- To build character through the proper conduct of work and education, (Person, 1929, pp.16-17).

A great contributor to the development of management education during this period was Joseph Wharton. Recognising the need for managerial education, Wharton gave one hundred thousand dollars to the University of Pennsylvania to establish a department where young men could get the education and training needed for careers in management. In Wharton's thinking, the colleges of that period were preparing only a few individuals (doctors, lawyers, and clerics) for their actual duties in life, and he believed something should be done to incorporate managerial education in the higher echelon. He wanted



the new department at the University of Pennsylvania to incorporate liberal business education into the total curriculum covering such topics as the problems of strikes, principles of cooperation, business law, elocution, clearing house functions, causes of panics and money crises, and the nature of stocks and bonds, to name a few.

Thus, the Wharton School was started and for seventeen years it was the only such school until 1898 when the Universities of Chicago and California established their business schools. By 1911 a total of thirty such schools were in operation in the United States of America.

As business continued to grow both in size and in number after the emergence of the scientific management movement of the latter nineteenth century, multiple problems not previously faced by managers were encountered. Concern was expressed over such problems as size, and emphasis in thinking moved from the area of the firm to the area of things within the firm: processes, equipment location, layout, production techniques, incentive systems, and the like. Management was becoming "things" oriented instead of "firm" oriented as it had been in the past. People amassed in large groups pointed up problems of organisation and efficiency, and these concerns, too, appeared in the literature.

Concern was also being expressed over the promulgation and exchange of ideas, with the need recognized for societies,

publications, and meetings to exchange views. The ground swell of management as a separate entity was gathering momentum. It is under these conditions that the search for universal rules rather than the parochial and individual concern for the application of scientific management techniques began. Among the universalists, perhaps the most influential was the Frenchman, Henri Fayol, whose works began to appear in America in 1949, although his influence had begun to be felt in Europe by the turn of the century. Fayol observed that management was an activity common to all human undertakings, and involved, at all levels, some degree of planning, organising, commanding, conducting and controlling. What was required, according to Fayol, was a general knowledge of management that would benefit everyone. Equally important in Fayolism is the idea that management function was a chain, beginning from the very high executive position to the bottom ranks of supervisors. Fayol's network of management functions was clearly described in his General and Industrial Management (1949), a publication which presented a catalogue of clearly-defined functions and skills which could be utilised as curricula for the teaching and development of management competencies in colleges and universities.

Fayolism, despite its clear and methodological exposition of management functions, did not quite gain a footing in the U.S.A. where scientific management, with its practical approach to problem solving based on the

factual analysis of the situation rather than what has worked before, remained the dominant influence on management decisions for more than half of the twentieth century. By the 1950s, however, scientific management had undergone severe criticisms for being mechanistic, and other management thinkers were introducing concepts based on group dynamics. These latter-day philosophers perceived individual actions in terms of motives, values, and value judgements. Sheldon (1966) for example, had argued that ultimately, "the primary responsibility of management is social and communal" (pp. xix-xv). The most influential of these new management philosophers, who became known as the Behaviourist School, was Elton Mayo of Harvard University's Department of Industrial Research. Mayo's study of industrial workers led to his conviction that workers in a factory constituted a culture of their own, and that membership of this culture prescribed set rules of behaviour. Worker's behaviour and productivity therefore could be viewed in terms of the sociological concept of group endeavour.

Mayo's studies led to the conclusion that to be effective, management must recognise that the work performed by individuals must satisfy their personal subjective requirements for social satisfaction, as well as the company's requirement of productive output. This insight requires management to perceive workers as individuals with needs that must be satisfied. It also requires a new perception of the management function as a shared responsibility between managers and workers,

rather than as a chain of commands flowing from a more or less centralised source of authority.

Two major conclusions flow out of the preceding discussion. The first is that it is erroneous to perceive management as a simple function. It may be a common undertaking carried out by everybody or most people in everyday life, but it is not a simple activity, and much ink has been spilt trying to identify the components of the management function. Secondly, the discussion has shown that experience alone is insufficient in guaranteeing optimum performance of functionaries in management positions. The scientific management school, and the behaviourist school, settled the issue. Systematised knowledge is required to make the manager perform optimally, and as Fayol rightly observed, it is possible to isolate this body of knowledge and teach in colleges and universities.

## 2.2 MANAGEMENT EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

For the purpose of comparison with what is happening in Nigeria, the outline of management education in four countries is provided in this chapter, namely the United Kingdom, United States of America, Spain and Cote D'Voire. The United Kingdom, one of the countries selected, has for many decades played a leading role in the overall development of Nigeria. The educational system of Nigeria has been an off-shoot of the British system of education;

and it is just of recent that Nigeria is making some efforts to evolve her own pattern, based on her traditional and cultural experience. Even at that, a lot is still borrowed from the former colonial master's system.

As regards management education, United States of America (USA) could be seen to be the pioneer. It was one of the American Universities that began and took the lead in the study of Management Education. For a couple of decades, the study of Management Education became a monopoly of American Universities. Other countries selected were Spain and Cote D'Ivoire. This is so, because of their special relationship with Nigeria. They share similar cultural and economic background with Nigeria. They are both grouped under developing nations as Nigeria.

#### 2.2.1 MANAGEMENT EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

Management Education and Training in the United Kingdom has been in a state of rapid transition. One could however draw a time between events before and after 1960. It was mainly after 1960 that ideas about management education and training long established in the U.S.A. came to gain acceptance in Britain, leading to a striking expansion in the volume and variety of courses for management.

Formal education specifically for management hardly existed in the United Kingdom before the Second World War, apart from courses leading to the qualifications of

professional bodies. A handful of companies ran short internal courses for managers, but few courses designed specially for managers of aspiring managers were offered by educational institutions. 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, College of Science and Technology and the London School of Economics and Political Science offered full-time postgraduate courses for managers or potential managers in the 1930s.

On the other hand, undergraduate courses in subjects leading to a first degree in commerce, or the economic aspect of business, like subsidiary courses in industrial administration for students taking engineering degrees, had been offered for some years by several universities, following the introduction of a commerce degree by Birmingham University at the turn of the century and the pioneering work of the Regent Street Polytechnic at about the same time. The pre-war degrees in commerce, business or industrial economics, however, were designed for broader purposes than a career in management.

The pre-war absence of education for management, outside the professions, must be explained in terms of

both demand and supply. Businessmen in Britain generally appeared to be hostile to the suggestion that education, except in specific technical fields, could successfully develop or strengthen management skill. In view of the similarities between the problems of business decisions and those of warfare, the contrast between the traditional attitude of the business world and that of the armed forces towards the interaction of personality, experience and education is striking. The importance of education at all levels of military management has long been appreciated. Field-Marshal Viscount Montgomery (1968) for example has written:

It is my belief that good generals are made rather than born; no officer will reach the highest rank without prolonged study. The conduct of war is a life study (Montgomery, 1968: 24).

Even as early as 1947, the Urwick Committee which was the first body to propose a national scheme of management education, felt it necessary to begin its Report (Education for Management - Management Subjects in Technical and Commercial Colleges - Report of a Special Committee appointed by the Minister of Education, HMSO, 1957) with the declaration that:

there is no implication to this Report that young man or woman can be trained as managers in commerce and industry by following certain courses of study .... Theoretical study alone cannot make a manager (p.175).

The latter statement has never been disputed by the advocates of management education, who readily acknowledge

the prior importance of personality and experience and who see the role of management education as leading to the fuller exploitation of both. On the other hand, the provision of effective courses for management before the war was also held back by the unwillingness of most universities to admit that such courses were at all for inclusion in institutions traditionally averse to what might be regarded as "vocational" education. The intellectual climate of the United Kingdom as a whole was unsympathetic to the idea that management especially in industry, offered a worthwhile career to the talented graduate, who turned instead to research and teaching, public service or the professions. The social climate, which might be said to have been composed of a class with a snobbish attitude towards trade on the one hand and a political prejudice against business on the other, reinforced the disposition to regard university education in Britain as being suitable only for an intellectual elite seeking careers outside the business world.

Interest in management education in Britain began to quicken after the war, for perhaps three reasons. Within the business world itself a more sympathetic attitude towards what was, and still is commonly described as "scientific" management had taken root. Promotion through the supervisory grades was giving way to the more rapid advancement of accountants, engineers and chemists, who responded more readily to systematic ideas concerning management. This change in attitude was probably



accelerated by the increasing scale of operations, the decreasing importance of the family business and by the post-war emphasis on raising productivity, an emphasis which included the frequent comparison of British with American management method. At this time, the 1944 Education Act and the addition to the University population of returning ex-servicemen caused a sharp increase in the number of university graduates interested in business career.

In this period, therefore, the first significant change was the increase in the demand for and supply of university graduates in management. Its main direct consequence was the spread of trainee schemes for graduates with a variety of first degrees. The rise, up the management ladder, of men who were sympathetic to the idea of higher education in general was bound sooner or later to be favourable to the development of management education and training in particular. Inside the industry, one result was the spread of company or industry courses. By 1960, at least 400 relatively large companies ran management courses, about 50 of which had their own residential centres.

Apart from the establishment of company training centres and the spread of graduate trainee schemes, the chief features of management education in the period 1945-1960 were the following:

1. The emergence of the technical colleges as the main suppliers of management education.

2. The establishment of a number of independent management centres, which together with management consultants, provided courses for various levels of existing managers.
3. The limited role of universities, only a few of which offered postgraduate management diplomas or full-time courses for existing managers. (Urwick, 1960).

The immediate post-war pattern of management education and training in United Kingdom was set by the Urwick Report. This established a National Scheme of Management Studies for the 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 commerce and industry with particular reference to the steps to be taken in regard to the organisation of studies, bearing in mind the various requirements of professional organisations and the need for their co-ordination. (Urwick, 1960: 9).

The professional bodies were still the main route into "qualified" management, and the close concern of the Government with the needs of the professional organisations in particular was apparent in the origin of the Committee, in its membership and in its recommendations.

The main recommendations were for the establishment of courses in the technical colleges which would lead to a qualification in management in two stages - Intermediate and Final Diploma. The Committee had been concerned at the dissipation of facilities which might have occurred if each professional institution had retained its own syllabus. This led to the recommendation that a common Intermediate course should be adopted, to which the professional institutions should adapt the requirements of their syllabuses. The Intermediate stage was to consist of three parts: an introduction to management; so-called "background" subjects (economics and psychology); and what were described as 'tools' subjects (accounting, statistical method, work measurement and incentive, and office organisation and method).

There were to be two forms of the final examinations, one for those who wished to qualify in general management and the other, for those who were seeking specialist qualifications in functional management studies.

The Scheme of Management Studies arising from the Urwick Report was jointly sponsored by the Ministry of Education and the British Institute of Management. It was administered by the Joint (Examination) Executive Committee, whose membership consisted of representatives from the professional bodies and the Ministry. The British Institute of Management had been established with the aid of government finance in 1947 as a result of the

recommendations of the Bailliau Report (1946). It provided the impetus within industry to the post-war growth of management education which the Urwick Recommendations launched. Through its publications, conferences and information services, it helped considerably to develop a climate favourable to management education and training.

During the 15 years of the Urwick scheme, the number of Certificates and Diplomas awarded increased annually. In 1955, 490 Intermediate Certificates and 250 Diplomas were awarded; by 1961 the number of certificates awarded reached 810 and that of diplomas 640. Over 100 colleges offered courses for the Intermediate Certificate, and 62 were approved for the Diploma. Nevertheless, support from industry was not as widespread as had been hoped, and the criticism of the scheme grew (Arnold Report, 1959). Most students attended evening classes only, effective entry qualifications were often lower than had been intended by the Urwick Report and student dropout rates were high. The five years required to take the Diploma by part-time study was too long to sustain interest. The quality of teaching and general conditions in many of the technical colleges undertaking management teaching were regarded as inadequate.

In spite of these shortcomings, it must be recognised that the technical colleges were making a significant pioneering contribution, under difficult conditions, to

the development of management education and training in Britain, in addition to their already important role in the provision of courses directly for the professional bodies.

The importance of the independent management centres was their early contribution to the development of middle and senior management. The establishment in 1947 of the Administrative Staff College at Henley-on-Thames provided an example of a method of management teaching through the use of "syndicates". This method was aimed primarily at the pooling of knowledge and the development of managers in group situations; it requires relatively few full-time staff and could be reinforced by the use of outside experts. It had an important influence on the development of the other independent institutions. Henley's major activity has always been its 11-week general management course. Other centres developed a variety of functional and specialist courses as well as relatively short general management courses.

The growth in demand for the services of consultants after the war led to their establishing training centres, such as the Urwick Management Centre (Urwick Orr & Partners) and the Sundridge Park Management Centre (Personnel Administration Limited). These offered both specialized and general management courses, all of which were relatively short. At the same time a growing number of professional and trade associations, individual

entrepreneurs and adult education centres began promoting other courses, usually of a maximum of a week or ten days and catering often for relatively junior managers. By 1960, some thirty centres, specialist and professional types of organisations, offered a wide variety of courses.

The rate with which management studies were introduced in the university curricula before the war, was very slow. During the 1950s, however, full-time postgraduate courses lasting an academic year and leading to a diploma or certificate in management subjects were established by seven universities. Thirteen universities established various types of short courses, including short residential courses and 'sandwich' courses, as well as lectures and seminars for experienced managers.

The attitude of industries towards management studies in the universities, however, seemed ambivalent. Whereas the short residential course for existing managers was often oversubscribed, few firms gave their support to postgraduate courses. By 1960, less than 200 students were attending postgraduate management courses in the universities, which could not economically develop management departments on so small a scale. In short, management education was coming to be accepted as part of the development of experienced managers but not yet as an additional qualification for young men already possessing a university degree.

It is difficult accurately to account for the limited and mixed support which industry gave to the universities efforts in management education. Apart from the absence of a widespread acceptance of the value of formal management education as a whole, there may have existed a general suspicion of the relevance of what the universities in particular could teach the manager and particularly the young man without managerial experience. This was further strengthened by the lack of teachers with 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 within industry was for courses designed specifically for existing managers. It should be remembered that all this was before the widespread growth of research.

Changes in attitude towards the need for formal or 'structured' management education have occurred in government, in business and in the educational institutions themselves. In each field, these changes have helped to stimulate or reinforce those occurring elsewhere. The slow rate of economic growth of Britain as compared with that of others and frequent balance of payments crises, according to Jones, Ball and Shellens (1972), had led to a general feeling of national economic malaise in which no set of institutions has been free from criticism. In consequence, the view has developed over the past decades that, whatever the faults of government policy to

assist management in particular, the relatively poor performance of British industry is attributed partly - but significantly - to inadequate managerial performance, Jones et al (1972), further observed.

There was discernible in government thinking in the 1960s some increase in the degree of emphasis on the improvement of managerial quality as a factor in economic growth as against others such as the direct stimulation of capital investment. This became evident, for example, in Conditions Favourable to Faster Growth, published by the National Economic Development Council in 1963, which stressed the need for more and better management education and which recommended the establishment of at least one very-high-level business school.

According to Jones et al (1972), it is difficult to identify exactly the stage at which similar thinking began to emerge in the business world; the establishment of the Foundation for Management Education in 1960 was undoubtedly significant. Britain's general loss of economic confidence may have been reflected in businessmen becoming less resistant to criticism or to suggestion coming from the academic world. The attitude of business to the idea of management education was, in any case, likely to become more sympathetic as managers came to include an increasing proportion of men with a university education. For instance, Jones et al (1972) agreed with Clark (1966) who carried out a study of a sample of 689 managers,



found that 35 per cent had a university degree.

Whatever the exact balance of reasons, a more sympathetic view of management education has undoubtedly spread within the business world. The belief that managers can learn only from experience is much less widely held, in large firms at least. Managers themselves are more aware of the potential benefits to their career that education can provide. Although Jones et al (1972), held the view that there are still, perhaps, two intellectual obstacles to the further spread of these views. One is the tendency among many firms to discount the value of longer comprehensive courses as compared with short courses with a marked functional or specialised content. The other is the stubborn tendency of many firms, especially outside manufacturing, to believe that their management processes and problems are unique.

In the academic world, on the other hand, and perhaps especially in the universities, there tends to be a greater belief in a universal basis of principles underlying management processes, an understanding of which is regarded as being necessary for the effective solution of practical problems. Indeed, the development of this philosophy, which is now common in American business schools, has been fundamental to the growing acknowledgment by the University world in Britain of the intellectual value of management education since the Robbins Report (1963), which recommended the establishment of business schools. The process of abstraction is

regarded by most academics as lying at the heart of education, and the success of management education will depend partly on the extent to which the "specific application" approach and the generalist or "theoretical" approach can be reconciled. This difference in emphasis no doubt continues to influence the choice by many firms between in-company and external courses.

Most of all, perhaps, it has been the academic reputation achieved by the leading American business schools, especially over the past ten to fifteen years, which has more recently led British universities to become aware of the academic potential of management education. Two factors proved to be specially important. One was the belated appreciation of the extent and quality of postgraduate courses in the leading American schools, in which the mere description of business operations now plays little part. The second has been the general development of quantitative techniques ideally suited to university teaching and research. The interest of social scientists in organisations, and economists in the policy of the firm have also contributed to this change of attitude in the universities.

Since the late 1950s, therefore, both business and the educational world in general have become aware of the potential of management education for their spheres of activity. But it is not clear how far a measure of agreement has really developed as to the forms which

management education should take in Britain. In the case of courses for existing managers (post-experience courses), the main areas of potential disagreement concern the length of courses and the extent to which they should be geared to the needs of particular industries. In the case of postgraduate courses, the main question is the extent to which they should aim at equipping a man immediately for work or at developing his long-term potential. The difference may be seen by many businessmen as being between the "practical" and the "academic": teachers would probably express the question differently.

An equally important but related question is whether the new developments in British management education should be modelled on the practice of American business schools or whether British conditions require different lines of development, reflecting perceived British needs and cultural conditions. Most of the leading American schools have achieved their academic reputation through teaching and research of a high degree of abstraction and a quantitative approach to the solution of many problems. The view has been that the success of American precedent might lead British institutions to pay insufficient attention to the fact that here, a particularly important task may be to influence the attitudes of managers as well as to interest them in managerial techniques.

Since 1960, there are many professional bodies in Britain whose activities, mainly through the organisation

of courses for their respective examinations, include a significant element of management education. The present membership of the main bodies, excluding the professional engineering institutions, some of whose examinations include papers in industrial administration, is approximately as shown in the following table.

Table 2.1: Professional Bodies Concerned With Management Education, 1968-69

Main Body	Membership
Institute of Chartered Accountants	55,000
Association of Certified Corporate Accountants	12,000
Institute of Cost and Works Accountants	10,000
Institute and Faculty of Actuaries	4,000
British Institute of Management	25,000
Chartered Institute of Secretaries	31,000
Institute of Management Consultants	1,750
Institute of Marketing	15,500
Institute of Office Management	5,250
Institute of Personnel Management	10,500
Institute of Purchasing and Supply	8,100
Institution of Production Engineers	16,000
Institution of Works Managers	8,000

With the exception of the Institute of Chartered Accountants, the Association of Certified and Corporate Accountants and the Institute and Faculty of Actuaries,

the above bodies have, since 1967, been associated with each other through the formation of the Consultative Council of Professional Management Organisations (CCPMO).

In recent years, membership of these professional bodies has been growing overall at about 10 per cent per annum. Jones (1972) observed that in 1968-69, the number of students registered for the examinations of the thirteen organisations listed above was about 120,000, of whom about 72,000 were registered with the four (4) accounting bodies and 19,000 for the examinations of the Chartered Institute of Secretaries. Examination courses for the professional bodies are held mainly in colleges of further education. In addition, most of the professional bodies sponsored courses for members already possessing qualifications. In 1969, some 800 to 900 courses were likely to have been arranged, with a total attendance on the part of CCPMO members alone of 30,000. Of these, the British Institute of Management accounts for about 20,000. The educational activities of most professional bodies are likely to continue to grow.

The main development in the colleges of further education in the past decades has been the replacement, in 1961, of the studies, administered by the Department of Education and Science alone since 1964 through an independent Diploma in Management Studies (DMS) Committee on which teachers and others are represented, but for which the Department of Education and Science provides

the secretariat. The DMS course consists of an introductory stage, followed by a second stage forming the main body of the course. The Diploma may be taken full-time, part-time or in the form of a "block-release" or "sandwich" course. Over 80 per cent of Diploma students took the course on a part-time basis. About one-half of these are evening students alone. The full-time course provides for a minimum of six months' study, and part-time courses normally extend over three years (but with part-time day and evening courses being completed in a shorter period). The Diploma is not usually awarded below the age of 26; about 70 per cent of DMS-students are 27 or over, and a similar proportion are sponsored or encouraged to take the course by their employers. Students must normally have a degree or certain other qualifications (e.g. Higher National Diploma or Certificate), but may instead be admitted on a combination of age (from 27) and experience. Diploma colleges have to be approved by the DMS Committee. Examinations for the Diploma are organised internally by the colleges with the assistance of external examiners. With this scheme, however, there exists a variety of DMS courses differing in range of subject matter and in method.

There are now about 5,000 students enrolled on DMS courses in the 45 polytechnics and colleges of technology and commerce which are approved DMS centres. According to the January 1966 Report of the United Kingdom Advisory

Council on Education for Management, there has been a "..... notable advance in standards (in the Diploma scheme), both in the quality of students and staff, and in the amenities of study ...." (1966, p.271), since the introduction of DMS schemes in 1961. Nevertheless, Jones (1972) observed that certain problems still persist. According to him, the quality of students varies, and a high proportion do not complete part-time courses for reasons that include failure to reach the standards demanded, lack of time for prolonged private studies and the movement of individual students to other districts. Wastage is particularly high on evening courses. Against this, it must be recognised that the DMS scheme and the work of the colleges as a whole meet a special need on the part of those many students unable to attend full-time courses. In addition to catering for company-sponsored students, the colleges are well adapted to provide for the needs of those students who seek management education on their own initiative. Moreover, many colleges have established close links with local firms and are helping to satisfy the demands business make, for courses are aimed at the problems of a particular industry.

The work of most polytechnics and colleges of technology in the field of management or business studies extends well beyond teaching for the DMS. These roles in preparing students for the examinations of the professional bodies has already been mentioned. In addition, the polytechnics and colleges offer an increasing volume

of courses of all kinds for existing managers, a range of activity which has recently received a new stimulus because of the work of the industrial training boards. Besides this, the polytechnics prepare students for first degrees in business studies, under a scheme administered by the Council for National Academic Awards. Polytechnics are also preparing to undertake master's courses.

Besides the 45 polytechnics and colleges of technology and commerce that are approved DMS centres, there are approximately 150 other colleges of further education engaged in some form of management teaching. Besides offering courses for the examinations of professional bodies, most colleges of further education run courses in business studies for the HND, HNC, OND and ONC examinations of the Joint Committee for National Awards in Business Studies and Public Administration. There are courses which are more in the nature of a general preparation for business than for management, but they play a useful part in the wider process of educating young people for ultimate managerial positions. The Higher National Diploma is the equivalent of two years' full-time study and approaches the standard of a pass degree, but over a somewhat narrower range of subject matter. The Higher National Certificate requires a two-year part-time course (block or day release) and is therefore less ambitious in content.

The number of students taking the examinations of these courses in recent years is shown in the following



table.

Table 2.2: Number of Students Taking HND, HNC, OND, ONC Examinations 1963-69

Year	HND	HNC	OND	ONC
1963	38	671	596	2,769
1964	193	861	1,063	2,988
1965	550	977	1,602	3,314
1966	848	1,025	2,000	3,637
1967	986	1,453	2,158	3,953
1968	1,554	1,695	2,366	3,935
1969	1,894	1,717	2,577	4,314

The number of colleges involved in each type of course varies with the general level of their work in the field of business studies. Whereas there are almost 250 colleges offering ONC courses, only about 60 provide courses for the Higher National Diploma; most of the latter are colleges approved for DMS courses as well.

Another development in higher education outside the universities has been the establishment in 1964 of the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) which superseded the National Council for Technological Awards. The Council has power to award degree and other qualifications to students who complete approved courses of study or research in institutions which do not have

the right to award their own degrees.

The Council has a duty to ensure that the standard of its wards is comparable to the standard of similar awards made by the universities, and a substantial proportion of the courses submitted to it by colleges do not gain its approval.

The validation of courses submitted to the Council is carried out by about 40 committees and subject boards, which include boards for Business Studies and Management Studies. The Council's work has expanded rapidly during the last five years, and there are now more than 15,500 students attending over 200 courses leading to its degrees (largely first degree). There are also nearly 500 students registered for the Council's research degrees. The figure for students attending CNAA degree courses includes some 1,900 students reading for a first degree in Business Studies.

The Council has also approved a master's course in Operational Research, in addition to master's courses in other more specialized scientific and technological subjects. The Council has so far taken the line that courses in Management Studies should be considered only at the postgraduate level, and the Council's Management Studies Board is at present considering a number of proposals for postgraduate courses.

In 1964, the Industrial Training Act was passed, under which industrial training boards were set up to make a training levy on businesses and to use the proceeds to pay grants to firms for the cost of training approved by the boards. By January 1969, there were 26 boards in existence. In providing finance for attendance on approved courses, in encouraging the development of manpower planning schemes and in assessing management courses, the industrial training boards are likely to have an influence on the extent and nature of management education which is still taking shape but which is likely to be highly important.

The expansion of the university-cum-business school sector can be said to have got underway in 1960 with the establishment of the Foundation for Management Education (FME), in the same year, financed by contributions from business on a relatively small scale. The FME began by making grants for the initiation or reinforcement of management courses in the universities, but from 1963 it became concerned with the establishment of two national business schools following the recommendations, first of NEDC and then of the Robbins Report, (1962) on Higher Education. A Report by Lord Franks in 1963, who was asked to inquire into the steps which should be taken, led to the foundation of business schools at London and Manchester.

Following the recommendations of the Normanbrook Committee, (1963), on the probable cost of the business

schools, Lord Nelson launched an appeal in 1964 for £3 million from the business world. The sponsors of this appeal were the Foundation for Management Education, the Federation of British Industries and the British Institute of Management. As a result £5 million was raised, most but not all of which was allocated to the London and Manchester schools. The Government agreed to bear, through the University Grants Committee, half the capital and running costs of the schools, broadly within the limits recommended by the Normanbrook Committee. The two schools at present, each have a capacity of 125-150 students. When they move into permanent premises, its estimated capacity will be increased to about 300 each.

Management education has been developed in a large number of universities over the past decade, in many instances with Foundation for Management Education's financial support. As a result, there are now over 30 universities with some 37 departments active in the field. Of these, 12 are mounting or are in the process of mounting first degree courses. The relative effectiveness of first degree and postgraduate courses in management studies, like the choice between one-year and two-year postgraduate courses, is the subject of some controversy. There is also some doubts as to whether the staff resources of some new university departments in the field of management studies generally are sufficient to provide courses of adequate quality and range.

### 2.2.2 THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

The pattern of management is not necessarily a model for Britain or other countries; but as a discipline, the study of management has been more extensively developed in the United States than anywhere else in the world.

Education for a career in business in the U.S.A. occurs at a number of levels. Simple secretarial and accounting skills, for example, are taught by institutions usually known as "business colleges" which are not to be confused with "business schools". The latter are faculties of universities; the former are what in the United Kingdom would be described as commercial colleges. Business colleges in the U.S.A., which developed from the trade schools of nineteenth century origin, may be operated by State or city or, as is often the case, may be privately owned. Secondly, there are junior colleges, which offer non-degree courses of up to two years for students who have left high schools; there are facilities for subsequent transfer to some universities. In the field of business education the junior colleges provide courses for the supervisory and junior levels of management, e.g. retail store management. Junior colleges are State or City-operated; they offer a range of adult education courses, including those on an evening basis, and overlap with still more general local adult education centres, sometimes described as "community colleges".

The most common educational route for someone aiming at a management career, other than through the supervisory grades, is through the university system. American universities offer a four-year first degree in management studies, described usually as the degree of Bachelor of Business Administration (BBA) or Bachelor of Science (BS). Beyond this, there are postgraduate stages of education in the form of the master's degree, most commonly, that of Master of Business Administration (MBA). There is relatively small number of doctoral degrees which are usually taken by those aiming specially at a career in the university world or as staff specialists in business.

University courses in management studies may be taught in the business school, which is a separate faculty of the American university, having its own organisation and its own Dean. Alternatively, they may be taught only in the business division or department of a university, which will usually be smaller than the typical business school and will not have its separate organisation. There are now about 650 university institutions offering courses in management studies, of which some 240 to 250 do so in separate business schools. Nearly all the 650 institutions offer first degree courses, and about 180 run postgraduate degree courses. Of the latter, half are organised in separate graduate schools, and twelve of these are in universities which offer postgraduate courses only; the latter include most, but

not all of what would probably be acknowledged as the leading institutions in the field.

University education for management began in the U.S.A. with the founding of the Wharton School by the University of Pennsylvania in 1881. By 1914, business schools had been founded in a number of universities, notably at Dartmouth and Harvard, where the courses offered were first degree courses only. According to the Pierson Report (1959), the schools founded in this early period had a difficult time winning academic status and developing a clear-cut role. As to what to teach, the problems were simplest for schools which stressed accounting and office procedures, more complex for those with an economic orientation and still more so for those with a mixed academic background. The quickest and easiest way for a school to attract students and develop its own crops of teachers was to offer courses in specific trade practices and practical business skills.

Work in particular industries offered a rather similar opportunity. Schools which from the start had a trade-industry orientation moved quickly to add numerous courses in various areas of business practice and related subjects. While the emphasis on specific business practices helped business schools achieve a certain identity, it tended to isolate them from the rest of the academic community.

As the numbers of courses in business skills increased, the proportion of the work devoted to more traditional disciplines fell. As more students with poor scholastic records were granted admission, the programmes in business declined in esteem. As the faculties in these programmes specialised in more areas, schools in the academic world tended to deteriorate. As business schools withdrew from the academic community, they endeavoured to form increasing close ties with business organisations. This two-way trend was mutually reinforcing, the one furthering the other. It was carried to its furthest extreme in the relationship between certain schools and societies of professional accountants. Indeed, it later became difficult to tell whether the accounting instructors in these schools were primarily practising accountants who wanted to keep their hand in the teaching profession.

The inter-war period was one of considerable expansion in the number of institutions in the field of management education. Practically, every important public university in the U.S.A. established a business school, most of them concentrating on first degree work. By 1939, there were almost 120 business schools in existence. To a large extent, this period was again one where expansion in numbers took place before the development of a satisfactory academic basis for business education. In 1916 the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business had been founded to facilitate cooperation



between business schools and to improve educational standards.

The number of first degree in business studies had risen from 3,600 in 1921-22 to over 18,000 per annum in 1940. The number of master's degrees, at 1,000 in 1940, remained relatively small, and unlike first degrees, had been seriously affected by the depression. The share of business degrees, in all fields of degrees, had risen from 3.2 per cent in 1919-20 and 6.8 per cent in 1931-32 to 9.1 per cent in 1939-40, but master's degrees had fallen to 5.8 per cent of all business degrees from a previous peak of 9.4 per cent in 1931-32.

Before the First World War, there was relatively little development in the field of post-experience courses. The chief exceptions were executive courses provided at Harvard and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, which were of six-week and one year duration respectively. They were begun in 1928 and 1931 respectively. They were also part-time evening courses at a number of universities beginning with the New York University School of Commerce. These were started in 1980. The seeds of more widespread interest in management education, however, were sown in week-end seminars arranged for the Business Executives Discussion Groups which had been established at Harvard in 1935. This was not confined to Harvard graduates and its importance lay partly in the fact that executives later

become particularly active in support of executive courses were among those participating in these early discussions. Some became presidents of companies which later sent many men to the Harvard Advanced Management Programme and ultimately to other courses across the country.

These beginnings were taken further during the war. In 1942, Harvard and Stanford Universities were asked by the US Office of Education, to design short courses for businessmen, to prepare men displaced from other occupations for jobs in war production. From these "War Production Training Courses", of 15-week residential study, there developed, for example, the new well-known executive courses at Harvard. The 13-week Advanced Management Programme, perhaps the most well-known post-experience courses in the world, according to Jones, Ball and Shellens (1972); was started in 1943.

The period since the war has seen a considerable degree of expansion in almost all forms of education for management in the U.S.A. The post-war years saw a substantial expansion inside and outside the business school sector. The growth of the economy and the widespread demand for business and managerial skill at all levels led to the establishment of large numbers of junior colleges and to further growth in the scale of evening study for first degrees in university evening colleges and extension (extramural) divisions (both of

which are usually organised separately from the main body of the university). According to the Pierson Report (1959), a further development to be noted was the increasing tendency for a significant proportion of management subjects to be taught in engineering degrees. He went on to observe that it is a tendency of particular importance in view of the fact that about two-thirds of men with engineering degrees became managers in ten or fifteen years. Most of the engineering schools of the universities required their first degrees to include at least a course in engineering economy.

Apart from this, a number of schools had introduced administration options into their ordinary mechanical, civil, electrical and chemical engineering courses; included a relatively high proportion of management subjects, while the number of schools with this type of degree accredited by the Engineering Council for Professional Development rose from 19 in 1943 to 49 in 1953.

The expansion of management studies outside the business school sector was mainly a reflection of growth inside it. By 1959, the number of business schools in the U.S.A. increased to about 160, and in addition, degree courses in business studies were offered by more than 400 university departments and divisions, not organised as separate business schools or colleges. The expansion of degree courses in business studies was more

than a reflection of the expansion of university education in particular. The share of business degrees in the total number of degrees rose from 9.1 per cent in 1939-40 to about 13.5 per cent in 1959-60, and master's degrees increased their proportion of business degrees over this period from 5.8 to nearly 10 per cent.

As a proportion of all degrees, first degrees in business studies reached their peak, at 15.5 per cent, in 1948-49. After this, the tide of ex-service students began to subside. After a decline, until 1952, the proportion of first degree awards in business studies stabilized during the rest of the decade at about the figure recorded in 1959. The peak in the share of master's degree, however, did not occur until 1954-55, and the fall was subsequently less steep.

With the fall in the number of ex-service students, degree in business studies declined in number between 1949 and 1953 but since then began to rise once more. By 1959, the total number of degrees in the field was nearly three times the 1939 level, and the number of master's degrees was five times the relatively low immediate pre-war figure.

The post-war years also saw a considerable expansion in the volume of post-experience courses. The value of executive courses had been demonstrated by the wide range of wartime training courses, and after the war the demand by business for post-experience courses 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, among large companies, at least, of the view expressed by the General Electric Company, "... managing is a distinct professional type of work which can be taught and can be learned" (Pierson, 1959, p.173).

In 1935, only some 3 per cent of about 2,500 companies had replied to a survey conducted by the National Industrial Conference Board that they had executive training programme. By 1946, only 5 per cent of a sample of 3,500 companies involved in a similar survey gave this answer. In 1952, some 30 per cent of a sample of 2,000 companies, and in 1954, about 54 per cent of some 500 companies, reported having management development programme, in surveys conducted by the American Management Association. In large companies, other inquiries indicated a still higher proportion by the end of the decade. Nevertheless, the number of managers sent on external residential courses, at any rate does not appear to have been large by American standards, some 10,000 managers attended 40 residential courses of at least 2 weeks' duration between 1949 and 1958, the number at the end of the decade being in the region of 1,600 per annum.

There was naturally a considerable difference in the extent and nature of management education which these development programmes entailed, especially in the choice between internal and external courses. The latter, range from the one-year residential courses developed at MIT to courses of one or two days sponsored by the American Management Association and other bodies. By 1959, there were about 40 residential general management courses available in American business schools. The growth in support for these was particularly marked in the years following the Korean War, but after a steady rise in attendances up to 1958, there is evidence of a decline in subsequent years, at least until 1962 (Andrews, 1966, p.47).

During these post-war years, academic standards improved in the leading business schools, and by the end of the 1950s about 90 out of the 160 business schools had become members of the ASCSB, whose entry requirements had become more demanding than in pre-war years. Nevertheless, considerable doubt was expressed in this period concerning the role and the quality of business education in the country as a whole.

The Pierson and Gordon and Howell Reports, (1970); may be said to have been written from an academic point of view, but their conclusion may not have gone without opposition within the academic community itself, especially by supporters of first degree courses. It is

not known how most businessmen at the time regarded the contention that business school courses as a whole should become more analytical and less descriptive or practical in their approach to teaching and research. However, a subsequent report of the Committee for Economic Development, which consists of eminent businessmen as well as academics, should be noted. In its October, 1964 report: "Educating Tomorrow's Managers", it concluded that the criticism expressed in the Pierson and Gordon and Howell Reports, (1962) "had widespread foundation" and observed that much remained to be done to meet this criticism:

Business school faculties need to be strengthened further. Research in business schools still needs more support - more first-rate minds. Many business schools still have not opened adequate channels of communication either with other parts of universities or with the business community. Not enough have been done in many institutions to add course material that is fresh and vital, or to cut away that which is delaying or dead. (Pierson et al, 1962).

The report also argued that more business firms should seek to develop arrangements with business schools to provide continuing education for experienced personnel and that closer contact was needed between business schools and business world to develop a managerial ability and the quality of leadership. It was seriously concerned as to whether business was attracting enough of the most able and creative students. It concluded that additional financial help was needed to improve the quality of most

schools but that in many cases a lead would have to be given first by business schools themselves by improving their standards.

