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Full Length Research Paper

Age variability of managerial competencies in emerging markets with Nigeria as a case study: Implications for recruitment and selection

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Abstract

The central focus of this paper is an analysis of age differences in the mean skill level of selected generic managerial competencies. Discrimination against older employees in most human resources management decisions have widely been reported as if to suggest that job performance diminishes by age. The paper takes the debate of effect of chronological age on job performance to a new level by predicting that if age is a good predictor of managerial job performance, there would be significant variations in the skill levels of competencies that have been shown to discriminate along performance effectiveness between people who are effective and those that are less effective at statistical significant levels. Two hundred and eighty managers from private both private and public sectors, military, international non-governmental organization and research and training institutes in Nigeria were included in the surveyed. Analyses indicated that the variances in the mean skill level of the selected competencies were not statistically significant but some of the competency variables are significantly manifested within some of the age groups than in others in favor of older managers except initiative and achievement orientation that are observed to be more pronounced in managers below 45 years of age. Implications of the findings for practice and future research are discussed.

Keywords: Age variability, managerial competencies, emerging markets, recruitment, selection.

INTRODUCTION

Practitioners and social scientists from very broad backgrounds have a consensus on the strategic importance of people to determine, drive and predict organizational success. In managerial positions, proponents of the competency models have argued that certain managerial competencies are required across board to be effective (Spencer and co, 1993) and concerns those variables relating to the control of and accountability for resources, effective management of personnel and assuring results (Filerman, 2003). However, because organizations are naturally stratified along some variables such as people's age, function,

gender, race, personality, adaptability and other factors, there are interests on why some people succeed or are more effective than others when exposed to the same resources and environment. What variables best account for the differences in performance? And how can organizations ensure that they have capable people that will drive their vision and missions? These issues amongst others are quite germane in managing organizations in today's competitive environment. Traditionally recruiters use academic qualifications, scores in psychometric tests and class of degrees etc., that are assumed to be able to predict performance in what Bandura (1977) termed self-efficacy i.e., the notion that one has all abilities and skills to perform a job well. A trend has emerged in Nigeria where age variables are prominently included in recruitment and other human

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resource management decisions.

In a non-scientific analysis of 1000 job advertisement in leading Nigerian job placement newspapers- the Guardian newspaper and the Punch newspaper- over a period of five years (2005 to 2010), we found that 68.8% of the advertised management positions have age restrictions defined either as a minimal (not below), as a range (from and to) or as a ceiling as in not above. Of these restrictions 36.4% sought ages below 30 years; 38.5% between 31 and 35 years; 36-40 years (4.5%); 46-50 years (1.5%) and 50 years and above 0.5%. Thus about 95% of job advertisements in the survey were highly discriminated in favour of candidates below the age of 40 years. Consequently, on the basis of the survey one may suggest there is likely less than 2% chance for people above 50 years to change jobs through the labour market given the result of this particular analysis.

In the past, the role of age factor in employment in Nigeria was generally defined in terms of age at retirement (except for uniform personnel in the military and police) as age and experience were generally seen as advantage. The influence of changes in the banking industry in the 1990's driven by some best practices i.e. Person-organization-fit theory (Captain, 1987; Judge, 1992; Edward et.al 1998) amongst others led to development of new organization people profile articulated within the organization culture renewals, design or re-engineering processes etc. When applied specifically to the organization domain, the theory of person-organization-fit has strongly influenced many academic investigations which are outside the scope of this paper (see Morley, 2007 for further details). On the basis of theory and research supporting group bias effect, older people are more likely to favor older workers in personnel decisions whereas younger people would favor younger workers (Finkelstein et al., 1995). Consequently, the emerging trend in the Nigerian labour market prompted Idowu, (2005) to comment inter alia that "it is in Nigeria that an employer will insist on age and other criteria such as first class degree that do not logically align with the specified work experience. In earlier comments, both Fawole (1999) and Omachonu et. al (1999) queried the validity of age and academic discriminations in recruitment practices amongst Nigerian organisations. Chidi (2007), Obi andco. (2008) and Alawode, (2009) also observed the subjectivity of the age factor in the recruitment process in Nigeria.

