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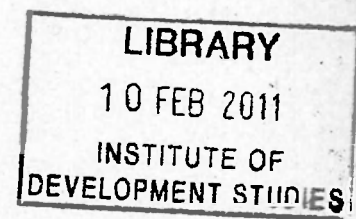
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MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING  
IN KENYA, PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

by

Moses N. Kiggundu  
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INSTITUTE FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES  
UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI  
P.O. Box 30197  
Nairobi, Kenya

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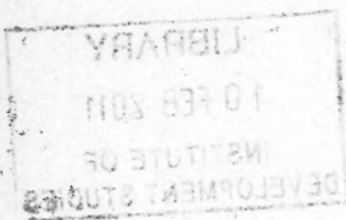


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ABSTRACT

This paper reports on the preliminary findings on an ongoing study in the area of management development and training in Kenya's private sector. It begins with an assessment of the quantitative and qualitative current and projected demand for various categories of managerial skills and the extent to which current kenyanization policies and training programmes effectively address themselves to these needs.

An identification of the more important managerial skill deficiencies among kenyan managers is also made and used as basis for discussing the relevancy of current management development and training programmes and methodologies in eliminating these deficiencies. The need for trainers to provide professional assistance for the organizations and individual trainees to identify training needs and reformulate more realistic expectations from management development programmes is also stressed.

## I. QUANTITATIVE NEED ASSESSMENT

The Africanization and later Kenyanization of personnel in both the private and public sectors of this country have been major concerns for government and foreign investors particularly after independence.<sup>1</sup> Various programmes, strategies and tactics, both persuasive and coercive, have been applied for the achievement of these goals. These included, among others, the institution and vigorous application of entry and immigration rules, the introduction of work permits, and the creation of the Kenyanization of Personnel Bureau in 1967. Since then the bureau has served as a permanent agency whose main function is to police these regulations and supervise the whole Kenyanization programme. Operationally, the bureau is overtly concerned with the processing and stringent application of work permit regulations instead of ensuring an increased and better supply of high level Kenyan manpower for the two sectors.<sup>2</sup>

These strategies have been more successful in the public than in the private sector in terms of numerically placing Kenyans in positions formerly held by expatriates. By October, 1971, the total Civil Service had been 96.3 per cent Kenyanized while in some departments the process was totally complete. However, at the middle and high levels of the service, this was hardly the case and as the 1972 Economic Survey shows, only 33 percent of all positions were Kenyanized at these two top levels.

In this paper, the focus is on the private rather than the public sector. This focus is justified for several reasons. First, it is generally believed that the Kenyanization of personnel process is slower

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1. At the time of independence, official government publications discuss "Africanization" of jobs then held by expatriates as the goal for the government. By the 1970's the terminology had changed to "Kenyanization" and though the creation of the Kenyanization of Personnel Bureau in 1967 should have helped to indicate the intent, if not the practice of government policy confusion still remains over the meaning of the two terms. For a comparison of government publications and use of these terms, see, Kenya. Economic Survey, 1967, and 1973.

2. For a statement of the bureau's priorities and preoccupations, see, Kenya. Ministry of Labour Annual Report, 1968, and 1969.

3. Kenya. Report of the Training Review Committee, 1971-1972.  
W. Wamalwa, Chairman, Nairobi, 1972, hereafter referred to as the Wamalwa Report.



in the private than in the public sector. In the Annual Report of the Ministry of Labour for 1969, the Kenyanization of Personnel Bureau complained that a number of firms "were employing a variety of delaying tactics" in preparing Kenyans to take over expatriate jobs (2, p. 28). This fear was conformed by the manpower survey of 1972 which showed that for the private sector, the middle and high level jobs were only 68 percent Kenyanized as compared with 83 percent for the public sector. Moreover, the same survey indicated that the private sector was the bigger of the two sectors employing 59 percent of the same cadre of manpower as compared with 41 percent for the public sector.

More recently, the acute shortage of high level manpower particularly, but not exclusively, for the private sector has been clearly stated in the current Development Plan when it states that "Trained manpower — administrators, managers, and technicians, as well as skilled clerical and manual workers — are a major bottleneck."<sup>4</sup>

Table I below illustrates further, the problem of the quantitative shortage of managerial manpower in Kenya. It shows the existing supply and projected demand for different levels of supervisory and managerial manpower in the private sector. For example, in 1972, there were 1214 General managers of whom 894 or 73.64% were non-citizens and additional requirements for General managers by 1978 are projected at 1800. For this

TABLE I: EXISTING SUPPLY (1972) AND PROJECTED DEMAND FOR CATEGORIES OF SUPERVISORY AND MANAGERIAL MANPOWER IN KENYA (1972-1978)

Manpower Category	Total Supply (1972)	Of Whom Non-citizens	Non-Citizens As % of Total	Additional Requirements (1978)	Average % Growth rate per year
1. General Managers	1214	894	73.64	1800	24.71
2. Production Managers	177	116	65.54	300	28.53
3. Specialized Managers	254	150	59.06	450	29.54
4. Farm Managers & Supervisors	4273	490	11.47	1400	5.46
5. Managers, n.e.c.&Proprietors	9590	4122	42.98	10000	17.38
6. Clerical and Other Administrative Managers	2306	588	25.51	1900	12.73
7. Production Supervisors & General Foremen	3152	744	23.61	3200	16.90
TOTALS	20966	7164	33.88	19050	15.14

Source: Development Plan, 1974-78, Table 3.7, p. 106.

4. Kenya. Development Plan, 1974-78, Part I, Nairobi, 1972, p. 102.

projection to be realized, the supply of this category of managers must grow at an average annual rate of 24.71 per cent. This Table also shows that although the average percentage of supervisory and managerial manpower that is non-kenyan is only 33.88 percent, this rises to as high as 73.64% for General Managers and remains over 50 percent for the first three top categories of managers. Even clerical and administrative jobs are as high as 25.51% non-kenyanized.

