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CONTENTS **VOLUME 1 NO 1**

ARTICLES

RESEARCH

FORUM ON CURRICULUM

INNOVATION

Cooperative Business and Office Education. An Efficient and Effective Strategy for the Production of Office Workers

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Introduction

The concept of cooperative business and office education has not received enough emphasis and application in the Nigerian educational system. The teaching of business subjects in Nigerian schools and colleges is primarily limited to classroom instructions using few obsolete machines and equipment, with little or no emphasis on the "on-the-job experience" in any established business. This is rather replaced with what may be referred to as "fill the paper type of Industrial work Experience". There is, therefore, no provision for an independent combination of vocational instruction and regular part-time employment in work related to that instruction and to the students career objectives (Ogbazi, 1985). It is because of these that this paper attempts to:

(a) define cooperative business and office education;
(b) examine the needs for cooperative Business and Office Education;
(c) identify problems besetting Cooperative Business and Office Education in Nigeria; and
(d) examine the roles Cooperative and Office Education can play in the production of efficient and effective office workers in a period of technological advancements.

Definition

Cooperative Education, according to Ogbazi (1985) quoting the Vocational Education Amendments Act of 1968 of the United States, is

A programme of vocational education for persons who, through a cooperative arrangement between the school and the employer; receive instruction including required academic courses and related vocational instruction by alternation of study in school with a job in any occupational field, but these two experiences must be planned and supervised by the school and the experiences must be planned and supervised by the school and the employer so that each contributes to the students' education and to his employability.

This definition brings out all the necessary requirements of, and participants in the cooperative occupational education programme. In another definition, Osuala (1987) considered cooperative occupational education to be an instructional plan which combines learning experiences gained through regularly scheduled supervised employment in the community and vocationally oriented in-school instruction. He noted that the employing community serves as a laboratory where students have an opportunity to apply the principles and practices they have learned in the school in the changing world of work. He further added that cooperative occupational education is a general term used to describe various types of cooperative plan programmes specifically designed to prepare youths for occupations in proportion to the distribution of employment and career opportunities. Based on these definitions, cooperative Business and Office Education, like any other form of cooperative vocational education, is a cooperative occupational programme tailored towards meeting the objectives of vocational business and office education which include enabling youths:

(a) To have the skills and competencies required for the performance of basic business jobs;
(b) To apply the various business concepts acquired in class in the real life situation,
(c) To recognise and demonstrate their responsibilities and rights as consumers;
(d) With some business skills recognise and play their roles as productive participants or members of the society especially in our free enterprise economy:
(e) To improve personal qualities and build attitudes necessary for adjustment to personal and other employment situations;
(f) To guide individuals for suitable placement in business and office employment.

The implication of these is that cooperative Business and office Education must combine vocationally oriented classroom instruction with a series of progressive on-the-job learning experiences, which are in keeping with students' occupational objectives. The term "cooperative" merely describes the working relationship between the school and the employers in planning, implementation and evaluation of the product and the programme. Cooperative business and office education is necessarily a strategy for human resource development, which involves the school, the student and the employers or their representatives. The objectives of any strategy for human resource development, according to Harrison and Myers (1964), should be to build the skills and knowledge required for economic, social, cultural and political growth and to provide avenue for participation in the creation of better society.

Needs for Cooperative Business and Office Education

Cooperative Business and office Education is needed by both the nation and the students.
The Nigerian nation needs cooperative business and office education for the following reason:
(a) Implementation of the National Development Plans: It will be recalled that the first Nigerian development plan suffered in the hands or expatriate employees who were recruited by the colonial government because they did not consider it reasonable enough to include indigenous manpower development in the plan but rather felt it was cheaper to employ expatriates whether they possessed the necessary skills and competencies for the implementation of the plan or not. With the emphasis now placed on competency based education (CBE) in Nigeria, and from all indications, it has become necessary for us to develop our human resources for all round development. Ifedi (1982) shared the view that shortage of talents and skills needed for development can directly retard economic progress; hence the need for the improvement of the human capital through cooperative occupational education.
(b) Rapid Changes in Technology: Gardner (1961) held that the demand for high talented manpower is finally rooted in the level of technological complexity which characterizes modem life, and the complexity of modern social organisation. In an age when new machines and equipment are constantly emerging, there is need for students and teachers to have adequate on-the-job experiences in business houses and offices where these machines and equipment are available.
(c) Need to combat Unemployment: The high rate of unemployment among school leavers and University graduates has been severally attributed to lack of skills and competencies required in the work place. Ifedi (1982) had argued that one of the main causes of unemployment among school leavers is the lack of trained and employable skills. This explains one of the reasons for youth delinquency.
(d) Implementation of the 6-3-3-4 System of Education: This system requires that graduates of the junior and/or senior secondary school should be equipped with basic skills and competencies

to enable them enter and progress in the world of work. The teachers required for the attainment of these goals must themselves, have the necessary skills and competencies.

Other sundry needs of the nation include

(1) Production of responsible, productive and self-reliant citizens;

(2) Reduction of the rate of labour turn-over;

(3) Increasing the morale and job satisfaction of workers and, above all

(4) Increasing the confidence that employers have in the skills, competencies and capabilities of the new employees.

The Student Needs Cooperative Occupational Education for the Following Reasons:

(a) Employability skills: It has been pointed out that the most serious predicament of the today's school leaver is that he lacks employable skills. He leaves school without any job experience. It is on this note that Ogbazi (1985) rightly pointed out that because high school and college graduates have no opportunity to gain experience while they are in school, they spend many years on the job before gaining experience. According to him, experience gained by potential workers while out of training cannot be compared to the experience gained by workers while in training. It is the acquisition of skills and competencies in an environment that is a complete replica of the place the trainee is going to work that ensures employment opportunities. This further broadens the chances of entering and progressing in an occupation in the world of work.

(b) Need to relate classroom instruction to practical experiences:
Cooperative Business and Office Education gives the student an immediate opportunity to apply classroom instructions in a practical way and in real life situation. It is when the student takes instructions in the school and immediately practices in the work station that retention and transfer of learning is ensured. It is generally agreed that only little learning takes place when what are learned is not put into practice and that we tend to retain those things we put into practice and forget those not practiced.

(c) Financial Need: students not only require skills and occupational competencies, but also money to keep them going in the course of study.
Ogbazi (1985) emphasized that the cooperative occupational experience programme, apart from increasing a student's vocational competency while he is in school, will provide the student with the opportunity to earn money as a learning worker in the training station.

(d) Need for social and Occupational Adjustment: The cooperative occupational training experience would enable students to meet with experienced members of their desired profession, ranging from company top executives, experts and other professionals from various work of life that they would not have had any opportunity of meeting: and from whom they would be in a position to learn from their past experiences. Besides effective interaction with personalities, they would get to know about the work role they would play, the equipment they would use, the specific skills and competencies required on the job and all the related functions.

(e) Cooperative occupational experience will also help in the reduction of students' involvement in youth and juvenile delinquency.

(f) Need to identify with a professional association: some professions that require student membership also demand that the student must have had an occupational experience in the profession for a given period of time under an experienced professional. It is

necessary, therefore, for the student to be given a chance to secure recognition in his intended profession while he is receiving training. Besides, cooperative occupational experience is very essential for the business educator since the National Policy on Education (1981), Section 50 (ii) requires that "In recruiting teachers for the technical institutions, the industrial experience of the candidates will be given the highest premium." These and other needs of both the nation and the student make cooperative occupational experiences an indispensable tool for the production of effective and efficient office workers.

Constraints to the Implementation of Cooperative Business and Office Education Programmes in Nigeria

The following are some of the problems that could make the operation of cooperative occupational education programmes difficult:

(a) Unavailability of sufficient training stations: It is to be noted here that although many business enterprises and government establishments exist, a qualified training station, in this sense, includes only those offices, firm and establishments that house the best and up- to-date machines and equipment and are ready to repair and even replace them when they are obsolete. These stations must also have qualified and competent staff to man their equipment. The unfortunate thing, again, is that only a handful employers are interested in employing students unless such students are their relatives.

(b) Lack of qualified staff: Generally, Nigeria experiences an acute shortage of qualified manpower to undertake the training of the needed manpower for the country. Those available are moving away from the country in search of greener pasture. In any case, the major problems of human resource development are related to shortage of high level manpower with critical skills and competencies. The few qualified ones are hardly able and willing to work together with others, especially directing and guiding an inexperienced worker.

(c) Unfavorable attitudes of employers: Most employers see students as essentially part-time workers who may not be so effective and efficient as to enhance the attainment of the production targets. The urge to maximize profit is often at the uppermost part of their minds. There is, therefore, the need to educate employers/industrialists on the need for them to cooperate with educational institutions to give the citizens of this country a balanced education. This is the only way we can produce "self-reliant-citizens" to make for a self-reliant nation.

(d) Inavailability of fund: There are complaints of lack of fund for the acquisition of new and modern machines and equipment; repairs, maintenance and purchases of spare parts for the machines and equipment; and for the payment of staff salary, wages and other benefits. For an employer to employ a student who will be working as an inexperienced member of staff and studying as a student, who perhaps, may not contribute much to the rapid increase in productivity required, and at the same time pay him, makes the proposal difficult. Though the Industrial Training Fund (ITF) exists, most employers, firms and organisations do not contribute their required quota to fund the programme, hence the inability of ITF to take care of all forms of cooperative training arrangements.

(e) Lack of tools, machines and equipment: One of the reasons for cooperative occupational experience for and about business is the inability of the school to provide the replica of the work, as a result of lack of fund. Unfortunately, most of the offices, firms and

business establishments are also ill-equipped to cope with the current demand of the business world. The few of them who have, are not able to source spare parts as at and when required because such spare parts are often not available in the country. In some case, a team of experts is required from abroad before a plant can be repaired.

(f) Problems associated with teacher coordinators: The success of any cooperative educational programme depends on the ability and willingness of the teacher co-ordinator to effectively and efficiently handle it. In some cases, the co-ordinator may not be prepared to take the problem of negotiating with employers for training stations: drawing the plan in conjunction with the employers; and supervising the students when they are eventually placed on the job. However, certain factors may make it difficult for the teacher co-ordinator to effectively co ordinate the programme. These include the co-ordinator's

(1) Inability to communicate effectively with students; labour groups, parents and schools personnel;
(2) Inability to provide students guidance and inspirations;
(3) Inability to prepare appropriate reports;
4) Inability to carry out evaluation and follow-up activities, and
(5) Poor knowledge of business trends and developments; among others.

Justifications for Cooperative Business and Office Education

The constraints to cooperative occupational education notwithstanding, there is still the need for the programme. Our schools and colleges are hardly well equipped and those that are well equipped have merely obsolete and unserviceable machines and equipped including the computer. It is, therefore, the duty of the schools and colleges educating youths and adults for and about business to ensure that all round efficiency and effectiveness are inculcated in them to enable them function as full members of the society.

However, the following are some of the specific roles which cooperative occupational education can play in the preparation of individuals for and about business in a period of rapid technological advancements.

(a) It will enable students to consolidate knowledge, apply concepts and principles as taught in the school about office machines and equipment, and acquire skills and competencies required in the world of work.

(b) As a preparation for a vocation, business and office education ought to be given in an environment which is an exact replica of the environment in which the learner will subsequently work. Therefore, except for a simulated situation (which is difficult to create because of numerous other constraints associated with it), the learner can only be brought face to face with the realities of this principle through cooperative occupational experience.

(c) In view of the fact that the modem machines and equipment can not all be found in a particular enterprise or office, the student, through the cooperative arrangements of the school can move from one training station to another in order to acquire all the necessary skills and competencies.

(d) The current issues in office technology revolve around the introduction and use of the computer in various aspects of office work. Since not all schools can afford to install computers for training students, it is necessary to expose the students to knowledge of the computer and its applications through cooperative arrangements.

(e) In order for the present educational policy to succeed, the teachers who will implement the programme, must have clear knowledge of both the office machines and equipment and the current trends and issues in the business and economic life of the nation. There is no better way of inculcating these skills and competencies in these teachers to be except through a properly planned, supervised and regularly evaluated cooperative occupational education programmer.
(f) It will be noted that for anyone to operate office machines and equipment and obtain the desired result, the one must have developed confidence in their handling. To enable students develop such confidence in them; exposure through cooperative occupational training programme will be necessary.

Conclusion

Schools, colleges, polytechnics and Universities offering Business and office education in their programmes should embark on cooperative occupational education programmes to enable their graduates acquire all the necessary skills and competencies they require to enter and progress in their chosen occupations in the world of work before graduation.

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Philosophical Foundations of Business And Office Education. By
By

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Abstract:

An attempt was made in this paper to show how business education evolved from the philosophy of pragmatism. The paper also tried to explain business education and the educational implications of the business education philosophies for the 6-3-3-4 system of education in Nigeria.

Introduction

The traditional philosophers adopted basically a metaphysical approach to the idea of knowledge. Hence, man's approach to knowledge was through philosophizing from a priori principles and self-evident truths. A change to the acquisition of knowledge was brought about by the birth of a new philosophy known as pragmatism, which draws its strength from its scientific approach to knowledge. This philosophy is regarded by many as the only native American philosophy (Okafor, 1984).

The greatest proponents of this philosophy were Charles Sanders Peirce (1839 - 1914), William James (1842 - 1910) and John Dewey (1859 - 1959). The term pragmatism, was first introduced by Charles John Peirce at a university lecture in 1878 and was first used in his writing in 1902. However, John Dewey is credited with the greatest contribution to pragmatism and its application to education due to longevity.

In relation to education, the proponents believed that the curriculum should consist of activities concomitant with living since education is life. It was this consideration that brought about the inclusion of extracurricular activities like dramatics and physical exercises into the school curriculum. It also accounts for the elevation of vocational subjects to the standard of the other subjects like history, geography, chemistry, etc. In other words, vocational subjects were already in existence but were snubbed. Business and office education was organized privately prior to the introduction of the philosophy of pragmatism. However, it was as a result of this new philosophy that business and office education grew faster and was organized in the public schools. It was also pragmatism that caused the establishment of vocational education departments in universities, in response to Rousseau's theory of naturalism. This theory states that educational content and method should take into consideration, individual differences - abilities, needs and interests.

What Business Education Is

If general education is thought of as the adjustment of the individual to his environment, basic business education must be thought of as the adjustment of the individual to his business environment (Tonne and Nanassy, 1970).

According to Osuala (1987) basic business education/general business is a basic course for any student who plans to elect other business subjects which will prepare him for office occupations and employment. The student, he said, is introduced to his business environment for the viewpoint of his activities as both a consumer and a producer. The course provides an

overview of the entire field of business and gives background information that is necessary to those who may specialize in the world of business as a career.

Before the Vocational Education Act of 1963, business education meant many things to many people. To some, it referred to those business subjects ordinarily taught at the secondary school level such as typewriting, shorthand, bookkeeping, etc. Others thought of it as an education for entrances into the world of business, given at all educational levels. Yet, to some people, it was synonymous with post-secondary education in subjects like accounting, marketing, secretarial studies, finance and office administration. Still, others thought of it as the preparation or in-service education of secondary school business teachers, that is, business teacher education.

According to the American Vocational Association definition (Osuala, 1987), business education is a programme of instruction which consists of two parts: (a) office education, a vocational education programme for office careers through initial, refresher, and upgrading education leading to employability and advancement in office occupations, and (b) general business education, a programme to provide students with information and competencies which are needed by all in managing personal business affairs and in using the services of the business world. In this sense, it contributes in some measure to objective of self-realization. Thus, work offered in business courses enables the student to improve upon his ability to solve problems. For example, after studying basic business, a student can freely speak on insurance, taxation, data processing techniques, etc. Also, to some extent, business education contributes to the objective of civic responsibility by recognizing the rights and responsibilities of the individual in courses such as business law.

The greatest contribution to general education by basic business education is made in the area of the objective of economic efficiency. The contribution made is two-fold. First, is a definite vocational objective since it enables the individual to develop skills and understanding which enable him to enter the business world and earn a living. Secondly, it contributes to the attainment of the objective of consumer economic efficiency or consumerism. This is because it enables the student to buy and use wisely, the goods and services provided by business. These are learnt in topics that teach, for example, to invest, handle cheques, guard against fraud in monetary transactions, etc.

Until quite recently, business and office education had only one philosophy which was vocational. This philosophy gave rise to others, which will be discussed later.

The Concept of Vocation in Philosophy

Aristotle believed that there were two types of work. The first was bread-labour, which he described as work for the purpose of subsistence while the second which he termed leisure work referred to labour for interest (Evans, 1971). Slaves and serfs engaged in bread-work. Freemen pursued careers in government, religion and in the arts and sciences, not to earn a living, but for their self-satisfaction in doing something interesting. Yet, it was true that if work was stopped there would be economic penalties to the State.

Despite Paul's statement (Thessalonians 3,10) that a man who work not shall eat not, the medieval church interpreted this to mean that though the natural law imposed this obligation on the human race, it did not apply to certain individuals. Thus, the clergy were exempt from this law. Occupations were ranked from the servile tasks of the peasants to the highest duties of the clergy. It was believed that all vocations were assigned by God and thus, it was unnecessary and blasphemous to attempt to change the vocation (Evans, 1971). However, a change of attitude was brought about by the reformation of 1517 started by Martin Luther. He also agreed with the

church on the assignment of vocations but emphasized that vocations were equal in the sight of God.