The Committee for Economic Development Report (1964), also has an interesting appendix on business school finance in the early 1960s. Gifts accounted for 53 per cent of the educational and general expenditure of 24 privately-controlled business schools that responded in detail to a survey of the Council for Financial Aid to Education in 1963, conducted by Committee for Economic Development (CED). The proportion for the nine graduate schools in the survey was 73 per cent; for the other schools, only 15 per cent.

The total number of schools that gave information to the Council was 60, of which the nine graduate schools received 76 per cent of the total gifts recorded. The CED observed, however, that the notion that business schools in general were better off financially than other faculties, was widespread but mistaken. Of more than \$900 million in voluntary support given to higher education in 1962-63, only 1.7 per cent was given specifically to business schools, although they contained about 20 per cent of all university students. Most business schools had simply not developed and presented educational and research programmes that were impressive to business or other potential supporters. Only the leading schools attracted



business financial support on a significant scale. It should be noted, moreover, that the improvement in the standards of the leading schools, following the Pierson and Gordon and Howell reports, was thought to have owed a great deal to the provision of large grants by the Ford Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation.

In terms of numbers, it can be observed that Bachelor's degrees has been falling steadily, as high school students have become attracted for enrolment to careers other than that of business, but the proportion of master's degrees has recently been rising. The number of business degrees of all kinds nearly doubled in the decade to 1967-68. About 650 institutions now offer degrees in business studies. Of this total, about 250 are full schools of their university, of which 140 are accredited to the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB); in addition there are a similar number of university departments or divisions and about 100 parts of departments included in the total.

The number of first degrees awarded annually was in the region of 90,000 and the number of students registered for first degrees in business studies is approximately 500,000, of whom one-seventh are women (Delta Sigma Pi; Twenty-first Biennial Survey: the Educational Foundation of Delta Sigma Pi, Ohio, 1968). Universities in large towns offer evening degree courses, which naturally last for more than four years, and many also allow part-time

students to attend only for a degree course, in order to study selected subjects. About 180 out of the total of about 650 universities teaching first degree courses in business studies normally offer evening facilities, with approximately 68,000 students in attendance in 1967-68; of whom 7,700 were women (Delta Sigma Pi; Twenty-first Biennial Survey: The Educational Foundation of Delta Sigma Pi: Ohio, 1968). Evening study has played an important part in the education of many American businessmen; although it is becoming relatively less important owing to the growth of full-time courses in the field of management.

Within the sphere of education for careers in business, postgraduate education has come to play an increasing role. Master's degrees awarded numbered over 20,000 and in 1967-68 accounted for about 18 per cent of all business degrees; nearly double the proportion in 1957-58 (Gordon and Howell, 1970). Only about 20 per cent of the total number of master's degrees are two-year courses; but these, offered by 13 institutions, are taught mostly by the leading schools and command the highest starting salaries. Some of the graduate schools that offer only two-year master's courses are Carnegie, Chicago, Harvard and Stanford. And in this group, the schools accredited to the AACSB, do not normally allow exemption from the first year for students possessing a first degree. In all, about 180 institutions teach master's courses, of which 82 are accredited to the AACSB.

The fastest rate of expansion within the field of business studies has been in the number of doctoral degrees. This had more than quadrupled between 1957-58 and 1967-68 and are now offered by about 55 institutions.

As in the case of undergraduate education, evening study plays an important part in the postgraduate courses of some institutions, especially those in large cities. Out of the 180 which undertook postgraduate work, about 50 institutions offered evening facilities, accounting for approximately 28,000 of the 70,000 postgraduate students registered in 1968. Among the leading institutions, however, only two - Chicago and New York offered regular evening courses for master's degree.

No statistical data of a comprehensive kind are available concerning the trend of post-experience courses in the U.S.A. over the past decade. Whether or not there has been much expansion in the field of residential courses for middle-grade executives, the volume of all kinds of short courses had certainly increased, especially those on specialised subjects. According to Gordon and Howell (1970), "Our information also leads us to the conclusion that there has been increasing interest in courses for senior executives, including those arranged for individual companies with the aid of business schools or groups of teachers acting in a private capacity" (p.291). Because of the scale of study for bachelor's and master's degrees in business studies, the provision of general post-

experience courses for middle-grade executives plays a considerably smaller part in American universities than in British institutions. Not only are general middle-management courses thought to be unnecessary for executives who have been through a master's or good first degree course in business studies. The extent to which the study of management subjects is included in American engineering degree courses also reduces the need for general middle-management courses.

It should also be noted that the common educational route for other professions lies through study for a first degree, unlike the traditional situation in the United Kingdom. As part of their education for C.P.A. qualifications, for example, most American accountants will have taken an economics degree with accounting as a major option, (Pierson, 1970). The proportion of faculty time spent on post-experience courses at leading American graduate business schools, for example, does not exceed 15 per cent, (Moore, 1971), and certainly does not reach this in the undergraduate schools. The demand for post-experience courses, however, may well increase, in view of the growing interest in adult education in general that is developing with the rise in living standards and the fall in the length of the working week.

### 2.2.3 SPAIN

The First Development Plan ever produced in Spain (1964-73), made no reference to education and training for

management as a profession. As part of the preparations for the Second Development Plan, 1968-71, a working party was formed and asked to submit a report on the training of business managers (Madrid, 1967). The report observes that, although competent managers are the prime movers of any economic development, the present system of producing them in Spain presents a picture of some confusion and uncertainty of choice between various possibilities.

The Ministry of Industry has produced a catalogue of 30 centres at which management training and education is available, but this shows that control over these centres is divided among the Ministry of Education and Science, the Ministry of Industry and the Ministry of Labour, while there are other private and unregulated institutions in the field. The catalogue is known as Catalogo de Actividades de Formacion Empresarial, (Servicion Nacional de Productividad Industrial, Educiones Culture Hispanica, Madrid, 1967). There is no standard for or control over the adequacy of the teaching staff employed, nor an easy means of comparing the quality of the instruction offered.

The need of Spain for able and trained managers is all the greater because of her low level of productivity and income. Between 1965 and 1973, approximately 5,000 managers have received some form of training in the various schools and other centres available, and in addition 40,000 supervisors or junior managers have received T.W.I. training or its equivalent. The report

concludes that with a working population of 12,600,000, Spain should have 3,000,000 men capable of leading the work of others, and perhaps a further 90,000 to meet the needs of new employment to be created by the Second Plan.

The objectives which the report recommended to be pursued are improvements in:

1. The selection of Students;
2. The standard of Teachers;
3. The quality of teaching materials;
4. Research, both by teaching staff and within enterprises;
5. The raising of many courses to a higher and approved standards, especially when diplomas or other titles are to be gained from them.

The report ends with a recommendation that the Government should recognise, control and support financially those institutions which are providing management education of adequate quality.

Until the later years of the decade, 1960-1970, the only opportunities for an education directed towards commerce or industry were provided by the Commercial University of Deusto at Biblas (a private foundation), the State Schools of Commerce, State Schools of Supervisors, and some privately organised short courses on technical and specialised subjects.

In 1955, the Ministries of Education and Industry jointly set up the School of Industrial Organisation (EOI) in Madrid, which began work in 1957. This was followed in 1959 by a very similar organisation set up by the two Ministries, the School of Business Administration (EAE) in Barcelona. Both Schools offered part-time postgraduate or post-experience courses, for different age groups, and the EAE in Barcelona later added a course in public administration. In 1958, the Government set up a Centre for the Training of Civil Servants housed in the former University of Alcala de Henares, near Madrid. This later became the National School of Public Administration and has assumed a recruitment function, somewhat like that of the U.K. Civil Service Commission. After these beginnings, it was some years before any further major impetus was given from official sources, and the development of management training centres was continued by private organisations.

In 1958, the University of Navarra at Pamplona (a private foundation of Opus Dei) opened a faculty at Barcelona called the Institute of Senior Business Studies (IESE), offering post-experience part-time courses for senior managers and later in 1964, a postgraduate "Master" programme. Opus Dei is an organisation of lay members of the Catholic Church, dedicated to the maintenance of Christian principles in every kind of working life. The University and its Business Faculty are private and secular, without attachment to Church or State (Evans-Vaughan, 1968).

During the whole period from 1956 to the present day, the Society of Jesus, in its long established educational role, has been active in setting up new centres for management education (Evans-Vaughan, 1968). In 1956, the Senior School of Business Technique (ESTE) was formed at San Sebastian; in 1959, the Senior School of Business Administration and Management (ESADE) at Barcelona, and the Senior School of Business Management (ECADE) at Madrid, based on the older foundation of the Catholic Institute of Arts and Industries. During these years, the Institute of Business Economy at the Commercial University of Deusto at Bilbas was developing its course in Business Economics separately from that in Economics and law, and in 1962 began a new postgraduate course of international character.

In 1963, the society opened an Agricultural College at Cordoba (ETEA), with a considerable management element in its courses, and in 1966 a second, lower level, college of this type was opened at Valladolid. In 1965, a Senior School of Business Science (ESCE) was founded at Alicante, followed in 1967 by a Senior School of Business Management (ESDE) at Santander. Many of these centres offer, among other activities, a five or six-year course intended to be equivalent of a first degree course at a university.

The State Universities of Spain, twelve in number, played no part in the early stages of these development of management training centres. However, in 1963, the Ministry of Education authorised the University of Murcia



to set up an Institute of Business Management and Administration (IDAE), and the University of Sevilla an Institute of Business Science (IUCE), but the courses offered here are not of university degree standard (Evans-Vaughan, 1968). In addition to these major centres of management education, other activities directed to the same end were continued or promoted by government and by private endeavours.

On the government side, the 38 Schools of Commerce and the 29 Schools of Supervisors continued their work. The National Service for Industrial Productivity, (Servicio Nacional de Priductividad Industrial), set up by the Ministry of Industry in 1952 and dissolved in 1967 as part of the policy of reducing public expenditure, were active in organising specialised courses and seminars. The National Service for Industrial Productivity had its provincial branches in Madrid, Barcelona, Vizcaya, Oviedo and Sevilla, and productivity centres, especially at Valencia and Vigo. The Syndical Organisation (Organization Sindical Espanola) fostered management studies by correspondence and local seminars.

The Spanish economy is organised into 26 vertical syndicates, known as industrial unions, to which belong the owners, managers and employees of a particular industry. The system is regulated by a Department of State (Evans-Vaughan, 1968). In Madrid, the National Institute of Work Study and of Statistical Research organised courses in particular industrial techniques.

Among the private efforts must be mentioned, the Association for the Advancement of Management in Madrid, Bilbas and Victoria, which draws together top-level managers for exchange of information. Others are: the Centre for Metallurgical Studies and Consultation in Barcelona; the "Balmes" Institute of Sociology in Madrid; and the National Association called Employers' Social Action (Accion Social Patronal). This is an association of employers which has been particularly active in Madrid and Valencia in setting up centres of management training. Acting in concert with the Church, the association also undertakes private activities for the communal good, including courses in management subjects.

There has also been a growing number of private firms of business consultants, who offer courses as a service to their clients and to others who wish to take them, on a commercial basis. Many of these have been registered with and approved by the National Service for Industrial Productivity (Evans-Vaughan, 1978).

#### 2.2.4 THE COTE D'IVOIRE

The Cote d'Ivoire has one of the most rapidly growing economies in Africa. During the 1960s, the real growth rate of the country's gross domestic product averaged eight per cent. This successful growth record is attributed to the open door policy pursued by the Government of President Houphouet Bioghy, which relies heavily on the importation of foreign capital and skills.

Critics of this policy, however, have argued that the growth record is not matched by the development of indigenous skills. As a consequence, according to Rimlinger (1972), the country continues to be overwhelmingly dependent on expatriate managers and technicians. It is well known, for instance, that expatriate companies operating both in the Cote d'Ivoire and Nigeria have more local managers and technicians in their Nigerian than in their Ivorian operations.

The Ivorian government is well aware of this problem of shortage of managerial skills. At the inaugural seminar of the Ivorian Management Centre on February 10, 1972, Mr. Mohammed Deawars, the Ivorian Minister of Planning, pointed out that of the 1,600 senior staff posts in Ivorian Industry, only 9.5 per cent are occupied by Ivorians, and of the 8,200 intermediate staff posts, only 35 per cent are occupied by Ivorians. It will take tremendous efforts merely to maintain these percentages since the Government projects that by 1980, there would be 7,000 senior staff posts and 25,000 intermediate staff posts to be filled in industry.

The Minister of Planning of Cote d'Ivoire stressed that the educational system which the country inherited from colonial times was seriously inadequate to meet the high level manpower requirements of a rapidly growing economy. Government statistics show that as recently as 1968, only 250 Ivorians were qualified for the Baccalaureat, i.e. the higher qualification obtainable from secondary school which is required for university

entrance. In 1969-70, there were 1,179 Ivorians enrolled for degree courses at the University of Abidjan, the only university in the country.

Major efforts are being made to increase the educational base for high level manpower. It is projected that in 1975 some 1,500 Ivorians would receive the Baccalaureat. Enrolment at the University of Abidjan by 1975/76 is projected to be 8,300, with around 60 per cent of them being Ivorians.

The mere increase in number of highly educated people will not solve the problem of shortage of indigenous managers. Industry has been at a serious disadvantage in combating with the civil service in attracting secondary school and university graduates. Given the preference of graduates for the civil service, this problems will continue for some time, since only around 75 per cent of civil posts are presently held by Ivorians, 17 per cent are held by Africans and 8 per cent by non-Africans.

In secondary schools and higher educational institutions, the percentage of expatriates was much higher. The teaching staff of the University of Abidjan is 75 per cent expatriates. There are presently some 2,350 teachers from France in the Cote d'Ivoire, mostly at the secondary school level. To replace them in a few years will put a severe strain on the Ivorian higher level manpower base, without taking into account the expansion of the educational system.

Quite apart from the inadequacy of the numerical base from which indigenous managers have to come in the near future, there is also the problem of inadequate training institutions. In contrast, most of the Nigerian Universities provide courses in Business Administration up to the degree level, this is in addition to other institutions where high quality business courses are taught. The Cote d'Ivoire until this period, i.e. by 1972, had not a university level business faculty, however, there is a Department of Commerce and Administration within the Institute of Technology of the University of Abidjan. The department offers a two-year course for middle level administrative personnel of public and private enterprises. In 1970-71, there were 35 students enrolled in the first year and 29 in the second year.

The Government and the business community are fully aware of the problems posed by the narrow base from which to draw indigenous managers. It is for this reason that many discussions have been held with various international assistance agencies for the creation of a business school. In the meantime, the Government and the business community have co-operated to establish centre Ivorian de Gestion des Entreprises (CIGE), the Ivorian Management Centre.

In the opening speech at the inauguration of the Centre on February 10, 1972, Francois Barry-Battesty, the Ivorian Minister for Technical Education and Professional Training, declared that fundamental objective of the Centre

is to assist in a progressive but effective Ivorianisation of the economy. He stressed that the Ivorian Government seeks to Africanise public and private posts as completely as possible and as quickly as Ivorians become capable of filling them. He noted that this will be done without demagoguery and without passion. The Ivorianisation at private employment, he added, will be sought by contractual means, or if necessary, by regulatory means, while taking care not to affect adversely the productivity or smooth running of enterprises. The cautious policy is in line with the guidelines laid down by President Houphouet-Boigny, who had always emphasized that there will be no cut-rate Africanisation, "pas d'africanisation au rabais".

The Ivorian Management Centre is a non-profit making organisation, created on the basis of an agreement between the Government (Ministry of Technical Education and Professional Training) and Association Inter-Professional de la Cote d'Ivoire (a professional business organisation). It is therefore a semi-public organisation, with a Board of Directors whose chairman is the Minister of Technical Education and Professional Training. Other members of this Board include representatives of the Ministry of Planning, the Ministry of Economy and Finance, and the Ministry of Labour and Social Services, as well as representatives of the University, the Association Inter-Professionnelle, and employers at large.

The administration of the Centre is in the hands of a director supported by two assistants, a secretary and a typist. This core administrative staff has the following functions:

1. Administration of the Centre.
2. Organisation of the programme.
3. Recruiting of teaching staff.
4. Research into teaching materials from abroad.
5. Development of Ivorian teaching materials.

The Centre does not have its own permanent teaching staff at present. Teaching personnel are recruited for each course as they are needed, from local enterprises or government corporations, in addition to those recruited from abroad. It is not clear if the absence of a permanent teaching staff is a policy choice or a matter of necessity due to the difficulty of recruiting permanent staff.

To facilitate recruitment from abroad, the Centre has worked out an agreement with the Centre for Advanced Management Training (Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires) of Jonyen-Josas, near Paris, France. This is the leading French Centre for Modern Management Training. It is connected with the Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales, which is part of the training programme of the Paris Chamber of Commerce and Industry.

Under the agreement, the French Centre for Advanced Management Training furnishes teaching staff for the

Ivorian Centre as well as teaching materials. The French Centre assists also in the development of Ivorian teaching materials and in the training of local management teachers.

The Centre receives an annual subsidy from the State, which covers the cost of the core administrative staff. It is intended that the financing of the teaching staff and teaching materials will be borne entirely by the fees to be charged for courses.

The basic financing formula that was adopted thus, means that the State pays for the administrative overhead of the Centre while the users pay for the operating expenses. This seems to be a rather sensible approach for a co-operative effort between government and business in a field which is of fundamental interest to both.

The Centre aims to offer a practical work-related-training programme for middle and senior level managers, from private and public enterprises. It is expected that Ivorians as well as expatriate will participate. As in the case of Nigerian Institution of Management (NIM), the Centre Ivorian de Gestion des Entreprises (CIGE) is an institution for in-service training. Like the NIM, it seeks to provide the kind of training that has direct applicability to the solution of problems facing managers. For this reason, both institutions consciously try to maintain close links with the business community and with governmental clients.



The CIGE has two kinds of programmes: one consists of a series of consecutive seminars that stretch over a three-year period; the other consists of short courses on specialised topics.

The three-year sequence of courses includes an introductory first year and two years of advanced courses. The following subjects are covered:

FIRST YEAR: Introductory

1. Economics of the enterprise - 2 weeks
2. Jurisdical framework of business - 2 weeks
3. Financial framework - 2 weeks

SECOND YEAR: Advanced

1. Production - 2 weeks
2. Marketing - 2 weeks
3. Personnel - 2 weeks

THIRD YEAR: Advanced

1. Control - 2 weeks
2. Finance - 2 weeks
3. Organisation - 2 weeks.

There are six weeks scheduled for seminars each year. During a typical week, there are five sessions of three hours each. In other words, a topic like production or marketing is covered in two weeks with a total of 30 hours of course work.

The approach described above takes a candidate from initiation to management through a series of six functional areas over a period of three years. This gives fairly a broad exposure to management concepts and problems, but one may wonder if this really meets the training needs of industry as opposed to a concentration in greater depth in one or two areas.

In addition to this basic sequence of courses, the Centre offers shorter courses, usually lasting a few days, on specific subjects. Some of these subjects will be the same as those covered in the basic sequence, but there will also be specialised topics such as programming, operations, research, international marketing and management by objectives.

In all these courses, the organisers of the programme intended to use what they refer to as the American business school approach, meaning that they intend to use the case study method.

The initiative taken by the Ivorian government and Ivorian business community deserves every encouragement and good wish for success. By offering opportunities for further professional development, the CIGE - Centre Ivorian de Gestion des Entreprises - may hopefully contribute to attracting more qualified young Ivorians into the management field.

In all, the developing nations, of which Nigeria is one, have gained tremendously from the experiences of the

developed countries like the United Kingdom and United States of America. As mentioned earlier, Nigeria has in particular, gained from experiences of United States of America and United Kingdom. For instance, United Kingdom, has for many decades played very important role in the overall growth and development of Nigeria. One of such areas of development is in the field of Education. For long, the educational system of Nigeria remained an off-shoot of British system. This situation is easy to explain; Great Britain was, until independence in 1960, the colonial master of what we now know as Nigeria. In the field of business education in general, the United States of America can be seen as the pioneer. Most of the institutions of higher learning in Nigeria, like in other developing countries, copied the American Business System. This is evident in the establishment of Schools of Business Studies as they are in the universities, like in the University of Nigeria, Ahmadu Bello University and University of Lagos.

### 2.3 NEGLECT OF MANAGEMENT TRAINING IN NIGERIA

While there is an abundance of unexplored resources for the generation of income and employment in Nigeria, particularly in the agricultural sector, the distinguishing feature of the economy in the short and medium terms, is the almost entire dependence on the oil producing sector, which provides considerable relief from balance of payments pressures and resource mobilisation difficulties. What

happens in the longer run will depend very much on whether the oil revenues are used to finance increased levels of current consumption or to increase the longer term productive capacity of the economy as a whole. It is to be hoped that the rapidly reducing oil revenues will be used to finance a higher rate of development so that the economy can move forward to self-sustaining growth. In such developments, Hutton (1967) maintains that the contribution of improved management skills, in both the private and public sectors, will be of vital importance.

Jawando (1974) asserted that one of the most important tests of the viability of the indigenisation policy is the continuity of the high standard of management established in the alien enterprises being acquired by the indigenes. He observed that this vital issue was being taken for granted, and that the indigenisation decree itself was singularly silent on it, except by indirect implication.

This is a pity indeed because, apart from the tangible factors of production, the efficiency of the manager as the organiser and co-ordinator of the scarce resources is a vital factor on which depends the success or failure of a business venture.

Jawando lamented that there is an acute shortage of management personnel in Nigeria, unlike the other factors of production that are abundantly available on the market and observed that it took several years of basic education,

training, practice and experience to turn out an efficient manager.

Jawando concluded by maintaining that while it was possible, as an alternative, through crash programme, to train managers by trial and error on the job, it was not a satisfactory policy. Companies with foresight, usually plan their management requirements years in advance by recruiting, training and grooming prospective candidates ahead of time.

It remains to be seen, according to Jawando, if the indigenous businessmen will maintain the high standard of business practice that had accounted in the past for the success of the alien firms which they had inherited or acquired. This could be achieved provided the indigenous businessmen realised that efficiency was the corner-stone of a successful business. And of course, efficiency can only be attained with a well planned and executed management education and training.

Anadozie (1974) agreed with Jawando in maintaining that the soundest and most sophisticated policy will remain sound only on paper if there was no efficient management to put it into effect. Sound company policies and procedures presuppose that there are competent managers to implement them.

Anadozie went on to explain why a company should concern itself with manpower training and development

generally, and management training and development in particular. According to him, an organisation must be interested in training and development because they promote better industrial relations. A well-trained work team is more likely to respond positively to industrial system and discipline. Training and development enhance job satisfaction, and industrial relations is easier in a working group, the majority of whom derive satisfaction from their jobs. If employees are properly trained to perform their jobs efficiently and effortlessly, there is an intrinsic satisfaction which they derive from a job well done and no material or monetary incentive can be a substitute for this satisfaction. Training, therefore, not only leads to higher productivity, it also promotes better industrial relations.

We have already identified the manager as someone who achieves results through other people and that the process involves controlling, guiding and supervising the work and activities of other people. The ability to achieve or fulfil this role calls for two qualities, Ubeku (1978) observed, on the part of the manager;

1. He must be professionally competent, i.e.  
he must have the technical competence or know-how in his discipline or function.
2. He must have managerial ability, i.e.  
ability to deploy men, money and materials

in order to achieve the objectives of the organisations.

The development of the manager, according to Ubeku, must therefore be geared towards the acquisition of these two essential abilities. However, the development process must stress the need for self-development. This means that the manager should be made aware of his responsibility to develop himself, to extend and update his knowledge and improve his status.

However, according to him, while the onus is on the manager to develop himself, and while there can be no substitute for personal enterprise, the manager's superior can do much to accelerate the process of development and broaden its scope by:

1. the provision of opportunity, guidance and coaching;
2. the example of efficiency and administrative ability, and
3. getting to know the individual manager through personal and continuous observation and discussion.

According to Ubeku, for a management development programme in an organisation to succeed, it must be based on a good appraisal system. The basic purpose of an appraisal scheme is to effect improvement in performance. Improved performance makes a manager more effective in his

present job and prepares him to take on higher responsibilities. But the manager can only be fully effective in his present job if:

1. he clearly understands the tasks which are involved in his job. In other words, he must be fully aware of what is expected of him in that job;
2. standards of performance are clearly established and clearly communicated to him;
3. the job itself enables him to make use of his mental and physical capabilities;
4. he has thorough knowledge, skills and qualities that are required to reach these standards.

In conclusion, Ubeku (1983), maintains that because a man is a competent engineer or accountant, does not mean that he is going to be a competent manager. He requires a different set of skills, knowledge and experience in order to be able to operate as a manager. Consequently, it should be our deliberate policy to develop people as managers before they are made head of departments, companies or corporations. A situation where a man who has not been so developed is made to head a parastatal is clearly unsatisfactory. If the leader has the right educational background and experience,



has received the right type of training and has proved himself as a manager, he will so infect his organisation or department with his managerial style that the organisation or department can lift the Nigerian economy to the level that can bring prosperity to us all.

Looking at the status of management in Nigeria, Dikko (1978) provided a breakdown of the sectoral distribution of modern sector employment and an analysis of the critical areas of manpower shortages. He observed that estimated employment in the senior managerial category in 1979 was 91,000 and in 1980, it became 120,750, thus requiring an additional supply of 35,250. He analysed the manpower budget for senior and middle-level manpower for the period 1975-80, and noted that while the total requirement for all establishments was 59,210, supply from all sources, i.e. from local universities, local non-university institutions, graduates from overseas institutions, and upgrading from intermediate category was 43,550, giving a shortfall of 6,000.

Adamolekun (1980) has looked at the quantitative and qualitative dimensions of the problems of shortage of management personnel in Nigeria. He observed that four Ministries combined, the extent of shortage, as measured by the ratio of vacancy to established positions, ranged from about 33 per cent in respect of senior administrative/managerial staff and 59 per cent for Accountants to about 61 per cent for such technical categories as Architects/

Town Planners. In the corporations and companies the vacancy rate was about 55 per cent in respect of the high-level technical manpower, and about 50 per cent for senior administrative/managerial manpower. The qualitative dimension he related to attitude to work, and concluded that this was pretty low in both the public and private sectors. He suggested as one of the reasons for this, the possibility that policy-makers were not making the relevant inputs for effective management available to Nigerians, and observed that although Udoji stated explicitly that modern management techniques could help radically to improve the performance of our public organisations, they alone have not been able to secure that improvement. He identified the work environment as a crucial factor in productivity, consisting of such elements as the organisational structure and the prevailing leadership style; elements that can be improved through efficient management; which can be achieved through a well organised and co-ordinated training and education.

Zahradeen (1980) noted that some of the problems associated with recruiting Nigerians to fill managerial positions included:

1. inadequate educational requirements;
2. inadequate on-the-job experience; and
3. lack of adequate training.

He called the second half of the twentieth century the age of "Managerial Revolution" in Nigeria, and demanded concerted effort and action to identify the different aspects of new modern management techniques and the undertaking of research to expand on any of these new techniques which are responsive to the needs of the Nigerian economy.

Adindu (1980) has observed that to satisfy the community, the management of any organisation has to ensure that its set objectives are met, and this could be done through management training. "Training as the process of increasing human efficiency at work is inevitable" (p.7); he noted. Mann and Hoffman (1960), Odiorne (1961), Jacob (1971), Schulz (1971) and French (1974), all attested to the value of management training for efficient performance of organisation.

French (1974), saw the purpose of training as providing the basic skill and knowledge required in carrying out various specialised parts of the overall tasks of an enterprise. Mann and Hoffman (1960), produced evidence to prove that lack of attention to training could be disastrous to the enterprise in terms of cost and inefficiencies. Curson (1980) saw training as necessary if profitability and efficiency were to increase, while Edward (1982) enumerated the major values of training as increased productivity, heightened morale, reduced supervision, reduced accidents and increased

organisational stability and flexibility.

Despite the obvious advantages of managerial training, Ubeku (1975) observed that some employers in Nigeria are unwilling to train senior personnel. Among the worst offenders he noted, are the small manufacturing companies, contracting companies and the small shopkeepers, whom, he observed, are only for the money; and who consider training as redundant, time wasting and waste of money. Training institutions need to court such resistant groups if all sectors of the Nigerian economy are to contribute their share towards the current efforts and determination for economic recovery, and national development and self-reliance.

#### 2.4 TRAINING NEEDS OF MANAGERS

The manager plays diverse roles in his effort to work with and through people. Ubeku (1975) feels that the manager should help the worker to grow into a more responsible employee by systematic training and development. Thus the manager must be an "educator". This is put more succinctly by Riegel (1952):

The success of executive development in a firm is governed in large part by the discretion and wisdom of its managers in their role as educators. Each undertakes this role when he endeavours to guide and facilitate the efforts of his subordinates to develop themselves. Riegel, 1952, p.125-127).

Similarly, Dale (1969) says that every manager should train his subordinates himself, whether he is conscious of

doing so or not. The manager's examples, the instructions he gives, the work he assigns to each man, the actions and attitudes he praises or blames - all these help to train those under him. Dale believes that these help to make the subordinates more proficient, and the good manager will probably go further and attempt to enlarge their understanding by explanations that go beyond the directions needed to complete the immediate tasks at hand.

Bromley (1966) speaks particularly about the special problems that the manager faces as teacher of older workers:

Training of older workers means more than simply teaching a skill, it means changing of attitudes, dealing with anxieties and eliminating established habits. Job re-designation and retraining methods must be examined carefully, because small differences in layout or procedure may create difficulties for older workers. (Bromley, 1966, pp.9-11).

Leavit (1978) sees the manager as a good problem solver. He writes:

What kinds of managers tend to be good problem finders? Probably not the managers we have trained in modern schools of management. There we have been training young people to be demon problem solvers and implementers. But the classic manager grew up with the system, trained on-the-job, attended conferences and seminars. He further sees the classic manager as a problem finder, who knew what he wanted and didn't behave like a problem solver. He didn't try to figure out what the future would be like to meet it. Rather he tried to make the future he wanted (Leavit, 1978, pp.23-24).

In his analysis of what makes a top-flight manager, Leavit insisted on a continuous learning strategy, a plan to train and retrain people who are capable of dealing with whatever comes along. He sees the well-trained manager as a self-adjusting and continuously learning person.

Mills (1967) sees the purpose of management education and training as helping managers to acquire skills, habits of thought and qualities of character that will enable them to lead workers to understand their jobs, and to perform them efficiently, therefore leading to the workers' advancement in their chosen trades or profession. To Mills, training should impart not only a way of doing, but also a way of thinking, so that a trained manager, confronted with a situation, should act wisely and quickly. To him, the manager should be able to deal with a complaint or a problem effectively, work out all the facts, and find out the right course of action. He should be in a position to decide whether his action is honest and free from selfish ends. All his decisions should be tactful and make for better understanding and team work. He should plan with a clear head, set out his objectives and map out how to achieve them clearly. He should be able to anticipate some snags and prepare how to overcome them.

All these varied roles which the manager performs suggests certain types of skills a training programme, which managers should inculcate. Soyode (1979) noted

that it is not clear as to the type of education required to produce effective managers, and what qualifications make for competence in management careers. Such factors as better-than-average intelligence, facility in communication, mental or emotional maturity, executive skills in dealing with people, a strong inner drive that impels them to strive for accomplishments and recognition are all necessary to the manager, as indeed they are to all leaders of men.

Obikoya (1979) suggests seven purposes that management education should serve. They are:

1. to produce managers who could identify faster, and apply the primary managerial functions (planning, organising, co-ordinating, directing, motivating) basic to managerial activities at all levels and form the care of activities in various operational phases as marketing, manufacturing and training;
2. to develop in the executive the ability to understand and practise human relations as an art and to use applied psychology so that he can understand people and get the best from them by responding to their needs and motivations;
3. to imbue the manager with the ability to build effective work groups that could bring new and valuable insights to

management and add productivity and profitability;

4. to strengthen the executives ability to harmonise psychological and task functions of the organisation to meet the organisational goals;
5. to instil in the manager the appreciation and application of critical analysis, inventive experiment and objectivity, and solving management problems;
6. to further professional preparation of managers through the mastery and application of qualitative methods, techniques and tools to problems confronted by those in academic, government, industrial and humanitarian organisations as to provide management with optimum solution to those problems; and
7. to provide the managers with unflagging professional interest and dedication.

Iyanda (1979) cited various authors on the issue of the goals of management education. He found, for example, that Calkins (1975) considered leadership and intellectual qualities, promise (capacity for growth and responsibility, ambition, purposefulness, etc.) and character as the most important attributes of the manager. Similarly, among other qualities (most of which have been mentioned), he



cited Good (1977) as selecting varied interests and aptitudes, and ability to make decisions and accept responsibility as two major requirements for business leadership.

Adamolekun (1979) also listed eight factors that contribute to effective management:

1. ability to be fair and just, especially in disciplinary actions;
2. ability to discipline oneself through self-control and the ability to control others;
3. dignity and respect in carrying out duties;
4. a favourable attitude towards the organisation and its members;
5. full awareness of the policies of the organisation and its objectives, accompanied by an adequate knowledge of the jobs and the part that the individual has to play;
6. patience and understanding;
7. ability to communicate effectively, and
8. honesty of purpose.

He concluded by maintaining that all these qualities must be incorporated in the training of managers, except that, may be, in this age of industrial strikes, one needs to add another important training objective, namely, that of

effective resolution of conflict within the organisation.

In this country, especially, it has proved difficult to recruit adequate numbers of the indigenous personnel which are essential for smooth running and functioning of the economy. According to the National Manpower Board, the areas of greatest shortfalls and in which greater emphasis should be placed are obviously in the grades of management and administrative staff. And indeed, according to Ugooji-Ekwunife (1982), Nigeria is experiencing an acute shortage of trained manpower of the management cadre, in the midst of an apparent over supply of general labour.

Ashby (1960) noted that the shortage cannot so easily be made good as in the case of modern dams, power stations, textile factories or steel mills which can be constructed within a few years. To develop Managers, Administrators and Engineers to operate them, he maintained, takes between 10 to 15 years.

Adegbite (1973), agreeing with Ashby, suggested that the first major problem that needs to be tackled urgently is that of Management Development and Training. He is of the opinion that management is very crucial since no enterprise can rise above the competence of its executives.

There is no doubt, however, that determination of future needs of management is a pre-requisite for effective management planning for development and training. Adegbite

did, further, suggest as an interim measure the setting up of "Small Business Development Corporation" to be charged with the responsibility of catering for the development and training of the managers of small businesses. He stipulated that only businesses with annual turnover of at least ₦20,000.00 should benefit from the services of the suggested Corporation. He, in addition, suggested that the Corporation should:

1. visit selected companies to ascertain their programmes for developing executives;
2. run management development programmes; and
3. provide consultancy advice and publish management pamphlets.

In his own opinion, this proposal is necessary because many business concerns cannot afford to pay for management consultants. But it is essential that for either small, medium or big businesses, effort should be made to determine their needs.

Okunnu (1972) supported the above when he confirmed that the Federal Government is well aware of the importance of the development and training of managers to Nigeria. That is why it has set up by decree an "Industrial Training Fund" to which all major employers of labour will subscribe. It is hoped that the Fund may help to solve the problem of management shortage which has almost reached an epidemic proportion since the promulgation of

the Indigenization Decree by the Federal Military Government of Nigeria, and there are now cries from all sides of our economy for men and women with management training.

Levein (1973) postulated that the philosophy behind the psychological perspective of Management Development is a belief in man's interest in his full development as a person. The managerial process is therefore important for it is through this medium that man may realise his occupational potential. He further maintained that the growth of an organisation is grounded in the realisation of individual aspiration through achievement of organisational objectives. It follows therefore, he went on, that people-development is organisational development.

One of the most important publications on management education in the country was "Investment in Education", otherwise known as the Ashby Report, published in 1960. A nine-man panel was appointed in April 1959 on the eve of independence to conduct an investigation into Nigeria's needs in the field of Post-School Certificate and Higher Education over the next twenty years. The report's recommendations which directly or indirectly affect management education however would provide useful guidelines on the historical development of management education and training over the succeeding decades. In recognition of the importance of the basic educational system to management education, Ashby outlines the chief

deficiencies of the system up to independence as:

A lack of balance, both in its structure and in its geographical distribution, and a tendency for the aspirations of those who plan education to outrun the money and teacher available (Ashby, 1959, p.27).

It then goes on to recommend a broader-based university education on the whole intellectual and professional life of the country. It demands that some professional qualifications as in banking and accountancy should be obtained in universities. More significant to this work, Ashby makes direct and vital important recommendations on management studies. First, it says that technical institutes should provide full-time post-secondary and general commercial courses. Secondly, higher management studies should be carried within the university at the post-graduate level. Finally, the establishment of a University of Lagos for the provision of courses leading to degrees in commerce and business administration among other areas of study, was advocated by Ashby.

In order to place the Ashby report in its proper perspective, two recommendations made by Harbison in a previous survey are pertinent. The first is the recognition of management training as an aspect of vocational education which must be given due priority in the educational system. The second is the need to set up an inter-regional manpower board to forecast the manpower needs of the country and advise on how they could be supplied.

Another notable publication in the field of management education is by Murray (1969), in his work, The Work of Administration in Nigeria: Murray deals specifically with case studies which are based on actual episodes in Nigeria and which focus attention on decision-making processes in the public sector.

Writing in August 1974 on the subject of management development, the Director-General of the Nigerian Institute of Management considered that:

Management education/training is today the darling of many Nigerians. There is a growth in the number of non-company training institution and other bodies. (NIM 1975 Plan for Management Development, Lagos, 1975, p.3).

The reasons for this growth were thereupon given as the need to turn out an increasingly professionalized cadre of managers to satisfy the high-level manpower needs of the country at a time when the national economy was undergoing transitions of an unmistakable and eventful nature. The primary objective of management development was thus seen to be the satisfaction of manpower needs.