The additional requirements are also noteworthy if only to give an indication of the amount of work that has to be done for the achievement of total Kenyanization of all supervisory and managerial positions by target year 1982.<sup>5</sup> The total supply must almost double between 1972-1978 from 20,966 to a projected total of 40,016. Nearly in all cases and certainly for the top three categories, the additional requirements by 1978 are more than the existing supplies of 1972. Therefore, the achievement of the projected demand requires doubling the supply of each category of supervisory and managerial manpower stocks only in a period of four years.

Clearly, this calls for greater efforts for the successful numerical Kenyanization of the private sector. As the larger of the two sectors, its numerical absolute demand for middle and high level managerial manpower is higher and as the less Kenyanized of the two, it must be supplied with more Kenyan supervisors and managers. Needless to point out, the rigid application of immigration and work permit regulations alone cannot help alleviate these bottlenecks. Instead, what seems to be urgently needed as demonstrated by the data above, is the institution of positive programmes that focus more on the supply side of the equation.

## II. QUALITATIVE NEED ASSESSMENT.

The numerical need assessment of managerial manpower as outlined above shows only half of the problem. Though it is important that an accurate assessment of the quantities of present and future managerial manpower needs be made to facilitate statistical analysis and forecast, this alone does not provide a total and adequate measure of the achievements and problems of effective Kenyanization. Effective

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5. The Kenya Government has stated that "all non-citizens will have been replaced by citizens in 1982", See the current Development Plan, 1974-78, op.cit., pp. 103.

Kenyanization requires, among other things, that not only should various categories of Kenyan managers be supplied in the right numbers, they must also be of the right calibre.

This means, first of all, that they must have a broad educational background and be highly competent in their various technical skills that they acquire through training and experience. Secondly, and more important, they must have supervisory and managerial skills appropriate to their new roles as managers. Their perception, attitudes and behaviour must be facilitative of their new managerial functions. As managers, they must be able to manage and this requires developing their intra-personal and interpersonal skills much more than their technical skills. As the Wamalwa report rightly points out, technical skills without the appropriate interpersonal skills for any manager "is largely unproductive and it could be counter-productive."<sup>6</sup> Therefore, in order to develop Kenyans as total managers capable of performing major non-routine managerial functions, it is important that their interpersonal skills be developed in accordance with their new managerial requirements.

The qualitative managerial intra-personal and interpersonal skills required of any manager are broad and indeed often situationally varied. However, given the Kenyan organizational and societal context, it is possible to spell out some of the important such skills. First of all, the manager's attitudes and behaviour towards his job, his coworkers and his organization must be supportive and perceived as being so by all those with whom he interacts as a manager. He must be committed to his job and loyal to his organization while at the same time he maintains a high sense of public duty and responsibility. He should be able to understand the relationship and interdependence between his job, his organization and the wider socio-economic system. Indeed, he must be able to grasp the dynamic aspects of his environment and the inevitable changes that these bring to his job and organization.

At his work place, he must be able to establish and maintain a supportive work relationship with his coworkers and build mutual trust and understanding with them. He should also facilitate open communication with all individuals with whom he deals while executing his managerial functions. He must also have the ability to anticipate, plan for and manage change and its inevitable conflict.<sup>7</sup>

6. Wamalwa, D.N., op. cit., p. 6.

7. For a discussion of the management of change and conflict in a formal organizational context, See, for example, Thomas, J.M. & Bennis W.G. Management of Change and Conflict, Penguin, 1972.



At the intrapersonal level, he must have enough confidence in himself to be able to take initiative and act independently without receiving close supervision. He needs that much confidence in order to be able to take high risk managerial decisions and accept the responsibility that always accompanies risky situations. He has got to have the "guts" to function under conditions of uncertainty and stress since these are typical conditions for all managers especially those managing under rapidly changing conditions. Finally, he must be able to develop himself and his subordinates for more effective performance and wider responsibilities.

These qualitative skills are extremely important and their acquisition by Kenyan managers and other new African managers is necessary before effective managerial localisation of personnel can be achieved. Anybody concerned, as for example, with the Kenyanization of managerial positions and functions, must discover to what extent local managers have developed these skills. Trainers and those designing supervisory and management development and training programmes must demonstrate a clear understanding of the skills that their clients are in need of both individually and collectively as a management team. The choice for the design, pedagogy and methodology of the training programmes would then be specifically related to the type of skills that are mutually identified as lacking and whose development is necessary for more effective growth and performance of the managers. Clearly, no objective management development and training programme can be designed without first discovering the type of skills that the Kenyan manager needs developed before he can become a total and effective agent of managerial Kenyanization.

Some Evidence From the New African Managers.

Unfortunately, very little is yet known about the new African manager. Information is scanty and filled with gaps as to which of these skills the African manager is lacking and therefore needs develop. In the employment organizations, promotions into the managerial echelon are at best merely based on technical competency without prior experimentation of the individual's interpersonal and managerial skills. This increases the risk involved in placing such a person in a managerial role and it is not surprising that in a number of organizations,



the Kenyanization of managerial functions has been quite costly.<sup>8</sup>

Worse still, when designing supervisory and management development programmes, trainers resort to methodologies that are irrelevant and sometimes harmful for the development of the skills that their trainees lack and need so badly. The typical setting is usually such that both the trainees and the trainer meet as strangers, each suspicious of the other and the latter unable to create "a psychological contract for learning" with the trainees.<sup>9</sup> Under such strained relationships, the trainer has no options for dealing with the trainees except to assert his authority as a leader by establishing a traditional classroom teacher-student relationship.<sup>10</sup>