At another level, the economic decline of the 1990's that saw capacity utilization below annual average below 30% in the manufacturing sector forced many organizations to rationalize the labor force. In this, older employees have been found to lose their jobs than younger employees in organizations that are laying-off employees due to both internal and global economic

factors. Shore and Goldberg, (2004) found that retrenched workers' chances of getting re-employed are affected by availability of younger and cheaper labour in the labour market. This discrimination has been hinged on negative stereotypes of older people some of which tend to view them as slower, less flexible, less technically competent, difficult to train and less competitive (Kulik et al., 2000; Maloney and Paul, 1989 and Warr, 1994). Managers are also believed to view older workers as more expensive to their organization (McNaught and Henderson, 1990), and less willing to employ people who will soon retire thereby incurring additional costs on their budgets. In fact Fiske et al., (2002) found that older people are more likely to be denied employment opportunities because they are assessed to be low on competence variables such as confidence, independent, competitive and intelligence. Therefore, preferences for younger people is predicated upon a believe that they will stay longer in employment, learn faster, are less likely to join trade unions, enterprising, adventurous and more attuned to technological changes. We could on this basis reasonably hypothesize that since chronological age has widely influenced many human resources management decisions, it was assumed to contribute to determination of effectiveness.

Relatively few studies concerned with age differences in job performance have been conducted in Nigeria while most reviews outside Nigeria have produced inconclusive results (Davies et.al, 1991). Even then, critical questions remain - is the age variable job-relevant? Does age in fact contribute incrementally to our ability to predict who will be successful or fail in a job? Does managerial effectiveness grow or decline with age? What actually does age predict about managerial performance?

Answers to these questions are important in several ways to human resources management. For example, if age is validly related to effectiveness, it will be interesting to find out the strength of this relationship and on this basis recommend the right age group for managerial jobs. This study is therefore designed to investigate answers to these questions and specifically to show:

- i. That if age is a predictor of job effectiveness, it should be possible to discriminate between the different age groups using the same variables that have been statistically found to discriminate between effective/superior and average or poor performance (Samuel, and Adeoti 2005, Samuel, 2008 and 2001).
- ii. the extent to which each age group manifest the skill levels of the selected managerial competencies; and
- iii. to contribute to existing knowledge on the age- performance relation.

Literature Review

Gerontologists have long considered age as a perception that of one's own or that of others (Finkelstein and Burke, 1998). Some distinctions were made between social and chronological age. For example, Bultena and Power (1978) said that chronological age (i.e., the length of time since one's birth) is related to subjective age and concerns purely the physiological aspect of life. This is often different from what people think of themselves (Blau, 1956; Underhill and Cadwell, 1983). Age reflects the ways people view their social roles based on perspectives of their own positions in the life cycle. People see themselves as younger than their chronological age and are not as a matter of rule of nature limited by it in terms of their effectiveness. Also, the ageing process is not equally spread amongst people as some people ages faster than others for several reasons- gene, health, occupational hazards, economic disposition, stress and several others.

A major observation is that age is one of the things that people relatively find easy to lie about and the absence of good national data-base for age registration in the developing countries raises further questions about the reliability of candidates' age for recruitment purposes. Also, many over aged applicants use sworn affidavit age declaration to reduce their ages and this may not be detected by recruiters - especially for younger-looking candidates. In one of the experiences of the author during a recruitment exercise, the age claimed by a candidate was the same year he completed his first school leaving certificate-certainly the interview switched to when he was born from what he could do. More importantly however, is that if age is not a good predictor of performance the bias towards younger people in recruitment decisions may be wasteful and self-imposed limitations in generating large pool of quality applicants from other age groups. This is more so because any management tool that discriminates on variables that screens off people who are potentially better than those included in the pool cannot be defined as both efficient and effective. Such a tool will likely suffer from construct validity which refers to whether a tool measures traits or characteristics that are important in performing a job function. This is one of the reasons why prediction is one of the major factors in an effective recruitment system. A major concern of the recruitment and selection system is to enhance the quality of prediction about future outcome of the effectiveness of those hired. It is partly an attempt to remove this form of self imposed limitation that the competency-based models of management have been proposed for recruitment and selection amongst others (Samuel, 2008 and 2001). The competency methods emphasize criterion validity: what actually causes

superior performance in a job, not what factors most reliably describe the characteristics of a person i.e., gender, age or race (Spencer et al., 1993).