Ifaturoti (1981) in support of above observation, said it must however be added that all states or national plans hitherto made have argued in favour of the need to develop in man all his attitudes, be they materialistic or otherwise, although in practice the former is the dominating issue. Again, each plan especially since independence has given the pride of place to management

development in the growth of the all-round manager in both numbers and quality.

Faced with the pressure of getting immediate results, however, management training and education bodies seemed to have concentrated on the purely utilitarian short-term ends to the detriment of long-term goals. The visible manifestation of this situation lies in the proliferation of courses of very short duration and the extremely small number of longer courses lasting up to a month. Academic bodies engaged in management education have however understandably considered it necessary to spell out the intrinsically intellectual aspects in their training of managers and have consequently mounted long-term courses and manned them with a mixture of academic staff and managers with experience in government, commerce and industry.

A suitable departure point is the analysis of the results of the survey of various management and supervisory courses run in the country in 1973/74 by the Centre for Management Development, the operating arm of the Council for Management Education and Training. Of the 202 managerial related courses undertaken by 64 bodies in the country in that period, 172 (86%) were considered non-formal in the sense that they did not attract certificates, except only as a mark of course attendance. The rest 30 (14%), conducted mainly by academic institutions, issued certification usually on the

successful completion of a course marked by an examination.

The point being made here is the relative proportion of management courses run by universities even if the few non-formal courses that they might have mounted in the period under discussion are included. More importantly is the differentiation revealed in the survey in regards to course objectives. Increasing seniority of the posts in the management hierarchy was found to result in a growing significance given to management concepts whether in general management or functional and specialist areas in both private and public sectors.

At this juncture, it is pertinent to refer to the significance given to attitudinal changes by the various organs concerned with management education in the country. Omolayole and Akanrueze (1975) have pointed out that the stated objectives of a high proportion of those institutions clearly concentrated on the acquisition of knowledge and increase of skills and thus ignored an important goal of management education - attitudinal change. This neglect has led to many management education bodies to ignore the factors or characteristics which could lead to the cultivation of the fundamental attitude of mind conducive to effective business.

Some of these factors have been listed by Brech (1965). One of them is the regard for facts and not "launches" as the sure foundation for decision-making, Brech further asserted. Another, he went on, is the progressive mind



born of an attitude that welcomes change and faces it with patient persistence. Yet another feature in the correct attitude mentioned by Brech is the recognition that cooperation with others is the fabric of the management process. Ifaturoti (1981) equally observed that the inadequacies in our management education are due to the low role given to attitudes.

In considering the training needs of a manager, the International Labour Organisation observes that those needs could be divided into three categories, namely, intellectual knowledge, problem-solving skills and skills of social interaction. According to Douglas McGregor (1972), in An Introductory Course in Teaching and Training Methods, these needs are arranged for knowledge, skills and attitude. Knowledge here entails the development of general awareness of the **environment** in all its ramifications. No immediate result is usually expected from such a development but long-term beneficial returns are anticipated.

In their more restricted sense, skills entail motor learning, although the latter is usually accompanied by a measure of conceptual learning referred to above. In management education, however, the acquisition of skills refers to the mastery gained in the use of specific tools like lectures, case studies and conferences, in solving problems and arriving at decisions which are as national as possible.

Attitude changing constitutes a more difficult end to attain, mainly because of the unconscious motivation and past experience with which participants may approach the attitudes that the course programme seeks to inculcate.

Several other authorities have highlighted the importance of management education and training. Dugdale (1963), examined the report of the National Economic Development Council on Conditions Favourable to Faster Growth in Great Britain and observed that "to achieve the increase in productivity necessary for growth, will call for higher skilled management throughout the economy, not only in industry but in every type of organisation" (p.13). He agreed with other authorities that the term management covers:

a wide range of responsibility and functions from the board, lower level of management and supervisors of companies, large and small, to the principals of one-man business. The most successful managers are those who are most conscious of the need to improve skill further and who have the constant urge for progress, and a quick response to changes in demand and environment (p.14).

The report emphasized the fact that a good manager must possess "innate qualities of leadership and initiative which, whilst they cannot be implanted, can be developed by the right kind of practical and theoretical training" (p.15). It went on to assert that "the actual techniques of most management jobs can be taught" (p.15).

The report insisted on the need for education not only for young men who were just beginning to climb the management ladder, but also those already in executive positions and that the main subject of study should be the new analytical techniques which can "provide a more accurate basis for decision-making functions of business" (p.17), human relations, communication within and outside the firm; and the problems of industrial relations. Other aspects of management education which need to be developed, according to the report, are: a better working knowledge of language, methods of marketing and the assessment of future trends. Others are financial and operating ratios and inter-firm comparisons.

According to an estimate made by an industrial consultant, there are in Britain some 450,000 'managers', of whom less than one per cent have received any form of management training (Financial Times, May 7, 1963, p.8). It noted that the purpose of the syllabus for the Certificate in Works Management is to supply a student with training in the basic features of the theory and practice of management. There is at present only a small corps of managers trained either in critical thinking about the nature of management or in the new skills and techniques, such as communication, demand forecasting, costing and financial programming. It is not, therefore, surprising that Britain has in recent times lost her industrial lead. The Industrial Revolution, "is not a once-for-all process, but is a permanent revolution in

which a pioneer country can retain its original advantage by selling to others the tools and techniques for the next stages of advantage" (Shank, 1961, p.207). He maintained that it is not enough to have scientists and technologists; "we must also have competent managers and scientists and technologists trained in management" (p.211).

The educational background of British managers is in the process of changing: the number of managers with a university degree is increasing, the number with elementary education only is decreasing and greater emphasis is being laid on professional qualifications" (Shanks, 1961, p.217).

Surveying the background in which the British management was developing in the 1820s, Sheldon (1982) points out four elements for social consideration; among which is self-development - the need felt by workers to express and develop themselves generally through increased leisure pursuits. In so far as education, in broader sense, is concerned, Sheldon suggested that while management should not do this in the work situation, it should at least provide a work situation which is not antipathetic to it, and it must also accept a wider social responsibility in seeing that education is, in fact, provided outside. He insists somewhat paradoxically that "as management is developing into a science, the training of managers, foremen and clerks has become essential. Experience itself is not longer enough. For all managers the widest possible general education is needed" (1982, p.234).

Grantt (1908) in a paper to the American Society of Mechanical Engineers; entitled "Training Workmen in Habits of Industry and Cooperation", stated that the policy of management generally has been that of driving the workers, but that this must give way to teaching and training based on scientific knowledge to the advantage of all concerned. With systematic training in habits of industry, he continued, it has been found possible to develop an effective system of cooperation between workmen and foremen. Training in faster methods is claimed to provide not only more work but better quality work, with fewer mistakes and less scrap.

McGregor (1960) used a delightful and highly illustrative metaphor for the two approaches to the question of management development. The first is the "engineering" approach, in which specialists - the trainers - are given the task of "designing" and effective manager, producing the detailed drawings - training programmes - which specify his characteristics and then manufacturing him - putting him through the programme. It goes without saying by now that this method does not meet with the approval.

The alternative, the "agricultural" approach, provides the soil, temperature, climate and fertilizer - background condition - in which the seed or seeding - latent talent - can develop in its own way, but with constant attention to whatever its needs may be at any

particular time to enable maximum growth to take place. This is a much more difficult and complex way. It means considering the individual, his strength and weakness and potential. It means that every manager who has one or more subordinates must regard "farming" as an essential part of his job. It means deciding on an individual basis what experience, what internal training and what external courses are next required. It is, maintains McGregor, the only effective way.

Ryan (1971) commenting on training and further training of technicians and supervisors, observed that the decisive role in the hierarchy played by middle executives justifies the exceptional training efforts made for this category of staff. He is of the opinion that in addition to thorough technical and technological knowledge, supervisory staff must have marked personal qualities and must require methods of work, thought and organisation which are not necessarily inborn in them. The education provided for them must therefore include both the indispensable further technical training and the general training which will allow the development of aptitude for command and management.

It must also be emphasised that the existence in an establishment of well-qualified middle executive allows the engineers to concentrate on their normal functions, which unhappily not always the case. It also conditions the rational promotion of the best operatives to higher

duties, since any further training action at this level, in the practice of the trade, necessarily depends on the support of the supervisory grades.

There is therefore an increasing tendency in vocational training centres to organise full-time further training sessions for operatives suitable for early promotion to junior supervisory posts. These courses include technical training sessions and practical work, general education classes and initiation to the problems of organisation, management, labour relations and command.

As regards the further training of young engineers, Ryan (1971) points out that it is not enough for engineers to have a university degree to be able to do their job satisfactorily. They must also acquire practical experience, adjust their technical and general knowledge to the specific problems of undertakings, and learn to command and to work as a team. Furthermore, it is in the interest of the management undertakings that they should have a sound hierarchical structure, that they should carefully study the assignment of their young staff, and that they should work out a veritable plan for the training and upgrading of their executives and should follow it through.

It cannot be claimed, however, that the integration of young graduate executives into undertakings has always been properly effected. It has always been left to the

hazard of chance meetings and it is not rare for a young engineer to owe one part of his success to an intelligent chief, who, at the outset of his career, has been able to understand and guide him and to protect his first steps in his calling.

While presenting his own paper entitled: "Industrial Education: The Training Methods of Electricite de France"; during the seminar organised by Unesco: International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), Lambert (1971) observed that the present expansion of electricity supply undertakings and the rapid methods are such that new formulars must be found to speed up the process of adaptation of young local executives. With this view, Electricite de France (EDF) is at present co-operating with the Madagascar Power Corporation in organising and guiding an original scheme for the further vocational and technological training of all the young Madagasy executives of the undertakings.

## 2.5 PROBLEMS OF TRANSFER OF MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

Mmobuosi (1983) has investigated the process involved in learning transfer, especially in management education. He points out that innovation (which learning transfer entails), doe not exist in the abstract, but has to be clearly seen as involving, among other things, relationships with other persons (workmates). It is not enough if an impact is to be made on managers to assist



the re-entrant to state transfer in general terms, but in specific terms. Learning transfer interfaces on organisational levels beyond the individual re-entrant.

In a post-training evaluation, Fleishman, Harris and But (1955) found that re-entrant foremen experienced psychological and open conflicts over non-acceptance of new ideas acquired from learning. The authors conclude from their analysis, that this happens because when the new is juxtaposed with the old in an attempt to achieve the acceptance and implementation of the former, the latter tends to have the dominant influence. Andrews (1957), also following up post-training organisational events, concludes that organisations contain both supportive and inhibitive forces. Mmobuosi (1983) supports this idea by maintaining that it is not easy for long-standing and established mode of performance to yield to innovation. He went on to assert that the tendency, however, is for the inhibitive to be stronger, with the result that the re-entrant gives up the learning transfer effort.

Pugh's (1965) study is based on trainees' experiences after exposure to T-Group exercises, the objectives of which are to improve sensitivity, enhance diagnostic ability, and develop action skills. These abilities indicate that the re-entrant may have undergone attitudinal changes by which he redefines his organisational role. Yet, as Pugh (1965) and; Katz and Kahn (1966) explain, organisational demands and expectations, remaining what

they were before his training, and also outside his control, are too inhibitive for the sustained expression of his 'new' personality. Davies (1972), noted that organisational factors dampen attempts to transfer learning to the work situation. He concludes that the unfavourable reception accorded to new ideas in many hospitals resulted in rapid dissipation of post-course euphoria and frustration for course members who attempted to put some of their knowledge to use.

It is a fact that the re-entrant is a member of role-set with role expectations already established and already operating over-time. As Havelock (1970) explains, roles tend to be fixed and rigidly followed. Conflicts may therefore, arise when the learning-affected re-entrant starts redefining his role divergently from others' interpretation and expectations.

The support of the boss of a work group has been suggested by Weiss, Huczynski and Lewis (1980) to ensure that a re-entrant transfers learning. These authorities base their conclusion on their analysis of the response of 48 subjects. The data are shown to correlate significantly with the factor of pre-course discussions with bosses who implicitly or explicitly encouraged the application of learning. Mmobuosi (1983) in his study, doubts whether reliance on only supervisors or formal organisational leaders can always ensure success in the transfer of learning. The transfer of learning, according

to him, does not end with attempts to do so. It involves diffusion of ideas to bosses and others, their acceptance, trial implementation, actual final implementation, and evaluation (Zaltman, Duncan and Holbeck, 1973).

Another study which considers the transfer of learning as dependent on organisational variable is Stiefel's (1974), which identifies the barriers to transfer of learning as formal authority system of an organisation, how this authority is exercised, and the behaviour of the re-entrant's primary work group member, whether inspiring or not inspiring. He therefore reasons that the strategies to facilitate the transfer of learning should be geared to these organisational barriers. In making this suggestion, he goes beyond the organisation to the course venue itself, meaning that he recognises that the problem may be associated with the relevance of learning activities.

But for the purpose of this section and in order to highlight the impact of the organisational influence, attention should be focused on the organisational strategies which Mmobuosi suggests.

One of these is that superiors should discuss the outcome of training undergone by the re-entrant, obviously to give him the opportunity to apply what are considered applicable for the organisational benefit. A second strategy is for the intact work group members to be

trained together in the same course. This is expected to achieve a commonality of attitudes and behaviours concerning work, thus eliminating possible conflicts when one trained person returns to his group to try to impart or apply his learning. The third strategy suggested by Mmobuosi is for "Linking pin" group members to attend the same courses, again for the same reason as in the case of intact work teams.

Mmobuosi, further agreed that these strategies are feasible especially if courses are internal. He, however, maintained that they do not clear the problems associated with the fact that people in those same groups and organisations may, at one time or another, attend external courses in which they have to relate with strangers rather than with their work colleagues and bosses. Hamblin (1970) has succinctly stated that the issue of transfer of learning inevitably arises whenever people attend, and return from, externally run training and education programmes.

Again, Mmobuosi (1983) maintains that the evolution of human personality is such that its developmental divergencies do not always ensure that people exposed to the same situations, for instance, courses will, as a result, have the same perceptions and attitudes. Furthermore, while his application of the "linking pin" concept to training strategy is realistic by recognising the need for complementarity in programmes for different staff levels, it does not take into consideration that

different managerial levels also require different orientations of knowledge and skills. Katz and Kahn (1966), established this point.

This concept of "linking pin", as it was developed by Likert (1961), shows an organisation as an inter-locking structure (chain) of influence. Therefore, to advocate training and the transfer of learning strategy based on the concept implies giving all managers the same training at the same time, or in groups of different times until all managers are made to undergo the same course. In terms of time and cost, this would or might be unrealistic. Mmobuosi (1983) is of the opinion that what is likely to be more realistic is a transfer of learning strategy which enables a re-entrant to apply and spread the benefits of training with relative ease, eliminating or minimizing destructive conflicts, and saving time and cost.

The "organisational climate" concept is an unsettled one. For the purpose of this study, it will be viewed from its relationship with the transfer of learning, i.e. how it may affect the transfer of learning to the work situation. What is "organisational climate"? In answer to the above question, some authorities talk of organisational climate, others talk of organisational environment, organisational situation, and organisational situational variance. A good number of authorities refer to it as "psychological climate".

According to James and Jones (1974), organisational variants affect the transfer of learning. A problem arises when some authorities describe organisational climate as made up of the attributes or characteristics determined by, or synonymous with, the components of organisational situational variance, while others see it as the attributes or characteristics of individuals in the organisation. Within the former perspective are two sub-perspectives:

1. multiple perceptual measurements - organisational attribute, and
2. perceptual measurements - organisational attribute.

When the individual-based approach is added, the number of perspective increases to three. The number still increases when these perspectives are combined to give what is seen as the total climate of an organisation, i.e. that there exist identifiable and objective organisational attributes different from the attributes of individuals, and that both interact to create climate (Gavin, 1975 and Mmobuosi, 1983).

The holders of the multiple measurements - organisational perspectives define climate as a set of characteristics that distinguish the organisation from other organisations; are relatively enduring overtime; and influence the behaviour of people in the organisation (Forehand and Gilmer, 1964).

Clearly, what these authorities say is that climate directs or determines behaviour. The individual is therefore subjected to the environmental or situational variance. Applied to the transfer of learning this definitional perspective implies that re-entrants transfer of behaviour depends, on himself as an active agent, independent of forces in his work, i.e. organisational climate.

Those who adopt the perceptual measurements - organisational attributes - approach, see climate as "a set of attributes specific to a particular organisation that may be induced from the way the organisation deals with its members and its environment. For the individual member within an organisation, climate takes the form of a set of attitudes and expectations which describe the organisation in terms of both static characteristics such as degree of autonomy and behaviour-outcome or outcome contingencies" (Campbell et al; 1970, p.390). Here, organisational attributes are mainly in terms of attitudes and expectations, unlike the more multitudinous elements in the Forehand and Gilmer perspective stated in the preceding paragraph. "Attitude" is defined as a knowledge (cognition) and feeling (effect) developed from a comparative evaluation of the experienced present and the experienced past. "This may lead to an overt or covert, implicit or explicit, action towards objects, issues and events in an environment" (Doob, 1974, p.141).

One of the implications of attitude is that the interpretation and evaluation which some organisational members give to the new ideas brought from learning are among the determinants of the acceptance and application of those ideas. Using Doob's theory, one may state that the elements in learning transfer are as follows:-

1. the new ideas from learning provide the overt stimulus;
2. the attitude roused by the interpretation of evaluation of the ideas is the implicit response; and
3. the behaviour as end-product of attitude is the acceptance or rejection of the ideas.

The new ideas must be appealing (i.e. strong in the positive sense of stirring up favourable attitudes) and the attitudes themselves must be strong, central or primary, rather than secondary or peripheral, to be likely to lead to the acceptance and implementation of the new ideas being imported from a learning situation (Mmobuosi, 1983). But, as Doob (1974) points out, there may be present, in the environment, other forces which an attitude-holder may interpret or identify and evaluate as behaviourally inhibitive. Therefore, a strong attitude to an object may not necessarily be followed with a consistent behaviour.

In the organisational situation or climate, in which



the re-entrant does not operate as an "isolate", the re-entrant thus faces the fact that he is not associating with one but many attitudes; the task of ensuring that his package of ideas is a powerful overt stimulus source; and the fact that even if his primary work unit members favourably perceived and evaluated his ideas, there may be other factors in the work environment seen by them as climatically inhibitive to innovation; for example, perceived organisational policy towards change, initiative and autonomy.

Attitudes towards new ideas are only one side of the problem of transfer of learning. There are also the attitudes toward the re-entrant himself as a proponent of innovation. The attitude studies of Hovland, Janis and Kelly (1953); and Ximbardo and Ebbesen (1970) can be used to illustrate this point. They analysed subjects' responses to determine why a communicator or persuader may succeed or fail to change opinions. They concluded that among the factors is the perception and assessment of the credibility of the influence source. Transposed to the issue of transfer of learning, this conclusion means that the process of transfer of learning could be difficult if the re-entrant is regarded by all, or some members of work situation, as a person of low credibility.

There have been complaints from workers, or people in general, about strains, tensions, stresses and conflicts of varying intensity in organisations. These conflicts,

according to Mmobuosi (1983), are reflections of individuals' differences in perceptions of, and attitudes towards, other individuals, groups, work technology itself, and their organisation. Conflicts may arise as people may feel bad about their powerlessness in having their ideas accepted, such as learning inspired ideas.

Eckstein and Gurr (1975, pp.3-4) have stated that

until quite recently, the predominant conception of political phenomena was that it had to do with governments and state-organisations as we do it in the modern West, together with organisations subsumed to them, like local governments, or directly impinging on them like political parties.

MacIver (1947), Lasswell and Kaplan (1950) and Blan (1964) have all defined power in terms of the ability of a person or a group to control others' behaviours directly or indirectly by the manipulation of available means. To Lasswell and Kaplan, power is transformed into authority by coerced or freely granted consent. To Blan (1964), it is people's (subjects') reliance on power-wielders that achieves the transformation. Authority may also be seen as the established right, within any social order, to determine policies, pronounce judgement on relevant issues, and settle controversies or, more broadly to act as leader or guide to other people. An authority is a person or body of persons possessed of this right.

MacIver (1947) observes that power holders make use of elements of authority, while those who have authority

also require the elements of power to exercise it, for example, a legitimate government requires the army and the police to function. In organisations, those in authority may evolve the force of rules to enforce compliance. Mmobuosi (1983) pointed out that those in authority, in any organisation, are important resources in the process of change of which transfer of learning is an aspect, though many, if not most writers, on the issue of organisational change, have ignored them. The fact is that transfer of learning process involves two broad behavioural levels, micro and macro. When a re-entrant applies learning to affect himself and his own personal work, the transfer of learning is on the micro-level, for example, personal improved style of writing memorandum. When, however, he seeks to make others in his work situation improve their system of memorandum-writing, his application or transfer of learning is on the macro-level.

The fact that organisations are political pyramids generates scarcity of positions of power and authority, the higher one moves up the hierarchy (Zaleznik, 1970). Those who hold these positions or aspire to them engage in open and subtle activities intended to protect their interests, for example, by opposing ideas which may disrupt the held - power-echelons.

Besides the conditions of scarcity and competition, politics in organisations grow out of the perceived existence of constituencies. A boss who is content with

shifts in resources allocation may have subordinates who are unhappy over the shifts. They may, as members of his constituency, affirm or withdraw support for him, for as Zalesnik puts it, though appointments are from above, affirmation is from below.

One observes, also, the formation of coalition of persons of similar interests, or of those who go along with others to avoid ostracization, frustration, and a further weakening of their positions (Harvey, 1974). Katz and Kahn (1966) have pointed out that there has not been a case of organisational disaster unforeseen by someone or some persons, but unvoiced or unheeded. A potential transferer of learning may find himself the unheeded, or may be too protective of his position to suggest changes which may upset power and authority edifice. He may thus find himself in anxiety and fear which Harvey (1974) called the "Hamlet syndrome" of "to be or not to be", paraphrased here as:

To promote change or not at all.  
That is the question Whether 'tis nobler  
in the mind to suffer ostracism and  
likely obstruction That come from  
seeking to alter The "status quo",  
or against dysfunction Take sides  
with reality And, finally, may be  
victory for me and the organisation  
(p.211).

While the discussion so far has shown various factors which authorities perceive as climatic, there has been controversy over whether climate also has to do with how

training function is internally managed in organisations. A point that may be used to clear such a controversy is that what constitutes climate, depends on the perceiver's interpretation. Therefore, how the training function is managed may be accordingly seen, i.e. whether it promotes the transfer of learning or does not.

It is observed that, in some organisations, people who do not require training are often among those sent for training. It is not likely that such trainees would, on re-entry, have something meaningful to offer. One of the conditions in which this happens is when managers attribute all performance problems to lack of training. Whereas analysis by those who know how, has revealed that the problem could be motivational (Laird, 1978). The result is, therefore, that the performance shortfall continues despite re-entry, i.e. after training.

Mmbobuosi (1983) is of the opinion that the mismanagement which may be responsible for this situation is partly because the training function is regarded as common and simple, performable by anybody at all. Officials are known to bear training position titles while they are ignorant of what the function is actually about. Nor are they given the appropriate training to help understanding and skills. The function then degenerates into a mere routinized collation of nominations from departments and forwarding of these to training institutions. Many of these are more interested in

collecting their fees than discriminating among nominations and risking losing clients.

As Laird (1978) has explained, a potential training need exists when there is a difference between what employees ought to be doing and what they are actually doing; potential, because it still has to be determined whether it is training or another measure that may cure the discrepancy. To translate the potential into the actual, it has to be established that there is a lack of knowledge, skill and, or practice. The failure to do so may result in what Boydell (1971) has branded as the "welfare approach" to training management.

This is why organisational members press for training: not because of their performance incompetence but because they may see it as a holiday opportunity. This is an opportunity to enjoy the allowances paid when employees are out of station. It may even be an opportunity to acquire skills intended for use outside the sponsoring organisation. For such course participants, the issue of transferring learning to current work situation may not be important. The notion of integrating the individual with the organisation through such provisions as training, and as Argyris (1964) suggests, is ruled out since only the individual benefits, to the organisation's exclusion.

Boydell (1971) points out two other dysfunctional approaches to training management which, by implication, are unlikely to encourage transfer of learning. They are political and administrative. The former is often observed in the behaviour of training officers as if they were doing favours to the prospective trainees, especially when the training initiative for training comes from individuals and when the training department is seen as powerful in the final training decisions. Political approach is also used to get rid of those who are seen as troublesome and likely to be posted out after training. Even if such posting were not to be political manipulation of training; at least temporarily rids a boss of people who could, at a particular time, be a source of embarrassment.

In the case of the administrative approach, training functionaries tend to believe in absolute numbers of trained personnel as a sign of doing their work effectively. Absolute number is internally impressive as well as externally impressive, since it is considered that outsiders would see the organisation or training management unit as modern. It is like saying: "Training is the vogue, we must train".

The distinction between political and administrative approaches blur in some respects. Where governments, as in Nigeria, insist that indigenous must be trained to enable the country to be less dependent on expatriate

expertise, and governments provide that they will refund at least a substantial part of the expenses on such training, absolute numbers are seen as impressive to political authorities. This happens in the private sector (Mmobuosi, 1983). He further observed that both administrative approaches are particularly rampant as a financial year draws to a close and it is necessary to justify the same or increased level of the training vote. Often, especially in the private sector, when organisational authorities announce that an employee is scheduled for a course, it is an administrative and political action to motivate the individual and others, for, a new star of status is emerging on organisational horizon, not that the individual has a performance deficiency.

To these may be added Knowle's (1970) observation that an aspect of training mismanagement which does not help transfer of learning is the failure of organisations to have clearly articulated training objectives based among others on the following criteria:

1. the part that training plays in contributing to the accomplishment of organisation missions;
2. a philosophical commitment to the absolute value of human growth and development and individual self-fulfilment, explicitly stated;



3. the specific purposes (in terms of individual and organisational outcome) for which training is accepted as an organisational concern, also described but with provision for changes as environmental dynamics may be seen to demand;
4. the nature of the commitment of resources (in terms of priority order in relation to other purposes) of the policy-makers to furthering of training purposes, made clear and substantial;
5. the relationship of training unit with other organisational components, preferably with emphasis on their processes of collaboration rather than on their division of authority and responsibilities;
6. the target population to be trained, also specified.

Policy criteria are important factors in the issue of transfer of management techniques. Mmobuosi (1983) observes that they are a guide to sponsoring the staff likely to benefit from training, for themselves and for their organisations. Secondly, the criteria suggest the need for the existence - of a group, be it a functional department or a committee, professionally capable of

managing the training function. Thirdly, the provision that a substantial fund be allocated to training would indicate to organisation members the importance attached to training. This would also imply that there is need to justify the expenditure by transferring learning to work. Fourthly, the criterion of collaboration between a training unit and others is of special significance. The existence of a training unit does not mean that managers of their units have to abdicate their personal responsibility. Training specialists are to serve as advisers, facilitating other managers' depth of appreciating where, when and how training is needed, and by whom. Laird (1978) explains that line managers are usually specialists who know the technical intricacies of their work, but may not know of training need analysis and, therefore, may tend to attribute non-training problems to training inadequacies. This is more reason why internal training specialists can be of more and better help.

It has, further, been noted by some authorities that the failure to evaluate the effects of training partly accounts for the non-transfer of learning. There may appear to be no need to try to transfer learning when the re-entrant knows that no one cares whether or not he applies learning or when the re-entrant feels that authorities behave as if training were for purposes beside performance improvement. Kempfer (1955, p.399) puts evaluation this way; "The basic purpose of evaluation is

to stimulate growth and improvement. Whatever other worthy purposes exist are only facets of all inclusive effort to assess present conditions as a basis for achieving better ones". Odione (1964) takes the position that the consummate benefit of a person's training is the economic blessing it confers on the organisation that has spent valuable and scarce money on it. Therefore, training proved to be unaccompanied with transferred learning on this ultimate level should be assessed as not worth the effort and expenses.

One other aspect of internal organisational management of training functions considered not helpful to transfer of learning is the inappropriate choice of where training is to occur. This is different for the selection of the wrong persons for courses. Instead, it is a matter of mixing up the discrepancies resolvable by internal training and those resolvable by external. The result is that people could return from outside courses with little to offer. Laird (1978) suggests internal training managers and line managers should decide whether existing internal programmes, self-study, special assignments, coaching and counselling can serve in place of external seminars, workshops, universities, conferences and conventions.

In conclusion, it is considered that as regards the internal organisational handling of the training functions, the major factors affecting the transfer of learning, are

faulty identification of training needs, nebulous existence of training policies in many organisations, and the general abandonment of evaluation efforts (Mmobuosi, 1983).

## CHAPTER THREE

### THE METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 THE POPULATION

This study involved all business organisations in Nigeria. As many as 2,500 companies were registered in the 1986 Edition of Directory of Nigerian Companies. Obviously, this is a very large population, clustering and stratification are required to make it possible for some system of classification to evolve. In classifying business organisations in Nigeria, the following systems could be adopted:

- |               |   |
|---------------|---|
| 1. Type:      | Public Limited Liability/<br>Private Companies.   |
| 2. Ownership: | Government/Private/Joint.                         |
| 3. Origin:    | Foreign/Indigenous/Mixed.                         |
| 4. Size:      | Large/Medium/Small                                |
| 5. Situate:   | Urban/Semi-Urban.                                 |
| 6. Concern:   | Industrial/Commercial/Service<br>(Manufacturing). |

Public corporations are established by Government enactment to provide utilities. Their policies are determined by the government directly or by a Board appointed by the Government. Examples are the National Electric Power Authority, the Nigerian External Telecommunications Limited, and the Nigerian Railway

Corporation. They derive their initial capital from Government, which also when necessary subsidizes the corporations. In contrast to these are ventures established solely as limited liability companies promoting business in specific areas on profit basis.

These may belong to the government, such as the Nigerian Insurance Company (NICON), the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC), the erstwhile Cocoa Marketing Board. Like public corporations, their broad policies are determined by the Government, but their day-to-day operations are controlled by a Managing Director appointed by the government. In some instances, government has encouraged public participation in some of her business ventures. These joint companies usually carry 60 per cent government equity and 40 per cent equity made up of shares held by private individuals and organisations. A third business set-up is the one held solely by private individuals.

As was noted in Chapter One, most of the business concerns that operated in the country before independence were subsidiaries of multi-national or oversea companies. Although the Indigenisation decree sought to remove the control of the business sector held by foreigners, by and large, the multi-national corporations operating in the country, such as U.A.C., Lever Brothers, S.C.O.A., U.T.C., still retain the major features that characterised their

generations before 1971. Their policies are largely determined from the metropolis, and their top management are largely foreign. Some other companies which were previously owned by individual entrepreneurs from India, Lebanon, Syria, Syprus, now have majority Nigerian participation. A third form of business is the one owned wholly by Nigerians, either privately or in the form of shares.

It is possible also to distinguish between industrial/manufacturing concerns, commercial concerns and service concerns. Service concerns comprise of banks, insurance companies, transport companies and airlines. Commercial concerns are those involved in the distribution trade, while industrial and manufacturing concerns are involved in the production of goods.

Again, one could distinguish between business enterprises situated in urban or semi-urban (and even rural) areas, and also between large companies (employing over 500 workers), medium (employing between 100 and 499 workers) and small (employing less than 100 workers).

### 3.2 THE UNIVERSE

The paradigm such a classification of Nigerian business concerns presents for the purposes of selection into the sample is shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Classification Paradigm

		Manufacturing		Commercial		Services		Total
		Urban	Semi-Urban	Urban	Semi-Urban	Urban	Semi-Urban	
Government Ownership	Large	6	6	4	4	4	4	28
	Medium	5	5	4	4	4	4	26
	Small	2	2	2	2	2	2	12
Sub-Total		13	13	10	10	10	10	66
Mixed Ownership	Large	4	4	2	2	2	2	16
	Medium	5	5	4	4	4	4	26
	Small	5	5	4	4	4	4	26
Sub-Total		14	14	10	10	10	10	68
Private Ownership	Large	2	2	2	2	2	2	12
	Medium	4	4	4	4	4	4	24
	Small	7	7	4	4	4	4	30
Sub-Total		13	13	10	10	10	10	66
T O T A L		40	40	30	30	30	30	200



A total of 200 companies (Appendix M) were used in the study, but the selection of members had to be preceded by clustering of all the companies in the population according to their locale, whether urban, semi-urban or rural. Semi-urban were, for the purpose of this study defined as areas outside Lagos Metropolis. This was necessary in view of the tendency for entrepreneurs to establish their enterprises in the metropolis. Thus, of the 200 companies, half were selected from the Lagos Metropolis and the other half from other parts of the country.

There was the need to ensure that every type of company was included in the sample, and the criteria used for selection were type of ownership, size of outlay and area of operation. In the end, as Table 3.1 shows, eighty manufacturing concerns, sixty each of commercial and service concerns were involved in the study. Half of the total number of companies were based in Lagos. Centres chosen to represent other parts of the country were Kano and Jos (for the North), Enugu and Onitsha (for the East), and Ibadan and Ijebu-Ode (for the West). Fifty-six large firms, seventy-six medium ones, and sixty-eight small-scale companies were selected. The study therefore consisted of any manufacturing business or service concerns, situated either in Lagos or any of these towns and cities referred to.

### 3.3 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

A list of all the government-owned enterprises was obtained from the Ministry of Industries. All public corporations were included in the list. Next, the list of all registered companies in the country was obtained from the Nigerian Chamber of Commerce and Industry in Lagos and at their offices in Kano, Jos, Enugu, Onitsha and Ibadan. These were grouped according to whether they were jointly owned by the government or privately owned by individuals. These two types of enterprises were then divided into manufacturing, commercial or service concerns. Next, an estimate of their labour strength was obtained at the Chambers of Commerce visited. That enabled the researcher to classify them according to size. Appendix M shows the names of these individual concerns grouped under the classificatory system suggested by the paradigm adopted.

Individual companies and corporations selected for inclusion in the sample were determined according to a simple random system involving picking of pieces of paper. Appendix M provides a list of the companies that were finally selected for this study.

### 3.4 DATA COLLECTION

#### 3.4.1 Instrumentation:

The major devices were adopted for data collection. The first was documentary search, while the second was use of questionnaires.

The documentary search involved a careful analysis of the files of the companies to find information on such areas as:-

- (a) The number of people who had received training since 1975; their states, employment history, pre- and post-training responsibilities;
- (b) The enterprises stated objectives, policies and philosophies concerning staff training and development;
- (c) The annual turn-over of the company or corporation, and annual expenditure incurred on training;
- (d) Training programmes patronised by the concerns, such as where these programmes were held, level of officers involved and duration.

This aspect of the field work involved the gathering of factual information and formed the rock on which the findings were largely based.

The next stage of the field work involved the administration of three sets of questionnaires to the following:

- (a) All Chief Executives.

- (b) All Officers in Charge of Training, such as Personnel Managers, Office of Directors, and Training Managers. While the offices of Personnel Management and Training were separated in some concerns, in others they were fused. This, in itself, indicated in part the premium the concern placed on Training, and is discussed later in the study.
- (c) Officers who had at one time or the other received training since 1975.

The questionnaire administered on the Chief Executives largely aimed at investigating the company's or cooperation's philosophy towards training. It sought to find out such things as the level of personnel the concern was willing to train, the perception of management about the value of training, action taken into consideration in the selection of training programmes, prospective trainees, the perceived value which the companies had derived from training of staff, and the future training needs of the company.

In addition to these issues, the questionnaire for the training managers investigated difficulties they encountered in such areas as obtaining approval for people to go on training, the modalities and difficulties involved

in obtaining training, the intricacies of decision-making related to such issues as selection of prospective trainees, post-training deployment and implementation of innovations obtained from training. The questionnaire also probed the qualifications of individuals in charge of the training departments and the staff strength of the Departments.

Finally, the questionnaire administered on past participants of training programmes largely dealt with the problems of transfer of knowledge. It investigated such issues as the practicality of skills and ideas discussed at training sessions, their level of competence in tackling those innovations, the adequacy of resources available within the company for executing the innovation, and any resistances to change arising from colleagues, superiors and management.

#### 3.4.2 Validation:

No standardized instruments or measurement schemes were found relevant to the needs of the present study, and therefore the questionnaires had to be constructed by the researcher himself. The construction was done after a careful study of the related literature. All the three sets of questionnaires were then submitted to three experts - the principal supervisor, an expert in research methods and statistics, and an expert in business training - for their comments and criticisms. After the necessary

revision of the original questionnaires, three of each set of questionnaires were submitted to three business executives, three training managers and three employees receiving management training. They suggested further amendments. The final set of questionnaires were then administered to the subjects of the main study. Appendices A, B and C present the questionnaires used.

#### 3.4.3 Field Work:

The documentary search through the files of the individual companies took place at the same time that the questionnaires were being administered. The whole field work occurred between September and December, 1987.

#### 3.5 TREATMENT OF THE DATA

Various statistical tools were employed in the analysis of the data. These included the following:

- (a) The chi-square: to test the relationship between the size of the corporation, its annual turnover, its ownership and its major concern (manufacturing, commercial or service) and such aspects of training as willingness to train (number of people trained, level of investment in training) and status of workers trained.

- (b) Analysis of variance, to determine the factors contributing to such features as degree of adoption of innovation, size of training department and preferred mode of training.
- (c) Factor analysis, to determine such issues as type of employee who receive training or whom companies are willing to train and the net value of training of different levels of personnel.