A study recently carried out in Nigeria gives some insight into the types of skills that the new African manager actually lacks. The study, among other things, shows that the new Nigerian manager lacks managerial, intra-personal and interpersonal skills much more than technical skills and that lack of management training largely explains the reasons for this deficiency. Table II below gives the major factors retarding the new Nigerian manager from performing his managerial functions. Over 30% of the factors retarding effective managerial

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8. The Kenyanization of any managerial job formerly performed by an expatriate can be analysed as a high-risk managerial decision. The placement of an untried and often untrained person in a managerial role makes it an even higher-risk decision. Sometimes the risk is averted either by de-kenyanizing the total job or its more important managerial functions. It would, however, be possible to reduce the risk considerably by preparing and testing the individual's technical and interpersonal skills so as to enable management to predict more accurately his expected managerial behaviour. This would reduce the costs of Kenyanization. For a discussion of these costs, see Collin, B.A.N. "Some Issues and Dilemmas in Management Training for the East African Corporations and the East African Community Organizations" East African Management Journal Vol. 7, No.1, 1972.

9. The importance of creating a psychological contract for learning in management development and training is discussed by Holloman, C.R. "Human Growth and Development in the Classroom" Proceedings of the Academy of Management, Minneapolis, 1972.

10. For a description of the typical setting of management development and training programmes, see Sommerfeld, Paul J. "The Development of Managers and Organizations: A Discussion of the purposes of management Training in Africa" and Young, T.R. "The Administrative Staff College Approach to Management Training" both from the conference of Regional Expert Group Meeting on Higher Management Education and Training in Africa, Addis Ababa, 1973.

**TABLE II: MAJOR FACTORS RETARDING INDIGENOUS NIGERIAN MANAGERIAL PERFORMANCE**

Major Factors	%
1. Inadequate Management Training	30.4
2. Poor Quality subordinate Employee	26.1
3. Lack of team feelings among Managers	8.7
4. Poor Relations with employees	8.7
5. Uncooperative or difficult union members	4.4
6. Miscellaneous	21.7
	100.0

Source: Notes from the "Regional Expert Group Meeting on Higher Management Education and Training in Africa". Addis Ababa, 1973.

performance results from inadequate and improper management training while another 30% percent is a result of some form of interpersonal incompetency resulting either from lack of team spirit among managers (8.7%), and poor relations with coworkers (13.1%) including poor co-operation with union members.

The same study reported an analysis of the major characteristic weaknesses of the same Nigerian managers. These weaknesses were defined and individual ratings estimated for each weakness. The findings of this aspect of the study are tabulated below. About 60%

**TABLE III: "DEFINING RATING OF INDIGENOUS NIGERIAN MANAGERS."**

Weakness	% Rating
1. Lack of Initiative	20.3
2. Inadequate Education or Professional background	13.6
3. Unwillingness or reluctance to take decisions	13.6
4. Reluctancy to do manual work	13.6
5. Undue concern for Personal Prestige	11.9
6. Tendency to stick to the desk	10.2
7. Insufficient loyalty to the organization	10.2
8. Too anxious to please subordinates	3.4
9. Miscellaneous	3.4
TOTAL	100.0

Source: As Table II above.

of the weaknesses are due to lack of initiative, unwillingness or reluctance to make managerial decisions, inadequate or improper management training or insufficient commitment and loyalty to the employing organizations. These weaknesses are clear symptoms of the indigenous Nigerian manager's lack of confidence in himself and inability to adequately perform his new role as a manager by learning to live in an uncertain and stressful environment which constantly calls upon him to take managerial high-risk decisions and accept the related responsibility.

This study, which may well have relevancy for the new Kenyan manager, clearly demonstrates that what the indigenous Nigerian manager needs is not so much of technical skills as much as he needs to develop his intrapersonal and interpersonal skills that he needs in order to function effectively and independently as a manager while at the same time he facilitates a meaningful interaction process with his fellow employees so as to build a management team at the work place. These findings should provide valuable guidelines for trainers and designers of management development and training programmes for the indigenous Nigerian managers as well as the new local managers elsewhere in Black Africa.<sup>11</sup>

Another study was made in Ethiopia by Doty during his service as a manager and trainer in that country over the years 1969-1971. The study was, among other things, aimed at trying to discover the attitudes, deficiency in skills and techniques and behaviour of the new Ethiopian managers who were being developed and trained for rapid Ethiopianization.<sup>12</sup> In this study, senior managers were asked to identify major managerial weaknesses of their subordinates and the following came up as major weaknesses:

1. Reluctancy to assume more authority and responsibility.
2. Unwillingness to take risks and make appropriate managerial decisions.
3. Lack of initiative and aggressiveness.
4. Lack of work commitment and low need for achievement.

11. For a discussion of training and designing problems and experiences in Nigeria, See.

Abramson, R. et. al. "Human Relation (Sensitivity) Training in African: A report on the Second Staff Development and Human Relations Training Workshop" Zaria, Nigeria, 1973.

12. Doty, J.H. "Management Development in Ethiopia" in Proceedings of the Academy of Management, 32 Annual Meeting, Minneapolis, August, 1972.



5. Poor communication both formally and informally.
6. Unwillingness to delegate and poor at planning and setting goals.
7. Inadequate knowledge of general business practice and lack of interest to work with figures.
8. Lack<sup>of</sup> confidence in himself and avoiding direct criticism however constructive or well-intentioned.<sup>13</sup>

These weaknesses are clearly a result of the Ethiopian manager's lack of appropriate preparation for his new managerial role and the difference between the demands of this role and the traditional social setting in which he was born and raised and from which he is struggling to emerge.<sup>14</sup> His lack of confidence in himself, his inability to take initiative and decision making and his poor communication "down" and "around" render him unable to manage. He must therefore be helped to develop into a total manager before he can be an effective agent of Ethiopianisation.