Consequently, Pestalozzi, who was known as the father of manual labour also believed in class distinctions with regard to work, even though, he did not agree that only the poor should work for a living (Silber, 1973). The third part of his system, which he called practical education, consisted of the training of the body (physical education proper) and the preparation for a manual occupation as well as all education, which applied 'art' by way of skill and practical efficiency. It was under this second aspect that he included the education of the poor, for the development of their working capacities, as an important part of their general education. He emphasized that occupation must be an integral part of man's education and added that physical education must necessarily include moral and intellectual education.

Pestalozzi posited that if man learnt to meet his occupational requirement in a 'really elementary' way, (he called vocational training, elementary education for art) he would be able to perform all sorts of work and not only specific manipulation. Thus, it would be possible for him to acquire a desire to work rather than a wish to receive alms. Elementary vocational training, according to Pestalozzi (Silber, 1973) 'improves man's standard of living', since it enables him to be employed and earn some money to meet his needs. Therefore, vocational training should be concomitant with general education if man is to achieve self-fulfillment and contribute to the welfare of his community and State.

The concept of work or vocation has changed a great deal. There is a strange contradiction in modern society: As the workers (those engaged in society-sustaining occupations) are liberated from long hours of work, vocational success becomes the yard-stick for according prestige in the upper strata of society. The social class system of rich and poor has been replaced by a new demarcation known as 'socio-economic status'. One's place in the upper class of society depends more and more on personal achievement and less and less on hereditary privilege. The concept of the 'gentleman' has given place to the concept of the 'professional man', Hence, one does not become a consultant engineer by receiving the education which was once the hallmark of the gentleman (Schofield, 1972).

The nature of work has changed tremendously from physical to mental toil. Work now involves jobs, which increasingly require mastering areas of specialized knowledge. Today, leaders study and work to provide for the unemployed irrespective of class, the socially indigent, the uneducated and the unmotivated.

A modern view of philosophy of work started with Adam Smith (Evans, 1971) who believed that man works for economic self-interest. This viewpoint was refuted by Ushinksy (Evan, 1971) who emphasized that man works to attain spiritual happiness, as it is the only source of human dignity.

They both agreed on one thing: that is, that man must work. Man is endowed with some potentialities from heaven, which he can be helped to develop to enable him achieve self-fulfillment and also contribute to the well-being of his society through work. This is the task involved in the education of man. Hence, when one is engaged in training in specific business tasks, for example, with the view of going into employment at the end of his training, he is said to be receiving vocational business training.

Origins of Business and Office Education

The Apprenticeship System

Informal training for business is probably as old as business itself. This is evidenced by legal arrangements for apprenticeship contained in the famous Code of Hammurabi developed

over four thousand years ago, that was around 1700 B.C. In this Code, provision was made for a craftsman to adopt a young man and teach him his trade. This system of training in ancient times frequently took the form of a father-and-son relationship and was regulated by law. A contract, or indenture agreement, was made between the father of the prospective apprentice and a master. The master provided food, clothing, shelter and knowledge of the "mysteries" of the trade. Imitating the master was primarily the method of learning.

Apprenticeship was most effective in home production where the master owned a shop and employed only a few journeymen and apprentices. The effectiveness of this type of training decreased as home production gave way to factory production. Apprentices then became mere hands working for an employer at lower wages.

In the Middle Ages, bookkeepers learnt their occupations by apprenticeship. The keeping of systematic and convenient records of monetary transactions has been traced back to the Babylonians, Egyptians, Greeks and Romans. Double-entry book-keeping was developed in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries by the North Italians and is at times called the Italian Method. As the need for bookkeepers increased in the large cities than could be supplied by the apprenticeship system, private itinerant tutors began to teach bookkeeping and writing.

Growth

The Latin grammar schools of pre-American Independence included in their curricula, bookkeeping, arithmetic and writing. After the independence, great expansion in business followed and more bookkeepers and office workers were needed than the apprenticeship and the private tutorials could provide. Consequently, private business schools were established to meet the increasing demand for bookkeepers and office workers.

According to Tone, Popham & Freeman (1965), business education in schools developed greatly with the perfection of the typewriter in the early 18370's and its acceptance in business communication. The use of the typewriter was accompanied by an increased interest in shorthand, which was introduced by Isaac Pitman in 1837. Typewriting and shorthand were thus included in the curricula of the private schools as vocational subjects. In the latter part of the nineteenth century, skilled employees needed by the different business organisations were trained by private business schools. Many elementary school pupils dropped out of school to enroll in private business schools to prepare for a career in business. In Nigeria today, many of the successful business executives graduated from the private secondary schools which taught business subjects in the commercial schools, which were privately owned, too.

In Britain the passage of the Technical Instruction Act of 1899 brought a new dimension to commercial or basic business education. The London School of Economics and Political Science founded in 1895 was affiliated to London University in 1900. This was as a result of its success in a wide range of instruction, mainly commercial.

Today, business subjects are taught in both public and private schools, teachers colleges and other higher institutions of learning. There are, in addition, provisions for specialization in different areas of business education, for example, accounting, stenography (typewriting and shorthand), commerce, business management, etc. at the tertiary institutions including universities.

Philosophical Bases of Business and Office Education

The philosophical foundations of vocational education, which include business education listed in chronological order of their acceptance, are:

1) meeting the manpower need of society;

2) increasing the options available to each student; and
3) serving as a motivating force to enhance all types of learning.
These are basically the philosophies of any society establishing a vocational education programme. However, business education has its own philosophies. The philosophical basis towards which it has moved consists of two parts - education for business as needed vocationally and education for business as needed by everyone (Crunch 1978).

Throughout each of the periods of development in business education, trends and basic philosophical tenets and criteria have been discernable. However, organization, curricular patterns and objectives have varied extremely in response to the ever-changing societal demands. For example, prior to 1920, the objective of business education was vocational. It was intended to:
(1) provide training for specific jobs and
(2) develop ability to use these skills in the environment of business only. The latter objective is often called occupational intelligence. Thus little was done to educate the consumer on how to buy wisely and the efficient use of the goods and services available throughout the business community. This was in spite of the Industrial Revolution and the consequent increase in the volume of business. It was the stock market crash of 1929 that caused the American public to realize that an understanding of the world of investments by consumers was desirable. At this juncture, the third basic objective — to educate persons to be intelligent consumers of goods and services of business — came into being. This objective of business education which is non-vocational is presently known as consumer education. It is this third objective that has probably increased the acceptance of business education as part of a general education programme as articulated at the beginning of this paper. According to Evans (1971), business education is more acceptable than any of the other vocational programmes.

The traditional business courses are typewriting (vocational and personal—use) and bookkeeping and accounting. Many schools in the United States of America offer a personal — use typewriting course for academic students. The aim is to contribute to the general education of all students in the school instead of providing specialized job training programme for a few students.

The introduction of business education in the public schools in 1920 was in response to the demand by parents who felt that the occupational training was too ‘valuable’ to be made available to only those who could attend private schools (Tonne, et al, 1965).

In Nigeria, the Federal Government has finally recognized vocational education as an instrument of development. It also believes that the study of ‘commercial and other vocational courses’, will make senior secondary school leavers immediately employable (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1981). This is the greatest recognition that business education has ever been accorded in the Nigerian educational system.

Educational Implications of the Business Education Philosophies for the 6-3-3-4 Education System:

The recognition of business education as a utilitarian education as implied in the National Policy on Education, l981 (sub sect. 21, sect.4), is a challenge to leaders in business education to meet the expectations of the people of this country. In order to meet this challenge, the leaders should ensure that certification is concomitant with competence. This is necessary if the right quality of teachers is to be produced for the 3-3 secondary school system. It is important to note that effective teaching requires confidence on the part of the teacher and that confidence is

acquired through possession of relevant competencies. Therefore, the business teacher should ensure that he knows what he is to teach.

Secondly, business education is expected to provide options in the educational system, thus reducing the dropout rates of our youths. At the same time, it is hoped that by the time some students dropped out, they ought to have acquired some skills to enable them live a useful life. Prior to the introduction of the new educational system, many youths who dropped out of the pure general education programme had found life quite frustrating because they had no saleable skills. However, some had gone into business of one kind or the other and succeeded; some learnt one trade or the other, for example, plumbing, tailoring, carpentry, typewriting, etc. Government now wishes to make these options available in the secondary school system.

Thirdly, the increasing need for knowledge of business and the national economy has already led to increased enrollment in business subjects and this enrollment will continue to increase. It is therefore, expected that more business teachers will be produced to meet the present demand and future needs. Also, it is implied that every secondary school child should be prepared for the world of business whether or not he intends to be employed in a business organization.

Finally, the most important factor in teaching business education is its dynamic nature. Thus, the school authorities and the business teachers must be current with the major changes taking place in the world of business as well as plan for the future in order to provide up-to-date preparation for students seeking business occupations. In other words the schools should cooperate with business organizations and business professional associations in order to produce school leavers that are employable.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The philosophies of business education are discernable. However, expansion has occurred in the objectives while changes have been witnessed in the organization and achievement of these objectives. The misconception of business education as education for low achievers has made it impossible for this country to benefit from the advantages of this type of education. It is hoped that the 6-3-3-4 system of education will place business education in its proper position of utilitarianism provided that the government supports its policy with the necessary human and material resources for effective work.

For improvement of business education in Nigeria, the following suggestions are made:

1. The secondary schools should be equipped with the necessary facilities for effective teaching of business subjects, for example, typewriters, office practice laboratories with duplicating, photocopying and accounting machines, word processors, computers etc.
2. Business subjects should be taught as single subjects instead of integrating them under Business Studies as is done presently. This would make it possible for more time to be allocated to the skills — typewriting, shorthand and accounting.
3. If the recommendation in (1) is too expensive for government to implement, an alternative will be to establish special vocational schools and vocational centres, and equip them fully. The vocational centres will cater for the interest of those who lost the opportunity to receive this type of education at the secondary school level.
4. Teachers' are needed to teach business subjects, and to retain those that are already in service, remunerations are recommended for business teachers in secondary schools.
5. There should be a coordination between secondary school curriculum and those of the tertiary institutions including universities.

6. Finally, in view of the dynamic nature of business, and the task before the business teacher, it is important that arrangements are made to enable him up-date his competence through in-service programmes.

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The Changing Office Environment and Need for Office Education

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Abstract:

Fast changes have taken place in the office environment within a few decades and more changes would also take place in the foreseeable future. The dynamic nature of the office is at the root of these changes. Since the business world of today, including government, industry and other human endeavours, require fast and accurate information for decision-making, the level of office technology must continue to rise to match the demand. In the same vein, office education must also require dynamic programmes in order to best produce the personnel to fit into the modern office requirements. Such curriculum must also focus on future demands to remain relevant. Therefore, this paper has presented a background of the traditional office operations, showing its inadequacies in coping with today and tomorrow information demands, and the need for updated curriculum to prepare office employees.

Introduction

The modern office environment has witnessed tremendous changes in all facets of its operations. These changes came as a result of expansion in organizational sizes complexities and insatiable need for timely and more accurate information. As the office environment is rapidly embracing new technologies, automated equipment is rapidly being introduced into to work place and with it the new procedure and methods that are changing the office employee's job. Matherly (1986) noted that the scope of these changes and the rate at which they occur promise to increase as future generations of technology are developed and implemented.

Simpson (1983) noted that offices have been organized traditionally so that many people handle the same sheet of paper as it passes through the company. This had led to fragmentation of responsibilities and lack of sense about how the overall system works. However, as the traditional office moves towards automation, secretaries and other office workers are being required to develop competencies necessary for effective performance in today's and tomorrow's office.

It is in the above perspective that Belly (1973) had posited that the traditional secretarial studies programmes were becoming obsolete and created an unrealistic hope for its students. According to him, graduating young people are ill-prepared for the future needs of the business world. If the above statement was true in 1973, it has become truer today, given the changes in technology which have inevitably changed the work processes. These changes will continue to occur because of the rapid advancement in technology.

Why the Changes will Occur

As has already been noted, automated technologies are being introduced into the office environment at an ever increasing rate because automation is needed to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of employees and to meet the information needs of business. The modern business organization, the government and the industries need faster and more accurate information for more reliable decision-making. The development of information technology, which is the handling and processing of information using technologies such as computers,

telecommunication and printing opened up a need for information management (Cawthorn, 1988). Agomuo (1997) posited that the need for information management became very necessary because of the vast volume of paper work and fragmented data generated in business organisations. In line with the above view, Alone (1994) had noted that the increasing demand for information, necessitated the automatic production and dissemination of information through the electronic media. Most business orgainsations today cannot operate effectively without the use of computer and other automated equipment.

Quible (1977) gave the underlisted reasons why office operations should be computerized.

1. Rapidly increasing labour costs.
2. Increasing volume of business transactions.
3. Increasing cost of processing office work.
4. Increasing volume of business transactions.
5. Increasing number of technological development.
6. Increasing need for accurate and timely information for rapid decision-making

He further stated that the modem office will be characterized by a total "systems" approach in the administration and operation of the organization. Hence tomorrow office will be dependent on electronic devices for information processing.

How the Changes will Affect Tomorrow's Office Worker

Electronic equipment does not only affect office worker's tasks but also permits the redesign of office work and the redefinition of employee roles. Less employee time will be devoted to tasks such as keyboarding, filing and computing. New office systems already available will permit the reallocation or redistribution of responsibilities downward to administrative support personnel.

Belly (1973) posited that expanded and expanding use of machine dictation equipment, centralized machine dictation, machine transcription and the current innovation of word and data processing will result in unprecedented demand for machine transcribers. Similarly, Schmidt (1980) had noted that work-force projections indicate that over the next several decades a larger proportion of the work-force will be employed as office workers. This increase is not going to result from a change in the basic functions of the office, rather it will occur because of increase demand for more timely and more accurate information on the part of management.

The present trend in office occupations is a pointer to office of tomorrow. It is even expected that in the very near future, almost every office operation will be automated.

Today's Office education Imperatives

In order to facilitate the acceptance of this increasingly automated office environment, current office education students need to have a greater awareness of the changes to expect in the office environment. This will include why the changes will occur, how the changes will affect their work environment and how best to prepare themselves to meet the challenges of working in the ever- changing office. According to Matherly (1982) students who understand why the changes are occurring in the office work environment, and who understand how the changes will affect their jobs are better equipped to accept the changes when they occur in the work environment.

The above findings throw a big challenge to the business and office educator who invariable is the person to pilot the changes. Some of these challenges include:

Preparing Students for Working in a More Highly Automated Office Environment:

As new technologies are implemented in the office, the more routine tasks will be handled by electronic equipment. As Matherly (1986) noted, employees may find that applied tasks that once constitute most of their job responsibilities will no longer be integral components of their positions. Instead, their jobs will involve mastering new equipment, as well as utilizing skills that cannot be readily automated. Therefore office education students need exposure in the skills that will continue to be useful during the evolution to a more highly automated office skills that can be taught with in- basket simulations and role-playing situations in the classroom. As a result, students need to be equipped with decision-making and problem solving skills, since less time will be devoted to key boarding, filing and other tasks, which can either be done faster by automated equipment or with equipment assistance. Supervisors will expect administrative support personnel to take on additional management-level responsibilities.

Curriculum Implications

Writing about the curriculum implications of the future office, Oladebo (1991) postulated that many business teacher education programmes will take the initiative in redesigning curriculum and making changes to meet the emerging needs. According to him, changes will be necessary in all of the course-content of business education which students are required to take.

Many of the business offices today are adopting the use of electronic typewriters and computers and word processors of all kinds. It is envisaged that by the year 2010, computer will flood the business houses and public offices. To meet these challenges, all business-teacher preparation courses must, as a matter of need, include the use and application of micro-computers to the specific area being taught. Course content will need to reflect the new technological advancement in order to be up-to-date. Expressing the same view, Okafor (1991) wrote that business educators are duty-bound to help the students acquire and develop these needed skills and attitudes for employment by aligning curriculum with practice. This statement therefore implies that the curriculum must be kept current through constant reviews. It is in line with this thought that Agomuo (1990 suggested a re-alignment of the Nigerian secretarial education with the demands of tomorrow office.

For Business Education Programmes to be beneficial, it must closely parallel actual working situations and concurrently prepare the students to adjust to every changing job demands. This is in agreement with the view of Crews (1981). According to him, the business teacher must develop an adequate perception of the kind of persons needed in business and how these persons can be educated for business by harmonizing the businessman's need for adequately prepared personnel and the business teacher's desire to assist businessmen.

Employment trends in modern offices require that prospective job seekers be equipped with basic skills and competencies to enable them enter and progress in the job (Alozie, 1994). Therefore, redesigning of the office education curriculum to incorporate the modern skills needed for effective performance in the office of the future, is a major imperative of today's office education curriculum.

Equipment Implications

One major requirement of the technical and vocational education programmes is that the students should be trained with machines, tools, equipment, and processes and in fact, in the replica of the work milieu of the eventual employment. Unfortunately, this process and

environmental replica is not always available in our training institutions. This has resulted in turning out an army of half-baked graduates who can hardly perform in their various professional fields.

Business Teacher Education Implications

The teacher is the corner-stone of every educational foundation. Apparently, no education policy can be effective without adequate preparation of the teacher who is going to implement the policy. Therefore, for the changes to be adequately embraced and meaningful, the teachers who are already teaching should be retrained in such skills that are relevant to their new tasks. This can be done through in-service programmes in the institutions which have the necessary facilities.

Funding

Poor funding has been recognized as one of the basic hindrances to effective vocational and technical education at all levels of Nigerian education system. As noted by Azuka (1991), finance has inhibited the development of business education in Nigeria. According to him, due to the present Nigeria's economic predicaments, many institutions that offer courses in business and office education lack adequate facilities for proper execution of their applauded programmes. As a result, these programmes have been operating at a pseudo level, a situation that negated some of the basic theories of vocational education.