In addition to the statistical treatment of the data, a large part of the analysis consisted of descriptive data dealing with each company's training policies, origins and structure collected through documentary search. These, in addition to accidental records made by the researcher during the several visits to each company, constituted sources for evaluation and validation of the data collected through the administration of the questionnaires.

### 3.6 CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

#### 3.6.1 Age:

Three categories of respondents were used in this study, namely, chief executives, training managers and randomly selected employees. The age-distribution of the three categories of respondents is shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Age-Distribution of Respondents

Age-Group	Chief Executives	Training Managers	Randomly Selected Group of Employees	Total
25 - 29	-	-	-	-
30 - 34	-	8	11	19
35 - 39	-	38	39	77
40 - 44	28	120	57	205
45 - 49	125	34	77	236
50 - 54	27	-	16	43
55 and above	20	-	-	20
Total	200	200	200	600

$\bar{X}$	=	47.75	41.5	43.2
Md	=	47.42	41.75	43.0
$d^2$	=	8.734	9.256	26.288

As the table shows, almost every respondent involved in this study was a middle-aged man or woman. The youngest respondent was 33 years old; almost all the other respondents fell within the age-range of 40 and 50; while the oldest respondent was aged 55 years. But for the purpose of this study, the researcher defines "middle-aged" in terms of an age bracket or group, where the ages of men and women range between 40 and 50. Havighurst (1953) in



his study, reported that people who are accurate in calling themselves middle-aged, that is, actually were middle-aged, were emotionally adjusted and these are in the age-range of mid-40s and mid-50s.

As should be expected, the chief executives were relatively the oldest in the group. Their mean age was 47.75 years, while their median age was 47.72 years. These can be compared with the mean age of 43.2 of the employees randomly selected and their median age of 43.00. The training managers were relatively the youngest in the group. Their mean age was 41.5 years, and their median age 41.75.

It did seem that there were not very great differentials in the ages of respondents. The median, modal and mean ages of the chief executives fell between 45 and 49 years, with a variance deviation of only 8.735. Similarly, the mean, modal and median ages of the training managers fell between 40 and 44 years, again with a variance of only 9.256. In the case of the employees randomly selected, however, a far greater disparity in ages was noted. Their ages ranged from 33 years to 53 years. This can be expected because all categories of management staff were involved. Even then, their mean and median ages were 43.2 and 43.8 respectively and these together with the modal age, all fell between the 40 and 44 age range. The variance of 26.288 in the ages of 200 randomly selected group of workers could

indeed not be said to be too wide.

On the whole therefore, it could be concluded that the study used very matured, experienced and fairly homogenous group of respondents whose judgement could be trusted.

### 3.6.2 Sex:

Table 3.3 shows that only 28 of the 600 respondents involved in the study were women. No doubt this is a reflection of the rather poor representation of women in the management echelon of Nigerian business enterprises.

Table 3.3: Sex of Respondents

Category	Male	Female	Total
Chief Executives	200	-	200
Training Managers	194	6	200
Management Employees	178	22	200

Table 3.3 shows that none of the chief executives of the 200 business establishments surveyed was a woman. Only six of the training managers and only twenty-two of the 200 in management positions randomly selected were female.

### 3.6.3 Educational Qualifications

Table 3.4 presents the educational background of respondents.

Table 3.4: Educational Background of Respondents

Level	Chief Executive	Training Manager	Management Employee	Total
WASC/GCE	53	5	22	80
HSC/OND/NCE	56	32	63	151
Professional e.g. AIB, CIS)	28	-	55	53
First Degree	12	68	32	112
Postgraduate Degree	2	22	32	56
Professional Qualification (e.g. ACCA, ACIS)	41	73	26	140
Total	200	200	200	600

The mean qualification of the Chief Executives was found to be the OND equivalent. Indeed, about one-quarter of them were found to have the equivalence of only the secondary school certificate. The management employees were found to possess slightly higher qualifications, with their mean qualifications being the post-secondary professional qualification such as the ACIS. The Training Managers were found to hold the highest academic

qualifications, with their average qualification being the first degree. One must note, however, that there were great disparities in the qualifications of each category of respondents.

The group with the least variance was the chief executives, half of whom obviously did not have university equivalent education. Even then, one must note that more than one-fifth of their number had very high professional qualifications such as the ACCA or the ACIS. Similarly, while 42.5 per cent of the management employees randomly selected had only the OND and HND, a substantial percentage of them (45 per cent) had first degrees of post-graduate degrees.

The disparities in the educational levels of the three categories of respondents are not hard to explain. What seems really to be required for a chief executive's position is experience. These executives, therefore, having started work earlier, are bound to have lower academic qualifications, because of the low level of educational attainment needed at the earlier stage. On the other hand, the training manager is basically a teacher, and requires much more formal academic preparation. Therefore, it was not surprising that they (the training managers) had higher formal academic training. In the category of the management employees, those who had earlier attended or participated in courses, were randomly selected, and were therefore engaged in diverse fields of

work, some like the technical ones, requiring basically the H.N.D. while others in administration, usually possessed higher formal education.

The following two crucial factors, namely the experience of the respondents, management employees, and the section where they worked, were investigated. The mean number of years they had worked was found to be 13.8. About 38 of the 200 sampled had more than ten years working experience. The modal period of employment of the group was fifteen years. None of the chief executives was found to have less than twenty years' working experience. Their average experience spanned over 24 years, with 26 being the modal years of experience for the group. On the other hand, the mean years of experience of the training managers was 10.5.

Since only the sampled management employees were from the various departments of their organisations, the investigation concerning the specific tasks respondents performed or their area of management involved only that group. Table 3.5 shows the distribution of the management staff according to the divisions they worked for.

Table 3.5: Distribution of Management Staff  
According to Divisions

Division	Number	Percentage
Administration	55	27.5
Production	96	48.00
Accounting	25	12.5
Marketing	22	11.0
Not stated	2	1.0
Total	200	100.00

Table 3.5 shows that as many as 48 per cent of the management staff came from the production divisions of their organisations. As stated earlier, most of the Production Managers, required a maximum qualification of only the HND, to be effective at their tasks. Of the 25 management employees who were engaged in administration, only two did not have the university degree. Thus, there seemed to be a very high relationship between the type of qualification the management staff had and the task he performed.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### ANALYSIS OF THE DATA AND RESULTS

#### 4.1 TYPES OF ORGANISATION AND WILLINGNESS TO TRAIN

The first hypothesis of this study was that "there are no differences in the various types of organisations regarding their willingness to train their management personnel. Type of organisation was defined in terms of government/parastatal or private. Their distribution in the sample is shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Type of Organisation

Type	Number	Percentage
Public: Government/ Parastatal	47	23.5
Private	153	76.5
Total	200	100.0

The sample was made up of 47 organisations owned by the government and 153 owned by private individuals. The skewness of distribution was - 1.247 against public corporations, but the distribution of categories seemed to correspond with the proportion of public and private business organisations in Nigeria as a whole, and seemed to be in line with the move towards privatization of some public organisations.

Table 4.2 shows the number of employees who underwent training for the period under study, namely from 1975 to 1985.

Table 4.2: Number of Workers Trained by the 200 Organisations

Interval/ Year	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
0 - 0	4	2	4	16	24	22	20	14	16	18	28
1 - 0	108	76	72	60	68	68	80	82	90	82	98
11 - 25	6	64	56	66	60	84	44	56	54	50	36
26 - 50	16	24	34	20	16	20	22	12	6	16	16
51 -100	20	18	12	12	4	2	8	8	14	12	10
101 -250	28	12	18	18	4	22	16	18	16	18	8
251 -500	6	4	2	4	4	6	8	6	4	4	4
Over 500	4	-	2	2	-	2	2	2	2	-	-
$\bar{X}$ for each year (per Co.)	18	25	32	39	36	46	45	43	40	32	24
Max. Trained each Year	420	320	450	506	304	512	607	660	962	326	278

Source: Compiled from the Files of the Organisations.



Table 4.2 shows that there were some years in which some of the companies never trained any of their workers at all. In 1975, there were four of such companies. In 1979, there were 24 of them, from 1979 to 1982, their number reduced, but since 1982, it has shown a steady rise again. The data show that on the average, 35 workers were trained by each of the 200 companies selected per year. 1978 up to 1983 were the peak years of training, when the average number of employees trained by the companies exceeded this grand mean of 35 employees per year. The period before 1978 was one of low training activities, perhaps indicating that the period before 1978 was one of low training activities, perhaps indicating that before 1978, training was not taken very seriously by most Nigerian organisations. A general decline below the annual mean can also be seen after 1983, perhaps also indicating that training is a function of general economic bouyancy of both the organisation and the nation as a whole, since 1984 saw a period of general economic decline in the country.

The question as to whether the companies in the sample were willing to train can be answered by looking at the maximum number of employees trained each year by the 200 companies. In 1978, one company sponsored as many as 420 of its employees on training programmes. This maximum rose to 862 in 1983. Although, since then this maximum has not been attained, the finding indicates

that on the whole, training is rigorously pursued by the majority of organisations involved in this study.

Table 4.3: Number of Management Staff Trained by Organisations per year (by Category of Organisations)

Year	Total Trained	Total Trained	
		Government	Private
1975	3700	1200	2500
1976	5122	1600	3522
1977	6350	1800	4550
1978	7800	2000	5800
1979	7255	1800	5455
1980	9280	2350	6930
1981	9100	2200	6900
1982	8650	2160	6490
1983	8100	2000	6100
1984	6455	1645	4810
1985	6900	1200	5700
Total	78712	19955	58757

$\bar{X}$ per year (all companies)	394	937	384
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$\bar{X}$ per year (each company)	40	93	38
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Table 4.3 shows that in the ten year period under study, the total number of management staff trained by

all the 200 organisations was 78,712. The 47 government-owned organisations trained a total of 19,955 managers, while the 153 private organisations trained a total of 58,757 managers. The data indicates that on the average, 394 managers were trained in each organisation per year, and that each company trained an average of 40 management staff per year.

However, it can be seen that an average of 937 managers were trained in the 47 government-owned companies per year, while all the 153 private companies trained 384 managers per year on the average.

This indicates that government owned organisations trained their management staff more often than privately owned companies.

The differences in the average number of management staff trained by the two categories of organisations were subjected to analysis of variance test. The results are indicated in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Analysis of Variance: Number Trained and Type of Organisation

Multiple Classification Analysis

Category	N	Adjusted Deviation Eta		Adjusted for Independent Deviation	
Private	153	- 0.27		- 0.27	
Government/ Parastatal	47	0.08		0.08	
Sum of Variance	Sum of Square	DF	Mean	F. Sig.	of F.
Main Effect	4.447	1	4.447	1.438	0.23
Explained	4.447	1	4.447	1.438	0.23
Residual	612.297	198	3.095		
Total	616.745	199	3.099		

The analysis of variance provided an 'F' value of 1.438, which was considered significant at the 0.05 level. The result therefore shows that there is a relationship between the type of organisation and its willingness to train, measured here by the number of management employees actually trained. The differences between the two categories of organisations in terms of their training efforts were further subjected to the chi-square test, the result of which is presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Type of Organisations Most Willing to Train

Category	Above Average	Below Average	Total
Government/ Parastatal	36 (19.6)	11 (25.4)	47
Private	56 (70.4)	97 (82.6)	153
Total	92	108	200

$$\chi^2 = 34.077$$

$$df = 1$$

$$p = 0.05 .$$

The chi-square analysis showed that the relationship between the type of organisation and willingness to train management staff was significant at the 0.05 level. The result indicates that more employees were on the average, trained by the government parastatals than by private organisations.

Finally, willingness to train was measured by the amount of money the organisations expended on training of workers over the period.

Table 4.6 shows how much money was expended by the 200 organisations involved in this study on training from 1975 to 1985.

Table 4.6: Amount Expended on Training (in Thousands of Naira)

Amount (in intervals)	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
Under 100	25	22	24	16	14	12	10	12	6	31	33
100 - 200	162	174	172	108	96	72	70	65	60	124	130
200 - 300	8	4	2	32	48	88	111	76	95	35	27
300 - 400	6	-	2	18	32	18	8	27	24	8	10
400 - 500	-	-	-	16	5	4	1	12	4	2	-
500 - 600	-	-	-	10	5	6	-	8	4	-	-
600 - 700	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	-	-
Over 700	-			-							

$\bar{X}$                       151      143      144      197      218      226      211      245      232      166      156

Grand mean = 190

Table 4.6 shows that on the average, each of the 200 organisations used in this study spent about ₦190,000 per year on the training of their staff. The peak year was 1982, when the mean expenditure on training was ₦245,000. In that year, the average number of employees trained was 43, compared to 1980 when the highest average number of employees trained was recorded as 40. It could then be said that the peak years of training were between 1980 and 1982 and that the greater average amount of money spent in 1982 reflected the increasing cost of training and inflationary trends.

Again, the researcher investigated which type of organisations on the average spent more on training. Two procedures were adopted. The first was to find out how many government and private organisations spent less than the mean for the group over the years. The analysis is shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Types of Organisations and Mean Expenditure On Training

Category	Above Group Mean	Below Group Mean	Total
Government			
Parastatal	18 (26.1)	29 (20.9)	47
Private	96 (87.9)	67 (75.1)	153
Total	114	96	200

$$\chi^2 = 6.077 \quad df = 1 \quad p = 0.05$$

The chi-square analysis gave a value of 6.077, which was greater than the 4.88 required to reject the statement of no relationship between type of organisation and level of expenditure on training at the 0.05 level. The data suggest that private companies spent more on training than government.

From the two analyses of expenditure on training, it can be concluded that although private organisations trained less number of management staff than government parastatals, they nevertheless spent more on each individual trainee than government parastatals. The researcher therefore analysed the variations in the amounts spent on training by government parastatals and private organisations. The analysis is presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Analysis of Variance in Amount Spent on Training as Type of Organisation

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF.	Mean Sf.	F. Sig.	of G.
Main Effect	2481.274	1	2481.274	0.003	0.999
Explained	2496.000	1	2496.000	0.003	0.999
Residual	156810128.00	1998	751570.313		
Total	156810128.00	199	788003.125		

The analysis of variance showed that there was a significant relationship between amount of money expended



on training and the type of organisation. As indicated earlier, private organisations spent more on each individual trainee than public organisations.

#### 4.2 AGE OF ORGANISATION AND TRAINING

Hypothesis II stated that the age of the organisations, and therefore their modes of origin, will not influence their desire to train their management personnel. Table 4.9 shows the relative ages of the organisations used in the study.

Table 4.9: Establishment Date of Organisations

Period	Public	Private	Total	Percentage
Before 1946	12	2	14	70.0
1947 - 1960	8	44	52	36.0
1961 - 1969	20	46	66	33.0
After 1969	7	61	68	34.0

An analysis of the age of establishment of the organisations provides an interesting study of the history of industrialisation in Nigeria, and that of the economy as a whole. Only 14 of the 200 companies involved in the study were established before 1946. These were predominantly public utility concerns, such as the Post and Telecommunication Corporation, Nigerian Railways, the then Electricity Corporation of Nigeria (ECN)

and now National Electric Power Authority (NEPA), the then Public Works Department (PWD) and now Ministry of Works and Housing, and Native Authority (NA) - now Ministry of Local Government. The two private organisations that were in existence then were the United African Company and Patterson and Zochonis, both multinational concerns. Between 1947 and 1960, a large number of private concerns sprang up. Of the 52 organisations established during the period, as many as 44 were established by private individuals. The trend continued after independence. The modal year was 1970, when as many as 45 private companies were established, perhaps in response to the indigenisation decree. One, however, has to note that in 1960 and 1961, 10 and 11 private companies respectively, were set up, perhaps as a result of the new drive towards indigenous autonomy following Nigerian attainment of independence in 1960. On the average, the data showed that five of the business concerns were established every year up to 1985.

It was in view of the varied history of the organisations, which corresponded with their mode of ownership and management policies that it was hypothesized that willingness to train would be related to the age of each of the organisations. Table 4.10 shows the chi-square analysis of the differences in the willingness of the different categories of organisations to train.

Table 4.10: Age of Organisation and Willingness to Train Management Staff

Age	Willing	Not Willing
Before 1946	6 (13)	8 (1) 14
1946 - 1960	42 (47)	10 (5) 52
1961 - 1969	64 (54)	2 (7) 66
After 1969	68 (61)	- (7) 68
Total	180	20

The chi-square gave a value of 70.304, which was found to be significant at the 0.05 level. This showed that the willingness to train its management staff was related to the age of the organisation. Of the 132 organisations established after independence, only two showed unwillingness to train. On the other hand, of the 48 organisations established before independence, as many as 18, which constituted 37.5 per cent, were reluctant to train. This suggests that management training is a function of modernity, and is most accepted by organisations that are relatively young.

#### 4.3 PERCEIVED VALUE OF TRAINING OF MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONARIES

Hypothesis III stated that the attitudes of Nigerian business executives towards management training and

therefore the overall corporate policies regarding management education, will not be more favoured towards the training of certain management cadres than others. In other words, support for training will not be a function of the type of responsibilities the manager-trainee holds in the organisation.

The chief executives were asked to indicate which categories of management staff really required training and could increase their productivity through training. Their responses are indicated in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Categories of Management Staff Requiring Training (5 = Highest)

Category	5	4	3	2	1		Rank
Administrative	72	26	81	19	2	3.7	3
Technical/ Production	190	3	1	-	-	4.9	1
Marketing	156	23	10	1	-	4.0	2
Public Relations	42	22	53	84	3	3.1	6
Financial	52	62	41	26	19	3.5	4
Legal	28	40	53	17	62	2.8	7
Training	72	65	30	23	10	3.3	5

The data indicate that the greatest premium was given to the training of management staff in the production wings of the organisations. This was followed by those in the marketing departments, and then by those in the administrative and financial sections respectively. Management staff working in the training sections, public relations and the legal sections were given the least priority in the scheme of training by the chief executives involved in the study.

The results show that with these chief executives, training must basically aim at improving the technical dimensions of work. Improving the working climate seemed to be secondary to the primary productive role of the organisation.

To understand the ratings presented in Table 4.11, we need to examine the reactions of the chief executives over statements that reveal their attitudes to management functions and competence. The chief executives were asked to Agree or Disagree with a given number of statements. Their reactions are indicated in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Chief Executives' Reactions to Value of Management Training

Position	Agree	Disagree
- Administrators are born, not made	82	118
- Experience is the best teacher	156	44
- The best form of training is obtained on the job	184	16
- Theory does not lead to skill improvement	96	104
- Training is only meant to reward good workers not to lead to increased efficiency	98	102
- Training is useful for promising workers.	121	79

Table 4.12 shows that as many as 92 per cent of the chief executives believed that on-the-job training yielded the best result. This takes with the next most commonly held view, namely, experience is the best teacher. A much more startling finding was that a substantial majority of the chief executives - 60.5 per cent - believed that training should be provided only for promising workers, namely, those who exhibit initial signs of hardwork and resourcefulness. Those respondents felt that it was a waste of resources to train a worker

who had not demonstrated such initial potential.

In the midst of these negative comments about the value of training for managers, respondents were asked to state whether their organisations had stated policies and objectives as regarding management training. Their responses are shown in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Availability of Stated Policies on Training

Category	Yes	No	Total
Chief Executives	145 (139)	55 (61)	200
Training Manager	175 (139)	25 (61)	200
Selected Staff	96 (138)	104(62)	200
Total	416	184	600

$$\chi^2 = 60.964$$

$$df = 2$$

$$p = 0.5$$

The table shows that while almost 75 per cent of the chief executives and over 80 per cent of the training managers knew of the availability of training programmes in their various organisations, less than half of the staff really knew what these programmes were. The

chi-square analysis of differences gave a value of 60.964, which was significant at the 0.05 level. What these results indicate is that objectives of training, its modus operandi, and the criteria for earning training, were not usually obvious to all the workers, and remained only in the minds of those who operated the training programmes.

What were the objectives of training in those organisations ? Table 4.14: is a summary of these objectives as indicated by the chief executives and the training managers.

Table 4.14: Objectives of Training

Objective	No. of Executives	Affirmative Trainers	Progress Total	Rank
Increased Labour Productivity	192	190	382	1
Reduction of Conflict	96	128	224	3
Guarantee Corporate image	55	80	135	6
Train human responses for Country	10	92	102	7
Self-improvement of workers	86	105	191	4
Ensuring commitment of workers	56	121	177	5
Advantage of Innovations	172	190	262	2



Table 4.14 shows that when both categories of respondents are taken together, the most important objective of training was to increase the productivity of workers. This training was seen as a way of workers reducing waste, increasing the technical competence of employees and thereby increasing the profitability of organisations. Allied to this objective was the second one of avoiding obsolescence, making workers keep abreast with innovations and thereby making them more efficient.

Objectives given some attention were reduction of conflicts at the work place, self improvement of workers, and ensuring worker commitment. Training programmes designed specifically to avoid conflict at work situations could include leadership and supervisory training techniques, corporate rules and regulations, management training techniques, labour law and so on. These were however considered to be tangential to the interest of the corporation by most of the executives sampled, yet they are an indispensable adjunct to overall corporate efficiency.

Research in places like Japan, China, South and North Korea indicate that training is an effective machinery for ensuring the commitment of workers. This view was not given a very high regard by the executives and even the training managers sampled, neither was of the view that training could improve the corporate image of the organisation.

Two objectives were given the lowest premium namely, training as a vehicle for adding to the nations stock of qualified manpower, and as a means for improving upon the workers own well-being. This shows that most of the organisations involved in the study were self-centred, did not see themselves as part of the growth system of the country, and were motivated largely by the need to maximize profit.

To confirm whether the organisations gave premium to management education, the researcher sought to find out where the management training function was located in the organisation. Table 4.15 summarises the findings.

Table 4.15: Locations of Training Function

Location	Government/ Parastatal	Private	Training
Separate Training Department	18	6	24
Personnel Department	26	42	68
General Administration	3	78	71
Non-Existent as Designation	-	27	27
Total	47	153	200

Table 4.15 shows that only 24 of the 200 organisations involved in the study had separate training divisions. Of these, eighteen (75 per cent) were government parastatals.

The training function was conceived in the majority of instances as part of the work of either the personnel department or the general administrative department. In 27 of the private organisations, there was no specific officer whose duties involved training matters as much. What happened in those organisations was that the chief executive would periodically refer matters concerning training to sectional heads, such as Head of Accounting, Production, and so on, depending on what type of training had been announced or was considered desirable. Thus, if willingness to train was measured in terms of availability of training sections, then one could say that only 12 per cent of the companies really believed training was crucial to the survival of their organisations.

As the literature indicated, there are several criticisms against training of personnel, especially the training of management personnel. The support which an organisation could give to management training can be influenced by the perception of the top management regarding the efficacy of training in raising the productivity of recipients, other criticisms are that by and large, returning trainees have been unable to effect any significant changes in the operations of the organisations. The research went into an analysis of the

constraints to support for training.

Firstly, all the three categories of respondents were asked to indicate what they felt was responsible for the inability of returning trainees to implement significant innovations into the operations of their organisations. The responses are indicated in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Factors Affecting Implementation of Innovations by Ex-trainees

Factor	Frequency							
	Executives		Training Managers		Staff		Total	
	F	R	F	R	F	R	F	R
- Lack of management co-operation	15	4	60	1	55	1	130	2
- No new ideas to offer	86	1	12	4	2	6	100	3
- Jealousy of Colleagues	56	2	22	12	18	5	96	5
- Rigid organisational structure	15	5	55	2	69	1	139	1
- General resistance to change	18	3	47	3	30	3	95	4
- Financial cost	10	6	4	5	26	4	40	6

The ordinal or rank-order, or Spearman rank coefficient of the responses of the three categories of respondents was

found to be - 0.029, which showed that there were fundamental differences in the views of the three groups. While the chief executives felt that the reason why no changes were introduced by returning trainees was primarily the fact that these trainees really had nothing new to offer, the training managers gave the lack of cooperation from management as the primary reason, while the sampled management staff felt that the situation was due to rigidity in the organisational structure of most of the corporations, that is, rigidity in the bureaucratic set-up of most of the organisations. Another interesting difference was that while the chief executives felt that the problem was due to jealousies among the colleagues of the returning officers, this reason was discounted by both the training managers and the sampled management staff.

The analysis of the responses of the three categories of respondents, taken together, showed that the two greatest hindrances to the introduction of innovation and change were bureaucratic rigidity and lack of cooperation from top management; lack of cooperation from other colleagues and financial costs were really not very serious problems.

To validate the findings above, the 200 sampled staff were asked to reflect on the latest of the training programmes they attended and to indicate their overall assessment of the gains derived from the programme. Their assessment is indicated in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Staff Assessment of Gains derived from Latest Training

Assessment	Number	Percentage
Too Theoretical; gained very little	15	7.5
Useful, but no new ideas	28	14.0
Very useful ideas to introduce	75	37.5
Ideas too ideal, not down-to-earth	60	40.0
Course Irrelevant to Job Situation	22	111.0
Total	200	200.0

Table 4.17 shows only about 90 of the 200 staff had something new to introduce into their work-places after their last training. Of these, 15 said that the new ideas they gained were very little. Twenty-eight of the remaining 110 management employees who had nothing new to introduce said the courses they attended were useful in the sense that the content covered old grounds and therefore helped to remind them of the things they had to remember, and not in the sense that new ideas were introduced to them. As many as 30 per cent found the discussions, suggestions and recommended innovations too idealistic to introduce at their work-places, while 7.5 per cent found the discussions theoretical.

The 90 participants who indicated that they had learned something useful which they could introduce into their organisations were asked whether they indeed succeeded in introducing some of the innovations, and if not, why they failed. Their responses are indicated in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18: Experience with Introduction of Innovation

Experience	Number	Rank
- Succeeded somehow	18	2
- Failed because of management resistance	15	2
- Failed because colleagues were not interested	10	3
- Failed because of bureaucratic problems: e.g. resistance of superior	10	4
- Failed because of cost involved	6	5
- Failed because job was changed	24	1
- Failed because they did not try hard	2	7
- Failed because they could not sell new ideas gained.	5	6

Table 4.18 shows that of the 90 respondents, who had something new to introduce into their work-places after undergoing training, only 18 succeeded in bringing about

changes. The remaining 70 were unable to bring about any significant changes at their work-places. The greatest reason for this situation was that over 20 per cent of them were given new schedules soon after they had returned from training. This was followed by management resistance and lack of interest by other colleagues respectively. The cost involved in introducing new ideas did not constitute a serious hindrance, so also the inability of the ex-trainees' to sell their ideas.

To test the hypothesis that support for training was related to the perceived value of management, the respondents were asked to indicate which management staff they would support for training and their responses correlated with their views on the benefits of training. The result of the factor analysis is shown in Table 4.19.



Table 4.19: Factor Analysis of Determinants of Training for Management Cadre

Factor	Administrators	Technicians	Marketing	Public Relations	Finance	Lawyers	Trainers	Computed Commonality
Experience	.762	.422	.422	.251	.612	.715	.616	.509
Skill	.328	.896	.325	.211	.415	.218	.712	.401
Money-Saving	.284	.762	.326	.126	.219	.316	.015	.293
Relevance	.452	.812	.357	.311	.316	.518	.516	.469
Waste of Money	.322	.421	.212	.189	.189	.216	.512	.294
Lacking Replacement	.422	.761	.322	.118	.816	.422	.422	.468
Vs	7.028	11.132	3.273	2.01	4.278	3.18	3.18	4.057
100	11.462	70.28	110.132	32.73	20.11	42.78	31.821	100

The factor analysis provided the following information.

- (a) The managers, executives were most willing to train were those in the technical sector.
- (b) Experience was regarded as most critical factor in determining work-output for administrators and lawyers who had reached management level.
- (c) Managers were prepared to train if the programme would increase the skill of the workers, save them money and prove relevant to the actual work performed by the staff.
- (d) Lack of replacement was a critical factor for most of the executives not wanting to train.

The factor analysis showed that there were significant differences in the attitude to training of the different types of managers. The technical staff were most favoured, followed by the administrative staff.

#### 4.4 SIZE OF ORGANISATION AND TRAINING

Hypothesis IV stated that willingness to train the management staff will not be dependent on the size of the organisation.

Two indices were used to measure the size of each organisation, namely, its average annual turn-over, and the number of management staff employed in the year. The year 1985 was selected as the representative year for the

analysis on size of organisation, principally because audited accounts and complete data on personnel and turnover beyond that year were either incomplete or totally lacking in most of the organisations.

Table 4.20 shows the relative average annual turnover of the organisations for 1985. The data was compiled largely from Annual Reports of the Companies or from Audited Accounts.

Table 4.20: Turnover of Organisations in 1985  
(in Thousands of Naira)

Range	Manufac- turing	Service	Total	Percentage
Below 1,000	-	15	15	7.5
1,001 and 2,500	-	28	28	14.0
2,500 - 5,000	4	29	33	16.5
5,000 - 10,000	41	21	62	31.0
Above 10,000	37	25	62	31.0
Total	82	117	200	100.0
$\bar{X}$ =	10,570	6,010	8,000	

Mid = 6,000.

It can be seen from the table that over 60 per cent of the business organisations used in the study were fairly

large outfits having an annual turnover of well over five million naira. Fifteen of the 200 companies were relatively small organisations with less than one million naira turnover per year. The annual median turnover was found to be roughly six million naira.

The companies in the manufacturing sector were found to have greater annual turnover than those in the service sector. Only fifteen of the 83 manufacturing concerns had a turnover less than the mean for the group in 1985. As many as 72 of the 117 service concerns (about 61 per cent) fell below the median turnover. The average turnover of the service concerns for 1985 was a little over six million naira, while that for the manufacturing concerns was almost eleven million naira. The mean turnover of all the companies for 1985 was eight million naira.

Table 4.21 presents data on the personnel employed by the organisations involved in this investigation. The data shows the size of the overall staff of the organisations and the strength of the management staff.

Table 4.21: Personnel Position of Organisations (1985)

Number	Overall
1 - 25	2
26 - 50	6
51 - 75	12
76 - 100	85
101 - 150	32
151 - 300	49
over 300	12
Total	200

$$\bar{X} = 140$$

Median        95

Mode            100

Minimum        15

Max.            512

The data seemed to suggest that most of the organisations sampled kept their staff strength around one hundred. The mean number of staff of the 200 organisations was 140 but the mode was 100. Two of the companies were rather very small with less than twenty-five workers,

while twelve were relatively large, having over 300 workers. The range of staff was 497, starting from a company with only fifteen workers to one that had as many as 512 workers.

The mean number of supervisors employed in the 200 companies was 34, that of junior or assistant managers was 17 and that of senior managers was eight. This worked out at roughly one supervisor to every five workers, one junior manager per every two supervisors and one senior manager for two junior managers. These ratios however must be taken with some caution because in Nigeria, it is the practice in most private establishments to designate the workers with prestigious posts or titles like "Manager", while in fact, the individual is assigned merely to lower level tasks. If the ratios are to be accepted, one then would expect greater efficiency due to the rather small ratio between overall staff and number of management personnel.

It must be stated therefore, that in the analysis of the general staff-management ratio, it was impossible to control for validity. In the selection of the 200 management employees actually used in the study, care was taken to ensure that they were really doing management duties.

The median strength of the overall staff for the 200 organisations used in this study was found to be 95.

Slightly less than half of the companies (93 or 46.5 per cent) fell below this median. Thus, we can conclude that the organisations used were fairly large and could be expected to have well-structured bureaucratic characteristics and conventional modes of design-making and are less parochial and whimsical. In such organisations, it could be conjectured that functions were more clearly defined and differentiated, thus making specialisation necessary.

As stated earlier, Hypothesis IV, tested the relationship between the size of the organisation and the willingness of its top executive to train. The assumption behind this hypothesis was that where the organisation was large, the functions would be more differentiated and therefore the need for training would be more urgent. The second assumption is that in larger organisations, the problem of finding substitutes to replace officers on training would be easier to resolve. It would also have more funds available for training purposes.

Table 4.22 presents the analysis of variance of the relationship between the number of management staff employed in the organisations and the level of management training sustained by the organisations.

Table 4.22: Size of Management Staff and Level of Support for Training

Some of the Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean	F	Fig. of F.
Main Effect	5.046	1	5.046	2.492	0.112
Explained	5.047	1	5.047		
Residual	400.928	198	2.025	2.492	0.112
Total	405.925	199	2.040		

In Table 4.21, we discovered that the size of management personnel was related to the overall size of the labour employed in the organisation. The analysis of variance of the relationship between the number of management staff and willingness to train in Table 4.22 gave an 'F' ratio of 2.492, which was significant at the 0.05 level. This shows that the willingness to train was significantly related to the size of the labour force of the organisation as a whole, and to the number of management staff employed in the organisation. The larger the company was in terms of the number of personnel employed, the more it was willing to devote its resources to the training of its management staff.



#### 4.5 PREFERRED MODE OF TRAINING

Hypothesis V stated that "there will be no significant differences in the modes of management training preferred by Nigerian business executives". To test the hypothesis, the 200 randomly-selected management staff were asked to indicate whether they had been on training during the period, and what type of training it was. Next, the training managers were asked to indicate what types of training programmes they had organised over the past five years. The responses of these two sets of employees are summarized in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23: Type of Training - 1984/85

Type	Training Manager's Response		Staff Participation		Overall	
	No.	Rank	No.	Rank	No.	Rank
<u>LOCAL:</u>						
Induction	125	4	68	2	193	3
In-Service - In-plant	350	1	185	1	535	1
Day Release	20	7	11	7	31	7
Seminars/ Conferences	276	2	45	4	321	2
Institutional	8	8	2	10	10	8
<u>OVERSEAS:</u>						
Seminar/Workshop/ Conference	156	3	15	6	171	4
In-Plant (attach- ment)	72	5	61	3	133	5
Institutional	1	9	1	9	2	9
Familiarisation	48	6	32	5	53	6

The Spearman rank correlation coefficient of the ratings of the response, by the two categories of respondents was 4.121, which was found to be significant at the 0.05 level, thus establishing a high level of

relationship between their ratings. The data show that in-plant training programmes organised locally were the most frequently used mode of training organised for the management staff of the 200 organisations used in this study. While the training managers rated local seminars and conferences as the second most-often used mode of training, the sampled staff indicated induction courses as the second. Other relatively common forms of training were overseas seminars, workshops and conferences on the one hand, and in-plant attachment to overseas branches of the company on the other. These obtained overall ratings of four and five respectively. The most unpopular modes of training were found to be both overseas and local institutional training, day-release courses and familiarization tours in the respective order of magnitude. Full-time courses in higher educational institutions were frowned upon largely because they were considered theoretical.

Day-release courses, on the other hand, presented problems associated with replacement, while familiarization tours, especially those organised overseas, were, in addition to the problems of replacement, considered rather expensive.

Table 4.23 showed that in-plant training programmes were the most preferred mode of training, and that institutional modes of training were the least. This hypothesis tested whether these were significant differences in the preferred modes of training among service organisations and production organisations as stated by the chief executives of the 200 companies. The analysis of variance is indicated in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24: Analysis of Variance of Preferred Modes of Training: Service and Production Organisations

Type	Category	In-Plant	Day Release	Inst.	Conf.	Over-sea	Sub-Total	Total
Government	Service	-	-	3	12	6	21	47
	Manufac.	20	6	-	-	-	26	
Private	Service	38	12	2	30	14	96	153
	Manufac.	48	5	-	1	3	51	
Total		106	23	5	43	23	194	200
Sum of Variance		Sum of Squares		DF	Mean Square	F	Fig. F.	
Main Effect		0.652		1	0.652	0.248	0.991	
Explained		0.652		1	0.652	0.248	0.928	
Residual		519.684		198	2.625			
Total		520.305		199	2.615			

The analysis showed that the 'F' ratio of difference mode of training was related to the type of organisation. More of the production-oriented organisations preferred in-plant training to any mode of training, while the service-oriented organisations preferred day-release courses and institutional training. Again, more of the production-oriented organisations preferred overseas forms of training than the service-oriented organisations.

#### 4.6 LOCATION AND TRAINING

Hypothesis VI stated that willingness to train management staff will not be related to the environment in which the organisation is situated, that no significant differences will be found in the management training policies of rural and urban organisations.

Since the population of this study consisted of all business concerns established in the whole of the country, the number of organisations included in the sample from each area was based on the proportional weighting technique of selection. The major locations of the organisations included in the sample are shown in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25: Location of Organisations

Location	Number	Percentage
Lagos State	151	75.5
Kaduna Municipality	11	5.5
Ibadan Municipality	10	5.0
Kano Municipality	6	3.0
Enugu Municipality	4	2.0
Ogun State	4	2.0
Port Harcourt Municipality	3	1.5
Plateau State	3	1.5
Jos Municipality	2	1.0
Calabar Municipality	2	1.0
Owerri Zone	2	1.0
Total	200	100.0

Table 4.26 shows the distribution of the organisations according to urban and rural variants.

Table 4.26: Rural/Urban Distribution of Organisations

Location	Service	Manufac- turing	Total
Urban	101	42	143
Semi-Urban	16	30	46
Rural	-	11	11
Total	117	83	200

Table 4.26 shows that 94.5 per cent of the companies were situated in the urban areas. Again, all the companies sited in the rural areas were in production.

As can be seen from Table 4.25, well over 75 per cent of the organisations were based in Lagos State. This is a further proof of the fact that most of the business organisations in Nigeria are situated in the Lagos Metropolis. Beside Lagos, Kaduna and Ibadan had the next highest concentration of business organisations represented by 11 and 10 organisations respectively. Next in order of magnitude was Kano municipality, followed by Enugu. The growing conglomerate of Otta,

bordering on Lagos and drawing its pool of expertise and workers from Lagos, enabled Ogun State to be represented by four companies, while Plateau State had three representatives in addition to two from the Jos municipality.