Doty's findings correlate quite closely with the observations of Sommerfeld who has done extensive training and designing of management development programmes in various parts of Africa including Kenya. After several years of classroom experience, he observed that the new African manager or administrator lacked confidence in himself, avoided autonomy, preferred dependence to independence, lacked decision-making techniques and could not cope adequately with situations of uncertainty and stress.<sup>15</sup> He also observed that because of the colonial history of most of Africa, it was inevitable that the new African manager's confidence and self respect had to be totally shattered out of him.<sup>16</sup> The major observation Sommerfeld made was that in a situation like that

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13. These findings must be understood in the light of the fact that the subjects were middle managers being evaluated by their seniors. Some of these problems are actually inherent in their positions as middle managers rather than as new African managers. For a discussion of the problems of middle managers and their relationships to management development, See, Krumbein, Eliezer, "A Model of Continuing Professional Education for Middle Managers" in Manpower Planning and Programming, Elmer Burack and James W. Walker (eds.) Allyn and Bacon Inc. 1972.

14. For a discussion of the practical problems of new African managers trying to live up to the bureaucratic demands of modern organizations in basically traditional setting, see Kiggundu, M.N. "The Role of Conflict in Uganda's Emerging Bureaucracies", The University of Alberta, August 1972.

15. Sommerfeld, Paul, J. op.cit.

16. For a more lively and detailed account of the problems of education for the oppressed, See Freire, P. Pedagogy of The Oppressed. Penguin, 1972.



prevailing in Kenya with "rapid economic and social change, the primary need is to develop individuals capable of tolerating and controlling uncertainty and change; to develop managers capable of taking decisions and using their initiative in unstable environments."<sup>17</sup> Indeed, Sommerfeld, Doty and the Nigerian study identify the same problem area facing the new African manager and those trying to develop him and use him as an agent of change as well as localization of personnel.

Here in Kenya, evidence in support of this qualitative problem of management development and training is hard to get by. Both the Ndegwa Commission and the Wamalwa report provide some insight into the nature and magnitude of the problem. The Ndegwa Commission largely basing its evidence from the inputs of an American consultant, recommended that the public service of Kenya should adopt modern management techniques largely aimed at improving the civil servants interpersonal competency.<sup>18</sup> The Wamalwa report also put heavy emphasis on the need for management development and training that would influence the African manager's attitudes and behaviour while performing his managerial functions. The problem with these two reports is that being government sponsored and having been completed in a very short period of time, they were not based on systematic field research evidence to back up their recommendations. Rather they were dependent on "armchair" theorizing about the actual qualitative needs of management development and training in this country.

A more systematic study undertaken here in Kenya was began in 1971 by Michael Greaves and Norman Hunt both of the University of Edinburgh. The major purpose of this study was to find out the attitudes and background of the new African managers and their effect, if any, on the Kenyanization of personnel in the private sector. They also set out to discover what individual firms in the private sector were doing in preparing and developing local managers by way of management development and training.

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17. Sommerfeld, op.cit. p. 3.

18. Kenya. Report of the Commission of Inquiry (Public Service Structure and Remuneration Commission) 1970-1971. Chapter X, D.N. Ndegwa, Chairman, 1971, Nairobi, herein referred to as the Ndegwa Commission.

They collected data from 62 companies and 179 managers and the preliminary findings indicate a very close similarity between the characteristic managerial weakness of the Ethiopian and Nigerian managers and those here in Kenya. For example, the study shows that the new Kenyan black manager is poor at making discretionary managerial decisions, does not readily accept responsibility for his managerial actions and tends to prefer closer supervision to freedom of action or independence. He also lacks the ability to plan ahead and he is impatient for promotion.<sup>19</sup> Greaves' preliminary recommendation for helping these managers to eliminate these managerial weaknesses is by way of management development and training. However, he also observed that "there is a lack of commitment to the true nature and notion of management development even though this is necessary for the successful accomplishment of Africanization!"<sup>20</sup> Evidently, the problem is to discover exactly what the 'true nature and notion of management development' that will bring about effective qualitative Kenyanization with managers that have both the technical and intrapersonal and interpersonal skills for effectively discharging their managerial functions.

### III. PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY OF THE PRESENT STUDY

#### Purpose.

The present study relies on the evidence collected here in Kenya as well as elsewhere in Africa concerning the important managerial and interpersonal skill deficiencies of the new African or Kenyan manager. It is based on the proposition that these skills must be developed before the new Kenyan managers can be effectively used as agents of change and Kenyanization. The first purpose of the study, therefore, was to discover how much the Kenyan private sector is actually doing in developing these skills. This required an examination of the nature and extent of the response of this sector both to the quantitative and qualitative managerial bottlenecks as identified above. Particularly, the study sought to find out to what extent this sector has accepted the challenge of developing its managers by way of management development and training.

19. Greaves, Michael, J. "The New (Black) Face of Kenyan Management" Daily Nation, Friday 8th & 15th Sept., 1972.

20. Greaves, M.J. Private Communication, 1974.

Previous writers on this topic have provided rather disappointing results. Michael Greaves indicated that the management development and training activities in Kenya's private sector were inadequate in spite of the fact that this was necessary to ensure rapid and effective Kenyanization of managerial functions.<sup>21</sup> He also observed that many firms did not have a "comprehensive system" of management development and training.

The Wamalwa report was even more critical of both the private and public sectors' involvement and co-ordination of management development and training. It also pointed out the lack of a systematic and collaborative approach for the two sectors and concluded that the situation was "clearly unsatisfactory" and that the country as a whole was "not getting full value for the money which is expended on training."<sup>22</sup> It further observed that the two sectors were "affected by the lack of effective management training."<sup>23</sup> Finally, the report pointed out very sharply that the most serious problem was the lack of clear objectives for the individual firm, its managers and the training activities themselves as far as management development and training was concerned.