One of the major problems of office education today is that funding of business education and other vocational programmes has been the sole responsibility of the government in public schools. The situation has not helped matters. Azuka (1991) has suggested an alternative approach, which will involve the government (Federal, State and Local), the industries, missions and business organizations and all beneficiaries/consumers of business education products. Another alternative to effective funding of business education programmes is through co-operative planning of business education programmes. Co-operative planning creates a forum for the teacher, the industry, and the business organization, the government and interested private groups to make inputs in the planning of programmes. It is envisaged that the involvement of these groups will encourage them to see themselves not only as consumers of business education products but also co-contributors to the over-all success of the system. According to Okafor (1991), co-operative business education is collaborative programme in which industry and education form partnership.

Conclusion

The existence of modern technology has brought a lot of changes in every sphere of human endeavour especially in office operations. Modern technology in the office did not remove the traditional role of the office, rather, it is changed and enlarged indulged the process by which the office fulfills its information processing role thereby aiding in realizing the objectives of organizations.

The modern offices do no longer depend on the traditional methods of collecting, processing, disseminating and storing information. The use of computers in the office today was necessitated by the increased demand for more accurate and timely information for proper decision-making.

In order to meet the needs of the office in the future, it is necessary to train the prospective office workers to master the skills, bracesses and habits that will help them not only to enter the job, but to remain functional both today and in the future.

Office education programmes should reflect the changing trends in the industry and business. Training programmes in office occupation should aim at not only preparing the students for the existing jobs, but also for jobs beyond the present.

Recommendations

1. Office education programmes should be sensitive to changes in the modern office (curricula to reflect such changes should be fashioned at all levels of education in Nigeria.
2. Business education programme should be future-oriented to accommodate the dynamic nature of the office.
3. Government should not be left alone to provide all the funding for v education programmes. Cooperative efforts involving all who benefit from the programmes should be made.
4. Efforts should be made to provide the necessary machines and equipment for the training of students in modem office operations.
5. In-service training are recommended for office workers to enable them keep abreast with modem office technology.

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The Changing Secretarial Role for Sustainable Development in Nigeria
Implications for Office Education

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Abstract:

With 'Vision 2010 recently introduced and vigorously pursued by the Nigerian Federal Government, emphasis appears to have shifted from the year 2000 to the year 2010 and beyond. As Nigeria mobilizes its resources for a sustainable socio-economic and political development under 'Vision 2010', it has become necessary to explore Nigeria's likely office environment and to attempt a delineation of the concepts, roles and responsibilities expected of secretaries under this new national developmental strategy. First, a number of role concepts were defined and explained. Secondly, there was an identification of the professional secretary and an insight into the concept of sustainable development. Finally, an attempt was made to create a portrait of the office of tomorrow and to delineate the role of the secretary in the year 2010 and beyond.

Introduction:

The Concepts of Role and Secretary

The term 'role' has been defined in various ways. Hargreaves (1972) for instance, defines 'role' as 'behavioural expectations associated with a position, Hicks and Gullett 91976) also define role as an expected behavioural pattern. In his own contribution. Russell (1974) likened role to a man who can be many things depending on how we look at him: "to his wife a man is a husband; to his children he is a father; to his solicitor he is a client; to his teacher he is a student; to his doctor he is patient. In the context of the state, he is probably an indigene or a citizen while to his priest he is a child of God." These various views suggest that the term 'role' should be conceived as a behavioural expectation, a pattern of performance; tasks and responsibilities expected of an incumbent of a position; or the way an incumbent of a position should sanction, behave, think, or act and react. Consequently, to define the role of the secretary is to examine the features of the expected behaviour associated with secretarial position.

Who is a Secretary?

The word "secretary" comes from the Latin word "secretaries" meaning a person entrusted with secrets. In the business circle, however, the term has three broad connotations: First, it is applied to persons who are employed to prepare, preserve and transmit all forms of communication as well as render stenographic services. Second, it is applied to describe persons who serve in certain legal, administrative or accounting capacities as secretaries to companies and statutory bodies. Third, the term 'secretary' is used in describing persons in-charge of local, state or federal/central government departments as secretaries, local governemnt secretaries, etc. For the purpose of this paper, the term secretary, refers to any person who possesses and uses a mastery of stenographic (Short-hand and Typewriting), clerical and management skills n processing information in the office. The ideal secretary is, therefore, distinguished by the following features:

1. **Superior Secretarial Skills**: Highest degree of efficiency in Typewriting, shorthand, office practice and secretarial Duties, Communication skill and General Business Knowledge.

2. **Management Expertise:** A clear understanding of management principles and practices including office Administration, Supervision, motivation, accounting and General Administration.

3. **Institutional Conventions:** Familiarity with business of his organization and a clear understanding of the business policies and procedures, including a familiarity with the commonly used business terms, records, machines, etc.

4. **Certain Character and Personality Traits**: Such as dependability, loyalty, vigour, initiative, courtesy, judgment, honesty, resourcefulness and above all, adaptability, tact and common sense.

Sustainable development.

Development is often conceived as a many-sided process. In human society, it may be personal, national economic, social or sector-based. At the level of the individual, it implies increased skill and capacity, greater freedom, creativity, self-discipline, responsibility and material well-being (Rodney, 1972). Personal development is, however, dependent on the economic development of the society in which one lives. This is because economic development is the major determinant of all the other perspectives of development. What then is economic development? According to Rodney (1972), a society develops economically as its members jointly increase their capacity for dealing with the environment. Such an increase in capacity according to him, is a super structural by four pillars as follows:

1. An understanding of the laws of nature (science).
2. Application of such an understanding in devising tools and better ways and means of exploiting the environment (Technology).
3. Optimum utilization of the tools and resources for goal realization through effective planning, organizing, activating and controlling (Management); and
4. Conducive environment, law and order, and proper direction through effective leadership (politics). In other words, economic development (De) is a multiplicative function of science (S), Technology (T), management (M) and politics (P). Stated mathematically, thus:

De = f (S.T.M.P).

National development, on the other hand, is the aggregate skills and capacity of the individuals coupled with strength and sophistication of the four pillars of development as delineated above. It results in the expansion of income per capita of a nation. Development becomes sustainable when it is in the right direction, all-encompassing, dependable, progressive and relatively permanent.

The secretary and Sustainable Development:

Robock (1962) strongly argued thus: “If any factor is the key for unlocking the forces of economic growth in the undeveloped areas of the third world that factor is management.” Approximately seventeen years later, Drucker (1979) re-echoed the same assertion and insisted that there are no undeveloped counties, there are only undermanaged ones.” In this sense, managers, as the ‘architects’ of and ‘vehicles’ for, sustainable development have an onerous task of using human, financial, material, natural and other resources available to achieve stipulated

goals not only effectively but also efficiently. In this regard, the term 'managers', mean all chief executives of organizations or units and/or all those who are in charge of the planning, organizing, activating, and controlling (POAC) of the resources and work in their organizations. These include Head of State, Governors, Military administrators, Managing directors, general Managers, Ministers, Local Government Chairmen, Vice-Chancellors, Rectors, Provosts, Sole Administrators, Principals, Bishops or whatever name they may be called.

Crucial Office Operations in the Year 2010 and Beyond:

Advances in technology (from the school's first typewriter in 1868 to the word processor in 1964), new business procedures (from the traditional office to the electronic office), multi-national corporations and the new concept of work specialization, have added new dimensions to the role of the secretary. The office in the Year 2010 and beyond will discard the present traditional office in favour of the electronic office which will promote the concept of work specialization. According to Bergerund and Gonzaler (1981), this will divide the task of the traditional secretary into two: the typing functions and the non-typing function. The former will be performed by correspondence secretaries who will be specialists in key-boarding; while the non-typing functions will be performed administrative secretaries. The business office by the year 2010 may also be described as an information network or the systems approach which will replace the traditional office structure (one boss one secretary relationship) by a new office structure in which secretaries might work for many people either centrally or in small clusters called work groups. It may consist of at least six divisions or sections performing at least six distinct functions as follows:

1. Voice processing: Talking to a keyboard will activate keyboard operations voice rather than touch will be a means of keyboard operation on the voice processor.

2. Word and data Processing: Word processing refers to the use of automated equipment to produce such things as letters, reports, and other text materials, while data processing refers to the use of electronic computers to gather, manipulate, summarize, and report on the numbers, statistics and other data that flow through an organization.

3. Reprographics: This is the term associated with new methods of reproducing or duplicating information using computer accessories.

4. Micrographics: Micrographics describes how information may be stored in ways other than in the traditional file cabinets. With micrographics, information may never need to be recorded on paper; it may be stored in the computer's memory, microfiche or other micrographic materials and retrieved as and when required.

5. Office Telecommunications: By 'office telecommunications' in meant the electronic method of improving information through telephone lines. The Xerox 7010 telecopier (fax) which can transmit or receive letters, drawings, plans, handwritten notes or instructions and forms to and from anywhere in the world in less than one minute is already in use.

The role of secretaries in Sustainable development under Vision 2010

According to Flore (1978), in the past the secretarial occupation had an ill-defined role. Presently, the demands made upon secretaries became more diverse as they take over more of the duties and functions of their chief. Yet the requirements of the job, and particularly the criteria

for success, are often ambiguous, conflicting and lacking in definition. In the year 2010 and beyond, the role of the secretary in sustainable development shall include the following:

1. Information Processor:

Information is a basic and universal need of every manager; it is an integral component of everything he does whether in government, business, hospital or school. To have the proper information, in the proper format, at the right time and place is a continuous challenge and in many instances poses problems not easily solved. To identify new markets, design new products, make accurate decisions, give people information and keep abreast of knowledge, require processed information. Information is therefore a management tool; and no manager can function without it and it is the secretary that will process this information for management. He collects, analyzes, stores, retrieves, distributes, creates, and destroys information and arms management with the right information with which to function. As information processor, and with the aid of modem office technology, the secretary will serve as the 'memory and life wire' of the office by the year 2010. She will be the information 'stores officer' under Vision 2010, creating, storing and retrieving as and when necessary, thus providing the tool with which management works.

2. The Chief of protocol or organizer:

The secretary under vision 2010 will be the chief of protocol or simply the organizer of both the office and members of the management team. The secretary will organize management meetings and conferences, arrange official trips (ensuring that no documents are forgotten), keep the diary, organize the boss' time and plan his working life. Chief Executives travel a great deal and will need someone who can make the necessary airline and accommodation arrangements. Since they are frequently out of town, they will need someone with administrative abilities who can keep the office running in their absence - someone who can think and make decisions; indeed, someone with initiative to supplement efficiency; someone with conceptual skills as well as perfect professional skills. In other words, someone who can enact, not just react. By this function, effectiveness, efficiency and high productivity which are elements in sustainable development would be achieved. Rather than being activity-oriented, personnel will become result-oriented.

3. An Image Maker:

The secretary contributes a great deal to the image of both his boss and the organization. The quality of the outgoing mails, the manner callers are handled, the information retrieval speed, the arrangement of work and indeed her personality will all go a long way in building or marrying the image of the boss/organization. Tomorrow's business world will depend on him for the task of image-building through his various work outputs. His interlocking, multi-level and multi dimensional interaction with people within and without the organization will also improve the image of the organisation.

4. An Educator:

By the year 2010, the secretary will be the leader of the office workforce. The secretary will not only direct and supervise but also educate the office personnel. He well be the pace setter; and, as the leader, the rest will learn from him. This is very vital since any manager is as effective as his workforce wants him to be.

5. An Office Editor:

The secretary of the future will also play the editorial role in the office, ensuring that whatever information going out of the office are accurate, complete and in an excellent form.

6. A Liaison Office:

The secretary screens individuals who come to see the Executive, the correspondence which he would answer primarily because of policy-making, the telephone calls which frequently might better be taken by other employees. By this, the executive is able to use his time more effectively thereby increasing his productivity and the overall Gross National Product (GNP). The secretary wards off unwanted callers and shields his boss to perfection. This important role will continue by the year 2010 with a shift of emphasis from individual callers to telephone and other telecommunication caller.

7. A Help-mate:

It is now a common dictum that behind every successful manager, there is a personal secretary. A personal secretary can cover up an inefficient manager in the same manner as an imperfect secretary can reduce the effectiveness of a good manager. One of the secretary's roles in tomorrow's business office will be to help management to achieve organizational objectives.

8. An expediter:

The secretary of the future will attend to the numerous paper work generated by enhanced office activities. He will be the all purpose "spark plug" that will make the executive's office to function. She will also be the activator and/or motivator who will get the office staff to perform beyond reproach. Most executives may continue to lack the skill and time to tackle their clerical and less managerial duties. They will certainly delegate these jobs to the secretary who will ensure that they are performed efficiently and effectively. In the absence of the boss, he may be called upon to make some important decisions, and he will probably be consulted for information and advice on a multitude of issues concerning the business. He will do the routine aspects of the boss's job.

9. A Harmonizer:

The secretary will be a harmonizer acting as an intermediary between top management and in lower-level positions as well as the public. His interacting role with multilevel employees will make him not only distinct but also a catalyst in the establishment.

10. The secretary - A Vital organ in Management Meetings:

An important characteristic of every management team is the management meeting during which important decisions/policies are made; goals are either set or; reassessed. Operational strategies are delineated, and performances are evaluated. The secretary will not only organize this all-important meeting, but also, attend in person. He will provide all information needed, take down the minutes and later produce accurate, brief and clear minutes on which further decisions or actions will be based. He will provide the indispensable clerical and secretarial services needed by such meetings.

Conclusion

From the foregoing, it is obvious that the secretary will have an indispensable and dynamic role to play in the sustainable development of Nigeria especially under vision 2010. As an integral part of management, there cannot be a functional management team without the secretary.

As assistant, the secretary will join hands with the management team in realizing organizational goals. As the information processor, he is the memory and life-wire of the organization. The secretary will act as the chief of protocol or organizer for various organizations. Under vision the 2010 he will also varied roles such as: act as the liaison officer, the office editor and educator, the harmonizer and the image-builder.

Recommendations

1. The secretarial profession of today is in transition, therefore, every business educator should strive to update his skills and knowledge in order to adapt to the current tempo in modern office technology.

2. Secretarial curriculum experts and educationists should re-align the various secretarial offerings to take care of future business requirements.

3. To match the "Vision 2010" which is geared towards sustainable development, preparations for office of the future should also be oriented towards the technology requirements in the year 2010.

4. The traditional secretarial concept no longer fits the modern office definition. Because of the important position which the secretary occupies in the office, secretarial education should be adequately funded and equipped to meet the challenges of sustainable development.

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Automation and Its Impact on the Office

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Automation and its Impact on the Office

There are many definitions of automation but they all centre on one basic concept, namely, the use of machines to perform the routine functions formerly done by people. These machines are generally self-sufficient, operating with a minimum of human intervention. Automation originated in the factory and later found its way into office, a trend that continues to accelerate as more and more mechanized functions previously performed painstakingly by people are now monitored by machines. Today, automation is seen in oft-repeated activities of the office, such as accounting, mail handling, filing, telephones switching systems and reprographics, to name just a few. In this paper, office automation is the use of self-regulating machines to perform routine office tasks with a minimum of human effort. Self-regulating means that once a machine is started by a human being, it will move on to subsequent steps on its own, for example a dishwasher or a clothes washer.

Many new terms come with any new concept. With the idea of automation have come the terms such as ADP, MIS and systems into the vocabulary of the office. ADP stands for automated data processing, a term that can be defined by substituting the words "process information" for the words "perform office tasks" in the earlier definition of office automation. EDP is an abbreviation for electronic data processing, a system for processing information that uses electrical impulses for the recording, transmission, and storage of information. The terms MIS stands for management information system, often referred to as just 'systems'. A management information system is a series of integrated procedures, usually aided by a computer that is designed to provide management with needed information. It uses ADP or EDP structures to supply a manager with data about budgets, inventories, payrolls, insurance coverage, and so on. The growth of the MIS has created a need for programmers, who prepare instruction for computers to follow, and systems analysts, who decide upon what combination of personnel and procedures must be integrated with a computer. Thus automation has had the effect of adding jobs as well as elimination of certain routine ones (Osuala, 1982).

Automation is here to stay, but why do firms automate? This is the subject of the next section of this paper.

Why Automate an office?

Six specific reasons are attributed to a firms' decision to automate, namely, feasibility, modernization status, productivity, efficiency and specialization.

Automation has proven to be cost-effective for most offices: It saves what it costs to start up and maintain. Cost-effectiveness is but another way of expressing feasibility, proving a value Naira-wise. The clearest way to demonstrate the feasibility of automating is to make a simple

comparison between the costs of machines and people to do the same job. If the cost of automation which is that of acquiring and operating a machine, is less than the cost of not automating, then the decision is feasible. Another way to determine the feasibility of automating might be to compare the cost of automation with the additional revenue generated from the process. This comparison is more suitable for a factory than an office, since an office is generally not a revenue-generating operation. However, there are certain office applications of the computer, for example, which are revenue-generating (such as renting out computer time to other firms) and need to be considered in the feasibility decision. Feasibility can also be expressed in volume or in type of work. Wirth (1980) points out that word processing, as a form of automation, is feasible when three conditions exist: (1) typing volume of more than 100000 lines a year, (2) large volume of repetitive documents, and (3) many documents requiring frequent revision.