The habitats of the organisations were classified as urban, semi-urban and rural. Urban referred to areas within the metropolis of Lagos, Kano, Ibadan and Port-Harcourt, semi-urban referred to areas adjoining these metropolis, such as Sango-Otta in Ogun State, and also to Calabar, Owerri, Kaduna and Jos. Table 4.26 had earlier shown that as many as 143 of the 200 organisations used in the study were situated in urban areas, 46 in semi-urban areas, and only 11 in the rural areas, since obviously the organisations situated in the rural areas were smaller in size on the average than those in urban centres. Such rural organisations in this context are those established in the rural areas and have no branches nor their head offices in the urban centres like Lagos, Kano, Ibadan, Kaduna and Enugu. Such companies are the Pal Breweries at Okoh in Aguta Local Government and Akuabia Paper Conversion Company, at Nibo in Awka Local Government, all in Anambra State. Each of these locations or towns are some hundreds of kilometres away from the nearest city or urban centre - Enugu. They have no branches elsewhere in the country.

The researcher decided to use the willingness of the organisation as perceived by the training managers as the index for testing the hypothesis.

The analysis of relationship between siting of the organisation and willingness to train as perceived by the training managers is shown in Table 4.27.



Table 4.27: Site and Willingness to Train

Site	Willing	Not Willing	Total
Urban	142 (128)	1 (15)	143
Semi-Urban	36 (42)	10 (4)	46
Rural	2 (10)	9 (2)	11
Total	180	20	200

The chi-square analysis gave a value of 59.312, which was very much significant at the 0.05 level, thus indicating a significant relationship between the area in which the organisation was situated and the willingness of the organisation to train management staff. As can be seen from the table, only one out of the 142 organisations sited in urban areas showed unwillingness to train. On the other hand, 26 of the 46 semi-urban organisations were unwilling to train, while nine of the eleven rural organisations showed unwillingness to train. It can be concluded therefore that urban-situated organisations showed more willingness to train than rural and semi-urban organisations. It must be remembered also that most of the non-urban organisations were engaged in manufacturing activities, and it had been earlier observed that service-oriented enterprises were more willing to train than manufacturing concerns.

These findings are discussed in Chapter 5.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

#### 5.1 ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT FOR MANAGEMENT TRAINING

The major conclusion to be drawn from this study is that on the whole, most Nigerian organisations have accepted management training as a necessary component of their functions and given active support to the training of their managers. None of the chief executives in the 200 organisations involved in the study indicated an aversion to the training of their management staff. Indeed, more than half of the training managers confirmed that their chief executives and their organisations as a whole were most willing to train their management staff.

This premium placed by Nigerian organisations on management training is commendable and augurs well for the future of the Nigerian economy. The training and development of managers is the most vital and critical element in the attempt to make the Nigerian economy self-reliant. Although the accelerated impetus given management education soon after the indigenization decree of 1968 led to the production of a large pool of trained managers in the country, it cannot be said that the training of managers has now assumed a remarkable place in Nigeria's development planning.

As noted in Chapter Two, the crop of managers being trained in, and turned out from Nigeria's higher educational institutions are still not adequate to meet the management needs of the country's expanding economy. Secondly, management as a practice is as dynamic as the economy itself. Its principles and practices grow in proportion to the growth in the economy. The more sophisticated and complex the economy becomes, the more the manager requires further training to be able to cope with the growing demands of the economy.

We may note a few changes that have occurred in recent years in the Nigerian economy that have thrown compelling challenges in the management field as illustrative of the need for continuing management education. The first is the new policies on foreign exchange and their implications for the financial well-being of organisation. Managers in the financial section of organisations must re-learn to be able to understand the foreign exchange market, the record required to be kept, the returns to be made, concept and operation of the autonomous market, and so on. Secondly, we may note the squeeze on importation of foreign components of made-in-Nigeria goods, and the call for local sourcing of raw materials. These new management principles and practices, demand re-training for the manager and his staff. A final example is the

pressure from Labour Unions for none participative forms of organisation and democratization of the decision-making processes in organisations.

This last example, although a subtle and almost imperceptible change, is nevertheless going on, and will assume greater importance in the years ahead. It will throw up challenges which most organisations will find difficult to grapple with, and which organisations that do not take management training seriously will find themselves unprepared for. This is why the Nigerian Employers Consultative Association sees the development of good industrial relations as a most crucial aspect in the development of managers. As stated earlier, it is satisfying that the study found that most Nigerian organisations took the training of their management staff seriously.

## 5.2 MANAGEMENT TRAINING OBJECTIVES

The analysis of the data obtained from this study showed that the organisations were primarily interested in programmes that would result in increase in the competency of its technical and production staff and also increase in the efficiency of their marketing units. Thus, one can conclude that their support for training was directly related to the possibility of direct increased output and profit. In their scheme

of priorities, Nigerian organisations valued such form of training as more important than training directed at improving the competencies of the financial and administrative management staff.

This situation is unsatisfactory, because productivity is not promoted solely by the application of technical skills in a work situation. Output is a function of the admixture of skills and motivational factors. Poor approach to delegation of responsibilities could stifle initiative and lead to low productivity. The management of working conditions, correct application of corporate policies and judicious application of human and industrial psychology are all necessary for increased productivity, and training in these areas must be given as much premium as training in technical competencies.

Equally important is training in financial management. The financial environment of the Nigerian economy is very dynamic and for a corporate entity to survive, its financial management staff must be constantly trained and re-trained if the entity is to survive. Most organisations in Nigeria seem to think that accountancy and financial skills, once acquired, can be used throughout once life. On the contrary, for proper financial control, the accountant must be alive to the dynamic financial environment, be abreast

of government fiscal policies, and be able to place the operations of his company within government's financial regulations and policies. This is one of the challenges which management training in Nigeria must face.

The study found that most Nigerian organisations hardly trained their legal and public relations management staff. Again, this is unfortunate because as the Nigerian Employers' Consultative Association itself sees it, the development of industrial relations is the crucial aspect in the education of managers. As will be discussed later, the well-being of an organisation depends to a very great extent on its corporate image. Let us take the National Electric Power Authority as an example. Much of its problems stem from its poor corporate image. The public has given up NEPA, and therefore the organisation is unable to whip up public cooperation in the collection of its debts. Every thing the organisation does is ridiculed. Under these conditions, very little success can come to the Authority.

Innovations in the mass media, advances in electronics, and novel developments in information delivery systems require that public relations management staff keep re-training themselves if they can be effective. Similarly, changes in Labour Laws, new understanding about workers' motivation and the demand for more participative approaches to decision-

making; all demand that managers in the legal division of Nigerian organisations undergo constant training.

One serious observation made in the study was that none of the organisations investigated had an effective Research and Development Management Unit. Bearing in mind Rileey's (1978) observation that records and planning data were virtually non-existent to aid planning in most organisations and that this was one of the entrepreneurial shortcomings of these organisations, this researcher believes the area needs to be given some priority. For an organisation to survive, it needs to plan ahead, and planning is done with statistics and other form of data. Nigerian organisations must employ staff to man their research and development sections. The manager incharge of this section must have such competencies as, ability to collect and analyse data, use computers to store and retrieve information, and analyse the data to forecast and project trends. Again, there is no doubt that such a manager will have to be constantly trained and re-trained in view of the dynamic nature of statistic and the computer world.

On the general advantages of training, the study found that most of the chief executives of the organisations saw the benefits of training largely in terms of increased productivity. They also showed a



very high understanding of the dynamic nature of the business world, and were aware of the fact that lack of training could lead to obsolescence among workers. A more startling revelation, however, was that the majority of the chief executives did not see the relationship between support for training and the development of a favourable corporate image. Or, that it was the responsibility of single organisation to contribute to the build-up of management expertise for the country. As Anadozie (1976) has stated, there is the need to develop materials for top management of tomorrow, and companies should train and develop managers for the present as well as for the future needs. Again, only very few companies understood that training increased the individual worker's commitment to the organisation. These three benefits of training, although indirect and perhaps altruistic, must serve as more fundamental values for supporting management training in any given economic environment. They serve as the basis for supporting training even when management considers that their organisations have satisfied all their immediate needs for training. They serve as the bed-rock on which a virile management training culture is built, and should be one of the lessons management must be taught. In their absence, training becomes parochial, disjointed and unsystematic. A company or organisation with a reputation for supporting

the training of its staff has a tendency to attract ambitious and competent young men. Moreover, a worker identified for training is forever likely to show gratitude to the organisation and remain committed to the organisation. Training indeed is one of the surest ways of maintaining staff in the organisation.

### 5.3 AVERSION TO TRAINING

Despite the general finding that most of the organisations involved in the study were supportive of management training, a few of the organisations were found to be reluctant in committing large sums of money to the training of their management staff. Several reasons for this were discovered. One of these was the belief that experience constituted the best form of training. This belief must be dispelled. There can be no efficiency without training. Experience perfects practice, perhaps, but it does not lead to change and innovation, and without these, progress will be difficult. The second most popular reason adduced was that it made economic sense to employ those already qualified for the job than to take novices and train them. The argument against this, is that change is a permanent feature of all aspects of life, whether it be that of an individual or an organisation, and to be able to cope with the demands of a dynamic work environment, training and re-training is imperative, whether the individual was originally qualified for the job or not.

A third reason given was that training was usually not cost-effective, that is, the cost of training was usually disproportionate to the returns the organisation obtained from the impact of the ex-trainee on organisational productivity. This again can be refuted. The benefits of training, as stated earlier, cannot be counted only in monetary terms. Increased corporate image and increased commitment of workers that usually result from training cannot often be measured in terms of profitability.

#### 5.4 MODE OF TRAINING

The study found that almost without exception, all the companies relied on on-the-job training for the upgrading of their management staff as the commonest and most favourite mode of training. Several reasons were adduced for this. One was the fact that such form of training provided the best guarantee that training was related to the specific tasks of the trainees. Second, was the fact that it solved the problem of replacement. Since the trainee was still at the place of work he did not have to be replaced by other workers. Thirdly, such mode of training was found to be less expensive. Finally, for historical reasons, there has been lack of adequate number of good management training schools in Nigeria, and organisations have therefore had to rely on their own resources.

Although on-the-job training is important, it has two major weaknesses. In the first place, it could lead to "in-breeding", and a situation where workers in an organisation are deprived of innovative ideas that could be obtained from outside. In addition to implementing training programmes, management educational institutions undertake research that leads to change and innovation. Change and innovation, are no doubt indispensable ingredients of growth. Workers trained at these institutions benefit from the result of the research, in addition to the fact that by coming into contact with workers in other organisations during outside courses, they exchange ideas and gain tremendously.

The second weakness is undue reliance on on-the-job training. This weakness is unable to generate that level of motivation which outside modes of training are able to produce in trainees. The mere fact of going away from one's work environment has inherent advantages. The ex-trainees returns with new perceptions of his role in the entire organisation. In effect, he is rejuvenated.

The conclusion therefore is that there is the need for Nigerian organisations to combine their in-plant, on-the-job, training programmes for their management staff with institutional modes of training; especially those organised locally. For these forms of training programmes to be relevant, however, the organiser must

undertake serious needs-assessment exercises in which they must involve training officers in the client organisations.

Apart from these general finding, a great deal of variation were discovered in the amount of support given management education by the organisations studied. There differences are discussed in the subsequent sections of this chapter.

#### 5.5 TYPE OF ORGANISATION AND SUPPORT FOR MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

The study found that although government parastatals and organisations trained on the average more of their management staff than private organisations, yet private organisations spent more on each individual manager sponsored on a course.

It is borne in mind that most government-sponsored trainees enter institutions like the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria at Badagry and other institutions which belong to the government itself. Secondly, most of government sponsored courses are taught by public servants who merely receive honoraria. Thirdly, overnight allowances paid to public servants on training are usually lower than those paid by private sponsors. All these factors help to reduce the cost of training provided by public organisations, and therefore explain

the second finding that private organisations spend more on training per head.

On the whole, we can accept the finding that government organisations in Nigeria are more willing to train their management staff than private organisations. The latter seek to maximize profit, and are not imbued with the altruistic aspect of provision for training which we alluded to earlier on in this chapter. It is however perhaps unrealistic to expect private companies to imbibe the spirit of training and re-training solely on altruistic ground. Most of these private organisations will prefer selecting highly qualified staff from the Universities, and provide them with minimum levels of training intermittently. This is why the Industrial Training Fund exists to ensure that these private organisations contribute towards the training of their personnel. Yet it has been found that a substantial number of companies do not submit any contributions to the fund. There is the need therefore to enforce the provisions of the Act that established the Fund so that all private organisations, can be compelled to make their contributions. (Appendix G).

#### 5.6 SIZE OF ORGANISATION AND SUPPORT FOR MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

The data showed that larger firms were more supportive of management training than smaller organisations.

This could be due to several factors. Firstly, they are likely to be more successful and prosperous and are therefore in a better position to spend more on training of their staff. Secondly, each department of such organisations is likely to be well-staffed, and so can better cope with replacements necessitated by the absence of a trainee.

Yet such small companies perhaps need management training even more than the well-established ones. These small companies need ideas to grow and expertise to run their fragile structures. It is necessary that the government comes to their aid. One way to do this is to graduate the contributions paid by organisations to the Industrial Training Fund, so that small companies will pay less than bigger and more prosperous organisations.

#### 5.7 RURAL AND URBAN FIRMS, AND SUPPORT FOR MANAGEMENT TRAINING

One of the findings of the study was that organisations situated in urban centres showed greater support for management training than those in rural areas. This seems to suggest that support for training is a function of the organisations environment. An environment that is competitive, challenging and dynamic; one in which information flow is easy, and one in which "people-flow" is common: that is one in which workers look for the

most attractive options and one which encourages training more than one in which the atmosphere is stultified, non-aggressive and saturated. The organisation situated in a rural environment in Nigeria is beset with a number of problems such as undeveloped infrastructure, lack of a qualitative labour market, and a luke-warm market. As at now, they hardly make profit. Yet, once again, this is the very reason why they need management training programmes. Again, the government can help these organisations by giving them incentives, such as lower contributions to the Industrial Training Fund and free sponsorship of their workers on course at government training institutions.

#### 5.8 AGE OF ORGANISATION AND SUPPORT FOR MANAGEMENT TRAINING

The study found that the level of support given by the organisation to management training was related to the age of the organisation. Relatively newer organisations, that is those established after 1960, were more willing to sponsor their managers on training than older organisations. Several reasons may account for this situation. Firstly, it is likely that the top management staff of older organisations are themselves "chips of the old block", individuals who rose through the ranks and who therefore feel that formal training adds very little to managerial competence. Secondly, it is likely that these older managers feel there is nothing more to



learn. These crop of managers usually look on the new management theories, that are emerging, with a great deal of skepticism.

It is important that this crop of managers are educated to understand the value of formal training programmes in management. It is hoped that as younger management personnel with formal university qualifications are recruited to either join or replace them, these older organisations will begin to give their weight to management training in the country.

#### 5.9 PREFERENTIAL TRAINING POLICIES

The final observation made in the study was that in most of the organisations studied, priority was given to middle-management staff, followed by that of senior management staff, when it came to outside training. These are those who attend conferences, workshops and seminars, in posh hotels and overseas. The junior level management personnel, starting from the front-line supervisor, was neglected almost completely when it came to sponsorship on outside courses. The benefits of outside courses have already been stated. They must also be extended to the supervisors and the junior management personnel, for on these category of management staff depend much that determines the corporate well-being of the organisation. The supervisor stands directly

between management and workers. On him depends the productivity of the worker. His measures will avoid waste or otherwise. He checks tardiness, absenteeism, sloppiness and other such habits. He interpretes company's laws that affect the worker directly. On him depend the safety of the organisation and the quality of its products. To train him therefore is to seek the ultimate in managerial efficiency.

In conclusion, the findings of this study indicate a growing awareness in the economic sector, of the vital role which managerial and other supportive training programmes could, and should play in National Development. Indeed, the interest shown by a cross-section of members of the economic community involved in this research is a clear pointer to the role of training in boosting the economic life of any given business organisation. For this role to be optimized however, a few problems need to be solved. These include such problems as costs, human frailties, indifference to changes in both domestic and world economy and cultures. Some of the managers held the view that a profit-making establishment needs no further training for its staff. The management in this respect, viewed training in the narrow economic sense, thus losing sight of the growth-oriented values of training.

The study found that one area of management training neglected is financial management. Most organisations in

this country assume that once one acquires financial skill to handle accounts of the organisation, any further training becomes quite irrelevant. This attitude is quite unfortunate. The need for accountants and other high ranking officials to keep abreast of new developments and knowledge in their fields, makes further training indispensable for the continued well-being of their various establishments. Every department of an organisation needs to pay serious attention to training as a means of keeping the organisation constantly afloat. A Public Relations Department for instance, is as vital to any establishment as its Finance or Production Department. This is so, because the public image of the said establishment depends on its Public Relations officials.

The findings show that the commonest grouse against training is the issue of costs. Most of the organisations believe that training is not cost-effective. In other words, organisations tend to see little or no increases in their returns, vis-a-vis the expenditures involved in such training programmes. This is fundamentally at odds with the economic realities of our times. Training improves skill and efficiency, introduces effective innovations in management and administrative styles, and eventually improves the overall gains of the organisation. To lose sight of this fact, is to subject an otherwise promising establishment to stunted culture. When these

problems are solved, the road would have been open for management education to contribute optimally towards the creation of a virile economy in the country.

#### 5.10 PROBLEMS OF TRANSFER OF LEARNING

In addition to the major findings discussed above, this researcher wishes to note that most of the managers he encountered during the field work complained that they were unable to implement the ideas and innovations they learned during their training sessions on their return to their organisations. Several reasons were given by respondents. Paramount among these were the nature of the organisational structure, the attitude of top management, the attitude of colleagues, the purposefulness of the ex-trainee himself, and the type of the training programme pursued.

Most of the ex-trainees attributed their inability to effect change to the rigid nature of the organisational structures within which they operated. They pointed to the excessive bureaucratization of their organisations, and limited delegation of responsibilities. As Ubeku (1982) had pointed out, delegation of responsibility creates a challenging environment, otherwise the individual will find himself unable to act and take initiatives. He will be forced to exercise some caution and engage in self-preservation. The individual needs trust and security if he is to experiment. Closely

related to the organisational factor is the tendency for ex-trainees to be transferred from their original work-schedules on their return from training. This was considered a very serious set-back for the implementation of useful ideas obtained during training. As much as possible, ex-trainees must return to their original jobs and be challenged to introduce change and innovation into the existing operations if training is to have any impact on the sponsoring organisations. The second most serious factor leading to low impact of training on productivity is the lukewarm attitude usually shown by top management towards ex-trainees and their ideas. Some of these superiors feel threatened by the new ideas introduced. Others consider sponsorship of workers on training programmes as favour bestowed on the individual workers, and the nominating boss expecting to be revered and thanked. They hardly consider the possibility of innovation as an important factor. Although it must be recognised that resistance to change is a general human weakness, it must nevertheless be borne in mind that on its willingness to experiment with new ideas lies the survival of the modern organisation. It is only in an environment of trust and security that the superior can cooperate with the subordinate who returns from training to promote change. Such an environment of trust can be promoted only where delegation of responsibility is accepted as a corporate policy.

A third factor responsible for the inability of ex-trainees to implement innovation is the attitude of their colleagues. This attitude was variously identified as jealousy or simply lack of interest. There is no doubt that an individual who returns from training is surrounded by a complex world, one in which he first must identify with his peer situation while at the same time showing that he is imbued with new ideas. The situation could lead to rejection by his peers and even alienation. Ikefel (1974), in analysing this situation, says it could even lead to 'explosion' and 'frustration'. The ex-trainee has to redefine his role in such a way that conflicts can be minimized.

Two suggestions can be made to offset this situation. Firstly, companies may have to adopt the principle of "team training", in which at least two or three employees are sponsored on training programmes at the same time. This will diffuse the extent of hostility of peer members and also avoid isolation of ex-trainees with new ideas. A second approach is for the superiors of ex-trainees to be highly supportive of the new ideas brought by the ex-trainees. The organisational support thus provided will serve to neutralize any form of hostility shown by the other colleagues.

The fourth factor was given as the purposefulness of the ex-trainee himself. His prior status with his colleagues, his ability as a worker and a leader, his

relationship with colleagues and the brilliance with which he introduces these ideas are all factors that will contribute towards the acceptance and adoption of the innovation.

The study noted the observations of some of the respondents that some workers, are selected for training as a favour or as a reward rather than on the basis of their competence or the needs of the organisation. In a situation such as this, isolation of the ex-trainee on his return is inevitable, and his ability to promote change will be in doubt.

The final difficulty identified was that some training programmes turn out to be irrelevant to the needs of the sponsoring organisations and to the specific tasks performed by trainees. As will be seen later, this perhaps is one reason why most Nigerian organisations resort to on-the-job training. Some of the respondents described the course they have attended as irrelevant and too theoretical, and the recommendations they made as too idealistic. To overcome this problem, it will be necessary for training institutions to identify the real needs of client organisation before planning programmes for them.

constraints that these organisations faced with regard to the training of their management staff, to identify the characteristics of organisations that found it difficult to provide training and to recommend measures that would enable them train more of their management staff.

Two hundred organisations were selected from a list of companies and organisations, which was provided by the Nigerian Employers Consultative Association through systematic random sampling procedures. The sample was made up of 47 government parastatals or corporations and 153 private companies and organisations situated in all parts of the country. A questionnaire was administered to the chief executives and training managers of these 200 organisations, as well as 200 randomly sampled individuals in the management cadre of these organisations. The 200 randomly sampled individuals in the management cadre of these organisations, must have attended or participated in one training programme or the other. The field work, which spanned a period of six months, also involved oral interview with some of these three levels of personnel, as well as examination of in-plant training programmes and observation of training sessions.

The data obtained from the field were analysed basically through the application of statistical tools such as the chi-square test of differences between categories and the analysis of variance.



## CHAPTER SIX

### SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

Ever since the late 1960s, management training has been recognised in Nigeria as the fulcrum on which the well-being of Nigeria depends. The review of the literature undeniably established management education as the most vital element in the attempt to develop the economy of the country. The over-view of management education also showed that especially twice the beginning of the 1970s, there have emerged concerted efforts by government and higher educational institutions to promote management education and training in the country. Despite this recognition of the role of management education in national development; and the emergence of several training programmes in the country, reports from such organisations as the Industrial Training Fund, as well as common knowledge, indicate that some Nigerian organisations are either unwilling to train their management staff or are reluctant to give management staff training their maximum support.

The purpose of this study therefore was to find out the extent to which Nigerian private and public organisations were willing to train their management staff. The objective therefore was to identify the

## 6.2 MAJOR FINDINGS

The following were the major findings of the study:

1. On the whole, most Nigerian organisations have accepted management training as a central philosophy on which to base their well-being and progress, and were found to show adequate support for the training of management personnel on fairly regular basis. On the average, the manager in each of the organisations studied underwent training at least once in every two and a half years.
2. Most Nigerian organisations gave priority to the training of production and marketing management staff, and saw the benefit of management training primarily in the light of increased productivity and profitability. Yet the literature suggested that the areas of managerial difficiency in Nigeria were essentially financial control, delegation of responsibilities, industrial relations and participative management. They were given rather low premium as managerial training goals, by most of the organisations studied.
3. The development of competencies to man

research and development functions at the managerial level was woefully being neglected by Nigerian organisations.

These competencies include training in statistics, record keeping, trend analysis, projections and use of computers.

4. Altruism hardly served as a motivating factor propelling Nigerian organisations to train their management staff, particularly within the private sector. The altruistic functions of training, such as better corporate image, need to build up management manpower for the country as a whole, and increased workers commitment were not major part of the principles that formed their willingness to train.
5. A significant minority of chief executives in Nigeria still believed that experience was more important than formal training in the development of the manager, although over-reliance on experience alone, is most likely to lead to stultified growth of the organisation.
6. Some executives also felt that training was usually not cost-effective, and that organisations hardly recovered the money

spent on the training of their staff. The counter argument deduced by the researcher was this; that the benefits of training could not be counted only in terms of increased corporate image and higher commitment of workers also.

7. Limitation in the transfer of learning also accounted for reluctance on the part of some organisations to train. The factors which led to limited application of new ideas gained were identified as rigid corporate structure, lack of support from supervisors, lack of cooperation from colleagues, incompetence and personal characteristics of ex-trainees and irrelevance of some training programmes.
8. Most Nigerian organisations preferred in-plant, on-the-job training to all other forms of management training. This was because it was considered to be less costly, more relevant and avoided the problems of replacement of individuals, who are out for training. Sole reliance on in-plant, on-the-job training however, could lead to stultified growth.

9. Government parastatals and corporations promoted management training to a higher degree than private organisations in Nigeria.
10. Similarly, relatively younger organisations, that is, those established after 1960, were found to promote management training more vigorously than older establishments.
11. Organisations situated in urban areas trained their management staff more often and regularly than those established in rural areas.
12. In the training schemes of most of the corporations, the junior management staff seemed to be neglected.

### 6.3 CONCLUSIONS

From the findings stated above, it can be concluded that although the concept of management training has now gained firm ground in the country, its practice needs to be improved if its potential is to be fully realised for economic growth in the country. The benefits of management training are still perceived in narrow and parochial terms rather than as a process contributing towards the overall development of the economy. Institutional forms of training are still looked upon

with suspicion, and management staff in the lower rung as well as other management functions, seem to be neglected. These are the most critical problems facing management education practice in the country; with regard to which, there must be change of attitude by the decision-makers, and recommendations be made and implemented, if management training is to contribute effectively towards national development.

#### 6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations, which were discussed in details in Chapter Six, and which flow out of the nature of management training in the organisations studied and their implications for the overall development of the Nigerian economy, can now be summarised.

1. There is need for national annual conference to be organised for all chief executives of private and public organisations on the various issues related to the national economy: such as; "Managing the Industrial Relations under a Depressed Economy" and, "Local Sourcing for Raw Materials". The objective must be to enable these chief executives to understand problems the national economy faces each year and the areas requiring attention.

Without such national orientations, these chief executives will continue to think in narrow, parochial terms. They will fail to appreciate the role which their individual organisations must play in efforts to develop the national economy. In the specific area of management training, the chief executives must be made aware of the critical areas of manpower development. Only such an understanding will allow them to imbibe management education as a legitimate aspect of overall development of manpower resources of the country, and enable them support training programmes whole-heartedly.

2. Emphasis on management education and training must be put equally on all aspects of management functions, including industrial relations administration or decision-making, financial control and work management. Short training programmes in these areas using in particular case studies and stimulative techniques must be organised regularly by Nigerian management training institutions

as an accelerated attempt to develop manpower in these critical areas.

3. Nigerian higher institutions must begin to develop specific courses leading to advanced degrees in Research and Development to fill this crucial gap in management competencies in the country.
4. There is the need to take the problems of transfer of learning by ex-trainees seriously. This was one of the conclusions of Mmuobuosi (1984). For transfer of learning to be effective, the selection of trainees must be done rigorously to ensure that only qualified staff are sponsored. When they return, there is need for their superior to give them every assistance in the implementation of ideas gained. Above all, delegation of responsibility should be actively pursued in all Nigerian organisations.
5. Chief executives of Nigerian organisations must consider institutional management training as important as in-plant, on-the-job training because they are the



source for new ideas for growth.

6. To develop relevant training programmes, management institutions should establish good link with Nigerian organisations and critically identify their needs before developing their programmes.
7. Management training facilities, especially those involving institutional and outside agencies, should be extended as much to middle and senior management personnel as to lower-level management personnel, for the latter play a critical role in the overall well-being of the organisation.
8. Concessions must be granted small organisations and those situated in rural areas to encourage them to train their management staff, since these small organisations and those situated in rural areas, find it difficult to train. These concessions should include free sponsorships and reduced rate of payment into the Industrial Training Fund.

#### 6.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The following suggestions can be made for the advancement of knowledge in the area of this study, namely,

management education and training in the Nigerian organisations:

1. The funding of management training in Nigeria.
2. The cost-benefit analysis of management training in Nigeria.
3. The relative cost effectiveness of non-formal and formal modes of training in Nigeria.
4. A comparison of the effectiveness of training in enhancing productivity in the Nigerian public and private enterprises.

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# A P P E N D I C E S

APPENDIX AQUESTIONNAIRE FOR CHIEF EXECUTIVES

This questionnaire seeks data on the efforts being made by Nigerian Organisations to promote management education and training, and the problems and barriers to the education and training of individual managers. The data being sought for may take more time to provide, but it is hoped that you will kindly spend some time to search through your files and answer the questions as honestly as possible. Your efforts will be very much appreciated and all informations given will be handled and treated in confidence.

SECTION A: DATA ON THE ORGANISATION

1. Name of Company or Organisation:.....  
.....
2. Address of Company or Organisation:.....  
.....
3. Type of Organisation: (Tick the ones that are applicable)
 

(a) Government/Parastatal	<input type="checkbox"/>
(b) Private	<input type="checkbox"/>
(c) Manufacturing	<input type="checkbox"/>
(d) Commerce	<input type="checkbox"/>
(e) Service, e.g. Banks, Advertising, etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. In what year was the Organisation established?  
.....
5. Number of management staff:
 

(a) Senior	<input type="checkbox"/>
(b) Middle-level	<input type="checkbox"/>
(c) Junior/Supervisory	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. Location of the Organisation: (Please indicate the town and State) .....

SECTION B: TRAINING POLICY

7. Does the Organisation have an officially stated objective regarding training?

- (a) Yes ☐
- (b) No ☐

8. If No, what would you consider from experience, to be the attitude of management towards the training of:

- (a) top-level management personnel?

- (i) most willing ☐
- (ii) willing ☐
- (iii) reluctant ☐
- (iv) not willing ☐

- (b) middle-level management personnel?

- (i) most willing ☐
- (ii) willing ☐
- (iii) reluctant ☐
- (iv) not willing ☐

- (c) junior/supervisory management personnel?

- (i) most willing ☐
- (ii) willing ☐
- (iii) reluctant ☐
- (iv) not willing ☐

9. If the Organisation has management development and training objectives, indicate which of the following under-listed that operate in your Company/Organisation.
- (a) To increase sales and profit ☐
  - (b) To ensure a better and more effective operation ☐
  - (c) Increase in labour productivity ☐
  - (d) Reduction in employee turnover ☐
  - (e) To promote corporate image of the company/organisation ☐
  - (f) To meet the requirement of the (government) indigenisation decree ☐
10. How willing, in your own estimation, is your top-management team, to train the management staff?  
(Please tick the one applicable)
- (a) Most willing ☐
  - (b) Willing ☐
  - (c) Reluctant ☐
11. Please indicate which of the following beliefs you hold true about training at the management level:
- (a) Most of the training programmes are a waste of time. ☐
  - (b) Experience is the best form of training ☐
  - (c) The money expended on training is usually too much and is forever lost to the Organisation. ☐
  - (d) Most of the training programme are divorced from the practical realities of the work situation. ☐
  - (e) Those who engage in training usually do not come back with any new ideas. ☐

- (f) Officers who are selected for training usually get the opportunity because they are favourite and not because they need training. ☐

12. Which of the following forms of training arrangements does your Organisation favour?

- (a) In-plant (i.e. on the premises) ☐
- (b) Short-term Institutional (i.e. training organised by an outside body) ☐
- (c) Overseas ☐
- (d) Study leave (i.e. long-term institutional) ☐
- (e) Others (please specify)
- (a) .....
- (b) .....
- (c) .....

13. Please indicate, which of these, in your view, are responsible for some Organisations reluctant or not willing to train their staff:

- (a) Administrators are born and not made ☐
- (b) Experience is the teacher ☐
- (d) There is in most Organisations, shortage of staff and replacement of trainees is difficult. ☐
- (e) Training is usually not able to produce significant changes in the productivity of workers. ☐
- (f) Top-level management personnel are skeptical about the results of training. ☐

14. Which of the following types of training exist in your Organisation:

- (a) Career development training programmes, i.e. a system by which individuals are moved round so that they can master all aspects of the job. ☐

- (b) On-the-job training scheme, i.e. a system by which junior officers are supervised directly, and instructed by more senior workers. ☐
- (c) Departmental training programme, i.e. a systematic formal or non-formal periodical training sessions. ☐
- (d) Institutional training, i.e. studying arrangement or conventional system by which officers enter specific institutions for the purpose of learning. ☐

15. Which of the following would you say is true?

- (a) People who return from training (re-entrants) become usually frustrated because of lack of opportunities, i.e. tools, to implement their new ideas. ☐
- (b) People who return from training only look forward to what benefit they can get. ☐
- (c) Most colleges of those who receive training become jealous and unco-operative. ☐
- (d) Management looks on training as record for head-workers or favourites other than as a progress for improving on the out-put of the organisation. ☐
- (e) Rigid Organisational rules, procedures and structures, prevent those who received training from putting their new ideas into practice. ☐

16. Which of the following categories of staff do you think need training most in your Organisation?

- (a) Administrative/Personnel Managers ☐
- (b) Line (Supervisors) Managers ☐
- (c) Technical/Accounting Managers ☐
- (d) Production/Operations/Branch Managers ☐
- (e) Marketing Managers ☐

17. For the future expansion and efficient performance of your Organisation, please indicate any three areas where your Organisation needs training most.

- (a) Administrative/Personnel Managers ☐
- (b) Line (Supervisors) Managers ☐
- (c) Technical (Officers) Managers ☐
- (d) Financial/Accounting Managers ☐
- (e) Production/Operations/Branch Managers ☐
- (f) Marketing Managers ☐



APPENDIX BQUESTIONNAIRE FOR TRAINING MANAGERS

This questionnaire seeks data on the efforts being made by Nigerian Organisations to promote management education and training, and the problems and barriers to the education and training of individual managers. The data being sought for may take more time to provide, but it is hoped that you will kindly spend some time to search through your files and answer the questions as honestly as possible. Your efforts will be very much appreciated and all informations given will be handled and treated in confidence.

SECTION A: DATA ON THE ORGANISATION

1. Name of the Company or Organisation: .....  
.....
2. Address of the Company or Organisation: .....  
.....
3. Type of Organisation: (Tick the ones that are applicable)
 

(a) Government/Parastatal	<input type="checkbox"/>
(b) Private	<input type="checkbox"/>
(c) Manufacturing	<input type="checkbox"/>
(d) Commerce	<input type="checkbox"/>
(e) Service (e.g. Banks, Advertising, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. In what year was the Organisation established? .....  
.....
5. Number of employees - (management). (Please tick the one applicable in each sub-section).

## (i) Senior-level management staff:

Number

- (a) 4 - 6
- (b) 7 - 10
- (c) 11 - 15
- (d) 16 - 20
- (e) 21 and above

## (ii) Middle-level management staff

Number

- (a) 10 - 20
- (b) 21 - 30
- (c) 31 - 40
- (d) 41 - 50
- (e) 51 and above

## (iii) Junior/Supervisor management staff

Number

- (a) 10 - 20
- (b) 21 - 30
- (c) 31 - 40
- (d) 41 - 50
- (e) 51 and above

## 6. Location of the Organisation

- (a) Urban
- (b) Semi-urban

SECTION B: THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT

7. Does the Organisation have a separate training department?
- (a) Yes ☐
- (b) No ☐
8. If No, of what section is training a part?
- (a) Personnel ☐
- (b) Production ☐
- (c) Finance/Accounts ☐
- (d) Marketing ☐
- (e) Any other ☐
9. If yes, does the training department have any other responsibilities besides training functions?
- (a) Yes ☐
- (b) No ☐
10. What is your official title?
- (a) Training Manager ☐
- (b) Training Officer ☐
- (c) Manpower Development Management ☐
- (d) Any other ☐
11. How many workers are employed in your office?
- (a) 1 - 2 ☐
- (b) 3 - 5 ☐
- (c) 6 - 8 ☐
- (d) 9 - 11 ☐

(e) 12 - 15 ☐(f) 16 - 20 ☐(g) 20 and above ☐

12. Please state all your educational and professional qualifications: .....

.....

.....

.....

.....

13. What experiences and qualifications do you think a training manager needs to be able to function effectively?

(a) Education ☐(b) Experience ☐(c) Profession ☐

14. What are the officially-stated responsibility of your office?

(a) .....

(b) .....

(c) .....

(d) .....

SECTION C: TRAINING OBJECTIVES

15. Does the Organisation have an officially-stated objectives regarding training?

(a) Yes

☐

(b) No

☐

16. If No, what would you consider from experience to be the attitude of management towards the training of:

(i) Top-level management staff?

(a) Most willing

☐

(b) Willing

☐

(c) Not Willing

☐

(d) Reluctant

☐

(ii) Middle-level management staff?

(a) Most willing

☐

(b) Willing

☐

(c) Reluctant

☐

(d) Not willing

☐

(iii) Junior/Supervisory management staff?

(a) Most willing

☐

(b) Willing

☐

(c) Reluctant

☐

(d) Not willing

☐

17. If Yes, indicate which of the following under-listed objectives that operate in your Organisation.

- (a) To increase sales and profit ☐
- (b) To ensure a better and more effective operation. ☐
- (c) Increase in labour productivity ☐
- (d) Reduction in employee turnover ☐
- (e) To promote corporate image of the organisation. ☐
- (f) To meet the requirement of the government indigenisation decree ☐

18. How willing, in your estimation, is top management to train the management staff?

- (a) Most willing ☐
- (b) Willing ☐
- (c) Reluctant ☐

19. Please show how many management and supervisory staff were trained in your Organisation, and supply other details required by the table below for each group of staff trained, between 1975 and 1985.