Given the important skills that have been identified as lacking but whose development is necessary for the new managers, it was felt necessary to try to find out what methodologies, design and pedagogy were used for training. The interpersonal and managerial skills that need urgent attention for managerial development, require an affective rather than cognitive approach to training. The training design and methodology should be such that the managers, both individually and in groups, have an opportunity to experiment with the new ideas and skills that are being developed. For example, they should have the facilities to experiment with independent decision making, choice commitment and risk-taking in stressful, uncertain and unfamiliar environments. In addition, the trainers must be supportive and totally available in order to provide the necessary encouragement and guidance during and after the training sessions.<sup>24</sup>

21. Greaves, M.J. *op.cit.*

22. Wamalwa, W.N., Chapter I.

23. Wamalwa, W.N., *Ibid.*

24. There is ample literature concerning the design, methodology and trainer role for programmes aimed at improving participants' intra-personal and interpersonal skills. Two examples from Africa and Latin America respectively are:

a) Nylen, D. et. al. Handbook of Staff Development and Human Relations Training: Materials Developed for Use in Africa, Washington, D.C. 1967.

b) Harrison, R. & Hopkins, R.L. "The Design of Cross-Cultural Training: An Alternative to the University Model" in D.A. Kolo et. al. Organization Psychology, A book of Readings, Plentice Hall, 1971.



The third, but methodologically more difficult, purpose of this study is to try to evaluate the effectiveness of the existing management development and training programmes. Knowledge of the skill deficiencies that these programmes are designed to correct and examination of the methodological and pedagogical packages used should provide valuable guidelines for evaluation.. Evaluation is here limited to discovery of the extent to which these packages are appropriate for effectively correcting the identified skill deficiencies and facilitate the development of Kenyans into total and competent managers.

#### Methodology

This study started informally during my intensive participation in various management development and training programmes in Nairobi. During these programmes, my role has varied from being a trainee, an observer and then as a designer and trainer of many of these programmes, I have also observed many trainers in action and often held lengthy discussions about their training goals and philosophies. I have also had various discussions with trainee participants both collectively during training sessions and individually either in their offices or more informally in pubs and elsewhere.

In a formal and more systematic manner, this study started only five months ago and it is still in progress. It is made up of several stages each following from the other. The first stage involved sending out a 14 page questionnaire of 52 questions to large and medium-sized firms each employing at least a total of 100 employees. The original mailing list was obtained from the Register of Manufacturing Firms, 1970, a publication of the Statistical Division of the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development.<sup>25</sup> Modifications were made to the original list in the light of more and up to date information. For example, firms listed separately but known to be under the same management or investment group were grouped together. Additions to the list were made by personal contacts during various management development courses held in Nairobi. In the end, 113 separate questionnaires were mailed either to the personnel manager, or where more information was given about a particular firm, to the training officer or manager. A number of these questionnaires were personalized where personal contacts had been made with the personnel or training manager of a particular firm.

The second state involved holding interviews with different types of managers and trainees in selected training firms. Ideally,

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25. Kenya. Register of Manufacturing Firms, 1971, Nairobi.



it was hoped that some interviews would be carried out even in those firms which did not claim to have a "formal management development and training programme." In all cases, the contact person was either the personnel manager or another senior manager in the same department who provided information about training and related personnel functions of the organization. He was also the one who arranged interviews with the company's past and present trainees who were also interviewed.

The trainees so far interviewed have all been supplied by the personnel department of each company in collaboration with various departmental heads. It is therefore possible that these might have been "hand picked," so as to provide a rather exaggerated picture of the company's management development activities. My only criteria for selection of the trainee is that he must be above the unionizable ranks and that he must be a citizen of Kenya regardless of colour or race.<sup>26</sup>

The fourth stage, which has not been extensively done to date due to research manpower shortages, involves interviewing departmental heads of those firms that do have formal training programmes. The purpose of this interview is to obtain first hand information from top management as to what they think are the more serious skill deficiencies of their junior managers and how successful their company's training programmes are in assisting them to eliminate these deficiencies and develop the Kenyan managers. It was hoped that the departmental heads would have a more accurate assessment of the effectiveness of their company's training programmes since they are the main users of these programmes and since they are in constant contacts with the trainees as they go through various stages of development and training. At the time of writing more data is expected to come from the companies contacted and more interviews have been scheduled. The discussion that follows in the next section is based on the preliminary findings of the data so far received.

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26. This approach and interpretation of the concept of Kenyanization is slightly different from that of Greaves. While his focus was exclusively for Kenyan black (however defined?) managers, the present study includes all citizens irrespective of race. This difference is mainly a result of the confusion of the meaning and intent of localization programmes as explained above. Greave saw the problem as one of eliminating "Racial balances" in managerial positions while the present study limits itself to the replacement of non-citizens by Kenyan managers.

IV. SOME FINDINGS FROM THE PRESENT STUDY

At the time of writing, responses have been received from 41 firms particularly from the bigger ones. This represents a return rate of 36.3% which is expected to grow as more returns come in. Of these, one firm had closed down business, <sup>were disqualified either because their total</sup> eight more/employment was below the cut-off point or because they were somehow associated to other holding companies which were expected to send in responses for the whole group. These were excluded in order to avoid possible errors of double counting. One firm indicated an unwillingness to participate in the study because it was faced with an "unforeseen shortage of managerial manpower." This left a total of 31 useable returns.

Of these, slightly over 50 percent indicated that they had some form of "formal" supervisory and management development and training programmes. The rest which are referred to as non-training did not have such programmes.<sup>27</sup> In general, better responses came from the international and larger firms whose personnel managers showed more occupational and professional interests. Though responses were received from both local and international firms from different industrial centres of Kenya, some firms, particularly those in the textile and saw mill industries were unduly sensitive about it and totally reluctant to participate. It was obvious that they did not want to discuss their management development and training activities though they were very willing and ready to provide quite high numerical rates of Kenyanization of personnel in their respective firms.