Modernization is also a valid reason for automating, since improvement is usually the result. The opportunity to update facilities is taken by many firms, and automation is often the by-product. Thus a firm might as well automate when updating. A third reason for automating is a psychological one, namely, status. If a firm is not automated, it seems old-fashioned, behind the times, and noncompetitive. An individual's image of a firm with manual typewriters and comptometers is certainly different from one of a firm with electronic typewriters and calculators. Aside from the status image in the eyes of the public, there is also the question of the image that the workers in a firm have. A worker in an automated firm may feel a second class thus providing a strong justification for automation.

Productivity usually increases with automation. No human can match the speed of automated machinery, and so output for a given time period increases. A word processor might reproduce five letters a minute in comparison to the typist who might, at best, type one letter in five minutes. However, there is an implication in automation that the additional output is needed that the firm needs five letters a minutes in comparison to the typist who might, at best, type one letter in five minutes. In the absence of the needed output, automation is not justified. This point leads to another reason for automation, efficiency.

In terms of automation, efficiency means the maximum use of equipment for as many applications as possible. The availability of a computer, for example, can permit an office to engage in many activities never before considered or to generate needed data never before feasible to gather. Prior to automation, an office may have received a typical monthly telephone bill. After automation, it can generate a print-out of what calls were made from which extensions. Efficiency of automation depends on how after the machinery is used. Additional usage can certainly support a decision to automate.

The final reason for automation presented in this paper is specialisation. In recent years the business would have seen a change from general to specialized jobs, a change spurred on by automation. The new applications permitted by the computer have necessitated specialised personnel to concentrate on these applications. The issue of creating a specialist is a philosophical one. A master of one skill is preferable to a person who has a mere acquaintance with all skills. People who disagree with this view will not support automation on the basis of specialization.

Any one of the above six reasons can be sufficient to introduce the process of automation. In the office, justification for automation has appeared in three distinct areas, namely formerly manual process such as mail handling and filing, data processing and word processing. The second and third areas will be discussed in the next two sections of this paper.

What is Data Processing?

The simplest definition of data processing is the handling of information. But data processing is a two-tiered process, occurring on both the conceptual and practical levels. It is an idea as well as a collection of hardware.

To understand best the idea of data processing, it may be necessary to consider a specific situation. Suppose a payroll clerk has to prepare a payroll from which three records must be derived, namely, a payroll register, which lists all employees of a firm and shows their gross pay, deductions, and net pay for one period; an employee's earning record, which shows employees gross pay, deductions, and net pay for all pay period; and a payroll cheque and stub for each employee for each pay period. In these operations, the payroll clerk is doing data processing because information is being handled, although on a manual level without the use of a single machine or computer.

However, the payroll clerk is hardly satisfied with this payroll procedure because he is inefficiently writing each piece of information three separate times. The office manager would want to improve the process. Suddenly he decides to use carbon paper on the back side of two of the records and then align all three records, so that when he writes the payroll data on the top record it will appear in just the right place on the other records. This idea lacks just one essential feature, however, some device to hold the records in place to prevent slippage and ensure accuracy as he writes. He finally hit upon the idea of a pegboard payroll system. Under this system, the payroll register goes on the bottom and is attached to all of the pegs, while the other records are moved from peg to peg to align with each successive line of the register. Consequently, using this single mechanical device to aid in the handling of information, the manager has moved to the mechanical level of data processing.

The efficiency of the process can be further improved. Since each employees' name, number, hourly rate of pay and other constants must be repetitively entered week after week, the data can be stored on some type of cards that can be read by machines that will print out the information. The punched-card level of data processing was the first attempt at data storage. It was external to any machine. The only rational progression from the punched card level is to a system in which constantly used data are stored inside a machine. Such data could be recalled at will and then processed. This final progression is, of course, to the computer level of data processing.

In summary, data processing is the handling of information at any of four levels, ranging from a simple hand process to a sophisticated modern computer.

The Computer

As have all types of office machines, computers have evolved through many shapes and styles. Each has been increasingly sophisticated compared to those previously used. Although there are differences among types of computers, that is, all machines that are used for Electronic Data Processing (EDP) have five basic components in common.

Each of the five components serves its own unique purpose. Input is the component used for entering data into the computer system. Output serves the opposite purpose, that of retrieving data from the system. Storage is the "memory" component, that part of the computer system that retains all needed data for both immediate and long term needs. The arithmetic/logic component performs calculations and carries out the steps in logic needed to reach the desired output. The control component contains the programme which is the operating instructions that determines

how all the other components will work. The storage, arithmetic/logic, and control components together comprise the Central Processing Unit otherwise called the CPU.

All the computers have these components in common but they differ. Computers can be distinguished from one another in terms of Generation, Size, Input medium and Program language. Each of these categories is discussed in the next several pages. The view taken is not comprehensive, but rather representative, a glimpse into how the modern computer has grown with and affected the modern office.

Generation of Computers:

Generation refers to an age class of computers. The earliest computers, dating from the 1950s, form the first generation. These machines were large and made with vacuum tubes similar to those used in the first television sets. First generation computers used punched cards as the primary medium for input and magnetic cores and drums for storage. Second-generation computers were produced in the 1950s, and 1 960s. They were made of solid-state transistors instead of vacuum tubes, used magnetic tape as an added and often primary input and stored data on disks as well as drums and cores. Third-generation computers, dating from the early l970s, were even smaller, as miniature silicon chips began to replace transistors. Emphasis in the third generation was an increased storage (capacity, random access of data, new and improved programme languages, programming itself, and the use of the cathode ray tube (CRT), a visual display units used for input and output.

Fourth-generation computers which are currently in use, emphasize speed, still greater storage and miniaturized circuits. They are increasingly compact in size and include today's home computers and computer games.

The topic of computer cannot be completed without some reference to micro-computers that are so small and inexpensive that they have begun to find their way into the home. For example, the TRS-80 and the Apple II have become household words and are now becoming office words. As Neuman (1979) states, "The business user can have, right in his own workshop, more computing power than many large corporations had just ten years ago" The main difference between mini computers are in size and price. The microcomputer is smaller and less expensive than even the class 1 computer. Microcomputers generally do not have a printer as part of their configuration.

Word Processing

Just as data processing has revolutionized the clerical and accounting functions of the Office, word processing has drastically altered the correspondence and report-writing functions of the office. Word processing is both a concept and a general term used to describe certain office hardware.

Word processing as an idea is illustrated best by a practical example and a simple definition. Word processing is the efficient handling of written communications. Assume that you, as office manager, need to write 25 identical letters except for a name, an address and a naira value. Perhaps, you are sending a thank you note to your office staff for a certain contribution, for example. How might you go about preparing the 25 letters, assuming that you have a private secretary? One answer is to dictate 25 separate letters to your secretary, who will type each of them individually, one sheet of paper at a time. You are not using the concept of word processing, however. Although the job will be done, but it will not be done efficiently, and efficiency is a key part of processing.

So you remember an efficient alternative to individual letters and come up with one of the business world's earliest efforts at processing words, the form letters. With this method, the secretary types the letter once, leaving room for the name, the address and the amount. The letter is then copied on a copying machine or reproduced from a stencil or other master. Each letter is then inserted in the typewriter for the addition of the variable information. The form letter is more efficient but the only serious drawback is that the addressees will know that you have taken no effort to write individual letters. There is something very impersonal about a form letter.

Not entirely satisfied, you continue your search for a way that will continue the efficiency of form letters with the personal touch of individual letters. The search results in the second conceptual step in word-processing history, the guide letter. A guide letter is a model letter, dictated once from which a secretary can type individual letter. Thus there is a savings in dictation time but not in typing (transcription) time over the original approach. The idea of the guide letter can be carried further by filing it and using it at other times. Modern word processors are made with a wide variety of features and by a wide range of manufacturers. Some of the features available today are storage on minidiskette, magnetic disk, floppy disk, cartridge disk, magnetic tape, diskette, miniscassette etc.

Problems Encountered in the Process of Automating An Office

The problems of automating an office can be summarised in a single word, namely, people. Automation, by necessity, causes changes that affect people. The following are the possible changes that might affect a worker in a traditional office that become automated.

a) The layout to which the worker is accustomed is revised.
b) The workers' duties are changed, creating a potential job dissatisfaction.
c) The workers' job is upgraded to include more responsibilities.
d) The workers' job is eliminated (Bailey, 1979).

The number one problem is the resistance to change, a natural human tendency based on fear of the unknown. Such fears are not unfounded for true change in job does occur. According to Smith (1979), a traditional secretary's job duties include three categories beyond typing, namely, maintenance duties (making copies, opening mail), judgmental duties (keeping a calendar, composing correspondence), and paralegal duties (doing research, composing formal documents). Smith reasons that if you take away the typing duties, relegating all typing to a word-processing centre, you have removed at least one-third of the secretary's job, leading to boredom and dissatisfaction because the secretary has fewer and less varied duties.

Resistance to change is not only a worker's problem but an administrator's as well. You or office manager, may be far from willing to automate and express thoughts about the necessity. Hallock (1979) indicates that because of management attitudes many computer installations barely live up to half their potential. According to him, millions of monies are wasted on computers with earth-moving capabilities doing wheelbarrow jobs. Management is usually directly responsible for not understanding more about the computer and for not getting more from it.

There is only one cure to the major problem of resisting change. That one cure is invo1ving those who will be affected by the change. Effort should be made to involve the manager who will have new supervisory responsibilities, the secretary who will become a key operator only, the book-keeper who will become a key punch operator, the typist who will become a photocomposer, the clerk who will operate an OCK reader. Furthermore, involve all in why change is needed, how it is to be done, when it is to be done, and what is expected of them

in their new jobs. People should be excited about change. Some people want change and thrive on it.

Conclusion

Automation can be a dehumanising step. Managers deal with principles and processes, physical plant, people and productivity. Perhaps the most important of which is people. Peoples' problems are bound to arise in the process of automation. Dealing with them is essential. To ignore or minimise the problems associated with automation is incomprehensible and a serious plan in the performance of an effective administrative office manager.

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The Place of Typewriting in the Current Computer Applications in Nigerian Schools.

By

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Abstract

Computer application skills are being taught in many schools, just as typewriting skills are still being taught. Typewriting skills are prerequisite for operating a computer/word processor. These skills spell employment in modem business. This paper seeks to examine:

(a) the extent to which word processing skills supersede typewriting skills and

(b) the extent to which word processing skills can replace typewriting skills as to forestall typewriting jobs.

Typewriting skills are applicable to various types of typewriters, and secretary-typists are in huge demand. Word processing skills cannot replace typewriting skills; rather, typewriting skills are transferable to computer applications. Recommendations are made that word processing skills as well as typewriting skills be taught for word processing and typewriting respectively.

Introduction:

Typewriting skills are very valuable skills that can be put to various uses. These skills can be utilized in 147 typewriting related jobs (Erickson 1975). They can also be transferred to dedicated word processor and computer applications. Every word processor/computer operator must acquire basic typewriting skills.

The word processor was originally referred to as an apparatus that works unerringly as the mills of the gods. The computer age is right here with us, hence there is mounting pear that the current advent of computer will spell unemployment for secretary-typists/typists. The invention and use of computer mark an innovation in information processing. All word processors are a form of computer. Some computers have word processing programs, whereas there are dedicated word processors. The qualification required to operate a word processor include a good knowledge of typewriting, but a qualification in word processing is not directly transferable to other specific computer programs or typewriters. The training required to operate specific computers is often given on the job or is provided by the computer manufacturer or a software producer when the equipment is installed. This implies that word processing skills are specific to particular equipment.

According to Stellard and Terry (1980), word processing is the combination of people, procedures, and equipment that put ideas into typewritten form. It is one of the most innovative methodologies for producing office correspondence. Railey (1985) explained word processing as the capture, processing, storage and presentation of information. Typewriting, on the other hand, is the process of getting information on paper through operating the typewriter keyboard. Both typewriting word processing are methods of producing office documents. Typewriting has been the method in use before the advent of word processing. Typewriting has been a course of study in the Business Education programme in secondary and tertiary institutions, since the introduction of the National policy on education in 1981. The basic purpose of business

education, which is to prepare students to meet the challenges of the ever-changing world of work, is being achieved through the introduction of computer applications course into the curriculum. Both typewriting and word processing skills provide capability for work in business offices. Both of them also involve a lot of manipulative and other skills.

Features of A Word Processor

A word processor has many exciting features and characteristics. There are mainly three kinds of computers the mainframe, the minicomputer and the microcomputer. They may be stand-alone, shared resource, or shared logic. The mainframe is a large expensive and fast computer, which occupies a great deal of space. It has many terminals, which can be located in any part of the world linked to the computer by the telecommunications links. The minicomputer is a smaller version of a mainframe computer and has many of its characteristics, except that it is not so large. It is capable of supporting forty or more users. A microcomputer is a small computer based on the microchip, and is small enough to be housed on any office desk, its size being roughly that of a typewriter. All microcomputers can be programmed to perform a word processing function, but there are dedicated word processors which are designed for basically one purpose - word processing. The basic components of a dedicated word processor are the same as any microcomputer; hence they are used interchangeably. Other features include storage of information on minidiskette, magnetic disk, floppy disk and many other types of diskettes. The storage capacity range from 2,000 to 20 million characters; printing speed ranging from 40 to 6,000 words per minute; input, media, such as magnetic cards, telecommunications; etc. it has automatic underlining; changeable tape; automatic margin justification; automatic hawse Ns footers; automatic pagination; backup; automatic centering; correction of errors; cut and paste; emphasizing words or sections; filing; fonts; global search and replace; help menus; merging; subscripts and superscripts; word wrap (sometimes called wraparound).

With all these features, the modern word processing secretary enjoys a significant saving of time through typing out her dictation at a rough draft speed. Thereafter, typographical errors are corrected through any of the automatic methods, and the typescript is recorded and stored through a magnetic medium. The document can be reproduced or played back automatically, and if there is need for a revision of the document, it is only the changes that need to be typed and inserted. Several copies of the document can also be printed automatically. That a word processor has exciting features and characteristics does not imply that it has no limitations.

Computer Short-Comings

The computer/word processor is associated with problems like the huge cost of the machine, coupled with expensive servicing and repair charges, as well as short term guarantee. The machine requires constant servicing. This short-term guarantee results in some buyers relegating the equipment to the cupboard once a virus is posing problem. It is not always easy to diagnose and cure a virus in a computer. There is also the peculiar ability of the machine to instantaneously lose every trace of a program at a single mistaken key press. Some software is machine specific. Some computers also operate within clearly defined temperature and humidity ranges; damp and dirt being the main enemies. Many business offices are not financially buoyant to provide air conditioners in order to maintain the required temperature and humidity ranges.

Bailey (1985) recommended that when using VDU the operator should sit at least one metre from the screen and adjust the contrast so that the information on the screen can be read without straining the eyes. This implies that it is difficult to continuously view the screen for hours. Though screen filters are provided, but rest period is recommended, usually every one

hour. This is an unnecessary waste of time and does not happen in typewriting. The word processor secretary has to view the screen continuously in order to cut and paste, wraparound, effect global search and replace, etcetera.

Computers cannot operate without electricity or a very strong and reliable generator. This is not affordable by many. Moreso, in Nigeria, where National Electric Power Authority (NEPA) means "Never Expect power always", one cannot rely on computers for urgent work, be able to specify when a particular piece or work will be completed. This puts the computer at a very great disadvantage.

Computer Applications Skills Vis-a Vis Typewriting Skills

According to Tonne, Popham and Freeman (1965), skill is the level of mastery. A skill as been achieved when an action can be exercised although something is upper most in the mind. Klausmeier in Russon and Wanous (1973) stated that the highly skilled performance is accomplished in less time, with less energy, greater accuracy, higher consistency, or with more flexibility. In contrast, a typewriting student is not skilled if he is uncertain of key locations, unsure about which finger goes on which key or lacks the techniques, of key stroking.

The word processing keyboard is a replica of the typewriter keyboard. A large number of skills appear to be common to both word processing and typewriting; yet, there are skills which are unique to typewriting and some that are unique to word processing. Both of them involve perceptual motor skills. Nohavitza (1990) stated that computer applications allow for the development and refinement of touch keyboarding, including techniques, speed and accuracy. Okafor (1992) agrees with Ndinechi (1990) that certain skills are common to both typewriting and word processing. They identified three basic skills as common to both typewriting and word processing:

1. Communication skills - efficiently organizing materials for letters, documents, and reports so that the message is understood and acceptable, and using effective oral communication to give clear explanation and directions, using correct grammar, punctuation, spelling, capitalization and numerical form, proof-reading and editing all materials accurately.

2. Equipment related skills: (1) keyboarding - accurately and rapidly typing straight copies and numerical (statistical) copies using machine controls properly, neatly correcting errors using various means, operating automatic keyboards, determining appropriate format. (ii) Reprographics – operating copying equipment efficiently to produce quality duplicated copy.

3. Inter-personal skills that are acceptable in business - attentive listening, concentration and ability to work with interruptions, willingness, coping with pressure, loyalty, completing work on schedule, accepting criticism, good sense of humour, toleration of routine work, acting with tact, courtesy and calmness, and working harmoniously for a common cause.

Conceptual skills are differentially unique to word processing and typewriting, as these relate to the understanding of the terminologies pertaining to work processing and typewriting respectively, and the relationship of work processing and typewriting to the total information system. Peculiar listening skill is required in typewriting. The typist has to listen carefully in order to hear and react to the sound of the warning bell. Also, the sound of the typewriter will indicate to the operator whether the machine is in order or not and whether she is operating the keys correctly for instance, when the ribbon was completely wound to one end, or the keys clog together, the sound of the typewriter will change. In the same vein, when typing is approaching the bottom end of the typing sheet, the typewriter emits a different sound altogether. Greater

stride is required in typewriting for finger reaches than in word processing. Error correction methods and reprographics methods differ in typewriting and word processing.