A conceptual model of age discrimination

Conceptually, age has been described in several management literatures to be contextual and associated with both factors internal and external to the organization which have impacts on many Human Resource management decisions. In a model presented by Shore and Goldberg (2004), in terms of employees, age several comparisons are likely [1] in the immediate work context i.e., such as department or team; [2] career related age norms which tend to influence employee attitudes and performance ratings, and [3] job-related age stereotypes such as operates in determining recruitment and selection decisions. They pointed also to extensive research in all the three categories with several themes apparent: [a] evidence linking age and decision by organizational agents is inconsistent, [b] contextual issues such as the social and technology context appears to be important in determining if and when older workers are discriminated against; and [c] no single paradigm for explaining links between age and employment opportunities applies across all situations or decisions. Consequently, this study adoption of competencies variables may provide better ways to explain the validity or otherwise of age-related discrimination at work.

What are competencies?

The term competency which was first used to describe attributes associated with job performance (McClland, 1973) has in the past decades been popularized as models of management. In the context of these models, some references are made in management literature to organizational competency (Pralhad and Hamel, 1990); to employees or personal competencies (Boyatzis, 1982 and Collin, 1989) and to managerial competencies (Burgoyne, 1993, Raelin and Cooledge, 1995). The connecting line between these sets of competencies is that they derived from the values and core competencies of the organization (Reagan, 1994), and some of them are said to be generic (Spencer et al., 1993). However, meanings attached to the term 'competency' vary depending who is doing the defining. A theme that is popular is the one that describe competencies as soft skills or characteristics which people possess and use in significant and consistent ways to produce varying levels of job outcome. And, to underscore the high confidence level in the competency frameworks, some early

proponents presented the models as predicting not only levels of job performance effectiveness but variances in success in life (Spencer and Spencer, 1993). This is also reflective in the definitions such as Boyatzis, (1982) who describes job competency as underlying personal characteristics which results in effective or superior job performance and those offered by Spencer and Spencer, (1993) as personal underlying characteristics that are "causally related to criterion referenced effective/or superior performance in a job or situation.

Some later disciples of the competency movement takes a more inclusive stand such as Bratton (1998) who described a job competency as any knowledge, skill, trait, motive, attitude, value, or other personal characteristics essential to perform a job while to Guran (2003), a competency is the ability to use knowledge and other capabilities necessary for successful and efficient accomplishment of an appointed task, transaction of work, goal realization, or performance of a certain role in the business process. It is more of a cocoon and panoply of all the characteristics, behaviors and traits of people necessary for successful job performance. The competency characteristics are usually classified as operant or respondent; knowledge or procedural, and declarative traits respectively. The operant characteristics include motives, self-concepts, attitudes and values such as occupational preferences. Knowledge or procedural traits involve content issues such as criminal justice, tax management, recruitment procedures, human anatomy etc which can be recalled when needed ideally all jobs require specific competencies in terms of skills, knowledge and or ability. These requirements would normally limit the personnel specification for potential candidates. For example, content knowledge of a specific discipline to a level may be required for a position such as professional qualifications for accountants (ACCA). However, there may be no much debate agreeing that not all brilliant accountants make good and successful career. This is because knowledge as determined by certification is not reliable in predicting effectiveness. Thus, content knowledge is a threshold competency necessary but insufficient for differentiating between differing levels of effective performance. Knowledge only indicates what a person knows and can do but not what he/she will do.