Year	Number	Amount Expended
1975		
1976		
1977		
1978		
1979		

Year	Number	Amount Expended
1980		
1981		
1982		
1983		
1984		

20. Please indicate which of the following beliefs you hold true about training at the management level:

- (a) Most of the training programmes are a waste of time. ☐
- (b) Experience is the best form of training. ☐
- (c) The money expended on training is usually too much and is forever lost to the organisation. ☐
- (d) Most of the training programme are divorced from the practical realities of the work situation. ☐
- (e) Those who are selected for training usually get the opportunity because they are favourites and because they need training. ☐

21. Which of the following forms of training arrangements does your Organisation favour?

- (a) In-plant, i.e. on the premises. ☐
- (b) Short-term Institutional (i.e. training organised by an outside body). ☐

- (c) Overseas ☐
- (d) Study leave (i.e. long-term institutional) ☐
- (e) Others (please specify) .....  
.....


22. Please indicate, which of these, in your view, are responsible for why Organisations are not willing to train their staff:


- (a) Administrators are born and not made ☐
- (b) Experience is the best teacher ☐
- (c) Training is too expensive ☐
- (d) There is in most Organisations, shortage of staff and replacement of trainers is difficult. ☐
- (e) Training is usually not able to produce significant changes in the productivity of workers. ☐
- (f) Top-management personnel are skeptical about the results of training. ☐

23. Which of the following types of training exist in your Organisation?


- (a) Career development training programme, i.e. a system by which individuals are moved round so that they can master all aspects of the job. ☐
- (b) On-the-job training scheme, i.e. a system by which junior officers are supervised directly, and instructed by more senior workers. ☐





(c) Departmental training programme, i.e. a systematic formal or non-formal periodic training session. 


(d) Institutional training, i.e. studying arrangement or conventional system by which officers enter specific institutions for the purpose of learning. 


24. Which of the following would you say is true?

(a) People who return from training (re-entrants) become usually frustrated because of lack of opportunities to implement their new ideas. 

(b) People who return from training only look forward to what benefit they can get. 

(c) Most colleagues of those who receive training become jealous and unco-operative. 

(d) Management looks on training as record for head-workers or favourites other than as a progress for improving on out-put of the Organisation. 

(e) Rigid Organisational rules, procedures and structures prevent those who receive training from putting their new ideas into practice. 

25. Which of the following categories of staff do you think need training most in your Organisation?

- (a) Administrative/Personnel Managers ☐
- (b) Technical (Officers) Managers ☐
- (c) Financial/Accounting Managers ☐
- (d) Production Managers ☐
- (e) Marketing Managers ☐

SECTION D: SELECTION PROCESS

26. From your experience, which of the following categories of personnel is management most willing to train?

- (a) Administrative/Personnel Managers ☐
- (b) Technical (Officers) Managers ☐
- (c) Financial/Accounting Managers ☐
- (d) Production Managers ☐

27. Which of the following types of training is management most willing to expend money on?

- (a) Induction courses ☐
- (b) Continuous professional development (i.e. planned training throughout each workers tenure with the Organisation. ☐
- (c) In-service-training for acquirement of new skills, for mastering new processes, for understanding new policies, etc. ☐

28. Who has the final say in who should receive training?

- (a) The Chief Executive ☐
- (b) The Training Manager ☐
- (c) The immediate supervisor/Line Manager ☐
- (d) A Panel, i.e. a team comprising (a),  
(b) and (c) ☐

29. Most people who receive training are unable to implement the ideas they received during training. (Please indicate any four of the following under-listed reasons for this situation):

- (a) Most of what they learnt from the training are divorced from the practical realities of the work situation. ☐
- (b) Since top-level management personnel are skeptical about the results of training most managers who return from training are not given the chance and cooperation needed for them to implement what they learnt ☐
- (c) The line-managers, i.e. the immediate bosses cannot allow the re-entrants to operate the new ideas. ☐
- (d) Most of the managers who return from training have no new ideas to implement. ☐

30. Which of the following types of enterprises are not willing to train their staff?

(a) Wholly Government owned ☐

(b) Mixed ownership (i.e. Government and Public) ☐

(c) Multi-nationals ☐

(d) Privately (Nigerian) owned ☐

(e) Most colleagues of those who receive training become jealous, envious and uncooperative. ☐

(f) Rigid Organisational rules, procedures and structures prevent those who received training from putting their new ideas into practice. ☐

31. Can you please give reasons for the observation you have made in item 30?

(a) .....

(b) .....

(c) .....

32. Finally, do you experience any difficulties in convincing management:

(a) to allocate funds for training?

(i) Yes ☐

(ii) No ☐

(b) to approve the nomination of individuals  
you consider suitable for specific  
training programmes?

(i) Yes

☐

(ii) No

☐

33. If Yes, in any of the above items, what are the  
reasons?

(a) .....

(b) .....

(c) .....

APPENDIX CQUESTIONNAIRE FOR RECEPIENTS OF PREVIOUS TRAINING

This questionnaire seeks data on the efforts being made by Nigerian Organisations to promote management education and training, and the problems and barriers the education and training of individual managers. The data being sought for may take more time to provide, but it is hoped that you will kindly spend some time to search through your files and answer the questions as honestly as possible. Your efforts will be very much appreciated and all informations given will be handled and treated in confidence.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND DATA

1. Name of Company or Organisation: .....  
.....
2. Address of Company or Organisation: .....  
.....
3. Age:
4. Sex: 
  - (a) Male
  - (b) Female
5. How many years have you worked with your present company?
6. Which section do you work? 
  - (a) Administrative/Personnel
  - (b) Production/Technical/Operation Branch

(c) Accounts/Finance ☐(d) Marketing ☐

7. Have you worked in any other section besides your present department? (Please tick whichever one applicable)

(a) Yes ☐(b) No ☐

8. If Yes, list the sections/departments, the position you held and the years you spent and salary.

	Department	Position	Year(s)	Salary
(a)				
(b)				
(c)				
(d)				
(e)				

9. With what educational and professional qualifications did you start your working life?

(a) Education: .....

.....

(b) Professional: .....

.....

10. Please state the educational and professional qualifications with which you entered your present employment if different from above?

(a) Educational: .....

.....

(b) Professional: .....

.....

11. Please state your present educational and professional qualifications if different from 9 or 10 above.

(a) Educational: .....

.....

(b) Professional: .....

.....

12. Was any of these qualifications obtained through training programmes sponsored by the following:

(a) Your past employer: .....

(i) Name and Address of Company: .....

.....

.....

(b)

Type of Courses	Year	Duration	Qualifi- cation obtained



(c) Your present employer

(i) Name and Address of Company: .....

.....

.....

(ii)

Type of Course	Date	Duration	Qualifi- cation obtained

SECTION B: NATURE AND VALUE OF PREVIOUS TRAINING

13. Have you ever received any form of training since being employed in your present company or organisation?

(a) Yes

☐

(b) No

☐

14. If Yes, what type of training was it?

(a) Induction

☐

(b) In-service (i.e. to obtain new knowledge, to learn about new skills, etc.)

☐

(c) As part of general professional development scheme (e.g. study leave to attend conferences, institution, etc.)

☐

15. How long ago did you last go for training?

(a) One year

☐

- (b) Two years ☐
  - (c) Three years ☐
  - (d) Four years ☐
  - (e) Five years and above ☐
16. Which of the following statements would you say are true regarding the last training you participated in?
- (a) Most of the discussions were theoretical ☐
  - (b) Most of the suggestions or new skills were very useful, but the company does not have facilities for implementing them. ☐
  - (c) Most of the suggestions were later implemented in my work place, and they have raised productivity. ☐
  - (d) I could have implemented some of the suggestions, but I was not encouraged to do so on my return. ☐
17. On the whole, most managers who return from training are accused of not implementing what they learned. Indicate three factors that prevent them from doing so, as suggested below:
- (a) Most of what they learnt from the training are divorced from the practical realities of the work situation. ☐
  - (b) Since top-level management personnel are skeptical about the results of training most managers who return from training are not given the chance and co-operation needed for them to implement what they learned. ☐
  - (c) The line-managers, i.e. the immediate bosses cannot allow the re-entrants to operate the new ideas. ☐

- (d) Most of the managers who return from training, have no new ideas to implement. ☐
- (e) Most colleagues of those who receive training become jealous, envious and unco-operative. ☐
- (f) Rigid Organisational rules, procedures and structures prevent those who received training from putting their new ideas into practice. ☐

SECTION C: CORPORATE TRAINING OBJECTIVES

18. On the whole, how would you assess the attitude of management of your organisation towards training of the management staff?

- (a) Most supportive ☐
- (b) Supportive ☐
- (c) Lukewarm ☐
- (d) Not interested ☐
- (e) Poor ☐

APPENDIX D**INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FUND**

Lagos Area Office: OLORUNFUNMI STREET, (BEHIND PHILLIPS) OREGUN IKEJA,  
P.M.B. 12660, LAGOS. TEL: 933784, 964428, 964733, 933776



Date:.....

Dear Sir,

APPROVAL FOR TRAINING ACTIVITIES AND TRAINING PERSONNEL

As you are all aware approval of employers training plans and programmes is one of the primary functions of the I.T.F. It is equally one of the important conditions to be met before employers can get adequate reimbursement from the Fund for their training expenses.

The aim of this exercise is partly to ensure that the trainings carried out are in line with the employers identified training needs and the nation's Manpower Training and Development Policy in general.

In the realisation of this objective contributing employers are required to submit their training programmes to the Fund for approval by completing our Forms 6A at least 3 weeks before commencement of such programmes.

But unfortunately and in recent times this clause of the Fund's training policy has not been adhered to. A large number of contributing employers have continued to submit late programmes for approval. In other words some employers have formed the habit of applying for approval after the training programmes have been implemented. This is wrong; the situation should have been the other way round.

The Fund has been magnanimous in giving consideration to some of these late programmes.

However from the date of this circular letter any late application received shall be rejected outright. Therefore



# INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FUND

Lagos Area Office: OLORUNFUNMI STREET, (BEHIND PHILLIPS) OREGUN, IKEJA  
P.M.B. 12800, LAGOS. TEL: 933784, 964428, 964793, 964155.

Your Ref: .....



Our Ref: .....

Date: .....

...../2.

employers are hereby advised to submit their programmes for approval at least 3 weeks before commencement of such programmes.

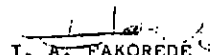
Employers are equally advised to deliver their applications by hand or through other fast means in order to avoid lateness.

In the same vein approval of company's Training Personnel is mandatory and renewable on yearly basis. Without satisfying this basic condition on "approval of Training Programmes" there is no way an employer can get reimbursed for its training expenses.

Finally we use this medium to appeal to those contributing employers that are yet to submit their claims for 1987 training year to do so immediately before they become time-barred.

You are assured of our co-operation.

Yours faithfully  
INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FUND

  
I. A. FAKOREDE  
Head, Reimbursement & Grants Div.  
for: Area Officer

N B: Attached is a copy of our Form 6A which can be reproduced for your use.

tad\*

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FUND

# APPLICATION FOR APPROVAL OF TRAINING MANAGERS/OFFICERS/INSTRUCTORS

TR FORM 2A/

NAME OF COMPANY:

ADDRESS:

ITF REG. NO.

Note: All applications for Approval of Training Personnel must be made in Triplicate on the prescribed TR Form 2A/

S/N	TRAINING MANAGERS/ OFFICERS/INSTRUCTORS NAMES	EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION AND YEAR	NATIONALITY	JOB TITLE DESIGNATION	DATE APPOINTED AS TRG PERSONNEL	SALARY PER ANNUUM	TRG. YEAR.	FOR ITF OFFICE USE ONLY REMARKS

APPROVED BY:

COMPANY'S AUTHORIZED REPRESENTATIVE:

Name: ..... Designation: .....

Signature & Date: .....

Official Stamp

tad•

NAME:

Sign.

Date:

OFFICIAL STAMP

**APPLICATION FOR APPROVAL OF LOCAL/OVERSEAS TRAINING PROGRAMMES/COURSES**

To be completed in triplicates

NAME OF COMPANY: \_\_\_\_\_ ADDRESS: \_\_\_\_\_ ITF NO: \_\_\_\_\_

Course Title: ----- (Programme or Brochure must be attached estimated cost inclusive. Organisers: -----

duration: ----- From: ----- To ----- Venue: -----

[illegible]

COMPANY'S REPRESENTATIVE:

DESIGN: -----

APPROVED ITF OFFICIAL:

NAME: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: -----

NAME: -----

SIGNATURE: -----

SIGN: \_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX E



## INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FUND

Lagos Area Office: OLORUNFEMI STREET, (BEHIND PHILLIPS) OREGUN, IKEJA  
P.M.B. 12660, LAGOS. TEL: 933784, 954428, 954703, 954155.

Your Ref: .....



Our Ref: .....

Date: .....

Ref: ITF/LAO/S/TRAIN.68

2nd August, 1988

Dear Sir,

8TH ANNUAL NATIONAL TRAINING CONFERENCE OF THE ITF

The Industrial Training Fund (ITF) has scheduled its 8th Annual National Training Conference as from the 1st to 4th of November, 1988. The theme of this year's Conference is "Developing Effective Local Technology and Maintenance Culture in Nigeria".

We believe that you/your organisation will benefit from the Conference and accordingly, you are hereby formally invited to attend the Conference. The Conference will attract notable Guest Speakers from Nigeria and abroad.

Attached to this letter is a copy of the nomination form and Conference Brochure for your registration and necessary information. In the case of more than one applicant, a photocopy of the nomination form can be used to apply. Please note that priority registration will be given to early paid-up applicants.

Yours faithfully,  
INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FUND

*K. T. Omisore*

K. T. OMISORE (MRS)  
for: Director-General



THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF NIGERIA  
INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FUND, ITF

1988 ANNUAL NATIONAL TRAINING CONFERENCE OF  
THE INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FUND, ITF

The Industrial Training Fund, (ITF), hereby announces its 8th Annual National Training Conference which will take place in Kano City, the Kano State Capital, from Tuesday 1st to Friday 4th November, 1988. The details about the Conference are as given below:-

1. CONFERENCE THEME:

"DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE LOCAL TECHNOLOGY AND MAINTENANCE CULTURE IN NIGERIA."

2. CONFERENCE OBJECTIVES:

- To assess the problems and prospects of national self reliance in technology
- To identify appropriate policies and strategies to maximize utilization of available local resources for technological development
- To promote the development of local technology and adaptation of imported ones
- To rationalise the methodology for technology transfer
- To mobilise experts as well as committed citizens towards creativity and innovation
- To encourage the acquisition of relevant maintenance skills in the public and private sectors of the economy
- To inculcate the right attitude to maintenance.

3. CONFERENCE PAPERS AND GUEST SPEAKERS

- i. The Impact of Local Energy Resources on Nigeria's Technological Development. By Professor Chimere: Ikoku, Vice Chancellor, University of Nigeria, Nsukka.
- ii. The Role of the Entrepreneur in the Development of Relevant Technology. By Engineer A. O. Faluyi - Chairman, Council of Registered Engineers of Nigeria (COREN).

- 2 -

- iii. The impact of Iron and Steel Industry in the Development of Local Technology. By Alhaji Mogaji Inuwa, General Manager, Ajaokuta Steel Company.
- iv. The Role of Manpower Training in the Development of Effective Local Technology and Maintenance Culture in Nigeria, By Professor U. Mobisson, Director, Industrial Development Centre, Anambra State University of Technology, Enugu.
- v. The Impact of Global changes in Technology on the Effective Maintenance of Machinery and Infrastructural Facilities in Nigeria, By Mr. A.D.O. Makun, Director of Production, Metal Box Nigeria Limited, Lagos.
- vi. Strategies for the Development of Effective Maintenance Culture in Nigerian Society, By Dr. Jerry Sana, Chairman, Directorate of Mass Mobilisation for Social and Economic Recovery (MAMSER).
- vii. The Process of Technology Transfer, the Brazilian and Korean Experience. Papers to be presented by experts from Brazil and Korea.
- 4. DATE: 4 DAYS - Tuesday 1st to Friday 4th November, 1988
- 5. VENUE: Central Hotel Kano, Kano State.
- 6. CONFERENCE PARTICIPANTS:

The ITF specially recommends the following to participate in the Conference:

- Management Executives who have responsibility for Manpower Planning and Human Resources Development matters in their organisations
- Officials of Government Ministries and Parastatals responsible for education, training, Labour policies, Manpower planning and Industrial Development
- Line managers and other management personnel in Industry and Commerce who are concerned with training, particularly in skilled trades
- Training and Manpower Development Consultants
- Interested members of the public who desire exposure to issues relating to manpower training and technological advancement in Nigeria.

- 3 -

- 3 -

7. GUEST OF HONOUR:

The Conference will be declared open by the Military Governor of Kano State - Col. Idris Garba.

8. KEYNOTE ADDRESS

A Keynote address on the theme will be delivered by the Honourable Minister for Industry - Lt. General Alani Akinrinade (Rtd).

9. CONFERENCE CHAIRMAN:

Dr. Mike Onolayole, Chairman Chemical and Allied Products Limited (CAPL) and former Chairman/Chief Executive of Lever Brothers Nigeria Limited.

10. CONFERENCE FEE: ₦300.00 per participant. The fee covers Conference documents, snacks, lunches and excursion to places of Technological and Historical significance in the ancient city of Kano only. Payment could be made either in advance, in Cash, Certified Cheques or Bank Draft at the nearest office of the Industrial Training Fund or paid during registration at the Conference Centre.

11. METHOD OF REGISTRATION:

Interested participants should complete and return the attached registration form to the ITF, Area Office nearest to them. Where more than one participant will be attending from your organisation/company, please make a photocopy of the said form and complete accordingly.

12. HOTEL ACCOMMODATION

In addition to the accommodation available at the Conference Venue, Central Hotel Kano other hotels abound in Kano City. Hotel and transportation expenses will be borne by participants. ITF, will book accommodation for any participant who requests us to do so, provided such information gets to us in good time.

13. ADVERTISEMENT IN THE CONFERENCE PROGRAMME

Corporate Bodies are invited to advertise their products and/or services in the Conference programme. The charges are as follows:

- 4 -

- Back Cover - N350.00
- Full Page - N250.00
- Half Page - N150.00

All adverts should be prepaid and to reach us not later than 31st August, 1988.

14. CONFERENCE ENQUIRIES:

Further enquiries or requests about the Conference should be directed to:

The Area Officer  
Industrial Training Fund  
1, Olorunfunmi Street  
Off Oregun Road  
(Behind Philip's Factory)  
Ojota  
Ikeja.

Tel. 964428; 964733

*K. T. Omisore*

K. T. OMISORE (MRS)  
for: Director-General

FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF NIGERIA  
INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FUND (ITF)  
8TH ANNUAL NATIONAL TRAINING CONFERENCE

REGISTRATION FORM

VENUE: CENTRAL HOTEL, KANO CITY

DATE: 1ST - 4TH NOVEMBER, 1988

.....  
 (SURNAME) (FIRST NAME) (MIDDLE NAME)

.....  
 ORGANIZATION/COMPANY

.....  
 (POSITION)

.....  
 MAILING ADDRESS

\_\_\_\_\_  
 (FOR ITF OFFICIAL USE)

The above named Conference candidate has paid the stipulated Three hundred Naira (N300.00) registration fee and is hereby duly registered to attend the Conference as scheduled.

NAME OF ITF OFFICER: .....

AREA OFFICE: .....

SIGNATURE: ..... DATE: .....

APPENDIX F

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FUND  
8TH FLOOR, FEDERAL SECRETARIAT,  
P.M.B. 2199  
JOS, PLATEAU STATE.

TR FORM 1

TRAINING YEAR: .....

COMPANY I.T.F. REGISTRATION NO.: .....

COMPANY'S NAME .....

COMPANY'S LOCATION AND ADDRESS: .....

.....

.....

.....

.....

TELEPHONE NO. ....

**NOTE: ALL TRAINING CLAIMS, MUST BE SUBMITTED ON OR BEFORE 30TH JUNE AFTER EACH TRAINING YEAR (JANUARY - DECEMBER).**



TR FORM 2



## TRAINING MANAGERS/OFFICERS/INSTRUCTORS

	NAME(S) OF OFFICER(S)	DATE OF APPOINTMENT (As Training Officer)	DESIGNATION	SALARY P.A.
1.	.....	.....	.....	.....
2.	.....	.....	.....	.....
3.	.....	.....	.....	.....
4.	.....	.....	.....	.....
5.	.....	.....	.....	.....

STATE TOTAL NUMBER OF TRAINING OFFICERS/INSTRUCTORS/MANAGERS ENGAGED, AND  
ATTACH LIST IF MORE THAN FIVE

## LIST SEQUESTIALLY AREAS OF TRAINING EMPHASIS FOR THE YEAR

EMPHASIS NO	AREAS OF TRAINING EMPHASIS	NUMBER IN OCCUPATIONAL AREA	NUMBER TRAINED	% TRAINED

## CONDITIONS FOR AWARD

1. Training Manager/Instructor must be the one employed full-time and responsible for coordination planning and control of training activities.
2. Training Manager/Instructor must be a trained trainer.
3. Training Managers who are not in employment for a full training year will be reimbursed on pro-rata basis.

ITF

TR FORM 2

**FOR ITF OFFICIAL USE ONLY****NOTES FOR THE GUIDANCE OF PROCESSING OFFICER**

1. It is recommended that names of officers employed or assigned as Training Instructor/Manager responsible for coordinating and control of training activities should be forwarded to the Industrial Training Fund for official recognition, annually.
2. Award whichever is greater between 6% of levy paid or 50% of Training Manager's/Training Officer's salary as provided in section 4.
3. There must be enough evidence that the approved Training Manager has carried out considerable training activities within his organisation during the training year.

**REASONS FOR NOT MEETING SET CONDITIONS***This Section should be completed as appropriate*

Tick (✓) as appropriate

1. Senior member of staff is responsible for training activities
2. Assigned Manager suitable and qualified to co-ordinate training
3. Other reasons (if any)

Yes	No
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**4. SCALE OF CALCULATIONS FOR TRAINING MANAGER'S AWARD***The Fund will award whichever is greater as provided in section (a) and (b) below:*

(a) % of Employee Trained	% Award
1% — 5%	10% of Salary of the Training Manager
6% — 10%	20% of Salary of the Training Manager
11% — 14%	35% of Salary of the Training Manager
15% and above	50% of Salary of the Training Manager

OR

(b) % of Employees Trained	% of 6% Levy Award
1% — 5%	20% of 6% of levy
6% — 10%	40% of 6% of levy
11% — 14%	70% of 6% of levy
15% and above	100% of 6% of levy

**5. IMPLEMENTATION CHECK**Total No. of Employees  
in the Company

No. Trained

Percentage (%)  
TrainedEmployers' Claim  
for the training ManagersITF (%) Percentage  
Award

Amount Awarded

**6. PROCESSING OFFICER AT AREA OFFICE**

NAME: ..... SIGNATURE: ..... DATE: .....

**7. CROSS-CHECKED AT HEADQUARTERS**

NAME: ..... SIGNATURE: ..... DATE: .....

**8. AUDIT AUTHORIZATION**

NAME: ..... SIGNATURE: ..... DATE: .....



**MANAGEMENT/PROFESSIONALS/SENIOR TECHNOLOGISTS/SPECIALISTS**

TR FORM 3

[illegible]

\* Add photocopies of this page where continuation is required.

ITF

TR FORM 3

**CONDITIONS FOR AWARD**

1. Training plans and/or programmes must have been approved by Industrial Training Fund.
2. Full Training must have been implemented in line with the approved programmes.

**FOR ITF OFFICIAL USE ONLY****NOTES FOR THE GUIDANCE OF ITF PROCESSING OFFICER**

Examine details of Training activities to ensure that conditions (1) & (2) have been fulfilled so that any duplication can be deleted.

**REASONS FOR NOT MEETING SET CONDITIONS**

This section may be completed if the above conditions are already fulfilled.

Tick ( ) as appropriate:

Yes

No

1. Was Training Programme Approved?
2. Was approved Training Programme fully implemented?
3. Other reasons (if any)

--	--

--	--

**4. SCALE OF CALCULATIONS**  
**% OF EMPLOYEES TRAINED**

1%	5%	.....	.....	.....
6%	10%	.....	.....	.....
11%	14%	.....	.....	.....
15% and above		.....	.....	.....

**% AWARD ACCORDING TO AREAS OF**  
**TRAINING EMPHASIS**

First	Second	Third	Fourth
8	6	5	2
12	10	8	4
15	12	10	5
18	15	12	6

**5. IMPLEMENTATION CHECK**Total No. of Emp.  
in this Group

No. Trained

Percentage (%)  
Trained

Emphasis No.





Employers' Claim

ITF (%) Percentage

Award

Amount Awarded



**6. PROCESSING OFFICER AT AREA OFFICE**

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....

**7. CROSS-CHECKED AT HEADQUARTERS BY**

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....

**8. AUDIT AUTHORIZATION**

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date Stamped: .....



ITF

CONDITIONS FOR AWARD

TR FORM 4

1. Training Plans/and or programmes must have been approved by the Industrial Training Fund.
2. Full Training must have been implemented in line with the approved programmes

FOR ITF OFFICIAL USE ONLYNOTES FOR GUIDANCE OF ITF PROCESSING OFFICER

Examine details of training activities to ensure that condition (1) and (2) have been fulfilled

REASON FOR NOT MEETING THE SET CONDITIONS:

Tick (✓) appropriate:

1. Was Training Programme Approved?

Yes

No

2. Was Approved Training Programme Fully Implemented?

3. Other Reason (if any)

4. SCALE OF CALCULATIONS  
% OF EMPLOYEES TRAINING:

1%	5%	....	....	....
6%	10%	....	....	....
11%	14%	....	....	....
15% and above		....	....	....

% AWARD ACCORDING TO AREAS OF TRAINING EMPHASIS

First	Second	Third	Fourth
8	6	5	2
12	10	8	4
15	12	10	5
18	15	12	6

5. IMPLEMENTATION CHECK:Total No. of Emp.  
in this Group

No. Trained

Percentage (%)  
Trained

Emphasis No.

Employers' Claim

ITF (%) Percentage

Award

Amount Awarded

6. PROCESSING OFFICER AT AREA OFFICE:

Name: .....

Signature: .....

Date: .....

7. CROSS-CHECKED AT HEADQUARTERS BY:

Name: .....

Signature: .....

Date: .....

8. AUDIT AUTHORIZATION

Name: .....

Signature: .....

Date Stamped .....



## TR FORM 5

\* Add photostat copies of this page where continuation is required.

**TOTAL COST**

ITF

TR FORM 5

**CONDITIONS FOR AWARD**

1. Training plans and/or programmes must have been approved by Industrial Training Fund.
2. Full Training must have been implemented in line with the approved programmes.

**FOR ITF OFFICIAL USE ONLY****NOTES FOR THE GUIDANCE OF ITF PROCESSING OFFICER**

Examine details of Training activities to ensure that conditions (1) &amp; (2) have been fulfilled.

**REASONS FOR NOT MEETING SET CONDITIONS**

This section may be completed if the above conditions are already fulfilled.

Tick ( ) as appropriate:

Yes No

1. Was Training Programme Approved? ☐ ☐
2. Was approved Training Programme fully implemented? ☐ ☐
3. Other reasons (if any) ☐ ☐

**4. SCALE OF CALCULATIONS**  
**% OF EMPLOYEES TRAINING:**

1%	5%	.....	.....	.....
6%	10%	.....	.....	.....
11%	14%	.....	.....	.....
15% and above		.....	.....	.....

**% AWARD ACCORDING TO AREAS OF**  
**TRAINING EMPHASIS**

First	Second	Third	Fourth
8	6	5	2
12	10	8	4
15	12	10	5
18	15	12	6

**5. IMPLEMENTATION CHECK:**Total No. of Emp.  
in this Group

No. Trained

Percentage (%)  
Award

Emphasis No.

Employers' Claim

ITF (%) Percentage  
Award

Amount Awarded

**6. PROCESSING OFFICER AT AREA OFFICE**

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....

**7. CROSS-CHECKED AT HEADQUARTERS BY**

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....

**8. AUDIT AUTHORIZATION**

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date Stamped: .....



## SAFETY TRAINING

TR FORM 6

S/NO	NAME OF TRAINEE	JOB TITLE	COURSE TITLE	COURSE ORGANIZER	COURSE VENUE	COURSE DURATION	ITF APPROVAL REFERENCE	TRAINING COST

• Add photostat copies of this page where continuation is required.

TOTAL COST

• Add photostat copies of this page where continuation is required.

ITF

TR FORM 6

**CONDITIONS FOR AWARD**

1. Training Plans and/or Programmes must be approved by Industrial Training Fund.
2. Full Training must have been implemented in line with the approved programmes.

**FOR ITF OFFICIAL USE ONLY****NOTES FOR THE GUIDANCE OF ITF PROCESSING OFFICER**

Examine details of Training activities to ensure that conditions (1) and (2) have been fulfilled.

**REASONS FOR NOT MEETING THE SET CONDITIONS:**

This section may not be completed if the above conditions are already fulfilled. Tick (✓) as appropriate

- |  | Yes                      | No                       |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Was Training Programme Approved?  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Was Approved Training Programme Fully Implemented?  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Were there adequate provisions for safety Training facilities and equipment?                  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Were there sufficient instructional staff to develop and implement safety Training programme? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Other Reasons (if any)  |                          |                          |

**6. SCALE OF CALCULATIONS**  
**% OF EMPLOYEES TRAINED:**
**% AWARD**

1%	2%	...	...	...	...	...	...	1%
8%	14%	...	...	...	...	...	...	2%
15% and above	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3%

**7. IMPLEMENTATION CHECK:**

Total No. of Emp in this Group	No Trained	Percentage(%)Trained	Emphasis No.
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Employers' Claim	ITF Percentage (%) Award	Amount Awarded	
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	

**8. PROCESSING OFFICER AT AREA OFFICE:**

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....

**9. CROSS-CHECKED AT HEADQUARTERS BY:**

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....

**10. AUDIT AUTHORIZATION:**

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date Stamped: .....





ITF

REVELANT EDUCATION/CORRESPONDENCE COURSES

TR FORM 7

S/NO	NAME OF TRAINEE	JOB TITLE	COURSE TITLE	COURSE ORGANIZER	COURSE VENUE	COURSE DURATION	ITF APPROVAL REFERENCE	TRAINING COST

\* Add photocopies of this page where continuation is required.

TOTAL COST

\* Add photocopies of this page where continuation is required.

**TOTAL COST**

ITF

TR FORM 7

CONDITIONS FOR AWARDTick (✓) if conditions  
are fulfilled

1. Training Plans/and or programmes must have been approved by the Industrial Training Fund. ☐
2. Full Training must have been implemented in line with the approved programmes ☐

FOR ITF OFFICIAL USE ONLYNOTES FOR GUIDANCE OF ITS PROCESSING OFFICER:

Examine details of training activities to ensure that condition (1) and (2) have been fulfilled.  
Check Safety Training Equipment and Facilities

REASON FOR NOT MEETING THE SET CONDITIONS:

Tick (✓) appropriate:

1. Was Training Programme Approved? ☐ Yes ☐ No
2. Was Approved Training Programme Fully Implemented? ☐ Yes ☐ No
3. Other Reason (if any) ☐

4. SCALE OF CALCULATIONS.  
% OF EMPLOYEES TRAINING:

1%	5%	.....	.....
6%	10%	.....	.....
11%	14%	.....	.....
15% and above		.....	.....

% AWARD ACCORDING TO AREAS OF  
TRAINING EMPHASIS

First	Second	Third	Fourth
8	6	5	2
12	10	8	4
15	12	10	5
18	15	12	6

5. IMPLEMENTATION CHECK:

Total No. of Emp. in this Group	No. Trained	Percentage (%) Trained	Emphasis No.
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Employers' Claim	ITF (%) Percentage Award	Amount Awarded	
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	

6. PROCESSING OFFICER AT AREA OFFICE:

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....

7. CROSS-CHECKED AT HEADQUARTERS BY:

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....

8. AUDIT AUTHORIZATION

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date Stamped: .....



TR FORM 9

**INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FUND**  
**SUMMARY OF CLAIMS ( 1ST JAN. - 31ST DEC. YEAR..... )**

NAME OF COMPANY ..... ITF REG. NO. ....

ADDRESS ..... LEVY DUE .....

..... LEVY PAID .....

..... ITF RECEIPT NO .....  
 (PHOTOCOPY MUST BE ATTACHED)

TELEPHONE NUMBER .....

DATE .....

TO BE COMPLETED BY EMPLOYERS						FOR ITF OFFICIAL USE ONLY			
Claim Forms	Group of Staff	Total Staff in each Group	Total No Trained	Percentage Trained	Training Cost	Empsis Number	Max % Claimable	% Award	Amount Awarded
TR 2	A								
TR 3	B								
TR 4	C								
TR 6	D								
TR 6	E								
TR 7	F								
Total									

**LIST AND FULL TITLE OF FORMS**

- TR FORM 2    A    Claims Forms in respect of Training Managers, Officers and Instructors.
- TR FORM 3    B    For Management, Professionals, Senior Technologists and other Specialists Training Claims.
- TR FORM 4    C    For Supervisors, Foremen and Chargehands Training Claims.
- TR FORM 5    D    For Occupational Skills Claims.(Operatives, Craftsmen and Apprentices, Clerical/ Secretarial and other Junior Administrative Staff, Junior Marketing and Sales Staff).
- TR FORM 6    E    For Safety Training Claims.
- TR FORM 7    F    For Claims on relevant Education/Correspondence Courses.

P.T.O.

IIT

TR FORM 8

**EMPLOYER'S DECLARATION**

I certify that:-

1.) The claims on this summary are correct and that the training covered by the claims referred to in the individual I.T.F. TR Forms attached are relevant to the needs of the trainees and the company, and were actually undertaken.

2. No Claims have been duplicated.

Full names of Officer .....

Signature ..... Date .....

Chief Executive Name .....

Signature] ..... Date .....

**FOR I.T.F. OFFICIAL USE ONLY**

Total claims approved (in words) .....

Processing Officer at Area Office: Name: .....

Signature: .....

Date: .....

Area Officer: Name: .....

Signature: .....

Date: .....

Cross-checked at Headquarters by: Name: .....

Signature: .....

Date: .....

Certified by Audit Name: .....

Signature: .....

Date: .....

Finance Voucher: No .....

Date: .....

## APPENDIX G

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FUND  
FINANCE DIVISIONMANAGEMENT INFORMATION REPORT (REVENUE/INSPECTORATE)  
EMPLOYERS' STATISTICS AND CONTRIBUTIONS AS AT SEPTEMBER, 1985.

REF NO. IFF/S/FIN/INSP/2840

AREA OFFICE	NO. OF LIABILITIES	NO CONTRIBUTING	CONTRIBUTORS UP TO DATE	NO DEFAULTERS	NO. OF CONTRIBUTORS IN	CUMULATIVE CONTRIBUTIONS	% of Annual Budget
A B A	118	86	42	56	8	213,822.00	83
B E N I N	182	127	44	138	8	860,272.00	108
C A L A B A R	70	36	27	43	9	346,329.00	87
E N U S U	93	81	31	62	4	525,820.00	88
I B A D A N	284	207	245	139	31	1,005,783.00	92
I L O R I N	92	60	23	69	3	581,865.00	106
J O S	147	116	47	100	4	743,432.00	106
K A D U N A	190	146	70	120	3	1,548,720.00	119
K A V O	223	215	169	64	8	1,292,633.00	99
L A G O S	1,195	1,006	625	370	75	16,286,683.00	109
N I J I J U G U R I	46	33	24	22	4	167,266.00	163
P / H A P L O U R I	171	142	67	104	5	967,251.00	90
S O K O T O	45	36	17	28	2	205,694.00	52
T O T A L	2,856	2,322	1,331	1,515	164	24,765,752.00	100

APPENDIX H

LIST OF PARTICIPANTS IN CENTRE FOR MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT  
(CMD) SCHEDULED PROGRAMMES

M A N D E V1975 - 1985

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
First MANDEV	1975	A.R. Garuba	Senior Admin. Assistant	NET Limited, 15, Marina, Lagos.
"	"	S.A. Ogunde	Lecturer	Yaba College of Technology, Yaba.
"	"	S.T. Ohu	Lecturer	The polytechnic, Ibadan.
"	"	I.O. Onashile	Training/Personnel Manager	Berec Nigeria Limited, Isolo, Lagos.
"	"	O. Mbaka (Miss)	Programme Officer	Inst. of Supervisory Management 1B, Market Street, Oyingbo, Lagos.
"	"	E.O. Bamgbade	Vice-Principal	Co-operative College, P.O. Box 5033, Ibadan.
"	"	R. Anao	-	University of Benin, Benin City.
"	"	J.A. Aladekola	-	First Bank of Nig. Marina, Lagos.
"	"	V.O. Okunrinboye	-	AMIT Consultant, Ilupeju, Lagos.
"	"	S.J. Ukpanah	-	Cabinet Office, Calabar.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
First MANDEV	1975	C.O. Abegunde	-	Vegetable Oils Nig. Limited, P.O. Box 121, Ikeja.
"	"	S.O. Adebajo	-	2, Harvey Road, Yaba.
"	"	C.A.O. Agbesanwa	Lecturer	Department of Magt. & Bus. Studies, Yaba College of Tech., Yaba.
"	"	A. Aina	-	Nig. Bank for Commerce & Ind., 3, Prison Street, P.O. Box 4424, Lagos.
"	"	O. Ajibade	Consultant/ Lecturer	6, John Akindele Street, Ikeja.
"	"	A.J. Akinyemi	Director	Walton Solomon & Associates, P.O. Box 4397, Lagos.
"	"	C.U. Anyanwu	-	Ministry of Cooperatives, Co-op. Division, Enugu.
"	"	A.D. Ayenajeh	-	Kaduna Polytechnic, S.D.C., P.M.B. 2113, Kaduna.
"	"	D.A. Balogun	-	Resources Development Assoc. Ltd., P.O.Box 116, Lagos.
"	"	E.U. Bazuaye	-	Auchi Polytechnic, Benin City.
"	"	C.E. Chukwuma	Chief Labour Officer	Nigerian Railway Corporation.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title-Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
First MANDEV	1975	J.C. Efeyini	Training Officer/Manager	Union Bank, Head Office, Lagos.
"	"	E.A. Ekpo	Lecturer	Cooperative Div., Ministry of Trade & Cooperatives, Eket, Cross River State.
"	"	Maidambe	Training Officer	Nig. Ports Authority, Training Dept., Apapa, Dockyard.
"	"	B. Kumuyi	Lecturer	Dept. of Mgt. & Bus. Studies, Yaba College of Technology, Yaba.
Second MANDEV	1976	J.B. Ande	Training Officer	Dunlop Nig. Industries Ltd., P.M.B. 1079, Ikeja.
"	"	O.O. Akindele	Mechanical Engr.	Nig. Steel Dev. Authority, P.M.B. 12015, Lagos.
"	"	P.O. Adesanya	Senior Instructor	Yaba College of Technology, Dept. of Magt. & Bus. Studies, Yaba.
"	"	J.A. Aiyelabola	Training Officer	Industrial Training Fund, P.M.B. 12660, Lagos.
"	"	L.A. Adamu	Assistant Manager	Nortex (Nig.) Limited, P.O. Box 276, Kaduna.
"	"	J.P. Chukwunenye	Supervisor	Chi-di-Ebere Transport Ltd., P.O. Box 214, Umuahia.



Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Second MANDEV	1976	I.L. Hassan	Lecturer	Ministry of Establishment, Kano.
"	"	C.K. Johnny	Training Co-ordinator	Arewa Textile Limited, P.O. Box 288, Kaduna.
"	"	Haruna Nache	Lecturer	Kaduna Polytechnic Staff Development Centre, P.M.B. 2113, Kaduna.
"	"	E.N.C. Nwaogwu	Training Manager	Nig. Tobacco Co. Ltd., c/o N.T.C. Ltd., P.O. Box 6, Ibadan.
"	"	J.O.C. Obiyoh	Lecturer	Kaduna Polytechnic, Staff Development Centre, Kaduna.
"	"	J.A. Ojelade	Lecturer	Kaduna Polytechnic, Staff Development Centre, Kaduna.
"	"	E.M. Okere	Training Manager	Mainland Hotel, (A.G. Leventis & Co.), P.O. Box 2158, Lagos.
"	"	A.O. Ogunfowokan	Group Training Manager	A.G. Leventis & Co. Nig. Ltd., P.O. Box 159, Lagos.
"	"	N.I. Otunonye	Personnel Officer	Nig. National Oil Corp. 42-44, Warehouse Road., Apapa.
"	"	J. Oluwatuyi	Management Dev. Officer	Centre for Management Dev., P.O. Box 7648, Lagos.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Second MANDEV	1976	Bashir Sambo	Training Officer	Arewa Textile Ltd., P.O. Box 288, Kaduna.
"	"	F.S. Udofia	Training Officer	Industrial Training Fund, P.M.B. 12660, Lagos.
Third MANDEV	1977	J.I. Airiohuodion	-	Ministry of Establishment and Training, Benin City.
"	"	A.N. Asinobi	-	West African Automobile & Engineering Co. Limited, P.O. Box 3237, Lagos.
"	"	S.I. Eghobamien	-	Auchi Polytechnic, Auchi.
"	"	A.I.B. Emefoh	-	First Bank (Nig.) Limited, P.O. Box 5216, Lagos.
"	"	P.W. Heinecke	-	Institute of Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, P.M.B. 1013, Zaria.
"	"	J.O. Ibitola	-	First Bank (Nig.) Limited, Training Sub-Centre, Bank Road, Ibadan.
"	"	D.E.A. Nwelih	-	Ministry of Establishment & Training, Benin City.
"	"	A. Olojo	-	Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Third MANDEV	1977	S.E. Osime	-	Mandilas Limited, Box 35, Lagos.
"	"	A. Sadare	-	Civil Service Training Schools, Ibadan.
"	"	I.A. Fatade	Management Trainee	Centre for Management Dev., Lagos.
"	"	O. Isokpan	- do -	- do -
"	"	C.U.L. Ogbon	- do -	- do -
"	"	B.F. Nasiru	- do -	- do -
"	"	J.U. Tsado	-	Arewa Textile Ltd., P.O. Box 288, Kaduna.
Fourth MANDEV	1978	M.N. Anakwo	Project Manager	Franco Builders Ltd., P.O. Box 14, Enugu.
"	"	M.B.	Senior Lecturer	School of Management Studies, Kano State Polytechnic, P.M.B. 3041, Kano.
"	"	J.E. Ayetan	Training Officer	P.Z. & Company Nig. Ltd., Manpower Department, P.O. Box 147, Lagos.
"	"	E.E. Bassey	Personnel Manager	Investment Trust Co. Ltd., 1A, Barracks Road, P.M.B. 1117, Calabar.
"	"	Alh. A.A. Bosso	High Technical Officer	Ministry of Works & Housing, Elect. Eng. Office, Minna.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participants	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Fourth MANDEV	1978	P.S. Cole-Emuze	Principal Assistant Secretary	Ministry of Establishment & Training, Benin City.
"	"	J. Daniel	Administrative Officer	Cabinet Office, Dept. of Estab. & Training, Calabar.
"	"	A.O. Edun	Senior Executive Officer	Ministry of Estab. & Training, P.M.B. 2067, Abeokuta.
"	"	N.S.C. Ekwunife	Training Admin. Officer	Guinness (Nig.) Limited, P.M.B. 1071, Ikeja.
"	"	N.E. Eshiet	Principal	School of Agriculture, Obubra.
"	"	N. Essien	Lecturer	College of Technology, P.M.B. 1110, Calabar.
"	"	A.A. Ezaga	Training Officer	New Nig. Bank Limited, Head Office, Benin City.
"	"	J.A. Faroun	Training Officer	Barclays Bank of Nig. Ltd., Staff Training Centre, P.M.B. 2027, Lagos.
"	"	T. Fashoyin	Resources Fellow	Human Resources Research Unit, University of Lagos.
"	"	O. Igiri	Principal	Civil Service Training Centre, 29, Marina Road, Calabar.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Partitipants	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organi- sation and Full Address
Fourth MANDEV	1978	A. Ishola	Instructor	Barclays Bank of Nigeria, Staff Training Centre, P.M.B. 2027, Lagos.
"	"	M. Makoshi	Manager	Kaduna Co-operative Bank Ltd., P.M.B. 2121, Kaduna.
"	"	T.A. Morohunkola	Acting Principal	Nig. Ports Autho- rity, Staff Deve- lopment Dept., Dockyard, Apapa.
"	"	I. Muhtar	Commercial Officer	Min. of Trade, Industry & Co- operatives, P.M.B. 3085, Kano.
"	"	M.O. Onyirioha	Higher Execu- tive Officer	Min. of Agric. & Natural Resources, Akure.
"	"	O. Ogunye	Training Officer	Pan African Bank Ltd. P.M.B. 5239, Port Harcourt.
"	"	R.B. Osula	Controller of Staff Training	Nig. Broadcasting Corporation, Broadcasting House, Ikoyi.
"	"	A.A. Oyemade	Personnel Executive	R.T. Briscoe (Nig.) Ltd., 21 Creek Road, P.O. Box 214, Lagos.
"	"	B.O. Pat- Ogadies	Technical Training Officer	P.Z. Ind. Limited, Ilupeju, P.M.B. 1132, Ikeja.
"	"	Mallam A. Sanchi	Co-operative Officer	Co-operative Training Institute, Sokoto.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Fourth MANDEV	1978	Mallam M.S. Umar	Training Manager	United Nig. Ins. Co. Ltd., P.O. Box 381, Kano.
"	"	N.A. Kosoko	Snr. Signal Instructor	Signal & Communication Eng. Office, Nig. Railways Corp., Ebute-Metta, Lagos.
"	"	S.C. Okongwu	Admin. Asst.	N.C.F.C. Ltd., 5, Onitsha Road, Enugu.
Fifth MANDEV	1979	H.M. Abubakar	Senior Sales Representa-	FEDC Foam (Nig.) Ltd., 24A, Jafara Road, P.O. Box 775, Kano.
"	"	E.T. Adepoju	Training Officer	Wema Bank Limited, 160, Ladipo Str., Mushin, Lagos.
"	"	Alber N. Akpe	Training Manager	Nigeria Sewing Machine, Manuf. Co. Ltd., P.O. Box 3000, Lagos.
"	"	O.C. Akabogu	Management Trainee	Centre for Management Dev., P.O. Box 7648, Lagos.
"	"	S.E.A. Ahonsi	Management Dev. Officer	Centre for Management Dev., P.O. Box 7948, Lagos.
"	"	C.B. Anunkor	Management Trainee	Centre for Management Dev., P.O. Box 7648, Lagos.
"	"	A.P. Bwabausi	Lecturer	Staff Training College, P.O. Box 600, Blantyre, Malawi, Central Africa.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participants	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Fifth MANDEV	1979	L.O. Chukwu	Principal Executive Officer	Ministry of Establishments (Staff Development Unit), Owerri, Imo State.
"	"	A.E. Ejimatswa	Management Trainee	Centre for Management Dev., P.O. Box 7648, Lagos.
"	"	Bassey E. Etim	Technical Instructor	Cross River Breweries Ltd., P.M.B. 1106, Uyo.
"	"	M.I. Fafowora	Asst. Training Officer	Standard Bank Nig. Ltd., (Lagos Training Centre), 128, Murtala Muhammed Way, E.B., Lagos.
"	"	S.W. Kuffa	Lecturer	c/o Institute of Finance Magt., P.O. Box 3918, D'Salaam.
"	"	T. Lawal-Solarin	Training Superintendent	B.P. Nig. Ltd., B.P. House, P.O. Box 512, Lagos.
"	"	Neku Ndoma	Admin. Officer	Cross River State Water Board, Calabar.
"	"	T.O. Nkpang	Principal Assistant Registrar	Co-operative Magt. Institute, Min. of Trade, Ind. & Coop., Calabar.
"	"	J.K. Nguma	Tutorial (Res. Assistant	Inst. of Finance Magt., P.O. Box 3918, Dar-Es-Salaam, Tanzania.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Fifth MANDEV	1979	Eno. H. Odungbile	Technical Instructor	Min. of Works & Transport, (Training School), Calabar.
"	"	O.F. Olukoya	Asst. Manager (Staff Dev.)	I.T.T. (Nig.) Ltd., 3A, Ikorodu Road, Yaba.
"	"	L.A. Omokhodion	Management Trainee	Centre for Magt. Development, P.O. Box 7648, Lagos.
"	"	E.A. Omole	Asst. Manager (Staff Dev.)	I.T.T. (Nig.) Limited, 20B Agege Motor Road, Shogunle, Lagos.
"	"	I.E. Oparadike	Management Trainee	Centre for Magt. Dev., P.O. Box 586, Kano.
"	"	F.T. Shiheh	Training Officer	Standard Bank Nig. Ltd., Staff Trng. Centre, Kano.
Sixth MANDEV	1980	S.F. Korode	Management Trainee	United Bank for Africa Ltd., P.O. Box 2406, Lagos.
"	"	M.I. Ezekwesili	Manager	U.B.A. Ltd., P.O. Box 2406, Lagos.
"	"	M.C. Denner	Training Manager (Tech. Super.)	Rank Xerox (Nig.) Ltd., Box 21214, Ikeja.
"	"	F.I. Ahabue	Snr. Audio-Visual Officer	Centre for Management Dev., Lagos.



Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Sixth MANDEV	1980	J.O. Ukponmwan	Snr. Management Dev. Officer	Centre for Management Dev., Lagos.
"	"	J.F. Fawale	Senior Tutor	SBN Ltd., (Training Centre, P.M.B. 1021, Ebute-Metta, Lagos.
"	"	J.M. Agazie	Training Manager	Alrairie (Nig.) Ltd., 26, Creek Road, Apapa, Box 2206, Lagos.
"	"	O.F. Fadulu	Technical Training Officer	Nigerian Airport Authority, P.M.B. 1607, Lagos.
"	"	E.I. Laleye	Training Officer	SCOA (Nig.) Ltd., P.M.B. 12686, Lagos.
"	"	C.O. Dasilva	Assistant Training	Nigerian Bag. Man. Co. Ltd., P.O. Box 589, Apapa.
"	"	E.E.N. Ibe	Training Co-ordinator	NICON (Staff Trng. School), P.O. Box 1100, Lagos.
"	"	J.O. Latinwo	Training Dev. Officer	Industrial Training Fund, Jos.
"	"	M.K. Adetona	Instructor	Union Bank of Nig., Staff Trng. School, 2, Onike Road, Yaba.
"	"	D.A. Awhana	Ag. Training & Dev. Manager	Ibru Organisation, 33, Creek Road, Yaba.
"	"	E.E.T. Akpan	Staff Officer II - Educ.	HQ. NAF, Min. of Defence, Lagos.
"	"	D.E. Njoku	Instructor	Union Bank of Nig., Staff Training Centre, 2 Onike Road, Yaba.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organization and Full Address
Sixth MANDEV	1980	O. Tomori	Personnel Officer	Van Leer Containers (Nig.) Ltd., P.O. Box 16, Apapa.
"	"	F.N. Osifo	Development Training Officer	ATLAS (Nig.) Limited, Plot 3A, Isolo Expressway, Lagos.
"	"	A. Uji	Snr. Training Officer	Bank of the North HQ., P.O. Box 211, Kano.
"	"	M.B. Ogunleye	Snr. Personnel Officer	Nigerian Paper Mill Ltd., P.O. Box 40, Jebba.
"	"	K.E.T. Oyerinde	Group Education Officer OC Admin. & Personnel	NAF GTG., Kaduna.
"	"	Jeff T. Yaji	Secretary (Small Ind. Credit Scheme)	Min. of Trade, Ind. & Cooperatives, Makurdi.
"	"	J.O. Oyeniya	Principal	Oke-Ode Grammar School, Oke-Ode, via Ilorin, Kwara State.
"	"	S.O. Agbo	Ag. Senior Asst. Secretary	Establishments Division, Cabinet Office, Makurdi.
"	"	A.O. Okwu	Asst. Personnel Manager	Universal Ins. Co., Ltd., P.O. Box 360, Enugu.
"	"	A.C. Chukwukere	Production Maintenance Supervisor	ELF (Nig.) Ltd., P.M.B. 5160, Port Harcourt.
"	"	J.A. Afiegbe	Senior Instructor	NNB Ltd., Staff Trng. School, P.O. Box 1193, Benin City.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Sixth MANDEV	1980	M.A. Fawole	Training Co-ordinator	Co-operative Bank Ltd., P.M.B. 5137, Ibadan.
"	"	M.E. Usifo	Consultant	N.E.W.S. Limited, P.M.B. 1112, Benin City.
"	"	A.O. Akinfemiwa (Mrs)	Principal Chemist	Water Corporation of Oyo State, P.M.B. 5339, Ibadan.
"	"	L.U.C. Ubachu	Management Trainer	Modern Magt. Systems & Business Tech., P.O. Box 258, Owerri.
"	"	C. Iwejua-Opara	Principal Executive Officer	Imo Broadcasting Services, P.O. Box 329, Owerri.
"	"	C.S. Nwosu	Training & Dev. Officer	Industrial Training Fund, Jos.
"	"	A. Mojidi	Training & Dev. Officer	- do -
"	"	Oluwole Adeyemo	Instructor	The Polytechnic, Ibadan.
"	"	F.C. Mbata	Training Officer	Anambra Broadcasting Corp., Enugu.
Seventh MANDEV	1981	M. Abubakar	Higher Executive Officer	Cabinet Office, Staff Training Centre, Establishments Division, Jos.
"	"	O.T. Adebawale (Mrs)	Training Officer	Federal Mortgage Bank, 11, Breadfruit Street, P.O. Box 2078, Lagos.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Seventh MANDEV	1981	J.O. Adededeji	Snr. Personnel Officer	N.E.T. Limited, 15, Marina, Lagos.
"	"	Alhaji M. Ahmed	Training Officer	United Nigerian Textiles Ltd., P.O. Box 365, Kaduna.
"	"	A. Bislava	Executive Editor	Nigerian Television, Maiduguri.
"	"	J.O. Bosua	Ag. Higher Instructor	Staff Training Centre, P.M.B. 2161, Makurdi.
"	"	H.M. Bukar	Principal Instructor	Min. of Establishment & Service Matters, P.M.B. 1052, Maiduguri.
"	"	B.J. Edem	Principal Instructor	Staff Development Dept., Civil Service Training Centre, Calabar.
"	"	L.R. Okon	Technical Planning Training Manager	Cross River Breweries Ltd., P.M.B. 1106, Uyo.
"	"	O. Ijabadeniyi	Training School Manager	Nigerian Security Printing & Minting Co. Ltd. P.M.B. 3053, Victoria Island, Lagos.
"	"	T.J. Ipinnaiye	Lecturer	Central Bank of Nigeria, Staff Training School, Lagos.
"	"	Alhaji U.R. Ladan	District Personnel Officer	Nigerian Railway Corporation, Bauchi.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Seventh MANDEV	1981	R.O. Lawal (Mrs)	Training Officer	Nig. Television, P.M.B. 2351, Sokoto.
"	"	M.A. Mabadeje	Snr. Training Officer	Bank of the North Ltd., Head Office, P.O. Box 211, Kano.
"	"	D.I.O. Martins (Mrs)	A.C.T.O. (Training)	Nig. Television, P.O. Box 1460, Ibadan.
"	"	R. Mbagwu	Dept. Manager	R.T. Briscoe (Nig.) Ltd., P.O. Box 2104, Lagos.
"	"	J.N. Nkanata	Snr. Admin. Officer	Nig. Television, P.M.B. 1299, Calabar.
"	"	J.O. Obijiaku	Institutional Liaison Officer	Centre for Mana- gement Dev., P.O. Box 7648, Lagos.
"	"	S.A. Ogunjobi	H.E.O.	Ministry of Works & Transport, Akure.
"	"	E.K. Olurebi	Training Officer	First Bank of Nig. Ltd., Training Centre, 128, Murtala Muhammed Way, E.B., Lagos.
"	"	G.E. Onakpachere	Asst. Secretary	Centre for Management Dev., P.O. Box 7648, Lagos.
"	"	E.A. Osundina	Principal Training Officer	Nig. Ports Autho- rity, 26/28, Marina, Lagos.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Seventh MANDEV	1981	O.A. Oyegbemi	Training Officer	Metal Box Toyo Glass (Nig.) Ltd., P.O. Box 2515, Lagos.
"	"	Dr. B.P. Teyinka	Lecturer	Central Bank of Nigeria, Staff Training School, Personnel Dept., Tinubu Square, Lagos.
"	"	M. Umaru	Vice-Principal	Staff Training Centre, Potiskum, Borno State.
Eighth MANDEV	1982	K.A. Adesina	Asst. Training Dev. Manager	N.T.C., P.O. Box 6, Ibadan.
"	"	J.O. Agbato	Lecturer	Central Bank of Nigeria, Training School, Lagos.
"	"	E.P. Alagbe	Training Manager	Nigerian Sewing Machine Manuf. Co. Ltd., Mushin, Lagos.
"	"	T.A. Alaka (Alhaji)	Principal Technical Officer	Federal Ministry of Works, Lagos.
"	"	F.L. Animashawun	Snr. Management Dev. Officer	Centre for Management Dev., P.O. Box 7648, Lagos.
"	"	A.O. Awunor	Asst. Consultant	N.E.W.S. Limited, P.M.B. 1112, Benin City.
"	"	J.O.G. Ayoade	Training Officer	First Bank of Nigeria, Training Centre, P.M.B. 1021, Ebute-Metta.
"	"	Alhaji A. Bakare	Ag. Asst. Chief Tech. Officer	Federal Ministry of Works, Lagos.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organization and Full Address
Eighth MANDEV	1982	A.O. Dare	Ag. Asst. Chief Technical Officer	Federal Ministry of Works, Lagos.
"	"	T. Dogara	Admin. Asst. Training Manager	MTV., P.M.B. 1487, Maiduguri.
"	"	T.T.I. Ebohon	Training Dev. Manager	Bendel Brewery Ltd., P.M.B. 1253, Benin City.
"	"	E. Edemeka	Administrative Officer I	MTV., P.M.B. 1299, Calabar.
"	"	F. Egbokhare	Personnel Officer I (Training)	N.E.T., 15, Marina, P.O. Box 173, Lagos.
"	"	G. Egbu	Electrical Training Instructor	Nigerian Security Printing & Minting Co. Ltd., P.O. Box 3053, Lagos.
"	"	L.E. Ezurike	Principal Asst. Secretary	Ministry of Public Utilities, Owerri.
"	"	U.O. Ikeji	Training Officer (Management)	P.Z. (Nigeria) Ltd., P.O. Box 147, Lagos.
"	"	G.U. Imanyi	Management Dev. Officer	Department of Staff Dev., Murtala Highway, Calabar.
"	"	A.F. Jarret	Training Officer	First Bank Training School, P.M.B. 1021, Ebute-Metta.
"	"	A.U. Kalu	Graduate Trainee	NICON, Staff Training School, P.O. Box 1100, Lagos.
"	"	O.B. Momoh	Instructor	Staff Training Centre, P.M.B. 2161, Makurdi.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Eighth MANDEV	1982	P.C. Njoku	Training Officer	E.C.W.A. Production Ltd., P.M.B. 2010, Jos.
"	"	E.N. Nwaonumah	Admin. Officer Grade IV	Office of the Head of Service, Owerri
"	"	J.N. Ofulue	Training Coordinator	N.E.T., 15, Marina, P.O. Box 173, Lagos.
"	"	M. Ogunade	Senior Librarian	Centre for Management Dev., P.O. Box 7648, Lagos.
"	"	L. Ogundelu	Management Dev. Officer	Centre for Management Dev., P.O. Box 7648, Lagos.
"	"	C.M. Ogundu	Principal Market Research Officer	Nig. Palm Produce Board, P.M.B. 1264, Calabar.
"	"	M.A. Ogwo	Admin. Officer Grade V	Office of the Head of Service, Owerri.
"	"	G.M.A. Okerue	Admin. Officer Grade V	Ministry of Finance, Owerri.
"	"	E. Oji	Training Manager	Chidiebere Transport Ltd., P.M.B. 1084, Umuahia.
"	"	O.O. Olopade	Accounting Training Manager	N.T.C., Box 6, Ibadan.
"	"	A.A. Onyekwu	Training Officer	First Bank Training Centre, P.M.B. 1021, Ebute-Metta, Lagos.
"	"	R.O. Rapu	Senior Supervisor	Central Bank of Nigeria, Training School, Lagos.



Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Eighth MANDEV	1982	C. Udom	Asst. Head Personnel	Merchantile Bank Ltd., Calabar.
"	"	A.S. Yasha'u	Chief Training Officer	U.N.T.L. Box 365, Kaduna South.
Ninth MANDEV	1983	O. Ogundeji	Manager	C.E.N. Training School, Lagos.
"	"	H.O.A. Arogundade	Training Officer	I.B.W.A. Staff Training Centre, Igbobi.
"	"	O.I. Dosunmu (Mrs.)	Training Manager	Union Bank of Nigeria, Staff Training Centre, Yaba.
"	"	M.A. Adenuga	Ag. Training Manager	Metal Box Toyo Glass Nig. Ltd., P.O. Box 2515, Lagos.
"	"	C.A. Elemo	Training Officer	First Bank of Nig. Staff Training Centre, Benin City.
"	"	F.B. Duke (Mrs.)	Snr. Training Officer	Nig. Airport Authority, Training Centre, Ikeja.
"	"	J.C. Ojo	Instructor	First Bank of Nigeria Ltd., Training Centre, 128, Murtala Muhammed Way, Ebute-Metta, Lagos.
"	"	G.A. Yarjem	Training Officer	First Bank of Nig. Ltd., Staff Training Centre, Kano.
"	"	M.A. Ojo	Instructor	Union Bank of Nig. Ltd., Staff Training Centre, Yaba.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organization and Full Address
Ninth MANDEV	1983	A.A. Oguntoye	Personnel Training Officer	Nig. Ext. Telecommunications, P.O.Box 173, Lagos.
"	"	E.O. Folarin (Miss)	Training Officer	First Bank of Nig. Ltd., Staff Training Centre, P.M.B. 1021, Ebute-Metta, Lagos.
"	"	Alhaji U. Ambursa	Lecturer	Polytechnic of Sokoto State College of Administration, P.M.B. 2126, Sokoto.
"	"	O.O. Obileye (Mrs.)	Vice-Principal	Civil Service Training School, P.M.B. 5001, Ibadan.
"	"	T. Saseun	Training Manager	Leventis Stores, Lagos.
"	"	R.O. Aba	Asst. Lecturer	Staff Training Centre, Makurdi.
Tenth MANDEV	1984	Alhaji S.M. Ahmed	Snr. Personnel Officer	United Nig. Textile P.O. Box 365, Kaduna.
"	"	M.N.O. Akindele	Lecturer III	School of Business Studies, Federal Polytechnic, Ilaro, Ogun State.
"	"	O.N. Anyogu	Training Officer	Savannah Bank of Nigeria Ltd., Staff Training Centre, Ikeja, Lagos.
"	"	O.B. Ayeni	Ag. Training Officer	Union Bank of Nig. Ltd., Staff Training Centre, 2, Onike Road, Yaba.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Tenth MANDEV	1984	Dahiru Ibrahim	Legal Officer	Kano State Urban Development, Kano.
"	"	S.T. Dogonyaro	Asst. Chief Staff Dev. Officer	N.E.T. Ltd., 15, Marina, P.O. Box 173, Lagos.
"	"	P.F. Fatusin	Asst. Admin. Manager	Agip (Nig.) Ltd., 37, Marina, Unity House, Box 921, Lagos.
"	"	Lawal Ibrahim	Co-ordinator	Water Res. & Eng. Cons. Agency, Kano.
"	"	A.A. Layode	Training Officer	P.Z. Ind. Ltd., Training Centre, P.M.B. 21132, Ikeja, Lagos.
"	"	S.A. Udodong	Asst. Head,	N.N.P.C. Refinery, P.M.B. 44, Effurun, Warri, Bendel State.
Eleventh MANDEV	1985	Bola Amida	Asst. Training Officer	Savannah Bank of Nig. Ltd., Staff Training Centre, 138, Obafemi Awolowo Way, Ikeja.
"	"	H.A.M. Animasaun	Training Officer (Technical)	N.A.A. Staff Training Centre, Murtala Mohammed Airport, Ikeja.
"	"	U.E. Ekaette	Asst. General Manager (Engr.)	Cross River Radio, P.M.B. 1035, Calabar.
"	"	A.A. Nawa	Controller	--do--
"	"	Ekpo N. Okon	Superintendent (Admin.)	The Nigerian Police, Akin Road, Calabar.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Eleventh MANDEV	1985	E.A. Enebong	Snr. Management Dev. Officer	Centre for Management Dev., P.M.B. 21578, Ikeja, Lagos.
"	"	J.O. Ezeogwu (Mrs.)	Deputy Chief Pers. Officer	N.N.P.C., P.M.B. 12701, Lagos.
"	"	J.S. Imhoede	Snr. Manager	C.B.N., Tinubu Square, P.M.B. 12194, Lagos.
"	"	F.N. Iwezulu (Mrs.)	Principal Training Officer	Nig. Ports Authority, Apapa Dockyard, Apapa.
"	"	A.R. Kenku (Mrs.)	Asst. Manager	NICON, P.O. Box 1100, Lagos.
"	"	E.N. Oguaghamba	Asst. Secretary	Cabinet Office, Estab. & Training Dept., P.M.B. 1150, Owerri.
"	"	Felix O. Okoi	Principal Management Dev. Officer	Dept. of Estab. & Training, Cabinet Office, P.M.B. 1173, Calabar.
"	"	C.O. Okeahialam	Asst. Secretary	Cabinet Office, Estab. & Training Dept., P.M.B. 1150, Owerri.
"	"	M.E. Olayoke (Mrs.)	Training Officer	Union Bank of Nig. Ltd., Staff Training Centre, 2, Onike Road, Yaba, Lagos.
"	"	A.A. Roland	Area Snr. Instructor	First Bank of Nig. Ltd., Staff Training Centre, P.M.B. 1021, Lagos.

Course Title	Date/Year	Name of Participant	Title/Position	Sponsoring Organisation and Full Address
Eleventh MANDEV	1985	R.T. Shodiende	Training Officer	First Bank of Nig. Ltd., Staff Training Centre, 128, Murtala Muhammed Way, P.M.B. 1021, Ebute-Metta, Lagos.
"	"	R.B. Thompson (Mrs.)	Snr. Asst. Secretary (Human Resources)	Centre for Management Dev., P.M.B. 21578, Ikeja, Lagos.
"	"	C.O. Ugwu	Training Officer	Financial Institutions Training Centre, 9, Turton Street, P.M.B. 1115, Yaba, Lagos.
"	"	E.E. Weikezi	Group Recruitment Manager	P.Z. Industries Ltd., P.M.B. 21132, Ikeja, Lagos.

APPENDIX ICENTRE FOR MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENTFIRST SEMINAR FOR CHIEF EXECUTIVES OF PUBLIC  
ENTERPRISES, JUNE 14 - 16, 1976LIST OF PARTICIPANTS AND OBSERVERSPARTICIPANTS:

NO.	NAME	ENTERPRISE	POSITION
1.	ADEBOYE, A.	Nig. Steel Dev. Authority, Lagos.	Project Manager
2.	ADEKOLA, A.A.	Co-operative Bank Ltd., 30, Marina, Lagos	Assistant Accountant
3.	ADENAIKE, F.A.	Sketch Publishing Co. Ltd., P.M.B. 5067, Ibadan.	General Manager
4.	ADESIDA, A.	Western State Agric. Investment Corp., P.M.B. 5085, Ibadan.	General Manager
5.	AGHAYERE, F.O.	Bendel Insurance Co. P.O. Box 607, Benin City.	General Manager
6.	AGORO, M.O.	Lagos City Transport Service, Lagos	Traffic Officer
7.	AKANDE, Y.A.	Wema Bank Ltd., P.M.B. 1033, Ebute-Metta, Lagos.	General Manager
8.	AKINLADE, E.A.	Wemabod Estates Ltd., Lagos.	General Manager
9.	AKPAN, J.S.	Asbestonit Ltd., P.M.B. 7030, Oron, Cross River State.	Sales Manager
10.	ALAMUTU, S.A.	Nig. Hotels Ltd., P.O. Box 865, Lagos.	Managing Director
11.	AMAONWU, O.E.	Universal Insurance Company, Enugu.	General Manager

NO.	NAME	ENTERPRISE	POSITION
12.	ANIMASHAWUN, A.S.	Oyo State Housing Corporation, Bodija Estate, Ibadan.	Controller of Works
13.	ASSAM, A.B.	Cross Lines Ltd., (SESCOT), P.M.B. 1073, Calabar, Cross River State.	General Manager
14.	ASSIAKA, A.E.	Cross River State Housing Corporation, Calabar.	General Manager
15.	ASUMU, P.O.	Midwest Textile Mill, P.M.B. 1025, Asaba, Bendel State.	General Manager
16.	ATTAH, D.	Plateau Publishing Corp., Jos.	General Manager
17.	AWELENJE, A.A.	Lagos State Development and Property Corporation, Lagos.	Controller of Finance
18.	BELLO, B.	Co-operative Bank Ltd., 231, Herbert Macaulay Street, Yaba, Lagos.	Accounting Manager
19.	CAULCRICK, D.B.	Lagos City Transport Service, Lagos	Works Manager
20.	DENLOYE, Akin. J.	Oyo State Housing Corporation, Bodija Estate, Ibadan.	Ag. General Manager
21.	EDET, B.O.	Calabar Cement Co., Ltd., Calabar.	General Manager
22.	EKPO, M.F.	Cross River State Newspaper Corp., Calabar.	Sole Administrator
23.	EZEKIEL, S.O.	Bendel Hotels Board, Benin City.	Administrator
24.	GEORGE, G.A.O.	Nig. Produce Marketing Corp., 72, Campbell Street, Lagos.	General Manager

NO.	NAME	ENTERPRISE	POSITION
25.	HAMILTON, G.B.A.	The Nigerian Petroleum Refining Company Ltd., P.O. Box 585, Port-Harcourt.	General Manager
26.	IKHIMIOYA, U.	Bendel Line Company Ltd., P.O. Box 1046, Benin City.	Ag. General Manager
27.	INOYO, U.	Cross River State Housing Corporation, P.M.B. 1082, Calabar.	Asst. General Manager
28.	JINADU, G.B.	Lagos State Development Property Corp., Lagos.	General Manager
29.	KABIAWU, F.O.	Lagos State Development and Property Corporation, Lagos.	Deputy Secretary
30.	KALU, O. (Lt. Col.)	Oriental Line Ltd., Enugu, Anambra State.	General Manager
31.	KANO, S.H. (Alh.)	Nig. Livestock and Meat Authority, Kaduna.	General Manager
32.	NDEGWE, M.A. (Dr.)	Rivers State Agric. Production and Marketing Corporation, P.M.B. 5236, Port-Harcourt.	General Manager
33.	NTEPHE, H.N.	East-Central State Marketing Board., Board, P.M.B. 1068, Enugu.	General Manager
34.	NWAGBARA, J.O.	Nigerian National Oil Corporation, P.M.B. 12650, Lagos.	Head, Admin. Division
35.	NWOSISI, P.E.	Nig. Security Printing and Minting Co. Ltd., P.O. Box 3053, Lagos.	Marketing Manager
36.	NZEGWU, T.I.O.	Nig. Railway Corp., Ebute-Metta, Lagos.	General Manager



NO.	NAME	ENTERPRISE	POSITION
37.	OBI, M.N.	Nigergas Limited, P.O.Box 441, Enugu.	General Manager
38.	ODENIKE, S.A.A.	The Gate-Way Insurance Co. Ltd., P.M.B. 1399, Ilorin.	General Manager
39.	OGBUAGU, B.E.	Agric. Dev. Authority, P.M.B. 1024, Enugu.	Managing Director
40.	OGUNKINLEDE, J.T.	Wrought Iron (Nig.) Ltd., P.O. Box 132, Mushin, Lagos.	Ag. General Manager
41.	OKE, A.A.	Lagos State Develop- ment and Property Corporation, Lagos.	Controller of Projects
42.	OKOBI, C.E.	Nig. Bank for Commerce and Industry, Lagos.	Managing Director
43.	OKPAISE, B.	Nig. Building Society, P.O. Box 2078, Lagos.	Deputy General Manager
44.	OLADITAN, O.	Nigerian National Shipping Line Limited, Apapa.	General Manager
45.	OLOWU, F.K.	Nig. External Tele- communication Ltd., Lagos.	Company Secretary
46.	ONYEWUENYI, S.A.	National Electric Power Authority, Marina, Lagos.	Asst. General Manager
47.	OTITOJU, E.O.	Western Nigeria Printing Corporation, Ibadan.	General Manager
48.	PECKU, E.K.K.	Western Nigerian Marketing Board, P.M.B. 5032, Ibadan.	General Manager
49.	SHOGBAMIMU, O.A.	Nig. Pools Company Ltd., Lagos	Managing Director
50.	SPIFF, A.G.	River State Housing Corporation, Port-Harcourt.	General Manager

NO.	NAME	ENTERPRISE	POSITION
51.	SULAIMAN, H.	Urban Dev. Board, Kano State.	Managing Director
52.	THAHAL, P.M.	Nigeria Airways Ltd., Ikeja, Lagos.	General Manager
53.	TUKUR, B.M.	Nigerian Ports Autho- rity, 26/28, Marina, Lagos.	General Manager
54.	UDE, C. (Lt. Col.)	Anambra Agric. Dev. Corporation, P.M.B. 1024, Enugu.	General Manager
55.	UDO, E.E.	Water Board, Calabar, Cross River State.	General Manager
56.	UKOCHIO, E.N.	Mercantile Bank Ltd., Calabar, Cross River State.	Managing Director

OBSERVERS:

NO.	NAME	GOVERNMENT AGENCY	POSITION
1.	ABEGUNDE, J.B.	Governor's Office, Akure, Ondo State.	Permanent Secretary
2.	AMINU, M.A.	Ministry of Trade, Industry & Co-opera- tives, Yola.	Chief Commercial Officer
3.	ASUQUO, J.E.J.	Ministry of Health, Calabar, Cross River State.	Permanent Secretary
4.	BARDA, S.	Kaduna State Govern- ment, Kaduna.	Permanent Secretary
5.	ERUSAIFE, J.O.	Office of the Commi- ssioner for Special Duties, Ikeja, Lagos State.	Permanent Secretary
6.	GALTIMARI, U.G.	Ministry of Finance, Maiduguri, Borno State.	Permanent Secretary.