Ndinechi (1990) grouped typewriting skills into six categories - Reading, Writing, Listening, Computational, Operational and Inter-personal skills. Out of these six categories, listening, computational and operational skills are peculiar to typewriting. Computational skills involve the ability to arrange simple tabulation quickly and correctly at first attempt, centre material vertically and horizontally on paper of any size. Operational skills involve the ability to operate and maintain the typewriter efficiently, display good technique in key stroking and in machine manipulation, understanding the mechanical features of the machine in order to utilize all devices that save time and increase operating efficiency. In as much as some skills are common to both typewriting and word processing, the method of teaching and learning of these skills are unique in either case. For instance, communication skills applicable to word processing (Okafor (1992) are similar to Ndinechi (1990) reading, writing and listening skills applicable to typewriting. But in typewriting, the skills require the ability to decipher letters, interpret signs and symbols; arrange different parts of a letter and other documents correctly at first attempt, instead of warping around obtainable in word processing.

Typewriting skills are more encompassing and require greater indent acquisition. Powell (1975) wrote that communication skills are the first priority in word processing, and that without communication skills the students cannot read fast in order to type fast. It is possible that a word processor operator after typing at a fast rate will continue to wraparound in an attempt to produce a mailable letter where as a proficient typist will produce the same mailable letter in comparatively less time. The efficiency of a word processor operator depends on the typewriting skills acquired by the operator. This is so, because certain skills emphasized in the learning of typewriting are not emphasized in learning word processing. For instance, “eyes on the copy” skill emphasized at the initial stage of learning typewriting is not emphasized in learning word processing. In word processing, the eyes have to adjust to the various actions of reaching from the mouse using control keys or installing a function. The essence of this insistence on the specific skills is to “over-master” and acquires the level of skill transferable to other applications. In this instance, the level of mastery achievable in typewriting is not exactly easily achievable in word processing. Accuracy is not so much emphasized at the initial stage of learning typewriting in order to enable students imbibe adequately the operational skills. Many authors currently see the emphasis on accuracy in typewriting keyboard presentation as detrimental to student’s progress. Studies by West (1974) Subger (1969) and Jone (1973) cited in Popham et al (1973) provided enough evidence against strike instance on accuracy at the initial stage of typewriting skills acquisition. Skills emphasised in teaching/learning typewriting which are not equally emphasized in word processing include: “Staccato: typing, sharp stroking of keys as if they are red hot, “eyes on the copy” et cetera.

Typewriting skills inspite of their in-depth and thorough mastery are achievable in less period of time than word processing skills because of the enormity of sophisticated gadgets and applications of word processors. In this standing, the typewriter has numerous advantages over word process.

Advantages of Typewriting

Historically, typewriting provided the first employment for woman when men dominated the world’s work force. It should not, therefore, be discredited due to the development of word processors. Tonne et a! (1965) emphasized that one needs typewriting to get through life. Bailey (1985) stated that the typewriter has an office function and will continue to have one for many

years to come, particularly in small offices or in those where the volume of typed material is small. The selection of office machines depends on a number of factors, and out of these, cost and convenience are of prime importance. The word processor is generally very expensive, and not affordable by many people. The efficiency and effectiveness of a word processor depend on the efficiency of the people, the procedures and the equipment. The word processor is not always reliable - initial cost, servicing cost, maintenance, electricity and installation are very expensive. Computer applications/skills cannot, therefore, replace the teaching and learning of typewriting skills. The fear that typewriting students may be unemployed is unfounded.

Typewriting is a powerful motivational force in learning other courses. The typist in the course of her work learns about other aspects of life and disciplines. A student learns better when he types out notes taken in the classroom. In an investigation carried out by Meleod and First cited in Popham et al (1975) it was noted that typewriting fastened the understanding of languages since foreign students who were refused admission into American Colleges due to language, deficiencies were given admissions after a short regular English instruction with typewriting course. They added that students achieved significant gains over their colleagues who studied English alone. In an experiment by Babbs and Cline in Popham et al (1975) it was proved that typewriting increased motivation and enjoyment at work. Seibert cited in Popham et al (1975) after a similar experiment discovered that typewriting aided slow learners to learn faster since he was able to raise to a higher grade a group of poor readers after eight weeks of two hours a day typewriting course.

Erickson (1975) found that typewriting was a basic component of 147 of the 300 jobs he studied, and a supportive activity in 20 other jobs, and that out of the 147 jobs in which typewriting was a basic component, 44 (34%) require a worker to type between one-quarter and one-half of the working day, and that all Jobs require that at least 5% of the day be spent in typewriting.

Many people of varying abilities can learn typewriting for the purpose of job and employment. The blind learns to type and hold jobs involving typewriting. Other handicapped people learn to type by using special equipment and learning materials. If only word processing skills were taught to these groups of people, they cannot transfer the skills are applied that word processing skills can be applied. They cannot afford word processors due to high cost and unreliability of electricity supply, as well as other conveniences required for a computer. The typewriting skills of listening and responding to the warning bell; tapping the space bar or backspace in order to set correct margins; appreciating the sound of a typewriter key operation to ascertain whether it is faulty or in order; flipping the carriage, et cetera, can be transferred to word processing. The methods these skills are acquired in word processing are quite different and therefore cannot replace typewriting skills.

Notably, computer can be used as a learning system, but it can never be ascribed to convey the inspiration if exchange of information the way a teacher may provide. It cannot also provide the quantity of appropriate feedback that student’s need from their teachers in order to progress rapidly. The variety of computer applications notwithstanding, it can never substitute the personal touch of teachers to the teaching process. At best, it can enhance teaching effectiveness if it put to appropriate use.

Typewriters are still more widely used than word processors. Typewriting offers employment to a large number of people including the blind and other handicapped people.

Conclusion

The following conclusions are adduced:

1. For a word processor/computer operator to be efficient, the operator must have acquired basic typewriting skills. Typewriting skills can still be put to many uses, hence typists and secretary typists are still in huge demand. -

2. There are a number of skills common to typewriting and word processing.

3. Certain skills are peculiar to typewriting while some are unique to word processing.

4. Typewriting skills are transferable to word processing, but certain word processing skills are not applicable to typewriting.

5. Computer application skills cannot replace the teaching of typewriting skills.

Recommendations

In the light of the foregoing, the following recommendations are made:

1. Typewriting skills should be taught with typewriting in mind, while word processing skills should be taught with word processing in mind.

2. Since the screen glare is dangerous to the eyes, there should always be a stand-by word processing secretary to put the computer to effective use.

3. Trainees in word processing should be made to acquire typewriting skills first. These skills are transferable to word processors. The reason is to avoid damaging the word processor because of the huge cost of word processors.

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Effective Communication: A Vital Instrument for the Teaching of Office Occupations

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Abstract

The difficulty with which students learn Business and Office Occupations has been a source of concern to many business educators. It is usually assumed that undergoing of teacher training course and the passing of relevant professional examinations for knowledge, adequately prepare an individual to teach a specific course. Incidentally, teacher training qualification and the acquisition of knowledge when not well coordinated with the necessary communication skill, teaching will not be effective. It is on this basis of the fact that teaching must go hand in hand with effective communication, that the author considers it necessary to discuss the need for teachers of Business and Office Occupations to adapt their teaching to the activities that improve their communication approach in order to eliminate the difficulty experienced by students in learning of Business and Office Occupations.

Introduction

Effective communication is considered as one of the essential ingredients of human life. As a result, communication has become a very vital aspect of every teaching and learning encounter.

The outcome of the teaching of Office Occupations like other courses can be said to be of two dimensions: the positive and the negative. All other things being equal, the outcome is positive when the communication approach is effective and the students are able to demonstrate an understanding of the lesson. The outcome would be negative if all other conditions are met, but the communication approach is defective. To fully appreciate the topic under discussions, it is necessary to look at the concepts of effective communication, teaching, Business and Office Occupations.

The word communication has been variously defined, by many scholars in different disciplines. This idea was upheld by Little (1965) when he said that communication is a chameleon of a word whose meaning is determined by the user. James, ode and soola (1990) defined communication as the transmitting of thoughts, the giving of understandable information and the receiving and understanding of a message.

According to Lajuana, Sally, Wilma and Celeste (1980) communication means transmitting of information, using previously agreed codes or symbols such as pictures, facial expressions, written and spoken words.

From the definitions as given by the above mentioned persons, effective communication demands that the information or message to be passed from one person to another must be understandable, implying that communication takes place only when what is communicated is understood by the receiver. Also, in order to achieve effective communication, the symbols used must be common to the sender and the receiver of the message.

Teaching as seen by Ukeje (1966) is the transfer of knowledge from the teacher to the learner. According to Smith and Dennis (1968) teaching means:

(b) An intimate contact between a more mature personality and a less mature one which is designed to further the education of the later, and

(c) Imparting of knowledge to an individual (student) by another (the teacher) in a school.

Teaching is communication (Curzon, 1980). It consists of teacher's activities directed at the learner. Teaching is also defined as the giving of instructions; causing an individual to know or to be able to do something (Hornby, 1977).

Based on the above definitions, it is pertinent to conclude that teaching has to do with the transfer of knowledge. The knowledge transferred could be practical skill or theoretical. Also, through teaching, knowledge is transferred from a more experienced personality to a less experienced person. These definitions presuppose that the teacher has adequate knowledge of the subject matter to be taught. The above definitions also imply that teaching could be done in a school or at any other place as may be determined by the parties involved in the teaching and learning activities.

Office Occupations involve the activities performed by individuals, public and/or private enterprises, which are related to the facilitating functions of the office (Osuala, 1981). Office Occupations involve such activities as recording, and retrieval of data, supervision, co-ordination of office-functions, communication and reporting of information regardless of the social, economic, or governmental organisation in which they are found.

Business Education is a programme of instruction which consists of two parts:

(a) Office Education, a vocational careers education programme for office careers through initial, refresher and upgrading education leading to employability and advancement in Office Occupations and

(b) General Business Education, a programme to provide students with information and competencies which are needed by all in managing personal business affairs and in using the services of the business world (Osuala, 1998).

Office Occupations are aspects of Business Education, whose primary objectives are to develop skills, knowledge and attitudes required for a successful work life. So for anyone to be meaningfully involved in Office Occupations, a thorough knowledge of the functions and the skills needed to perform them is mandatory.

Teaching and Communication: A Relationship

It is also clear that communication and teaching are interrelated concepts - thus, while teaching involves the transfer of knowledge from the teacher to the learner/student, communication involves the passing of information from one person to another. Teaching takes place between two or more persons, communication also involves two or more persons. Teaching is also geared towards changing the behaviour of the learner, while communication is geared towards eliciting response from the receiver. The change in behaviour observed and the response received, each of, which could be positive, or negative, are the direct outcomes of teaching and communication effectiveness. Teaching and communication are inter-dependent concepts. As a result, the Office Occupations teacher in addition to possessing good teaching skills should be familiar with the factors involved in effective communication and the necessary communication skills.

Factors of Communication

Factors of communication could be referred to as the components of every communication process. They are those things present in all communication encounters, both the desirable and the undesirable. These factors, according to James et at. (1990) include the sender/teacher. The receiver/learner, the message, the symbol, response and noise.

A discussion of these factors is necessary in this presentation as the understanding of the role played by each of them will work to promote communication effectiveness of the Office Occupations educator.

The sender or the teacher (in this presentation, the Office Occupations teacher) is the communicator of the skills or ideas. He is directly at the centre of teaching and learning activities because he should be the master of the Office Occupations related skills to be imparted to the learners. One of the theories of Vocational Education states that teaching will be effective in proportion to the extent the teacher is a master of the occupation he teaches. According to Ndinechi (1990) teaching is effective to the extent the teacher acts in ways that are favorable to the understanding of the lesson. So in addition to having adequate knowledge of the subject matter, the teacher should be able to organize learning experiences in a manner that learning proceeds step by step to elicit the desired skill or knowledge in the learner. The Office Occupation teacher should be able to adopt the appropriate teaching methods, techniques and devices for his teaching. For example, in teaching of typewriting, demonstration, which is among the most accessible ways of teaching and imparting skills, should be used.

The learner who is the receiver component of the lesson is a very important factor in the teaching encounter. The Office Occupations teacher should take the particular characteristics of the learner into consideration. The understanding of this will assist the teacher to know how his lessons will be delivered in the most effective manner.

Interest of the learner is another factor, which must be aroused for effective teaching of Office Occupations. Interest involves likeness or concern for something. The implication of this is that people learn only what they are interested in. It then follows, that learning of Office Occupations, will be proportional to the amount of interest the leaner has in them.

The knowledge/message components refer to the ideas to be imparted. The knowledge to be imparted is one of the most vital aspects of the teaching and learning encounter. The Office Occupations educator must equip himself with the requisite knowledge which can only be acquired by subjecting oneself to a thorough training and by passing the relevant professional examinations (Ekpenyong, 1990). Thus teaching is possible only when the Office Occupations educator has a thorough knowledge of the subject matter to be taught because no one gives what he does not have.

The symbol component is also a vital aspect of the teaching activities. Thus for effective teaching of Office occupations, the language used by the teacher must be that which the students understand. If the language is not understood by the students, learning will not take place. The effective Office Occupation teacher never leaves to chances any assumption that when he understands a language, the students will understand too. Everything possible should be done to come to the level of the students. The practice of trying to impress the students by using vocabularies above their level should be avoided. Local language should be used to explain concepts when necessary.

The response component refers to the students' behaviour or skills they acquire at the end of a reaching and learning encounter. To a great extent, the Office Occupation teacher has absolute control of the quality of response elicited from the students, because this is a direct

result of his communication effectiveness. He does everything within his power to ensure that the response received at the end of every teaching/learning encounter is positive. This can be achieved by using singly thought sentences and by avoiding ambiguous statements, among others.

Noise is a factor of communication that is hardly needed, but present in every teaching/communication encounter. It refers to all those things, which combine to reduce the effective understanding of a message or lesson. Noise can be psychological, for example, giving a shorthand lesson when the students are tired will not be effective because the level of concentration needed to take shorthand dictation will be lacking. Noise can be physical, for a example, the type produced by a moving vehicle, crowd, or an industrial workshop. Noise can also be linguistic, like wrong use of words, tenses, and wrong pronunciation among others. As much as possible, teaching of Office Occupations should be free from all manner of noise.

Communication Skills that should be possessed by the Office Occupations teacher

The teaching of Business and Office Occupations demands that a given level of communication skills be possessed by the teacher. A teacher may have the relevant knowledge and planning may have been done, if the communication skills are lacking, teaching will not be effective.

Some communication skills that should be possessed by Vocational Educators as identified by Roberts and Becker (1974) include: Dynamism, Delivery, Non-verbal language and positive Reinforcement.

A dynamic Office Occupations educator should be able to keep the students busy throughout the teaching period. According to Roberts and Becker, a class is kept busy when the lesson is interesting and meaningful. Making a class interesting and meaningful could be achieved by the ability of the teacher to have concern for the students, to be intimate with them, having self confidence and his ability to create a pleasant social-emotional environment.

Concern about delivery demands that lessons be delivered in the most attention-catching manner. This could be achieved by the use of clear voice, moderate speaking speed and the ability to be fluent. Also the pitch at which the lesson is delivered should be kept under control. Avoiding the use of unusually high or low pitch is important. A pitch between the two extremes is likely to be more acceptable and effective.

The importance of non-verbal language cannot be overemphasized. In all teaching/communication encounters, body language such as mime and gesture are encouraged to be freely used when necessary. Positive non-verbal language can influence desirable students' performance more than ever imagined. Positive reinforcement is a very important skill in the teaching of Office Occupations. It usually comes in form of praise and good humoured teasing among others. Positive reinforcement, which should be quick and generous, is preferred to criticism.

In conclusion, therefore, key concepts in teaching/communication in relation to Office Occupations are note-worthy. The possession of these skills has become essential components in preparation of Business and Office Occupation teachers.

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The Effects of Office Education Courses Taken by Administrative Officers in the Universities on their Performance of Administrative Office Management Functions

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of specialized office education courses taken by administrative officers in the Universities on their performance of administrative office Management (AOM) Functions. Four hundred and twenty administrative officers of various cadres from the Universities in the Eastern States of Nigeria were used. One research question and one null hypothesis was answered and tested, respectively in the study. Nineteen AOM functions comprising of 176 tasks were formulated and used. The instrument was content -validated on a 5-point scale. Using Kuder-Richardson Formula (K-R) 21, the reliability coefficient yielded a value of 0.91. Means, percentages and ANOVA F-ratio tests were used. The administrative officers took four courses in office Education that had significant effect on their performance of seven AOM Functions and non-significant effect on 12 functions.

Introduction:

The current global focus on Universities as centres of scientific research and training in this information age, has called for technological changes as well as increased efficiency in the handling of information-processing systems (Carnoy, 1994). Administrative office Management (AOM) is therefore receiving a worldwide attention since its concepts and functions encompass the systematic and efficient information-processing needs of the modern office (Quible, 1977). According to him, the most significant reason for the increased attention to administrative office management is the growing awareness that effective organizational management, to a large extent, depends on the efficiency with which information is processed, for faster and more accurate decision-making; thus, generating a pronounced impact on the productivity picture of the organization. Administrative office management with its integrated functions, has become indispensable to any modern organization, in order to unify the rather isolated office functions and services for greater efficiency.