Table IV below gives some data comparing the training from non-training firms. As can be clearly seen, the training firms are on average bigger by way of employment than the non-training ones. The former employed an average of 898 people as compared to only 491 for the latter. This indicates that larger firms are more likely to have some form of formalized management development and training programmes than the smaller ones.

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27. The term "non-training" could be slightly misleading. Some of these firms actually engage in some form of management development and training. Apart from on the job training which all the firms proudly claim to be engaged in, a few of these firms sought external training except that they had no systematic training policy or programmes and consequently, they kept no record of their training activities.

The table also shows that the training firms, being bigger, have a bigger share of the local market than the non-training firms. Most firms ranked very low the idea that they were engaged in competitive training (i.e. because their competitors too were training). This response is not surprising given the relatively high industrial concentration in Kenya and the absence of direct keen product market competition especially for the larger and often protected firms. However, some training firms felt that indirectly, their training policies were influenced by the keen competition that exists in the labour market for some specialized managerial skills. The turnover rate for

TABLE IV: COMPARISON OF TRAINING AND NON-TRAINING FIRMS

	TRAINING FIRMS			NON-TRAINING FIRMS		
	MAXI-MUM	AVE-RAGE	MIN-MUM	MAXI-MUM	AVE-RAGE	MINI-MUM
1. Total employment per firm <sup>1/</sup>	2347	898	140	2600	491	100
2. Total number os Super- visors & Managers	260	98	10	80	25	3
3. Percentage of Kenyan labour force	99	94	60	99	87	3
4. Percentage of Kenyan market controlled (major product line)	99	74	7	85	41	10
5. percentage of Company locally owned	100	57	0	100	69	0

1/ As defined by each individual firm.

Source: Questionnaire Returns.

supervisory and middle management jobs is quite high and training firms reported an average wastage rate of 27% for external training with several firms experiencing over 50% of such wastage. Senior managers thought that this was because there were still a number of firms which did not have training programmes and which sought to fill their managerial posts due for Kenyanization by "raiding" one of the larger training firms.

For both the training and non-training firms, the quantitative rate of Kenyanization was quite high. The training firms had a slightly higher rate of 93.6% while that for the non-training ones was 86.9%. In both cases, the rates are higher than those given in table I. It is not



clear, however, whether this rate is that high because of training or because of the fact that our sample excluded the smaller firms (with less than 100 employees) whose Kenyanization process is perhaps slower. In this light, it is possible that the larger firms would receive more pressure from within but more so from government and the public to adopt a faster rate of Kenyanization than the smaller ones and since the traditional measure for the success of Kenyanization is by way of percentages, these firms must have discovered the way to "beat the system."

The basic question which this analysis raises is whether it is proper and adequate to measure the success of Kenyanization merely by taking a numerical ~~count~~ of the number of Kenyan employees as compared to total employment for the firm. This measure is certainly misleading especially for those labour intensive and agricultural firms which have a high number of unskilled and semi-skilled employees who must obviously be Kenyans and certainly not expatriates. Clearly, what is needed is a measure of Kenyanization that reflects the Kenyan managerial participation in the running of the firm.

Such a measure would be difficult to formulate because it seeks to determine the qualitative managerial contribution of the Kenyan managers to the total managerial functions of the enterprise. The computation of such a measure would require much more detailed information about the individual Kenyan managers and the internal working and organization of the firm than is ordinarily available to government bureaus.

It is possible to give some suggestions for the formulation of such a measure. First, since managerial salaries could be assumed to be a measure of the value the enterprise places on its managerial resources, a comparison of the ratios for each firm of the Kenyan to the total number of managers in the firm and the Kenyan share of the managerial salaries to the total firm's salary bill would give an indication of the comparative value the enterprise places on its Kenyan managers. A second suggestion would be by taking all the enterprise's managerial resources both Kenyan and non-kenyan, and for each calculate the total skills both technical and managerial which are brought to the management of the firm. A comparison of the total Kenyan managers' such skills with the total enterprise skills would give a qualitative measure of the effectiveness of Kenyanization of that firm.



Obviously, none of these is free from methodological and practical problems of definition and measurements and yet a purely quantitative measure of kenyanization by way of employment is totally inadequate and sometimes misleading. This points to the need for the formulation of a more satisfactory measure of the extent of effective Kenyanization or localization of personnel for any country concerned with the replacement of expatriates with local managers.<sup>28</sup>

#### Methodology and Pedagogy Used in Training

In an effort to try and discover the effect of training of the identified managerial skill deficiencies in Kenya, an examination was made of the policies, contents and design of the various firms' training programmes. The methodologies and pedagogical aids used were also studied to discover their appropriateness to the needs of the trainees. Finally, the role of the trainer was scrutinized to discover the extent to which these trainers are supportive in assisting the trainee to develop and apply the new skills that were passed over to them during training sessions to his managerial job.

The policies of the firms were hard to get to. Only 50% of the training firms had written policy statements on training. The rest dealt with training needs and problems on an "ad hoc", commonsense approach. However, a few themes emerged during subsequent interviews with various managers. Most managers believed that on the job training was the best way of developing managerial skills using job rotation and understudying the expatriate counterpart. Secondly, there was a general belief particularly among senior managers that there was a body of knowledge called "management principles" which their juniors needed and that the best way of getting it would be by attending external courses either locally in Kenya or better still overseas.