On the other hand, declarative traits are however general dispositions to attend to certain stimuli and/or behavior in certain ways (Spencer, 1997). These characteristics are more likely to differentiate between people who have similar knowledge, skills, and other background factors but perform at different levels of effectiveness in a job. They include knowledge, skills, and aspects of self-image, social motives and traits, thought patterns, mindsets and ways of thinking, feeling

and acting. The distinction between operant and respondent traits in competency differentiation is important because they are measured in different ways and predict different behaviours (McClelland et. al, 1990). For example, a person who says he is 35 years old and present an age declaration may actually be in his early 40s if he has a baby face, started school late or repeats his class or examinations many times. Another important aspect of the competency debate in the literature is the difference between 'competence and competency' and whether the two connote the same meaning because of the tendency to use the terms interchangeably. Pierce (2000) suggested that this clarification is necessary between managerial 'competence' and managerial 'competency'. Competence is concerned with the performance of works in an effective and efficient manner in what we may summarize as the output or end result of a job. Competency on the other hand comprises of the dimensions of management ability and behaviours required for competent performance- i.e. an input. A job consists of a set of deliverable output (competence) which requires associated abilities (i.e., competencies). It is not akin to the general debate topic on egg and chicken but those of 'efficiency and effectiveness'. Recruitment and selection prediction is about competencies which demonstrate the potentials individual are bringing into the job before they could demonstrate their competence. The following lists are part of the generic competencies often cited in most literature particularly Spencer and Spencer, 1993 as common to all management jobs and found to statistically predict the differences between people classified as effective/superior job performers and those who were classified as average or poor (Samuel, 2006). They include impact and influence, information seeking, achievement orientation, analytical thinking, conceptual thinking, directiveness, use of technical expertise, teamwork and cooperation, developing others, initiative, self confidence and interpersonal understanding.

METHODS

In order to determine whether managerial effectiveness generally falls to older or younger individuals, we defined twelve generic competencies (Spencer and others, 1993) into 45 variables in a Likert format questionnaire. The questionnaire was presented in two parts in order to moderate the tendency of overrating in self assessment tools. Respondents were first asked to define the principal objectives of their jobs in not more than 15 words and to write a short critical incident on any aspect of their job to include what the situation was, who was involved, what the respondent think or feel in the

situation, what they say or do and what was the outcome. Thereafter, they were asked to relate the importance of the reported incident or any other similar incidents to the 18 competency statements on the defined scales i.e., unimportant, slightly important, Important, very important and extremely important. An example of the questions include, how important is it to you to use either figures or references to past records to justify that a new plan you are proposing will succeed? A further set of 17 statements were designed to assess how agreeable respondents were to them on a five-scale - strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree. The more agreeable the respondents were to the statements the lower their skill levels of the competencies they described. A typical question is "I would rather apply existing systems and procedures to do my job very well than seek any new improvement to old methods of doing it". Respondents' background variables were also included such as function, highest educational qualification, gender, age, experience, level and number of people supervised. In order to determine the relations of age to selected managerial competencies, we stratified respondents into six discrete chronological age groups. Group 1 below 30 years; group 2, those ages between 31-35; group 3, those ages 36-40; group 4 for ages 41-45 ; group 5 those between 46-50 years and group 6, those who were above 50 years of age respectively.

Respondents were randomly selected from 16 organizations- 12 private sector listed in the Nigerian Stock Exchange market by sub-sector listing, with 4 establishments in the public sector which included the governor's office of a state, two parastatals of the federal government and two brigade headquarters of the Nigerian army which was combined for purpose of analysis. The questionnaires were marked A and B respectively and the human resources department contacts were asked to use their knowledge of three years' performance ratings of respondents to administer A questionnaires to average performers and B to superior performers. Data collected were individually analyzed and also collapsed into the twelve generic managerial competencies and analyzed using the ANOVA (analysis of Variance of SPSS software package. The results are presented in tabular formats and presented below.