The level of demand for efficiency in office functions today has generally brought great pressure to bear on the administrative offices, including the Universities', to the point that the traditional office methods cannot cope. Today's office operations have become an information net-work controlled by sophisticated electronic technology (Neuner, Keeling & Kallaus 1978). Oliverio (1985) has described the changing office environment as a revolution, while Owens (1982) had earlier noted that the technology which the students are studying, teachers are teaching and office personnel are using, must change. Osuala (1984) has expanded this basic implication by stressing that all must be prepared to update their skills and knowledge continuously in order to keep abreast with the revolution, since office administration and management are never static but always changing in the interests of greater efficiency.

The need for systematic and efficient information processing in the modern office operations has given birth to administrative office management (AOM), a concept which has

become an important academic discipline (keeling and Kallaus, 1983). Today's office administration and management require specialized training in order to cope with the high level demand for processed information in the quality, format and speed, for better decision-making by top-management. This, therefore, negates the general but erroneous view that any graduate, irrespective of field of study, can effectively carry out the modern office administration and management tasks without any specialized office education. In the early years of mass introduction of the computer into office operations, Cone (1974) called for more emphasis on specialized office management courses for office executives, since the majority of "University-educated people" will ultimately work in some types of office environment. In consonance with this view, Crotty (1981), while reporting on office management job-preparation, observed that in recent years, office executives have found that the formal education they received did not provide them with sufficient skills to cope with their day-to-day tasks in the modern offices. He noted that this has become a challenge to business educators and continuing curricula-problem to higher education in helping office executives in the face of the ever-changing nature of the office. All these agreed with the finding of a study by Stouffer and Solmon (1986) which determined the usefulness of higher education for employment of fresh graduates into office jobs. Only 17 percent of office workers and 25 percent of executives rated their higher education as being "very useful" to their office functions. Their study concluded that the link between higher education and office occupations is relatively weak for office executives. They attributed the weakness to the effect of "sweeping changes" occurring in the administrative office in recent years. Therefore, the quality and relevance of what is learned in the classroom must be ensured because, to a large extent, the nature of in-service training required during the office career will be influenced by the entry-level skills possessed from the first day on a new job (Oliverio, 1985). The overall effectiveness of the Universities as centres of scientific research and training depends, therefore, and to a large extent, on the efficiency of their information-processing systems, which is what administrative office management functions strive to achieve. The emphasis, however, is on the level of office skills possessed by the administrative officers, whom Langford Jr. (1985) has identifies as "information officers." As has been observed by him, technology is a tool used by people to get information job done. According to him, systems do not do anything but people do, therefore, the ability to convert business information into sound judgements is distinctively human.

This study, therefore, was designed to determine the effects of the level of office education received by the administrative officers in the Universities on their performance of administrative office management functions.

Research Question:

What courses in Office Education are taken by administrative officers in the Universities?

Null Hypothesis.

There is no significant effect ($p < 0.05$) in the performance of each administrative office management (AOM) function by administrative officers in the Universities according to courses taken in office education.

Methodology

Area of Study

The study was conducted in the Universities within the geographical location of the Eastern States of Nigeria.

Population

The population for the study was made up of 525 administrative officers of all cadres within Universities. No sample was drawn.

Instrument

The instrument was a questionnaire with two sections. Section 'A' which sought demographic information on the Administrative officers, include a list of Office Administration and Management Courses which the subjects indicated the courses they took in the University. Section 'B' consisted of 19 administrative office Management Functions broken into 176 tasks and clustered into four groups of function: namely:

(1) Office Managerial process
(2) Office Administrative process
(3) Office Environment
(4) Office Operations/Information systems Management

The Respondents rated each task under each function on a 5-point scale (performance). The instrument was content-validated on a 5-point scale (Importance) by 30 administrative officers and 10 Administrative Office Managers from business organizations. Using the modified version of Kuder Richardson Formula (K-R) 21, the mean reliability coefficient for all the functions yielded a value of 0.91.

Data Collection and Analysis

A total of 525 copies of the questionnaire were distributed to the subjects, out of which 420 were properly completed and retrieved. Means and percentages were used. The null hypothesis was tested at 0.05 level of significance using a one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) F-ratio. The test was carried out for each AOM function using the performance grand means ratings arranged according to courses taken in office education. The results were presented according to groups of function.

Findings

1. It was found that 207 or 49.3% of the administrative officers in the Universities took four courses in office education as follows:

(1) Office Administration
(2) Office Management
(3) Secretarial Administration
(4) Administrative office Management, while 213 or 50.7% took no courses at all in office education (Table 1).

2. It was found that the office education course taken by the administrative officers in the Universities have no significant effect on their performance of 12 AOM functions as follows:

Managerial Functions

(1) Planning
(2) Organizing
(3) Controlling
(4) Directing

Administrative Functions

(1) Office Communication
(2) Office Administrative Decision-making

(3) Office Administrative Cost/Budgetary Control
(4) Office Work-Measurement/work-standards

Office Environment Functions
(1) Office Psycho-physiological Factors

Office Operations/Information Systems Management Functions
(1) Forms Design and Control
(2) Mailing
(3) Office stationery/supplies
(Tables 1- 4)

3. It was found that office education courses taken by the administrative officers in the Universities have significant effect on their performance of seven AOM Functions as follows:

Managerial Functions
(1) Staffing/Personnel Services

Administrative Functions
None

Office Environment Functions
(1) Office Accommodation
(2) Office Layout/space-Management
(3) Office Furniture/Machines/Equipment

Office Operations/Information Systems Management Functions
(1) Records Management
(2) Data/word processing and Information systems Management
(3) Reprographics

Discussion

From the findings of this study on the effects of office education courses taken by administrative officers in the Universities on their performance of Administrative office Management (AOM) Functions, it is most revealing that most of the administrative officers (213 or 50.7%) took no courses in office education, either pre-service or in-service. The basic implication of this finding is that almost all the administrative officers in the Universities would require in-service training in order to remain productive in the office of today. The demographic characteristic data analysis in Table 5 show that 207 or 49.3% of the administrative officers took between one and four courses in office education. This apparent lack or little office education produced significant effect on the administrative officers' performance of those administrative office management functions that have not been the traditional, for instance, Office Operations/Information Systems Management. Records Management, Data/word processing and Information Management and Reprographics functions in today's office require specialized trainings in the face of the "paperless office revolution".

These findings try to delineate the importance of equipping office executives with basic administrative office management skills before their appointments to positions within the administrative office cadre or during in-service trainings. Furthermore, these findings tend to

buttress and also debunk the general but erroneous belief that administrative office functions can be performed by any person who is graduate of whatever discipline, without specialized trainings in office education. This is one of the main reasons why most office executives are over-dependent on their secretaries for virtually every technical operation in the office. Every office executive is by the virtue of his position a supervisor but it follows that no one can supervise technical operations which one does not understand. Manual operations, which are still predominant in the Nigerian University office operations, can no longer cope with the nature of information-processing demands of today. Information ought to be available whenever desired in the right format and at the desired quality and speed. Modern academic activities demand a network of information to match contemporary activities in other Universities of the world.

Conclusion

1. Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions were drawn: Most administrative officers in the Universities have little or no office education background to enable them cope with the demands of today's administrative office operations.

2. The few or no office education courses taken by the administrative officers in the Universities have significant effect on their performance of administrative office management functions.

3. The negative effect of the few or no office education courses taken by the administrative officers in the Universities has serious administrative and office education implications.

4. Administrative officers in the Nigerian Universities need serious reorientations in modern office administration and management operations.

Recommendations

The following recommendations were made:

1. The Universities should organize in-service trainings for office executives within the administrative officer cadre. Such trainings, which would serve as re-orientations, should have special emphasis on administrative office management and the performance of the functions.

2. Universities should make their administrative officers undergo a mandatory training in computer-based data/word processing and information system management, which is essential to any office executive in this information age.

3. Universities should include specialized trainings in modern office administration and management as a pre-requisite for appointments into the administrative officers' cadre. This will reduce the burden of inevitable re-trainings.

Table 1

Results of one-way ANOVA on the Effects of Office Education Courses Taken by Administrative Officers on their Performance of AOM Functions-Managerial Functions

AOM Functions (Source)

AOM Functions (Source)	d.f.			SSD			MSD		F Obs.)	F (Crit.)	RMK
	Tot.	B/W	W//n	Tot.	B/W	W//n	B/W	W//n			
Planning	49	4	45	11.23	1.17	10.06	0.29	0.22	1.32	2.59	N/S
Organizing	54	4	50	15.65	0.70	14.95	0.18	0.30	0.60	2.59	"
Controlling	39	4	35	4.48	0.05	4.43	0.01	0.13	0.08	2.65	"
Staffing/Personnel Services	64	4	60	23.59	3.83	19.76	0.96	0.33	2.91	2.53	S
Directing (Leading)	59	4	55	2.37	1.56	10.81	0.39	0.20	1.95	2.55	N/S

Table 2

Results of one-way ANOVA on the Effects of Office Education Courses Taken by Administrative Officers on there Performance of AOM Functions-Administrative Functions

AOM Functions (Source)	d.f.			SSD			MSD		F Obs.)	F (Crit.)	RMK
	Tot.	B/W	W//n	Tot.	B/W	W//n	B/W	W//n			
Office Communication	59	4	55	10.61	0.78	9.83	0.20	0.18	1.11	2.55	N/S
Office Administrative Decision-making	39	4	35	0.05	0.63	4.42	0.16	0.13	1.23	2.65	"
Office Administrative Cost/Budgetary Control	49	4	45	8.19	1.07	7.12	0.27	0.16	1.69	2.59	"
Office Work Measurement/Work Standards	44	4	40	6.46	0.73	5.73	0.18	0.14	1.29	2.61	N/S

P<0.05 S = significant N/S = significant

Table 3

Results of one-way ANOVA on the Effects of Office Education Courses Taken by Administrative Officers on their Performance of AOM Functions-Office Environment Functions

AOM Functions (Source)	d.f.			SSD			MSD		F Obs.)	F (Crit.)	RMK
	Tot.	B/W	W//n	Tot.	B/W	W//n	B/W	W//n			
Office Accommodation	29	4	25	.97	0.94	2.03	0.24	0.08	3.00	2.76	S
Office Layout/Space Management	39	4	35	5.80	1.55	4.25	0.39	0.12	3.25	2.65	“
Office Furniture/Machines/ Equipment	39	4	35	4.78	1.35	3.43	0.34	0.10	3.40	2.65	“
Office Psychophysiological Factor	44	4	40	6.15	0.63	5.52	0.16	0.14	1.14	2.61	N/S

Table 4: Results of one-way ANOVA on the Effects of Office Education Courses Taken by Administrative Officers on their Performance of AOM Functions-Office Operations/Information Systems Management Functions

AOM Functions (Source)	d.f.			SSD			MSD		F Obs.)	F (Crit.)	RMK
	Tot.	B/W	W//n	Tot.	B/W	W//n	B/W	W//n			
Records Management	49	4	45	4. 02	0.89	3.13	0.22	0.07	3.14	2.59	S
Forms Design and Control	39	4	35	3.67	0.58	3.09	0.15	0.09	1.67	2.65	N/S
Data/Word Processing/Information Systems	49	4	45	5.33	1.40	3.93	0.35	0.09	3.89	2.59	S
Management Reprographics	39	4	35	3.08	0.85	2.23	0.21	0.06	3.50	2.65	“
Mailing	34	4	30	3.48	0.07	3.41	0.02	0.11	0.18	2.69	N/S
Office Stationary/Supplies	44	4	40	7.39	1.02	6.37	0.26	0.16	1.63	2.61	N/S

P<0.05 S = Significant N/S = Non-Significant.

Table 5: Courses Taken in Office Education by Administrative Officers in the Universities

Office Education Courses	No. of Administrative Officers Who took the Courses	Percentage
Office Administration	96	22.8%
Office Management	61	14.5%
Secretarial Administration	25	6.0%
Administrative Office Management	25	6.0%
None	213	50.7%
	420	100%

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Curriculum Innovation at the Tertiary Level of Education in African Countries

By

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Introduction

Innovation represents a significant new effort to complete a system or to create a system. In education, innovation may cover a wide range of phenomena including curricula, teaching and learning methods, equipment, schools, open schools, administration, buildings, community schools, comprehensive schools, out of school programmes, electronic, media use, teacher training institutes, educational research centres, curriculum development and production centres and all kinds of non- formal and adult programmes (Haberman, 1979). A list of the innovations in education which is being carried out in African countries would be both staggering and impressive, but to compile and describe such a list is not the primary purpose of this paper. The concern of this paper is with curricula innovation.

At the base of curriculum innovation is a strong desire for radical change prompted by many of what has been described as "precipitating condition" for innovation namely, the mobilization of the political elite to meet the country's needs with indigenous solutions; a widespread popular desire for new or better institutions; and economic and political pressures from neighbouring countries. This phenomenon leads to an awareness that the needs of the country are urgent and enormous and that the colonial education system was, and still is, inappropriate to meet these needs (Havelock, 1977).

Often, the strength of the desire for change is related to the degree to which the colonial education system is seen as inappropriate to the country's needs. That is, as the desire for an indigenous solution increases, the colonial heritage seems more and more burdensome and as a result, the impatience for rapid, massive change grows stronger. This pattern appears to fit fairly closely in most African countries' quest for curriculum innovation.

Higher Education's New Role

A leading role in the development of African states falls to higher education in general and the universities in particular, which are an irreplaceable facility for research and training in all fields. Universities are, of course, an integral part of the national education system, and as such are now bound to be concerned with all questions relating to curriculum innovation. Training suitable highly qualified staff and raising the level of scientific and technical knowledge are essentially responsibilities for Universities. Concerted effort should, therefore, be made to see to it that these universities' functions fit better into a new strategy designed to provide training, promote research and restore the cultural identity of African states, whose education systems must be more definitely angled towards development.

Curriculum innovation, the promotion of changes in teaching methods in support of curriculum goals, has become an even more difficult problem in many African countries. Amongst the countries reviewed in this paper, Nigeria, Ghana, Liberia and Carneroon have economic problems of varying severity which restrict the resources available for innovation to very low level. Other countries: Uganda, Kenya, Ethiopia, Benin and Algeria have avoided the worst effects of recession on public sector investment in the social sector, however, cuts in expenditure were a reality in the mid 1980s in Tanzania and others (Lewin, 1991).

Curriculum Innovation In Nigeria

Higher Education

According to the National Policy on Education, the term higher education, covers the post- secondary section of the national education system which is given in universities, polytechnics and colleges of technology, including such courses as are given by the colleges of education, the advanced teachers training colleges, correspondence colleges and such institutions as may be allied to them (NPE 1981 p8). Thus in the Nigerian context, higher education has broad interpretation.

There are three categories of higher education institutions in Nigeria:

(a) universities
(b) polytechnics and technical colleges,
(c) colleges of education and advanced teacher training.

All these constitute the tertiary institutions. The curricula of the universities and other tertiary institutions suffer from extreme academic orientation, lack of relevance to the needs of the learners or of the society, and narrowness. The present trend in higher education is for a broad-based first degree course followed by narrow specialisation for the higher degrees, but most Nigerian universities still operate the single honours degree programmes. This has tended to reduce the number of eligible postgraduate students. A broad-based first degree followed by a year or two of in-depth study preparatory to specialisation before thesis research tends to produce a more balanced academic.

The offerings in the universities also need to be liberalised. Thus, the universities should participate actively in the production of vocational manpower wherever it is needed; not only doctors and lawyers, but also accountants, business managers, surveyors, architects, musicians, artists, entertainers, etc. It is encouraging to observe that the universities as well as other tertiary institutions have expanded their curricular to these national needs.

The universities have a central coordinating body, the National Universities Commission (NUC), which oversees and approves their academic programmes. The NUC regulates admission into universities and disburses money from the Government to the federal universities. The NUC acts as a link between Government and universities; it closely monitors the adherence of universities to Government policies on education. The National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) on the other hand, oversees technical courses offered in polytechnics and technical colleges. In a sense, the NBTE performs functions similar to those of the NUC except the disbursement of funds. The colleges of education and the advanced teacher education and the advanced teacher training colleges of education have no central coordinating body although approval for them to mount any course or for them to be affiliated to a university has to be given by the National Council on Education. Certificates awarded in these colleges bear the name and insignia of the university to which each college is affiliated.

Innovations/Reforms

Matching Higher Education Programmes with the Need for Technological development:

During the 1980s, the economic downturn in Nigeria triggered the call for development so that the country no longer depend heavily on the outside world for everything she needs. In order to achieve this objective, the Government, therefore, through the National Universities Commission, directed that universities and other tertiary institutions should pay a great deal of attention to the development of scientific orientation. For this reason, the ratio of science to

liberal arts students in Nigerian universities is fixed at 60;40 while in polytechnics it is fixed at 70.30.

Rationalisation of University Courses and Programmes

Another innovation in higher education in Nigeria is "rationalisation". Under the scheme the universities were called upon to streamline their courses and programmes to avoid duplication within universities and, where practicable, reduce duplication of programmes between universities. For example. in most universities in Nigeria, statistics is taught not only in the department of mathematics where it rightly belongs, but also in education, social sciences and arts departments. Similarly, introductory computer course is taught to all students irrespective of their disciplines, rationalisation expects to reduce the waste of manpower and check against courses being taught by people who are not qualified. It also has the capacity to regulate the content of courses. Rationalisation, on the other hand, has generated much-heated debate among academics, the NUC and the Government. University workers hold the view that rationalisation is a backdoor tactic for staff retrenchment, retirement and dismissal by the Government. The Government denied this allegation claiming that the exercise is justified by the current economic situation and by the need to halt the growth of many mushrooming university departments and programmes which merely constitute a drain on the scarce financial resources available. Taken together, rationalisation is a seemingly necessary priority within the Nigerian higher education system and a welcome innovation.