The rather high dependence of on the job training for developing managerial skills cannot be justified. While on the job training is sometimes beneficial at lower levels of the organization, middle and

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<sup>28</sup> This part of the discussion is bordering on a more fundamentally ideological question of the relationship between ownership, control and management of resources. After a point, the inconsistency between localization of high managerial functions in foreign owned resources becomes apparent. This inconsistency would result into possible conflict if the localization programme were pushed far enough into those managerial functions and areas of vital interest for the foreign owners. Is it possible to establish a clearly defined and mutually acceptable cut-off point of qualitative localization of foreign owned resources in order to accommodate the conflict?

top management development aimed at developing interpersonal skills requires more systematic efforts.<sup>29</sup> It was not even clear whether the senior managers of these firms had the desire, time and competency to act as trainers and change agents for the development of their more junior managers. There is also the more basic question of whether the daily managerial pressures do not add confusion for the trainee in the process of differentiating his senior's habits from appropriate managerial behaviour. As for the expatriate manager, the role of trainer is even more uncomfortable.<sup>30</sup> In a number of firms visited, there were feelings of uneasiness between the African managers and their senior expatriates. The relationship that existed was not cordial enough to allow for mutual trust that is always needed in developing intra-personal and interpersonal skills. As Harrison and Hopkins point out, the most serious problems of expatriates are "emotional and interpersonal" and since their role as trainers would call upon them to focus on affective levels of learning, they would not be able to facilitate meaningful interaction for learning with their junior counter-parts.<sup>31</sup>

The training firms were asked to identify, those training methodologies that they commonly used from a list as provided below. They were also asked to give the percentage of times each methodology was used. In a separate section of the questionnaire, they were asked to rank the effectiveness of each of the same methodology on a five-point scale. A comparison of the two responses is tabulated below showing the difference between the methodologies that they were using and those they thought more effective for developing their managers.

As table V shows, almost 80% of the training time is spent on some form of cognitive learning processes (a+b+c+h). The danger with this inappropriate design is that not only does it fail to bring

29. Elmer H. Burack and Thomas M. Calero, "Managerial Manpower Development: Design or Default?" in Burack, E.H. and Walker J.W. op.cit., p. 319.

30. For a discussion of the problem of playing the role of expatriate trainer, See Beuveniste, G. et. al. (eds.) Agents of Change: Professionals in Developing Countries. Praeger, London, 1969

31. Harrison, R. et. al. op. cit.

about desired attitudinal and behavioural changes that are necessary for the manager's development of his interpersonal skills, they also reinforce old and dysfunctional attitudes. For example, the classroom setting characteristic of the lecture approach with the trainer playing the role of leader and authority figure merely reinforces the trainee's dependency and subordinancy needs since the information, motivation and levels of participation are controlled for him. Where the trainees are characterized by lacking in self confidence, high dependence needs and interpersonal incompetency, one does not help them by designing a training programme with methodologies that merely reinforce their old weaknesses.<sup>32</sup>

**TABLE V: COMPARISON OF USE AND EVALUATED EFFECTIVENESS OF VARIOUS TRAINING METHODOLOGIES**

Training Methodology	Percentage Time Used	Average 1/ Scores of Effectiveness
a) Lecture	40.8	2.7
b) Seminar	12.8	3.1
c) Assigned Reading	7.5	2.1
d) Case study	7.5	3.6
e) Business Game	2.7	-
f) Role Playing	5.8	3.0
g) T- Group	4.2	1.9
h) Field Work	17.7	2.8
	100.0	

1/ Maximum possible score is 5 and minimum 1.

Source: Questionnaire Returns,

The kind of training design and methodology that are appropriate for developing the skills that Kenyan managers do need are those that appeal to the trainees' affective processes in some kind of deep emotional involvement in group settings with his fellow managers. This would seem to be more effectively achieved by way of some form of sensitivity training.<sup>33</sup>

32. Holloman, C.R. op.cit.

33. Reynolds, Peter, A. "Creativity and Management Education for Coping with Turbulent Organizational Environment" Proceedings of the Academy of Management, 1972,



The choice of trainers and their commitment and participation before, during and after the training session can be an important determinant of the ease with which trainees can translate their new skills into noticeable managerial behavioural changes. The present study revealed that many of the training firms were either seeking training overseas or importing the trainers from abroad. There are several disadvantages with this. First, in spite of the fact that overseas training brings added status to the trainee and therefore makes him a more acceptable leader and change agent when he returns, there is also the danger that it could lead to alienating him from his fellow co-workers. Though many personnel managers did not consider the problem of alienation as applicable to their externally trained managers, they reported high wastage rates for the same trainees - particularly through resignations.<sup>34</sup>

A more practical problem is that when the trainers are so physically removed from the trainees' place of work, they cannot provide follow-up consulting advice on a continuous basis so that even in the unlikely circumstances that one of the trainees would like to put into practice some of the ideas learnt during training, he would have no professional support and he would most likely end up worse off than somebody who did not even try to change his managerial behaviour.<sup>35</sup> The ideal situation would be for the trainer to interact with the trainees at their work places, together with them identify their management problems and training needs and then continue working on these problems at the post-training level. Unfortunately, the idea of a trainer/consultant did not appeal to most managers because they insisted that management development could be successfully carried out away from the place of work. It is possible that they realized that the introduction of trainer/consultant service would open up areas

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34. For a discussion of the importance of status and influence for management development, see respectively Davidson, F. Management Consultants, 1972, and B.H. Banm et. al. "Organizational Effect of Supervisory Human Relations Training: An Evaluative Technique" in Personnel Management, D.E. McFarland (ed), Penguin, 1971.

35. For problems of subjecting workers to unfamiliar managerial behaviour, see Gulwani, J.W. Patterns of Industrial Bureaucracy, New York, 1954



that they were not prepared to deal with which might require, as for example, changing structural and functional relationships within the organization.

V. EXPECTANCY THEORY AND MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT IN KENYA.

The success or otherwise of management development and training often depends on the degree of similarity or compatibility of the expectations of the trainees, their employing organizations and the trainers themselves.<sup>36</sup> This study, therefore tried to discover the expectations of the three actors of these programmes.