NO.	NAME	GOVERNMENT AGENCY	POSITION
7.	OTUKA, S.C.	Cabinet Office, Owerri, Imo State.	Deputy Permanent Secretary
8.	OZAKO, P.E.	State Board of Education, Benin City, Bendel State.	Chief Education Officer
9.	UKPANAHA, S.J.	Cabinet Office, Calabar, Cross River State.	Director, Public Enterprises Division.

NO.	NAME	INSTITUTION AND PRIVATE COMPANY	POSITION
1.	ADEOBA, B.	Leventis Group of Company, Lagos.	Asst. Group Training Manager
2.	ADEOYE, S.A. (Dr.)	Ibadan Polytechnic, Ibadan.	Deputy Manager
3.	OPARA, O.	Idem Consultants, Marina, Lagos.	Senior Partner
4.	OGUNDIPE, A.O.	ASCON, P.M.B. 1215, Ikeja, Lagos.	Director
5.	OGUNFOWOKAN, A.O.	Leventis Group of Company, Lagos.	Group Training Manager
6.	OGUNLADE, J.O. (Dr.)	Continuing Education Centre, University of Lagos, Akoka, Yaba, Lagos.	Asst. Director and Senior Lecturer
7.	OLAGUNJU, O.	Institute of Admini- stration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.	

NO.	NAME	INSTITUTION AND PRIVATE COMPANY	POSITION
8.	ONYIKE, O.F. (Dr.)	Institute of Management and Technology, Enugu, Anambra State.	Ag. Head of Department
9.	OWOREN, M.A.	Nigerian Institute of Management, Lagos.	Director of Institute Services

Chief Executives - 56

Government  
Agencies - 9

Institution and  
Private Companies - 9

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APPENDIX J

ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF COLLEGE OF NIGERIA (ASCON)  
MANAGEMENT EDUCATION AND TRAINING PROGRAMME  
1975 - 1985

S/NO	PROGRAMME OR COURSE CODE NO.	PROGRAMME OR COURSE	Number of Participants for the Period covering 1975 - 85											Total
			1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	
i.	PMC. 21/22	Personnel Management and Industrial Relations for Officers on GL. 09-12	64	96	86	112	138	140	156	170	102	147	122	1333
ii	MDT. 19	Manpowers Development and Training Course for Officers on GL. 09-12	64	38	45	43	51	39	56	52	44	58	38	512
iii	GMC. 28/29/ 30	General Management Course for Officers on GL. 09-12	201	198	220	242	236	240	188	192	254	198	221	2392
iv	AMC.	Advanced Management Course for Officers on GL. 13 and above	68	72	70	64	67	64	65	60	60	74	72	736

S/NO.	PROGRAMME OR COURSE CODE NO.	PROGRAMME OR COURSE	Number of Participants for the Period covering 1975 - 1985											
			1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	Total
v	MIS.I	Management Information Services	37	27	26	23	24	25	19	26	30	28	31	296
vi	FMC. 16/17	Financial Management Course for Accounting and Auditing Staff on GL. 10-13	48	47	42	45	62	58	57	47	45	52	54	557
vii	AFMC.9	Advanced Financial Management Course for Officer on GL. 13-16	19	15	13	17	21	21	23	18	19	15	21	202
viii	CPM.8	Project Management Course for Officers on GL 10-13	11	13	14	17	18	9	11	16	18	13	14	154
ix	NCC. 12	Management Consulting Course	9	11	13	15	13	11	16	11	13	15	12	139
x	TTP. 4	Training the Trainers Course for Local Government Development Officers	52	72	74	77	67	81	68	69	64	78	72	778

S/NO.	PROGRAMME OR COURSE CODE NO.	PROGRAMME OR COURSE	Number of Participants for the Period covering 1975 - 1985											
			1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	Total
xi	LGFMC. 4	Local Government Finance Management Course	33	36	42	37	38	38	44	47	42	44	46	447
xii	LGMC. 2	Local Government Management Course	56	58	60	53	52	57	62	63	60	58	62	641
xiii	IRD.2	Integrated Rural Development Management Course	47	38	36	43	40	41	45	40	43	39	44	455
xiv	PERMC.	Public Enterprises Financial Management Course for Officers on GL. 09-12	17	27	25	23	24	21	22	18	19	21	19	236
xv	PEMC.4	Public Enterprises Management Course for Officers on GL. 09-12	18	18	25	23	27	26	23	24	30	27	31	272
xvi	APEMC. 3	Advanced Public Enterprises Management Course for Officers on on GL. 13 and above.	21	17	18	18	17	14	15	13	19	22	19	193
Total			753	783	809	852	895	885	870	886	864	889	878	9344

APPENDIX K

NIGERIAN INSTITUTE OF MANAGEMENT (NIM)  
MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME  
1975 - 1985

S/NO	COURSE TITLE	Number of Participants for the Period covering 1975 - 1985											
		1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	Total
	<u>GENERAL MANAGEMENT</u>												
1.	Corporate & Boardroom Management for Directors	12	15	21	17	15	13	7	9	11	9	11	140
2.	Corporate Strategy for Directors	7	9	7	11	9	9	13	7	12	13	7	104
3.	Top Manage- ment for Senior Executives	14	16	17	19	21	23	13	13	15	13	12	176
4.	Advanced Management Course	17	21	18	19	16	23	27	28	26	25	30	250
5.	MBO Advisers Course: Getting Results through MBO.	31	30	32	33	29	27	28	33	31	32	34	340
6.	Middle Level Management Course	41	47	50	49	57	54	53	42	38	36	28	489
7.	How to Improve Managerial Performance	31	33	30	29	34	36	32	32	31	28	35	351
8.	Management Appreciation	42	43	44	35	37	36	31	30	30	28	35	347



S/NO	COURSE TITLE	Number of Participants for the Period covering 1975 - 1985											
		1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	Total
9.	Management Course for Executive Secretaries & Personal Assistance	12	17	18	16	17	21	20	21	21	24	18	205
	<u>PRODUCTION MANAGEMENT</u>												
10.	Work Study, Productivity and Cost Reduction	15	15	13	14	17	17	21	22	18	19	23	194
11.	Production Planning and Control	33	29	30	33	32	34	36	28	35	30	30	350
12.	Organisation and Methods for Office Administrators	13	17	15	14	17	18	18	16	14	14	13	169
13.	Inventory Management	17	18	16	19	21	23	28	26	27	30	25	288
14.	Work Study	21	12	15	17	7	9	11	9	9	11	13	134
15.	Network Analysis and Project Management	15	17	18	21	20	22	23	25	9	9	11	190
16.	Maintenance Management	32	14	43	47	52	54	51	53	50	49	46	518
17.	Supervisory Management	84	77	78	81	92	93	105	107	112	109	93	1112
18.	Practical Purchasing Management	14	14	14	9	11	13	17	18	19	21	23	173

S/NO	COURSE TITLE	Number of Participants for the Period covering 1975 - 1985											
		1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	Total
	<u>FINANCE AND ACCOUNTING MANAGEMENT</u>												
19.	Advanced Management Accounting & Information Control	23	26	17	14	17	15	16	13	18	23	21	203
20.	Financial Management for Directors	7	8	11	13	7	8	5	16	12	14	11	112
21.	Finance for Non-Finance Executives	18	21	23	23	24	22	26	27	21	21	26	230
22.	Management Accounting	8	9	8	11	13	8	11	12	9	13	12	114
23.	Internal Auditing	77	11	13	13	12	15	8	9	13	14	11	126
24.	Budgeting and Budgetary Control	9	13	12	12	14	9	8	9	11	15	7	119
25.	Credit and Debt Management	11	15	17	16	17	18	13	15	14	13	11	160
26.	Management Auditing	10	10	9	8	7	9	11	7	8	9	12	100
27.	Banking and Corporate Cash Management	5	7	9	8	5	11	7	12	13	10	11	100
28.	Management Accounting Departments	17	18	21	23	21	25	20	20	24	27	25	241

S/NO	COURSE TITLE	Number of Participants for the Period covering 1975 - 1985											
		1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	Total
29.	Accounting for Super- visors and Senior Clerks.	27	33	34	35	38	37	37	31	40	41	42	395
	<u>MARKETING MANAGEMENT</u>												
30.	Marketing and Sales Manage- ment	65	72	82	74	76	75	79	78	80	81	73	835
31.	Advertising, Sales Promo- tion and Merchandi- sing	107	112	109	104	114	117	117	118	114	113	115	1240
32.	Marketing Research	60	55	57	53	48	49	55	54	59	60	62	612
33.	Field Sales Management	63	62	64	66	59	58	63	67	58	57	61	678
34.	Selling of Industrial Products	64	66	55	63	63	67	58	61	58	57	62	678
35.	Effective Selling Skills	142	153	147	157	157	145	139	154	138	160	160	1646
36.	Product and Brand Management	38	36	45	42	39	47	46	48	42	49	50	482
	<u>HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT</u>												
37.	Personnel Management	104	121	117	113	126	124	108	105	123	125	116	1282

S/NO	COURSE TITLE	Number of Participants for the Period covering 1975 - 1985											
		1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	Total
38.	Leadership and Motivation in Management	114	124	115	104	113	120	120	123	125	118	109	1285
39.	Job Evaluation and Salary Administration	75	62	70	68	67	64	72	74	77	66	69	764
40.	Industrial Relations	38	42	47	37	46	48	44	41	38	39	47	467
41.	Employment Laws and Regulations	37	55	48	55	54	60	59	62	49	58	61	598
42.	Managing People for Desired Results	151	145	139	136	157	151	147	153	114	138	149	1580
43.	Personal Effectiveness: Self and Time Management	48	43	37	46	41	38	39	47	73	62	50	524
44.	Developing Supervisory Leadership Skills	147	151	160	163	139	154	160	162	153	149	145	1683
45.	Managing the Team	28	26	24	28	27	31	33	30	27	29	28	311
46.	Effective Human Relations in the Organisation	142	124	114	151	137	148	147	138	127	129	139	1496
47.	Understanding Human Behaviour Course for Senior Nursing Officer	156	200	206	211	214	218	220	224	232	229	236	2346

S/NO	COURSE TITLE	Number of Participants for the Period covering 1975 - 1985											
		1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	Total
	<u>NORTHERN AREA</u>												
48.	Middle Level Management	147	151	139	148	150	152	145	154	160	162	164	1672
49.	How to Improve Managerial Performance	180	182	181	183	183	179	178	180	182	183	184	1995
50.	Management Appreciation	222	230	228	231	236	300	260	284	272	260	290	2813
51.	Leadership and Motiva- tion in Management	321	330	327	324	331	336	328	340	350	400	382	3769
52.	Developing Supervisory Leadership Skills	381	408	400	400	412	413	400	398	388	386	352	4338
	<u>EASTERN AREA</u>												
53.	Middle Level Management	130	124	98	94	96	90	92	124	126	121	94	1189
54.	How to Improve Managerial Performance	126	130	180	181	183	175	178	182	184	183	176	1878
55.	Management Appreciation	186	198	174	165	159	178	180	181	179	190	198	1988
56.	Leadership and Motiva- tion in Management	180	183	175	178	182	184	183	176	130	180	175	1926

S/NO	COURSE TITLE	Number of Participant for the Period covering 1975 - 1985											
		1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	Total
57.	Supervisory Management	225	230	231	228	236	284	260	272	230	225	228	2649
58.	Effective Selling Skills	156	206	212	218	232	180	198	240	238	171	164	2215
Total		4426	4463	4638	4674	4750	4858	4733	4956	4817	4880	4815	51910

APPENDIX L

INSTITUTE OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT OF NIGERIA  
MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING  
PROGRAMMES 1975 - 1985

S/NO	PROGRAMME OR COURSE TITLE	Number of Participant for the Period covering 1975 - 1985											
		1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	Total
1.	Social Research Methods	27	32	76	87	86	92	59	35	33	37	41	600
2.	Introduction to Personnel Management	36	44	64	64	80	72	62	34	40	46	32	574
3.	Personnel Management and Industrial Relations	20	24	24	28	48	52	52	22	38	33	45	386
4.	Industrial Relations Forum	-	-	206	303	317	280	290	312	226	282	280	2496
5.	Effective Course for Senior Secretary in Management	28	20	24	32	40	28	28	36	20	28	52	336
6.	Collective Bargaining	36	42	42	64	60	64	60	56	56	52	60	592
7.	Nigerian Labour Law	28	36	44	60	52	62	66	78	65	64	75	630
8.	Performance Appraisal	16	22	18	24	26	20	20	34	36	30	34	280
9.	Job Evaluation, Wages and Salaries Administration	22	36	42	46	61	50	36	36	30	30	34	423
	Total	213	256	540	703	770	720	673	643	544	574	653	6317

APPENDIX MTHE LIST OF THE ORGANISATIONS USED IN THE STUDY

Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishment	Number of Employees
Abiprint and Pak Limited	SW8/537B, Lagos Bye Pass, Molete, Ibadan.	1964	125
Academy Press Limited	Plot 'D', Ilupeju Industrial Estate, P.O. Box 3445, Lagos.	1962	500
Adejumo Fam (Nigeria) Limited	6, Gab Jinadu Street, Ilupeju Industrial Estate, Ilupeju, Lagos.	1952	250
Afprint Nig. Limited	Isolo Expressway, Oshodi Industrial Estate, Mushin, Lagos.	1966	
African Alliance Insurance Co. Ltd.	112, Broad Street, Lagos.	1960	250
African Continental Bank Limited	148, Broad Street, P.M.B. 2466, Lagos.	1947	4,029
African Insurance Company Limited	134, Nnamdi Azikiwe Street, P.O. Box 274, Lagos.	1950	200
African Petroleum Limited	AP House, 54/56, Broad Street, P.O. Box 512, Lagos.	1956	973
Agip Nigeria Ltd.,	Unity House, 37, Marina, P.O. Box 921, Lagos.	1961	
Aluminium Manufacturing Co. of Nigeria Limited.	32, Creek Road, P.O. Box 60, Apapa, Lagos.	1960	
American International Insurance Company (Nig.) Limited.	200, Broad Street, Lagos.	1968	306



Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishment	Number of Employees
Amicable Assurance Company Limited	126/130, Nnamdi Azikiwe Street, P.O. Box 4715, Lagos.	1972	150
Anambra Motor Manufacturing Company Ltd.	Emene Industrial Layout, P.O. Box 2523, Enugu, Anambra State.	1977	1,219
Arbico Limited	Plot D, Block VII, Industrial Crescent, Ilupeju, Lagos.	1958	1,851
Arewa Textile Limited	Industrial Area, Kaduna South, P.O. Box 288, Kaduna.	1963	3,890
Askar Paints Nigeria Limited.	Eleiyele Road, P.O. Box 581, Ibadan.	1961	100
Associated Battery Manufacturers (Nig.) Limited.	14, Sapara Street, Industrial Estate, Ikeja, Lagos.	1961	
Bank of Credit and Commerce International (Nigeria) Limited.	13C Murtala Mohammed Way, P.O. Box 5488, Kano, Nigeria.	1979	503
Bank of the North Limited	5A/6A, Lagos Street, P.O. Box 211, Kano.	1959	Over 2,500
Bata Nigeria Limited	Kilometre 15, Ikorodu Road, Ikeja, Lagos.	1964	1,907
Beecham Limited	20, Industrial Avenue, Ilupeju, P.M.B. 21218, Ikeja, Lagos.	1971	
Berec Nigeria Limited	Plot 1, Block J, Isolo Industrial Estate, Isolo, Lagos.	1963	
Berger Paints Nigeria Limited.	Oba Akran Avenue, Industrial Estate, P.M.B. 21052, Ikeja, Lagos.	1959	618

Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishment	Number of Employees
Bewac Limited	1, Commercial Road, Apapa, Lagos.	1950	861
The Biscuit Manufacturing Company of Nigeria Limited.	Adinlewa Road, P.M.B. 21056, Ikeja, Lagos.	1961	800
R.T. Briscoe (Nig.) Limited	21, Creek Road, P.O. Box 2104, Apapa, Lagos.	1957	3,680
Cadbury Nigeria Limited	New Isheri Road, Agidingbi, P.O. Box 164, Ikeja, Lagos.	1965	
Cappa and D'Alberto Limited	72, Campbell Street, Lagos.	1932	3,404
G. Cappa Limited	8, Taylor Road, Iddo, Lagos.	1952	4,412
C.F.A.O. (Nigeria) Limited (Group)	Davies Street, Lagos.	1969	3,319
K. Chellaram (Nig.) Limited	54, Marina, P.O. Box 117, Lagos.	1947	1,065
Chemical and Allied Products Limited	24, Commercial Road, P.M.B. 1004, Apapa, Lagos.	1965	769
A.C. Christlieb (Nigeria) Limited	35, Creek Road, P.O. Box 392, Apapa, Lagos.	1928	1,300
Cocoa Industries Limited	Cocoa Industries Road, Industrial Estate, Ikeja, Lagos.	1965	500
Conveyancer (Nigeria) Limited	64, Eric Moore Road, Iganmu Industrial Estate, P.M.B. 1189, Apapa, Lagos.	1964	120
Cooperative Bank of Eastern Nigeria Ltd.	28, Okpara Avenue, P.M.B. 1321, Enugu, Nigeria.	1961	1,000

Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishment	Number of Employees
Costain West Africa Limited	174, Western Avenue, P.O. Box 88, Lagos.	1948	3,962
Crittall Hope (Nigeria) Limited	Agege Motor Road, Challenge Bus Stop, Mushin, Lagos.	1958	1,600
Crusader Insurance Company Nigeria Ltd.	23/25, Martins Street, Lagos.	1956	184
C.S.S. Bookshops	Bookshop House, 50/52, Broad Street, Lagos.	1869	about 600
Daily Times of Nig. Limited.	3,5,7, Kakawa Street, Lagos.	1925	
"De Facto" Bakeries & Catering Services Ltd.	55/59, Ojuelegba Road, Surulere, Lagos.	1954	180
Dizengoff W.A. (Nig.) Limited	28, Creek Road, P.O. Box 340, Apapa, Lagos.	1959	600
Domino Stores Limited	13, Commercial Avenue, P.O. Box 431, Yaba, Lagos.	1964	400
Dorman Long and Amalgamated Engineering Limited.	20, Agege Motor Road, Idi-Oro, P.O. Box 256, Lagos.	1949	600
Dunlop Nigeria Industries Limited	Oba Akran Avenue, P.M.B. 21079, Ikeja, Lagos.	1961	1,700
Dynamic Industries Limited	6, Obasa Road, Industrial Estate, P.O. Box 33, Ikeja, Lagos.	1967	250
Eastern Enamelware Factory Limited	Plot 31, Trans-Amadi Industrial Layout, P.O. Box 23, Port Harcourt.	1964	740

Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishment	Number of Employees
Elder Dempster Agencies (Nigeria) Limited	34, Wharf Road, P.O. Box 118, Apapa, Lagos.	1969	350
Elf Nigeria Limited	35, Kofo Abayomi Str., Victoria Island, P.O. Box 927, Lagos.	1962	about 500
Embechem Limited	3/5, Sapara Street, Industrial Estate, Ikeja, Lagos.	1943	450
Enpee Industries Limited	Plot K & L Industrial Road, Ilupeju, P.O. Box 906, Lagos.	1968	
Evans Brothers (Nig.) Publishers Limited	Jericho Road, P.M.B. 5164, Ibadan.	1966	114
Fawaz Steel Wood & Chemicals (Kano) Limited	Umaru Babura Road, Bompai Industrial Area, P.O. Box 980, Kano.	1969	150
First Bank of Nigeria Limited	Unity House, 37, Marina, Lagos.	1894	8,089
Flour Mills of Nigeria Limited	2, Old Dock Road, Apapa, Lagos.	1960	4,151
Food Specialists (Nig.) Limited	19/21, Industrial Avenue, Ilupeju, P.M.B. 21164, Ikeja.	1969	1,422
Foremost Dairies Nigeria Limited	1, Ilupeju Road, P.O. Box 367, Mushin, Lagos.	1959	
Foundation Engineering (Nig.) Limited	174, Western Avenue, P.O. Box 2100, Iganmu, Lagos.	1959	200
Funtua Cottonseed Crushing Company Ltd.	Funtua	1971	250
Galvanizing Industries Limited	Oba Akran Avenue, Ikeja.	1962	280

Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishment	Number of Employees
General Cotton Mill Limited	Niger Bridge Industrial Layout, P.M.B. 1601, Onitsha.	1964	3,300
Glanvill Enthoven and Co. (Nig.) Limited.	14th Floor, Western House, 8/10, Broad Street, P.M.B. 2273, Lagos.	1957	
Glaxo Nigeria Limited	41, Creek Road, Apapa, P.M.B. 1120, Lagos.	1968	770
Global Stars (Nig.) Limited	Plot 9, Block A, Ogba Scheme, Ind. Estate, P.M.B. 1158, Ikeja, Lagos, Nigeria.	1968	16
Golden Guinea Breweries Limited	Aba Road, Afara Layout, P.M.B. 1031, Umuahia.	1962	
Great (Nigeria) Company Limited	39/41 Martins Street, P.O.Box 2314, Lagos.	1960	490
Guinea Insurance Company Limited	21/25 Broad Street, Investment House, Lagos.	1958	142
Guinness (Nigeria) Limited	Guinness H.Q., Ayandele Street, Ikeja, Lagos.	1950	4,196
Hagemeyer (Nigeria) Limited	82, Murtala Muhammed Way, Ebute-Metta, Lagos.	1960	415
H.B. and Sons (J.T. Chanrai & Co. (PH) Limited)	37/43, Enu-Owa Street, Lagos.	1964	400
Hotel Presidential Limited	P.M.B. 1096, Enugu Independence.	1963	490
Incar Nigeria Limited	10, Ijora Causeway, Ijora, Lagos.	1963	862
Industrial Cartons Limited	Plot 4, Block B, Town Planning Way, Ilupeju, P.O. Box 283, Ikeja, Lagos.	1965	350

Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishment	Number of Employees
Industrial Gases Limited	224, Apapa Road, Ijora, P.O. Box 53, Apapa, Lagos.	1959	450
International Bank for West Africa Limited	94, Broad Street, P.M.B. 12021, Lagos.	1959	1,580
International Merchant Bank (Nig.) Limited	77, Awolowo Road, Ikoyi, P.M.B. 12028, Lagos.	1974	204
International Packaging Industries of Nigeria Limited.	Plot 142, Oba Akran Avenue, Industrial Estate, Ikeja, Lagos.	1964	85
International Paints (West Africa) Ltd.,	Oba Akran Avenue, P.O. Box 67, Ikeja, Lagos.	1961	465
International Telephone and Telecommunications (Nig.) Limited.	3A, Ikorodu Road, Yaba, Lagos.	1957	3,877
Intra Motors Nigeria Limited	16, Ijora Causeway, Ijora, Lagos.	1960	666
John Holt Limited	Ebani House, 149/153, Broad Street, P.O. Box 2508, Lagos.	1961	4,530
John Okwesa Limited	5, Onike Road, Yaba, P.O. Box 123, Yaba, Lagos.	1948	90
Julius Berger Nigeria Limited	Ijora Causeway, P.O. Box 3643, Lagos.	1970	
Juli Pharmacy and Stores (Nig.) Ltd.	Juli House, 16, Kodesoh Street, Ikeja, Lagos.	1972	135
Kabelmetal Nigeri Limited	28, Henry Carr Street, Industrial Estate, Ikeja, Lagos.	1966	800
Kaduna Co-operative Bank Limited	Hospital Road, Kaduna	1972	875

Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishment	Number of Employees
Kano Merchants Trading Company Limited	73, Ibrahim Taiwo Road, P.O. Box 582, Kano.	1969	100
Kano Textile Printers Limited (KTP)	9, Independence Road, Kano.	1968	156 as at 1982
Kenting Africa Resource Services Limited.	53, Lawson Street, P.O. Box 1658, Lagos.	1962	200
Law Union and Rock Insurance Co. (Nig.) Limited	88/92, Broad Street, Lagos.	1969	106
Linnards (Nig.) Ltd.,	Kilometre 16, Ikorodu Road, Ikeja, Lagos.	1953	350
A.G. Leventis Company (Nigeria) Limited.	Iddo House, Iddo, Lagos	1958	2,839
Lever Brothers Nig. Limited.	15, Dock Yard Road, P.O. Box 15, Apapa, Lagos.	1923	
The Lion of Africa Insurance Company Limited.	Ebani House, 149/153 Broad Street, Lagos.	1952	
Livestock Feeds Ltd.	1, Henry Carr Street, Ikeja.	1963	298
Longman Nigeria Ltd.	52, Oba Akran Avenue, Ikeja, Lagos.	1961	250
Maiden Electronics Works Limited	Km. 14, Ikorodu Road, Maryland, Lagos.	1963	120
Major and Company (Nigeria) Limited	44, Burma Road, P.O. Box 351, Apapa, Lagos.	1952	134
P.S. Mandrides and Company Limited	64, Murtala Muhammed Way, P.O. Box 42, Kano	1949	
Marine & General Assurance Company Limited.	194, Broad Street, Lagos.	1969	194

Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishment	Number of Employees
Merchantile Bank of Nigeria Limited	10, Calabar Road, Calabar, Cross River State.	1970	921
Mercury Assurance Company Limited	17, Martins Street, P.O. Box 2003, Lagos.	1966	600
Metal Box Nigeria Limited	31, Creek Road, P.M.B. 1179, Apapa, Lagos.	1960	
Metal Box Toyo Glass Nigeria Limited	Km. 32, Badagry Express Road, Agbara, Ogun State.	1974	
Metalloplastica (Nigeria) Ltd.	9/11, Queen's Barrack Road, P.O. Box 309, Apapa, Lagos.	1961	500
Mobil Oil Nig. Ltd.	Bookshop House, 50, Broad Street, Lagos.	1951	474
J.L. Morison, Son & Jones (Nig.) Ltd.	10, Lancaster/Onike Road, Yaba, P.O. Box 2084, Lagos.	1955	480
Nal Merchant Bank	Bookshop House (5th Floor), 50/52, Broad Street, P.O. Box 2432, Lagos.	1960	188
National Bank of Nigeria Limited	82/86, Broad Street, P.M.B. 12123, Lagos.	1933	4,000
NCR (Nigeria) Ltd.	(Temporary) 2, Towry Street, off Catholic Mission Street, Lagos.	1949	348
National Insurance Corporation of Nigeria.	Mandilas House, 96/102 Broad Street, Lagos.	1969	
N.C.I.E. Limited.	Plot 4, Block B, Gbagada Industrial Estate, P.O. Box 837, Lagos.	1960	950



Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishment	Number of Employees
New Nigerian Bank	Mission Street, Benin City, P.M.B. 1193, Lagos.	1970	190
New Nigeria Development Company Ltd.	Ahmad Talib House, 18/19, Ahmadu Bello Way, Kaduna.	1968	400
Nichemtex Industries Limited	NIDB House, 2nd Floor, 63/71, Broad Street, P.O. Box 4815, Lagos.	1971	3,500
Niger Match Company Limited	Eleiyele Industrial Layout, Ibadan.	1972	375
(Nigercem) The Nigeria Cement Co. Limited	5, Leck Avenue, Enugu.	1954	
Nigerchin Electrical Development Company Limited	1, Ayodele Diyan Road, Ikeja Industrial Estate, P.M.B. 21096, Ikeja, Lagos.	1969	317
Nigeria Arab Bank Limited	Boston House, 10, Macarthy Street, Lagos.	1979	90
Nigerian Industrial Development Bank Limited	NIDB House, 63/71 Broad Street, P.O. Box 2357, Lagos.	1959	
Nigeria Merchant Bank Limited.	25, Nnamdi Azikiwe, Street, Lagos.	1973	105
Nigerian Oil Mills Limited	80/82 Tafawa Balewa Road, P.O. Box 342, Kano.	1952	300
Nigerian Bank for Commerce and Industry	1-9, Berkley Street, P.O. Box 4424, Lagos.	1973	
Nigerian Bottling Company Limited	Iddo House, Iddo, Lagos.	1951	4,809
Nigerian Breweries Limited.	Iganmu House, P.O. Box 545, Lagos.	1946	4,000

Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishment	Number of Employees
Nigerian Commercial & Industrial Enterprises Limited	Plot 4, Block B, Gbagada Industrial Estate, P.O. Box 837, Lagos.	1960	950
Nigerian Enamelware Company Limited	No. 1, Adinlewa Road, Industrial Estate, P.O. Box 3, Ikeja, Lagos.	1961	1,869
Nigerian Engineering Works Limited	49, Trans Amadi Industrial Layout, P.O. Box 519, Port Harcourt	1964	1,020
Nigerian Foundries Limited	1, Adeyemi Bero Crescent, Ilupeju Industrial Estate, Lagos.	1969	120
The Nigerian General Insurance Co. Ltd.	1, Nnamdi Azikiwe Street, Tinubu Square, P.O. Box 2210, Lagos.	1951	400
Nigerian Hoechst Limited	Plot 144, Oba Akran Avenue, Industrial Estate, Ikeja, Lagos.	1964	601
Nigerian Maritime Services Limited	Henry Stephens & Sons Ltd., 90 Awolowo Road, Ikoyi.	1962	300
Nigerian Motors Industries Limited	26, Wharf Road, Apapa, P.M.B. 1032, Apapa, Lagos.	1957	650
Nigerian Office Stationery Supply Stores Limited	25, Warehouse Road, Apapa, Lagos.	1944	360
Nigerian Perfecta Shoes Limited	Plot 27, Adeola Street, Ilupeju Estate, Lagos.	1964	340
Nigerian Hopes Limited	66/68, Eric Moore Road, P.O. Box 115, Apapa, Lagos.	1960	100

Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishment	Number of Employees
Nigerian Security Printing & Minting Co. Ltd.	26, Ahmadu Bello Road, Victoria Island, Lagos.	1963	2,000
Nigerian Sewing Machine Manufacturing Co. Ltd.	Plot 1, Block F, Matori Street, Mushin, Lagos.	1960	775
Nigerian Stock Brokers Limited	Bookshop House, 50/52 Broad Street, Lagos.	1960	
Nigerian Starch Mills Limited	Ethiophe House, P.O. Box 1, Ihiala, Anambra State.	1970	395
Nigerian Sweets and Confectionery Company Limited.	155, Club Road, P.O. Box 185, Kano.	1961	1,200
Nigerian Technical Company Limited	11/13, Warehouse Road, P.O. Box 356, Apapa.	1957	1,800
Nigerian Textile Mills Limited	The Mill, Oba Akran Avenue, Ikeja.	1960	2,933
Nigerian Tobacco Company Limited.	Western House, 15/16, Floor, 8/10, Broad Street, Lagos.	1951	2,925
Nigerian Wire Industries Limited	4, Henry Carr Street, Industrial Estate, P.O. Box 50, Ikeja.	1973	360
Nigerite Limited	Oba Akran Avenue, P.M.B. 21032, Ikeja.	1959	870
Nigerpak Limited	37, Warehouse Road, Apapa, Lagos.	1964	800
Nigerwest Steel Company Limited	Faleye Industrial Site, Ijebu/Lagos Road, Ibadan.	1964	250
Nipol Limited	P.M.B. 5245, Apata Ganga, Ibadan.	1957	

Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishment	Number of Employees
Northern Metal Works Company Ltd.	26, Dantata Road, Bompai, Kano.	1969	96
Northern Nigeria Flour Mills Limited.	15, Mai Malari Road, 2D Bonipai Industrial Estate, Kano.	1972	
Northern Nigeria Investments Limited	N.A.C.B. Building Hospital Road, P.O. Box 138, Kaduna.	1959	66
Northern Sawmill & Furniture Manufacturing Co. Ltd.	30A, Kundila Road, Bompai Industrial Area, P.O. Box 147, Kano.	1964	150
Northern Steel Works Limited	181, Club Road, Kano, P.O. Box 62, Kano.	1963	119
Olaogun Enterprises Limited.	Km. 8, Old Ife Road, P.O. Box 3304, Ibadan, Oyo State.	1960	170
Onward Paper Mill Limited	Obagun Avenue, Matori Industrial Estate, Oshodi, P.M.B. 21356, Ikeja, Lagos.	1973	About 400
Otis of Nigeria Limited	38, Awolowo Road, Ikoyi, P.O. Box 3694, Lagos.	1966	250
Otto Wolf (Nigeria) & Company Ltd.	9A, Marine Road, Apapa, Lagos.	1961	200
Ovaltine (West Africa) Limited	Plot 6A, Block C, Acme Road, Ogba Industrial Estate, Ikeja.	1971	117
Pacific Printers Limited	38, Commercial Avenue, Yaba, Lagos.	1957	150
Palm Line Agencies (Nigeria) Limited (a Division of U.A.C. of Nigeria Ltd.)	11, Wharf Road, Apapa, Lagos.	1931	600

Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishments	Number of Employees
Panalpina World Transport (Nigeria) Limited.	4, Creek Road, Apapa.	1954	
Paper Conversion Co. (Nigeria) Ltd.	Oregun Village Road, P.M.B. 21219, Ikeja.	1963	153
Paper Sack (Nigeria) Limited	Plot 44, Iganmu Industrial Estate, off Eric Moore Road, Surulere, Lagos.	1965	170
Passat Industries Limited	P.O. Box 396, Apapa Factory - Plot 20, Iganmu Industrial Estate.	1964	446
Pfizer Products Limited	1, Henry Carr Street, Ikeja.	1957	500
Pharco (Nigeria) Limited	290, Herbert Macaulay Street, Yaba, Lagos.	1959	200
Pharma-Deko (Nigeria) Limited	Plot C15/3 Agbara Estate, off Badagry Express Road, Ogun State, P.O. Box 2784, Lagos.	1969	
Phoenix of Nigeria Assurance Co. Ltd.	Mandilas House, 96/102 Broad Street, P.O. Box 2893, Lagos.	1964	157
Poly Products (Nigeria) Ltd.	Poly House, Plot C, Block 10, Ilepuju Scheme, Ikorodu Road, P.O. Box 3511, Lagos.	1965	
Practical Engineering Works Limited	5, Odunfa Obutong Street, P.O. Box 512, Calabar.	1974	57
Punch Nigeria Limited	Kudeti Street, Onipetesi, Agege Motor Road, Ikeja, Lagos.	1970	718

Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishment	Number of Employees
Paterson Zochonis Industries Limited	33, Town Planning Office Way, Ilupeju Industrial Estate, Ilupeju, Lagos.	1958	5,870
Raleigh Industries (Nigeria) Limited	11/12, Mai Malari Road, Bompai Industrial Estate, P.O. Box 2043, Kano.	1973	350
Rivbank Insurance Company Limited	38, Ikwerre Road, P.O. Box 177, Port Harcourt.	1972	369
Roads Nigeria Limited	595 Club Road, P.O. Box 187, Kano.	1974	4,278
Royal Exchange Assurance (Nigeria) Ltd.	New Africa House, 31, Marina, Lagos.	1921	650
Rutam Limited	225, Apapa Road, P.M.B. 115, Apapa, Lagos.	1969	526
Sanusi Steel Industries Nigeria Ltd.	Plot 9, Block A, Ogba Scheme, Ikeja Industrial Estate, P.M.B. 1158, Ikeja, Lagos.	1968	1,000
SCOA Nigeria Limited	11/13, Davies Street, P.O. Box 2318, Lagos.	1969	3,621
Seven-Up Bottling Company Limited	247, Apapa Road, Ijora, Lagos.	1960	3,000
Sterling Products (Nigeria) Limited	Plot A & K, Industrial Estate, Ilupeju, Lagos State.	1969	500
Studio Press Nigeria Ltd. (SPN PACKAGING)	Israel Adebajo Close, Industrial Estate, P.O. Box 102, Ikeja.	1965	450
Tate and Lyle (Nig.) Limited.	47/48, Eric Moore Road, Iganmu Industrial Estate, Iganmu, Surulere, Lagos.	1962	

Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establish- ment	Number of Employees
Taylor Woodrow of Nigeria Limited	10, Agbara Village Road, P.O. Box 138, Lagos.	1953	
Texaco Nigeria Limited	241, Igboere Road, Lagos.	1969	410
Total Nigeria Limited	Marina, P.M.B. 2143, Lagos.	1956	
Tower Aluminium (Nigeria) Limited	Oba Akran Avenue, P.O. Box 9, Ikeja, Lagos.	1959	944
U.A.C. of Nigeria Limited	1-5, Odunlami Street, Lagos.	1931	21,088
Union Bank of Nigeria Limited.	40, Marina, Lagos.	1917	About 7,517
Unipetrol Nigeria Limited	Western House, 8/10, Broad Street, P.O. Box 176, Lagos	1956	643
United Bank for Africa Limited	97/105, Broad Street, P.O. Box 2406, Lagos.	1961	4,852
United Nigeria Insurance Co. Ltd.	53, Marina, P.O. Box 588, Lagos.	1965	
United Nigeria Textile Mills Ltd.	Plot O, Industrial Estate, Kaduna.	1964	6,562
Unity Life & Fire Insurance Company Limited	9, Nnamdi Azikiwe Street, P.O. Box 3681, Lagos.	1965	460
UTC Nigeria Limited	139, Broad Street, Lagos.	1932	5,370
Vegetable Oils (Nigeria) Limited	Kilometre 16, Ikorodu Road, P.O. Box 121, Ikeja, Lagos.	1965	230

Name of Organisation	Head Office	Year of Establishment	Number of Employees
Vita Foam Nigeria Limited	Oba Akran Avenue, Industrial Estate, Ikeja, Lagos.	1969	1,000
Vono Products Limited	248, Agege Motor Road, Mushin, Lagos State.	1960	597