At the level of other tertiary institutions, centres of excellence or specialised institutions were created. As of 1988, seven technical colleges of education were established in Nigeria to train teachers for technical courses. They offered courses in the nation's secondary school. Twenty-one research institutes also concentrated their efforts on different fields of excellence.

On the whole, the creation of "centres of excellence" has resulted in a positive and healthy competition among universities and departments have revised their programmes and courses in order to be designated "a centre of excellence". Unpopular and non-viable programmes have been scrapped. The revision of programmes and courses in response to both rationalisation and the creation of centres of excellence have become an important innovation in Nigeria's higher education system.

Centres of Excellence and Specialised Institutions

Another aspect of this innovation in higher education can be seen in the recommendation of 40 of the study Group on Higher Education (FRN, 1986). Recommendation 40 of the study Group on Higher Education stated that NUC should carry out a detailed evaluation of the facilities in universities in order to draw up a comprehensive list of disciplines in which each university should concentrate its efforts. These areas of concentration is popularly known as "centres of excellence".

The objective of creating centres of excellence is to concentrate needed facilities in such centres and as much as possible, direct the admission of qualified candidates to them. Furthermore, in creating centres of excellence in certain academic disciplines, the Government established specialised institution in various disciplines. Thus, two universities concentrate all their programmes on agriculture in order to meet Nigeria's quest for self-sufficiency in food production. Five other universities were designated universities of technology. This is in keeping with the country's aspiration for rapid technological and industrial development.

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Accreditation Panel

The second phase of the above programme, which is also an important innovation in the area of curriculum, is the accreditation exercise (NUC, 1989). The accreditation exercise is based on the approved minimum academic standard documents. These minimum academic standard documents provide for minimum course contents in each degree programme, minimum floor space for lecture and laboratory facilities per student; minimum amount of laboratory space, library and other facilities per student as well as the minimum student-staff ratio for effective teaching and learning in any particular discipline. The accreditation panel for each discipline is made up of staff drawn from Nigerian universities who visit every department and assess every degree programme in the discipline to ensure that the laid down minimum academic standards are met. This is with the hope that a graduate in any particular discipline would, at the end of his programme, have attained certain minimum level of competency as a university graduate in that discipline. Deficiencies detected during the accreditation exercise are made known to the proprietor who is expected to take appropriate steps to correct the deficiencies. Non-accredited programmes are usually subjected to periodic visits at reasonable time intervals to enable the proprietor to meet up with the accreditation requirements in that particular discipline. The final objective of the exercise, of course, is to ensure that all academic programmes being taught in Nigerian University, new faculty and the like, is expected to abide by requirements of minimum academic standard and ensure accreditation by the NUC.

Curriculum Innovation in Ghana

In Ghana, tertiary institutions are made up of post-secondary teacher training colleges, polytechnics, Advanced Teacher Training colleges and universities. In 1986, a new structure and content of education for Ghana was introduced by the Ghana Government under its Economic Recovery programmes. The new structure includes, among others the Third Cycle institutions which, in turn, include the universities, polytechnics and diploma colleges.

Teacher Education

The phenomenal expansion in schools at all levels has had a corresponding effect on the output of teachers. Furthermore, the emphasis on technical and vocational education has broadened the content of teacher education since more practical skills have to be taught. The present trend is, therefore, the training of specialist teachers in one or two fields instead of the former omnibus type of training that existed in the past. As of 1982, the categories of professional teacher education institutions were as follows:

1. Three-year advanced teacher training colleges for diploma studies.

2. Three-year post-secondary training colleges;
3. Certificate A colleges;
4. University for graduate teacher.

The first two categories are associated with the Institute of Education, University of Cape Coast, while the third group are organised by the National Teacher Training Council. Graduate and post-graduate professional training is offered by the University of Cape Coast which is mainly responsible for the production of graduate teachers.

Trends in Curriculum Development and Innovation

The first serious attempt at curriculum development was made in 1951 when a curricula and course centre was set up at saltpond to cater for programmes of accelerated education initiated by Dr. Kwame Nkrumah. The curricula and course centre was operated by officials of the Ministry of Education and the participation of classroom teachers in curriculum development was very limited. Syllabuses and other learning materials were highly centralised and the materials prepared at the centre were handed out to teachers without their input. Evaluation was also centralised and was conducted on a national basis.

A second stage of curriculum development was reached with the creation of the science unit and the Curriculum Research and Development Division (CRDD) within the Ghana Education Service in 1967. With the creation of the CRDD teacher involvement in curriculum development was intensified. Teachers were organised in subject associations whose membership was tapped in curriculum writing workshops. A significant step was taken in the matter of identifying national educational goals when the Dzobo Committee was set up after a series of public outcries against Ghana's educational system. The Dzobo Report devised a new structure for education in Ghana. The Report recommended the re-modeling of the middle school system so that the products of these schools would come out more technically, more vocationally, more scientifically disposed with a more enriched cultural background.

The Curricula of Teacher Education

The curricula of teacher education at the Diploma level have been expanded to include the following: French, art, physical education, home science, mathematics, science, English, business education, Ghanaian language, music, agricultural science, technical education. Students specialise in any of these objectives.

At the Three-year Post-secondary level, the following courses are offered: science, mathematics, english, social studies, home science, agricultural science, vocational subjects, art and music. Students normally take major and minor courses from these subjects.

University Education

Ghana has three universities, namely, University of Ghana, Legon University of Science and Technology, Kumasi, and the University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast. In order to avoid duplication of course, because of the economy of the country, there is delimitation of functions. However, there is reasonable overlapping in certain areas. The University of Ghana, Legon, functions as a liberal arts university, the University of Science and Technology specialises in the applied science, while the University of Cape Coast is responsible for teacher education.

Achievement and Problems

A significant development is seen in the way the work of the curriculum division stimulated other institutions concerned with education and practically brought them into the arena of curriculum development. In this regard, the Ghana National Association of Teachers, the Book Development Council, the University of Cape Coast and the National Teacher Training council have mounted their own curriculum training and material production programmes to aid the curriculum development process. Several factors have, however, continued to create a gap between curriculum plans and full implementation. Prominent among these were financial constraints. The world-wide oil crisis of 1974 and a number of internal factors affected the Ghanain economy

Curriculum Innovation in Liberia

Western Education was introduced in Liberia in 1922 by the settlers from the New World. Between 1919s and 1920s, two systems of education co-existed, namely: the indigenous and the Western systems of education. Their philosophy and objective differed sharply as they naturally were designed to serve two distinct societies. Attempts were made to recognise the significance of the indigenous schools and to cooperate with them. However, it is the Western system of education which has been adopted by the nation as its own, and the challenge remains to integrate the two system, using the best of both.

Tertiary Education

Technical education is one of the weakest areas of tertiary education in Liberia. During the 19th Century practically nothing was accomplished in this area. The Christian Missions which dominated education in the country were so preoccupied with christianizing and civilising that they neglected vocational education.

Some changes came during the first three decades of the 20th century but these efforts were small compared with the needs of the country. The outstanding effort during the period was the Booker T. Washington Agricultural and Industrial Institute which was established in 1929 in Kakata. With the rapid economic changes which took place in the country during the 1950s and l960s, the demand for people with technical/vocational training became exceedingly great and with more expatriates being hired for jobs in industry. A few secondary schools in different parts of the country began to diversify their curriculum offerings to include vocational courses. Despite all of these efforts, development in the technical-vocational area has not kept pace with developments in other areas of education in the country. For rapid development, it is essential to open more comprehensive high schools and vocational streams as well as technical schools or vocational training centres with facilities for specialised training at higher levels.

Teacher Education

Teacher education is an aspect of tertiary education in Liberia in which development has been extremely slow and constituted an even greater limitation on national development of Technical and Vocational education. Throughout the 19th century and well into the 20th the attempts at training teachers were limited to course adjuncts in academic high schools and institutes for short duration.

Improvements in these efforts on a systematic and sustained basis took place in 1894 with the foundation of the William VS Tubuman School of Teacher Training. In 1950, the government of Liberia assumed full responsibility for support of the school. In 1951, the school

was merged with Liberia College and several other schools to form the University of Liberia Curriculum offerings in the area of secondary education began in that year and there were the following basic specialisation: English, Social Science and Mathematics. The I960s saw other development, namely: establishment of junior teacher training colleges which were short lived, and the introduction of teacher training at the secondary school level. In the 1970s the training of teachers for the nation's schools was left with the Williams VS Tubman Teachers Colleges of the University of Liberia and Cuttington College and Divinity School of Teachers earning degrees, and with Zorzor Rural Teacher Training Institute for teachers carrying certificate of high school standing.

Higher Education

Collegiate education began in Liberia with the formal opening of Liberia College in 1962. For fifteen years the college struggled for existence with a single curriculum which was a general liberal arts programme and annually put out a small number of graduates, mostly men. The Law School was added in 1954 and a College of Forestry in 1957. The college of agriculture which was established in 1962 was merged with the College of Forestry. Programmes in economics and business and administration were initiated in the college of Liberal and Fine Arts. The college of medicine which was established in 1968 was incorporated as a college of the University was established. In 1974, the Division of science which started in the I950s as part of the college of Liberal and Fine Arts became the 7th College. The College of science and Technology consists of the Division of Science and Geology, Architecture and Engineering.

Curriculum Innovations

In Liberia since 1972, a series of curriculum revision exercise in which various institutions were involved to rectify some of the major weaknesses of the curriculum, have been going on. Innovative approaches to meet varying needs were encouraged and tried. Steps were taken to produce trained teachers for the implementation of the revised curriculum. The tertiary level was affected by curriculum revision. Although institutions at this level are autonomous and therefore, have not been subject to the curriculum revision exercise. Some members of various faculties have been involved in preparing curricular materials for the lower levels and have worker with the national committee which have been coordinating curriculum revision. Further, these institutions have been adjusting their curriculum in keeping with changes which occurred on the national scene.

Curriculum at the tertiary level until recently, was rooted in the classical tradition at both Liberia College and the Cuttington College which were established in the 19th century. A programme of general studies led to the Bachelor of Arts degree, and through the 4th decade of the 20th century there was hardly any change. The subjects taught were classical language. Latin and Greek and for a short period Arabic at Liberia College; the English language and literature; intellectual and moral philosophy; social science, mainly outside the Liberian experience; maths and sciences. Department which offered theological training and Hebrew was taught in addition to Latin and Greek.

The basic pattern of a four-year college has been retained but since the 1950s, there has been emphasis on specialisation, broadening and varying of offerings. Moreover, the entire programme has been spelled out in terms of semester hours and grade points. It consists of general education followed by specialised training which includes education, science, forestry, agriculture, economics, management, nursing, theology and engineering. Further, there was

expansion in the Bachelor of Arts degree programme so that degrees are awarded in various specialisations in humanities and social sciences.

Another innovation is the inclusion in the curriculum of a growing number of courses dealing with Africa in general and Liberia in particular. Also, theoretical courses in various disciplines are related to the Liberian experience. In varying degrees, depending on the field of specialisation, the curriculum was adjusted to include practical experiences and research and to reflect community orientation and growing involvement in extension, all of which make studies relevant to the Liberian environment and experience.

Curriculum Innovation in Cameroon

The story of Western education in Cameroon is often synchronized with the chequered political history of the country, whose seventy-seven years of colonial rule from 1884 1960, under the three Great Powers, Germany, France, and Britain, with their considerable differences in colonial policies, administrative tactics, social behaviour and educational philosophies have left behind systems of education so extremely rich in diversity that harmonisation into a single system is not an easy task.

There are three levels of education in Carneroon, namely:

1. Primary education
2. Teacher Training, Secondary, Vocational/technical education, and
3. University.

In this chapter, attention will be focused on the third level. The development of the third level of education in Cameroon started after independence with the inauguration of the University of Yaounde in 1962. Therefore, Higher education in Cameroon centres on the University of Yaounde and its schools, institutes and annexes. Founded in 1962, the university started with three faculties, namely: Arts and Human Sciences, Law and Economic sciences and sciences, and the Ecole Normale Superieure. But since the transitional period ending in 1967 the University has expanded into the ten diversified establishments of higher education grouped around the university and growing rapidly to cope with the many-sided manpower needs of a country that is determined to produce locally its own technical scientific, commercial and professional staff. The ten establishments of the university which are all in Yaounde include the Faculty of law and Economics Science, the institute of education centre, the medical school, the Agricultural school, the Engineering school, the School of Journalism, and the Institute of International Relations. The Business Administration school is located in Douala and two annexes of the Ecole Normals Superieure.

Curriculum Reform/Innovation

In 1974, the Council for Higher Education Scientific and Technological Research (CHIESTR) introduced reforms in Cameroon high education which laid down that higher education must henceforth be geared to economic production and the transformation of Cameroon society through the training of high-level and intermediate manpower. This was to be reflected by the professionalization of academic degree in the Yaounde. Consequently, each degree has a professional tag attached to it, for example, BA History of Teaching. A university of technology was envisaged in addition to the present University of Yaounde.

By a recent presidential decreed a university campus has been established in each of the four provinces with the necessary facilities to meet specific needs of Cameroon. Generous scholarships are available for higher education within Cameroon, and a limited number for studies abroad in fields not available locally. No discussion of curriculum innovation in

education at the tertiary level in Cameroon will be complete without mention of the scientific research which is currently in operation in the University of Yaounde but also in the following places and organisations:

1 .The National Office of Scientific and Technical Research which accommodates the National Centre of Education;

2. The Office of Scientific and Technical Research overseas;
3. The National Institute of Geography;
4. The Bureau of Geological Research
5. The Pasteur Institute;
6. The Institute of Demographic Research.

The major purpose of the above research projects is to discover the best means of adapting the curriculum of education and other services to the realities of Cameroon.

The Cameroon Curriculum Centres

Three separate curriculum research centres working together in close liaison, with each carrying out a clearly defined curriculum research assignment, exist in Cameroon to evolve new curricula geared to the goals of the new reforms in Cameroon education.

The Seminars on the Reform of Education in Cameroon

Apart from the work of the three curriculum centres on reform of education in Cameroon, there have been three important seminars which have established the national objectives for the curriculum innovations. The first of these seminars took place in Cameroon in 1973 and concentrated on primary education. The second took place in 1974 and involved an intensive one-week working session of the council for Higher Education and Scientific and Technical Research, in which far-reaching decisions were taken on the reform of higher education in Cameroon. The third seminar, sponsored by the Cameroon Government, took place in 1977. Thus the national objectives, the learning experience and the operational processes called for by the proposed reforms have already been established and applied.

Main Features of the New Curriculum

The reforms aimed at applying the principles of functionalism and practicality to the entire educational system, thus the education system was adapted to the economic or production system of the country. The three-dimensional reform attempted to achieve the following:

1. to harmonise the two inherited system of education;
2. to replace the unprofitable aspects of the classical or bookish type of education with practical education adapted to the Cameroon setting.
3. to evolve an educational system which puts into the hands of its products the practical knowledge for earning a living without recourse to, or expectation of, white-collar jobs.

Curriculum Innovation in Uganda

In Uganda, the term tertiary or higher education is used to refer to the system of advanced education which is offered mainly to students who have successfully completed the full course of secondary education and who have acceptable passes in the Uganda certificate education and Uganda Advanced Certificate of Education Examinations (UNESCO, 1977). Tertiary education

is given in universities, polytechnics institute, colleges and such other institutions that may be allied to them.

At the tertiary level, all education in science fall into one of two categories: basic or natural science, and applied sciences. The Makerere University, the highest academic institution in the country has facilities of Education, Science, Agriculture and Forestry, Medicine and Dentistry and Technology. These operate the traditional university type curricula with heavy concentrations on theory and the corresponding practical components. The curriculum was intended to broaden its scope to provide channels for advancement of knowledge and skills introduced to the students at the secondary level.

The educational curricula of most African countries are plagued with inadequacy and neglect towards national needs and concerns. The case of Uganda is not different. Indeed, most of the curricula in universities are patterned after these of British and American universities. Efforts are currently being made to correct this blind imitation through extensive curricula revision in the programmes of newer universities.

A problem which has become very acute in recent years with all tertiary education institutions is that of inadequate provision of instructional materials or poor quality of tools and equipment. Also considerable concern has been expressed about the large number of drop-outs among students in the universities. It is suggested that most of these students enter the university with very weak background education.

In Uganda, technology education is distinguished from technical education. Technical education implies the use of tools to produce finished goods, to pre-set standards. Training and education is presently available in technical schools at the secondary level, technical institute, the polytechnic and Makerere university, Elements of technology education as mentioned above, create into the educational system in Uganda through developments in primary science education and the curricular innovation which were introduced in the 1960s.

The Ugandan polytechnic has developed to train technicians at ordinary and higher diploma levels to meet the growing demand of technicians and technician engineers. Courses are offered in electrical, mechanical and civil engineering and building. Ordinary and higher diploma courses in these areas in addition to the schemes for training of science, telecommunication technicians and medical laboratory technicians. There is also a course in Diploma and in Industrial Ceramics.

The Faculty of Technology at the Makere University offers four-year courses leading to the B.Sc (Eng) degree in the following areas, namely, Engineering, Electrical, mechanical and civil.

Curriculum Innovation in Kenya

Tertiary education in Kenya include the polytechnics, Technical and Vocational Schools and Institutes for Development studies. The Kenya Polytechnic was established in 1961 along with the Mombasa Polytechnic. They offer courses in higher crafts and technical training. By 1976 there were about thirty schools offering industrial education and these were expanded with aid given by the Swedish government.