Expectancy is strongly influenced by past experiences and one way of discovering the actor's expectations is by looking back into the relevant past.<sup>37</sup> It was found that the average number of years that firms had been involved in management training was 8.6 with several firms reporting less than five years. The firms that had longer experience with management training were the international firms which could boast of rich experiences in this field from their headquarters abroad. The short experience with management development for most firms could partly explain the lack of clearly defined policies and objectives for their involvement and participation in these training activities. Therefore, what these firms actually need is professional assistance in helping them understand the scope and limitations of management development and the training designs under which it is most effective. Perhaps, trainers should first try to help these managers to identify their managerial problems and separate those which can be solved through training from those which training cannot solve. There was a tendency for both managers and trainees to have unrealistic expectations from management training simply because they did not know what to expect. These expectations were highly too negative for some managers and highly too positive for others. Either way, this was bad.

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36. White, C.H. "Expectation and Management Learning" Proceedings of the 32nd Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management, Minneapolis, 1972.

37. White, C.H., Ibid.

The trainees' experience with management development was even shorter. Most of them had had no more than five years' experience as supervisors or managers and certainly less than 3 years in their present managerial positions. Therefore, since management development and training proceeds promotion into managerial ranks, these people's experiences with managerial training are even shorter. When the new manager proves potentially promising then the training is accelerated and immediately followed by a series of upward promotions. This has inevitably meant that the trainees have observed a close relationship between management development and "upward movement" in the organization. In spite of the fact that many personnel managers indicated that their company's policies did not advocate for training for promotion, previous trainees believed otherwise. They rightly pointed out that being selected to attend a training programme is an indication that management has identified in the trainee potentials which if developed should inevitably lead to promotion. As one previous management trainee put it, "training does not necessarily lead to promotion here, but if I did not get it within two years I would be disappointed."

This upward mobility has its own problems. First, the trainee's formulation of his expectations and value from training are not so much related to his job performance improvements but only to preparing himself for further promotion. Secondly, when the chances for rapid promotion have dried up either for the individual or for the total organization, management will find it difficult to motivate supervisors and junior managers to take training more seriously.

The more senior Kenyan managers who have had more than ten years of managerial experience had slightly different expectations. They did not see any relationship between training and promotion if only because their promotion potentials were nearly exhausted. Rather they saw it as a medium of meeting fellow managers and exchanging ideas and experiences of mutual interest. These managers seem to fit the observation that Kenyan managers try to use their organizations to acquire whatever they could not during colonial times.<sup>38</sup> Certainly they valued their links with quasipolitical groups much more so than the professionalization

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38. Hyden, Goran "Social Structure, Bureaucracy and Development Administration in Kenya". The African Review Vol. I No. 3, Jan. 1972, p. 121.

of their managerial skills. An interesting feature was noted among the senior middle managers working for international firms; They felt that the kind of training they needed was not in the classroom but in form of assignments to one of the offices of their respective international firms outside Kenya and possibly outside East and Central Africa. They perceived their hindrance to upward movement resulting from their narrow experience being only limited to Kenya while their European competitors for the same senior posts do have undue competitive advantage since they often work for the same international firm in a variety of countries and across continents.

#### CONCLUSION

In this paper, I have tried to expose the magnitude of the task that remains undone before complete numerical and qualitative managerial Kenyanization can be achieved in Kenya's private sector. Current policies and programmes of Kenyanization and management development and training are either inadequate or largely inappropriate for the development of the managerial and interpersonal skills that have been identified as badly lacking among the new Kenyan managers. It has been stressed that though these managers need to develop their technical skills, evidence shows that their more serious skill deficiencies are managerial and interpersonal.

Effective managerial Kenyanization cannot take place before these skills are developed and the Kenyans fully prepared and developed to carry out their roles as total and independent managers. An argument has also been advanced that there is an urgent need to formulate a new measure of the degree of Kenyanization that takes into account the actual Kenyan qualitative participation in the management of the enterprise. Quantitative measures are just not adequate and could even be misleading.

Preliminary findings about the behaviour of the private sector towards management development and training are also reported. Evidence indicates that the training programmes, methodologies and trainer roles commonly found in industry are inappropriate for the development of the skills that the new Kenyan manager lacks but needs so badly before he can be a total manager. The problems of the prevailing incongruence between the expectations from training of the trainers, the trainees and their organizations have also been briefly outlined.

This area provides tremendous potentials for future research interests. Still very little is known about the background, attitudes and perceptions of the new Kenyan managers who are being called upon



to serve as the agents of change and managerial Kenyanization. It is important to know more about these people, their values and behaviour before management development and training programmes that the relevant and appealing to their needs can be designed. The structures and functioning of the formal organizations that these new managers are expected to operate in still remain taken as given. There is also a need to study these organizations more fully and try to find out to what extent they actually facilitate the managerial attitudes and behaviour that the new Kenyan managers are being trained to take on. The effect of the wider environmental and traditional constraints on the ability of the Kenyan managers to fulfil their new roles without dysfunctional consequences also need more serious study.

At the level of training, none of the methodologies and pedagogical aids have been tested to find out their relative effectiveness specifically for Kenyan or even African new managers. It is generally taken for granted that methodological and pedagogical packages that have been found useful elsewhere can be equally applied here. Yet, many of these are only situationally appropriate and need constant modifications and adjustments to suit individual requirements.

This interim report was prompted by my expected untimely departure from Kenya within a matter of weeks. It was hurriedly drafted so as to serve a number of purposes. First, it is the only way I could give some form of feedback and expression of my appreciation to the many Kenyan managers who have been very helpful and co-operative during my field work. Perhaps future researchers may be encouraged by the warm reception that these managers so generously do offer. Secondly, I hoped that by making this draft not only would I stimulate academic discussion and get feedback from fellow researchers for my own future strategic plans but also generate interest in this field as possible areas of research. Academic research in the whole area of management and organizational development as hitherto received very low priority among scholars.