RESULTS

The Table 1 below shows the harmonic mean scores of the skill levels of the age groups on the individual competences in a cross tabular format. The table shows that there is significant variation in the skill levels of the competencies according to the age groups and the pattern is skewed.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Despite the lack of consistent empirical evidence that performance declines by age, many recruiters continue to discriminate against older people. While there are natural physical evidences of age related changes in sensory functioning, response, speed and cognitive processes, the decline in these abilities is almost gradual and most older adults remain healthy and functionally able until very late in life (Czaja, 1995). In fact Landy et al., (1995) argued that there is little credible evidence to suggest any substantial reduction in abilities (cognitive or physical) as a result of age per sé (p. 276). Also Rhodes (1983) meta-analyses studies of age-performance relations found that there were approximately equal numbers of studies reporting that job performance increase with age, decreases or remains the same. Waldman and Avolio (1986) meta-analyzed the seeming disparate findings on age-performance relations in the literature and found that the somewhat widespread belief that job performance declines with age was not strongly supported and many of the results pointed to performance increments with increase in age. In this same vein the aggregate data in this study shown in figure.1 below shows that the variances in the mean skill level of the generic competencies between the different age groups are not statistically significant at $p \geq 0.23$; $f \geq 1.42$. Consequently, we could on the basis of the aggregate data suggest that age is not per se a good predictor of managerial performance, particularly when this is measured against managerial competencies that more predict performance effectiveness (Samuel; 2008).

However, when the individual competencies are taken into consideration, we found that certain competencies in the study are more pronounced within some age groups than others. For example, we found that as managers grow older they manifest higher skill levels of the impact and influence; teamwork and cooperation; interpersonal understanding; directiveness/assertiveness; conceptual thinking and the use of technical skill competencies. In a previous study Samuel found that both experience and familiarity may be linked to higher manifestation of those competencies at older age groups (Samuel, 2001).

On the basis of the above results of this work, one is tempted to ask whether age is a poor or valid predictor of managerial performance potentials. Certainly the data contradicts the notion that younger managers are better than older managers as shown along the manifestations of the above competencies. However, it may not be a sufficient ground to waive off the recruitment discrimination against older managers as reckless mistakes by recruiters because the data also show that younger managers' are more likely to manifest higher mean skill levels of initiative competency for people

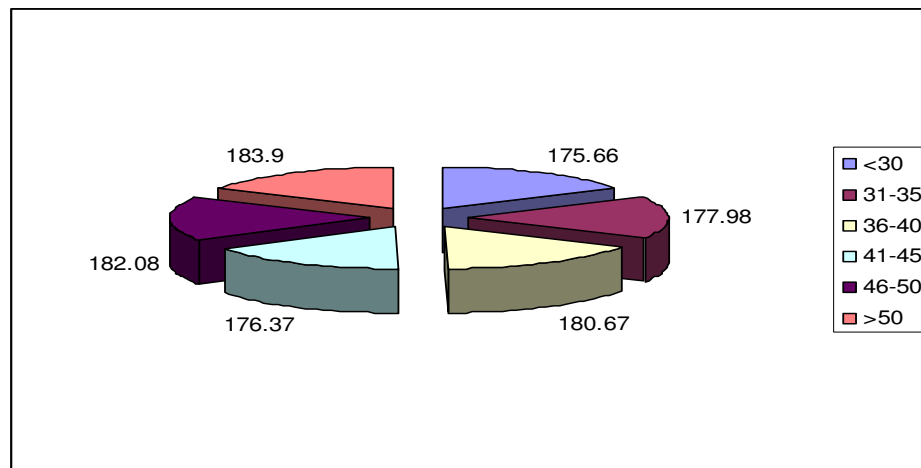


Figure1. Pie Chart showing the cumulative mean skill level of generic competencies between the different age groups in the sample study.

below 45 years of age and achievement orientation was higher below 50 years old although these variances are not statistically significant.

Given the inconclusiveness of the data recruiters may actually not be benefiting too much by the exclusion they place on certain age particularly older people. At the level of native intelligence, age has been associated with wisdom and the custodian of community culture and customs. This customary practice in many parts of the world supports our proposition of familiarity and experience. Jobs that require extensive managing and achieving results through other people may be more suitable to the competencies of older people while those jobs requiring individual drives are more attuned to younger managers' competencies. However age as a recruitment variable is not likely to contribute very significantly to the recruiters' ability to predict potential performance- and on the basis of this take selection and other human resources management decisions.