The Kenya Ministry of Education diversified educational offerings by expanding business education in the schools in 1971. In 1972 sixteen secondary schools were equipped with typewriters and in 1973 an additional eighteen schools were equipped. The courses were preferred mostly by girls.

The third line of diversification of educational opportunities was agriculture. In 1967 the government expanded the programme at Egerton college for teachers of agriculture in secondary schools. During the 1970-4 Development plan, the Department of Agricultural Education in Egerton was planned to produce forty teachers every year in its three-year non-graduate teacher education programme. By 1972 the programme had produced seventy-two secondary schools aid in all primary teachers college.

Higher Education

The development of higher education in Kenya was retarded by the suspicion with which both officials and settlers regarded it. It was not until 1961 that the University College, Nairobi came into existence. In 1962-3 further developments took place at Nairobi college. The Faculty of Veterinary Science was transferred from Makerere. The college of social studies, which had operated as an independent residential adult education centre since 1961, was absorbed. These two departments were merged into the Institute of Adult Education in 1963. The college of Social Studies was renamed the Adult Studies Centre in 1966.

In 1965 the Institute of Development studies was established with two divisions: the cultural division and social science division. In 1966 a Department of Education was established in the Faculty of Arts with a close working relationship with the Faculty of Science. It started with a post-graduate Diploma in Education class of eighteen students. In September the same year, the Department embarked on a concurrent undergraduate degree programme offering service courses to arts and science students intending to become teachers. The degree of BA/BSc was awarded to successful students.

During the 1967/70 academic year, a new department of Philosophy and Religious studies was established in the Faculty of Arts. The institute of Development studies was established in the Faculty of Arts. The Institute of Development Studies was reorganised into two, the former cultural Divisions becoming Institute of African Studies. In 1970, the School of Journalism was established, offering initially a two-year diploma course. Kenyatta College became college of the University of Nairobi with the responsibility of training graduate teachers in conjunction with Faculty Education. The Department of Fine Art and Home Economics were transferred to Kenyatta University College. In 1972 the Faculty of Education began offering the B.Ed degree for students intending to go into teaching or some other education service.

With the various reforms introduced, the University of Nairobi underwent rapid expansion particularly in the late 1960s and early 1970s. The Department of Fine Arts at Kenyatta University College offers courses leading to the award of the BA and the B.Ed. degrees. In addition to these courses, Kenya College has programmes in business studies and music at the degree and non-degree levels. The Department of Home Economics also offers a B.Sc degree and a B.Ed degree.

By 1973-6 it became clear that there was a need to look into the whole question of higher education in Kenya and to establish the areas of greatest shortages to enable the University to plan its development. The whole sector of tertiary education in Kenya needed a thorough study and planning. Duplication in the curriculum needed to be avoided as much as possible. There was also a need to re-examine the use of expatriates against the long-term benefits of developing local facilities for training local manpower through aid given by those who would send the expatriates. By 1982, higher education reached a plateau in Kenya. However, the Kenya Government is to be commended for what has been achieved in a space of about twelve years.

Curriculum Innovation in Egypt

Higher education in Egypt follows a pattern not dissimilar to many other African countries, However, the religious (or Azhar) institutions form a distinct element in higher education in Egypt. Al Azhar was founded in AD 970 and it is one of the most ancient universities of the world. Its classical theological curriculum continued with little change until 1961 when a remarkable innovation was introduced in the curriculum. As a result of the innovation and modernisation, the AI—Azhar became a remarkable combination of ancient and modern, while remaining true to the ideals of its foundation. It includes within its constitution higher institutes and colleges which provide different specialization, for example, theology, law, science and literary studies. However, all these institutions require the study or religion in addition to specialisation and all pay primary attention to Islamic culture and the evolution of Arab civilisation.

The first modem university is the Cairo University which was founded in 1908 by private initiative. As of 1982, there were nine state universities of which five, including one technical university, were established in the early 1970s. There is one private university which was established by the American Government in 1919.

Admission to universities is based on the result of the national examination for the general secondary certificate. Student with the best results are given priority in the fields of medicine, pharmacy, dentistry, veterinary medicine, science, engineering and economics.

The first degree is awarded after four year's study for most disciplines, but pharmacy, dentistry, veterinary medicine and engineering require five and medicine six years. The master's degree requires two or three year's study after the first degree, the first year being spent in classwork and the second in writing a thesis. The doctorate requires two or three years further studies.

The other higher institutions offer courses which also lead to first degree equivalent to those of the universities. There are four-year courses in teaching, art, music, liberal arts and commerce and five-year courses in agriculture and scientific subjects. The supreme council of universities is responsible for planning and coordinating university education and defining education and research policies in relation to national goals. It is the coordinating body in matters relating to academic curriculum, conditions for the award of degrees, relations between academic departments and faculties and staffing questions.

Curriculum Innovation in Ethiopia

The present system of education in Ethiopia is the culmination of changes and modifications that have been introduced since 1941. This was in response to the changing needs and conditions of the country. The degree programme of the university ranges from four to seven years. The Faculties of Arts, Education, Science, Law; Agriculture, Business, Public Health, Social work and Theology offer four-year courses leading to bachelor's degrees. The Faculties of Architecture and Engineering offer five-year courses for the first degrees while the Faculty of Medicine offers a seven-year course for the MD degree. None of the Faculties offers post-graduate courses leading to Masters or doctors degrees as of 1982. This was due to the commitment of the university to put all its resources to the production of large number of university trained personnel with strong first degree rather than disperse its energies and resources in post-graduate programmes for a few students.

Curriculum Innovation

The curriculum in all educational institutions has undergone a number of revisions since 1941 in order to make it as relevant as possible to the needs of the country. One of the most important aspects of tile reform was the transparence of emphasis from academic in favour of practical and vocational subjects. Since the declaration of socialism in tile country in 1976 further changes have been introduced in the following disciplines:

Vocational-Technical School Curriculum:

Two technical schools, one in Addis Ababa and the other in Asmara, offer a four-year course in technical subjects to students who have completed their secondary education. Eight areas of specialization are offered in each of the two institutions, namely automechanics, building, trade, drafting, electricity, general mechanics, machine shop, radio electronics and surveying. Some of the graduates of these schools join the two-year diploma programme of the Technical Education Department of the university upon satisfying an entrance examination.

The Polytechnic Institute at Baser-Dar

The above offers a two-year post-secondary programme to students who have completed their secondary education and has its objective the training of highly skilled technicians in one of six areas of specialisation, namely agro-mechanic, electrical technology, textile technology, metal technology, wood technology and industrial electricity.

There are also two agricultural schools, one at Ambo and the other at Jimma which offer a two- year diploma course to high school graduates. The courses offered include English, agronomy, horticulture, animal husbandry, agricultural extension, farm management and farm machinery.

Teacher Training Curriculum

The curriculum of the teacher training institutions prepares teachers for primary grades. The curriculum includes academic, professional and practical courses with heavy emphasis upon the academic. The Department of Teacher Education is the only institution that prepares teachers for technical-vocational subjects. It has three major areas of specialisation namely, Business Education, Industrial Education and Home Economics. A common core of subjects in general and professional areas is given to all students which consists of English, Arabic, Psychology and methodology, development of instructional materials, workshop organisation and management.

Curriculum Innovation in Republic of Benin

In 1973-74, under the impetus of the Revolutionary Military Government, Benin carried out a revolutionary transformation of the country's educational system, involving the participation of all levels of the population. The reform defined the content of education and established time tables, methods, types of certificates to be awarded, and the various methods of financing. Since September 1974, when the National Council of the Revolution adopted the national programme for a new education, Benin has to confront the problems of complying the reform within the limits of its available resources, one of the major principles of the Benin Revolution is self-reliance. The reform applied to all kinds and levels of education and to all stages in the upbringing of a patriotic Benin citizen.

Major Problems Before the Application of the Reform

The first problem with regard to tertiary education was the inadequacy of Technical and vocational education both in quality and quantity. Secondly the growth in higher education which surpassed that at the other levels. Thirdly, there were large disparities in the allocation of expenditure as between the various educational sectors. Higher education which, were its early stages at the time absorbed a higher percentage of the budget, an alarming situation that explained the impossibility under the previous system of extending the educational infrastructures as a whole.

Application of the Reform

The first areas affected by the reform were basic and intermediate education, though in various ways higher education was increasingly concerned. The state took over all private schools. Qualified teachers were incorporated into the Government service. Educational curriculum and timetable were revised. Practical instruction was introduced and technical and vocational education was developed. Education was integrated into the environment. National commissions were set up to work out plans of application. Thus the National Commission for syllabuses and timetables drew up new curricula first for basic and then for intermediate education.

Seminars and training courses were arranged to enable education to make effective contribution to the economic and social development of the environment. Priority was given to the creation of polytechical complexes and university so as to meet development needs of the country. As a way of meeting the dual problem of shortage of teachers and funds to pay them, the Service Civique et Patriotique was set up to recruit students at the end of the first stage of their studies at the National University of Benin. In higher intermediate education, the value of scholarships were reduced and as an experiment, students were no longer admitted as boarders.

In the polytechnical complexes the units of production was aimed at obtaining practical returns on the students hours of practical work, earning profits in order to reduce the cost of technical and vocational education. The university co-operative had its own fields of cereals and its own livestock.

Curriculum Innovation: The Algerian Experience

The Algerian system of education designed by the colonial authorities disposed the Algerian people of their culture, their values and the attributes of their real personality without, in turn, providing the benefit of Western education for the population. The educational system which prevailed then was intended to secure the schooling of the European minority, and to meet the modem colonial sectors requirements of skilled manpower. Accordingly, it paid scanty attention to the economic sectors composed of the mass of the Algerian population living in a state of destitution (Remili, 1992).

Educational Reforms

The effects of cultural dependence continued to be felt after the advent of political independence in Algeria, for many reasons. In the first place, education was still largely modeled on that provided by Frame, second, the Evian agreement institutionalised forms of cultural cooperation tending to aggravate acculturation, with the arrival of a large number of cooperation programme personnel to fill the gap left by the massive departure of European teachers, the possibility of opening schools and colleges in Algeria to correspond to the official French

courses and undertakings by Algeria to organise within the limits of its possibilities. In the Algerian universities, on similar conditions as to curricula, attendance and examination were mandatory. It was not until the first four-year plan 1970—73 that an all-round view of the reforms, which was not coloured by the inherited arrangement, was introduced. With the introduction of a really national education system, two essential aims were progressively pursued, namely, the Arabicization of education and the Algerianization of the staff, institutions and curricula.

Furthermore, the progress made in building a socialist society generated the need for a Cultural Revolution. According, a National Committee on Educational Reform was officially established by the Head of the Government in 1969. Its terms of reference was to conceive and draw up an overall plan for the reform of the educational system.

Innovations Introduced

In 1970 the Department of National Education was split in two. The new departments were the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education and the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research. Each was to work out a programme of reform. The reform of higher education was determined in 1971.

Pending the introduction of a more general reform, the 1970-73 four-year plan instituted two major innovations designed to be complementary to:

(a) specialised training to be provided in the institutions of technology:

(b) machinery for life-long education. As a first decisive break with the academic and university pattern of education copied form the liberal developed countries, the institute of technology planned to train the drop-outs from the educational system as specialised staff for the production of goods and services.

As the first link in a life-long education machinery then being developed, the CNEG appeared in the light of a corrective to the specialised training provided in the institutes of technology and as safety net for those leaving the education system. The new Algerian university system took shape under the 1971 reform. The objective was to be an integrated system which would produce graduates capable of playing an operational role. Teaching was organised on the modular system. The formulation of the programmes and their implementation were coordinated at the level of the whole university not as the level of the institutes as under the conventional system. The new training scheme entailed both internal and external integration. That was why higher education was organised around training courses and profiles. The universities had two areas of specialisation, namely, the University of Science and Technology and the University of Social Science.

Obstacles in the Way of Innovation

The intellectual climate was in no way conducive to the conception of innovations, owing to the inherited underdevelopment, namely inadequate theoretical and practical research in the educational sciences, limited means of diffusion to teachers and public, absence of multi-disciplinary terms able to plan the curricular; and inadequate manuals, teaching equipment and methods conceived in cooperation with pilot schools.

Linked with the cultural impact of the colonial past or transmitted by the cooperation programme personnel and Algerian executives trained in Western universities. Mimetic tendencies represented the chief impediments to a radical revolutionary transformation of the system of education and training.

The inadequacy of management skills among school and university administrators has prevented the use of existing resources from being rationalised, and hindered the release of new available capacity to support and step up the expansion of the system.

No inventory was taken of the existing buildings and equipment, and no intensive study of school zoning was made during the first few years after the innovations were brought in.

The ivory tower which surrounds the conventional university was only partly dismantled through the opening of a few national and regional universities and institutes in the country. Their effect depended on the degree to which those in controls were committed to educational reform and the other aims of the Algerian Revolution.

The National Pedagogic Institute lacked the means of investigating and trying out innovation: its heavy burden of work, covering the compilation, Algerianization, Arabicization and publication of school books, and the provision of individual and collective educational facilities for a number of pupils increasing at bewildering speed, precluded any elaborate remodeling of school curricula and teaching means and methods on integrated lines.

The effort in the educational and training sphere which is dearly shown by the expansion of staff numbers involved a parallel increase in expenditure.

Finally, the introduction of innovation is hindered by other handicaps of underdevelopment; the lack of facilities for manufacturing teaching equipment, especially that needed for technical initiation into scientific education, obliges Algeria to make massive purchases from abroad, with all the familiar disadvantages (cost in foreign exchange, ill-adapted equipment, lack of maintenance services, etc.).

Curriculum innovation in Tanzania

After independence, manpower self-reliance and the filing of all major civil-service posts with Tanzanians was an important target. Hence in the first Development Plan, one objective was manpower self-reliance by 1980 and to this end emphasis was laid on expanding higher education (Mhaiki, 1979).

The ministry of National Education set itself the target of training all teachers. Before 1974, training was confined to Teacher-Training colleges, but since 1975, owing to the urgent need for teacher, this has been extended and takes place in colleges. The University's Department of Education trains secondary school teachers and adult organizers. The spirit of self-reliance and the participation of the teachers in school production programmers are much stressed. The Colleges themselves set an example by running chicken, cattle and vegetable farms and by trying, so far as possible, to be self-reliant.

The University of Dar es Salaam aims to meet requirements for highly trained manpower. Since 1970, when it became a national independent university, it has been increasingly able to follow the philosophy of education for self-reliance. The University operates MA and Ph.D. courses in the following disciplines: engineering, pharmacy, agriculture, veterinary science, and Extension, food science and food technology. The Faculty of Engineering has established Departments of Process Engineering and of Chemical Engineering and an Institute of Production Innovation while the Medical Faculty opened a department of Dentistry.

By the reform of the curricula which took place in 1974, students were brought face to face with the development problems of Tanzanian society and were being prepared to solve them in the services of their communities. Changes in curricula were meant to change attitudes in students and teachers and production projects in the schools. Changes in curricula and expansion of education programmers meant very expenses beyond the ability of the average Tanzanian

parent to pay, yet programmes were carried out in the spirit of self-reliance by students, parents and teachers. In 1974-75 self-reliance efforts of schools were valued at 7.7 million Tanzanian shillings.

Conclusions

Many educational reforms in Africa explicitly include the modernization of the curricula among their objectives, and this is commonly taken to mean the extension and updating of scientific and technical programmes, the introduction of new teaching equipment and the adoption of new techniques and methods based on the latest information provided by the human sciences. Education in a modern form is seen as the indispensable basis for the rapid modernisation of production techniques and a means of expediting and controlling the transfer of advanced technologies.

In other cases, reforms or innovations are inspired by the belief that education should faithfully reflect the cultural identity of each country. Consequently, many countries engage in an in-depth review of the educational programmes and methods of scientific and technological training, covering all the stages in the education system.

Major priorities in higher education in Nigeria show that they stem from the strong national ambition to turn Nigeria into a highly industrialised country. The new impetus given to the teaching of the sciences and mathematics attests to this.

The major obstacle militating against the successful implementation of the priorities is the poor financing support given to higher education institutions.

While the Algerian system of education evolved considerably during the first twelve years of the new state's existence, it has not quite kept pace with the very rapid rate of political, economic and social change that has prevailed since the liberation of the country.

A critical look at the curriculum of Liberia shows that it is still the broadly based subject matter type featuring the use of textbooks at all levels of the institutions. The revised curriculum includes both academic and work oriented or practical courses.

In Ghana, a significant development is seen in the way the work of the Curriculum Division has stimulated other institutions concerned with education and practically brought them into the arena or curriculum development.

Benin's educational reform is still in its early days but in several aspects it has already emerged from the experimental phase into that of general application. The reform can only succeed in so far as educational policy forms part of a policy for the overall development of people and resources, which is based on agriculture.

In Uganda, the long-run view of the curricula is that teachers of every subject discipline should be equipped with technology education skills and experiences to enable them construct pedagogically-useful aids which are relevant to the instructional processes. While the reforms introduced in Cameroon higher education stipulate that higher education curricular should be geared to economic production and the transformation of Cameroon society through the training of higher-level and intermediate manpower.

In Tanzania, curricula innovation was meant to change attitudes in students, teachers and production projects in schools in order to foster the spirit of self-reliance efforts in the society.

However, in Ethiopia, one of the most important aspect of curriculum innovation is the transference of emphasis from academic in favour of practical subjects. In Egypt, curriculum reforms were rooted in the diversification of the programmes and less emphasis on the theological curriculum. In Kenya, diversification of the curriculum offerings were geared mainly to the development of manpower in business and agriculture.

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CONTENTS