CONCLUSION

In line with other thinking about managerial performance, i.e., of recruiting for personal competencies (Boyatzis (1982, Spencer and others. 1993); of recruiting for individual demonstrable skill, knowledge and ability (MCI, 1992); of recruiting for emotional intelligence (Goleman 2004) of recruiting for executive intelligence (Menkes,2005) of resilience (Reivich and Shatte, 2003) and of social intelligence (Goleman, 2006) etc., we will suggest that recruitment for managerial jobs should focus on manifested managerial intelligence which include the manager's capability to employ and deploy skills, knowledge, experience, and behaviours require to deliver

specific job objectives. Such capabilities are more likely to be derived from a variety of sources such as those that reflect in the training, motivation, behavioral pattern, intelligence and experience of the candidate.

There is a held opinion that suggests that older managers have lower potential for development (Rosen and Jerdee, 1976) and are actually less interested in keeping up with new technology and information and change. However, Wellner (2002) shows that the ability to learn continues well into old age and older workers can and do learn new technologies. The bias that exist is a stereotype that preclude older managers from training opportunities or exposing them to new technologies but as Maure and Rafuse (2001:119) concluded, an overarching recommendation is to treat all workers regardless of age on an individual basis taking into consideration the individual performance, capabilities, and competencies but not to treat individuals simply as members of an age group.

Furthermore, as the Nigerian labour market shrinks and the labour force ages, older managers who found themselves in the labour market may need to retrain in new technology-based education and skill acquisition. The educational sector of the developing countries remain undersupplied with skilled manpower, which can benefit immensely from older people who worked and retired from the formal sector and acquired quality form of education. Unfortunately there is a mass corruption of the quality of the higher degrees by forgery and smart firms/organizations overseas awarding different degrees that lack substance. Older managers can actually retrain as secondary school or primary school teachers when they retire at about 55 years old. They can still reasonably give additional 10 years quality work in teaching. If for examples, a judge in the judiciary system

retires at about 70 years old with the ability to give landmark rulings. The call by the Nigerian Academic Staff Union to increase the age of Professors to 70 years should follow from similar argument. Consequently, recruitment discrimination against managers above 45 years looks more of self-imposing limitation on the quality of the applicant pool. As we have argued through many sections of this paper, age is not likely able to discriminate between the effectiveness of people beyond mere guess work. It is necessary that recruiters factor into the recruitment system such things as personal competencies, health, motivation and experience that are more likely to predict performance effectiveness than abstract treatment of chronological age.

However because this study is very narrow in its design and only considers a selected range of generic competencies, further works need to be done to expand the competencies to establish age related competencies as well as whether the same validity can be drawn from functional or organizational specific competency frameworks. Also, more research is needed to examine associated factors that have led to the discrimination and what recruiters have actually gained or lost in terms of managerial performance efficiency and effectiveness by restricting recruitment to specific ages. The area of the impact of technology on performance by chronological age will be beneficial to recruiters who without adequate knowledge will continue to exclude competent persons in their recruitment.

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Appendix

The impact and influence competency is expressed through persuasion, convincing, influencing and impressing others. The expression include direct persuasion by using rational, logical and superior arguments or indirect influence through political coalitions, building support for ideas behind the scenes, deliberately giving or withholding information for specific effect or through dramatic actions, statements or unusual symbolic action which reinforces the manager's message in a memorable way. The age distribution of the competency as shown in Table 2 below shows that the variance between the age groups of the competency is statistically significant at $P \leq .004$.

The second competency cluster in the survey is teamwork and cooperation which involves the intentions to work cooperatively with others, to be part of a team, to work together as opposed to working separately or competitively. The group distribution of the mean skill level of the competency shown in table 3 statistical significance in the variation between the age groups at $P \leq .01$

The next competency variable was the analytical thinking which is expressed as the ability to understand a situation by breaking it down and systematically examining its implications by methodically organizing the components of the problems, set priorities and clearly identifies the time sequences; causal relationship and –if-then situations. The variability of this competency cluster amongst the age groups is shown in Table 4 and this was not statistically significant $P \leq .12$. See table 4 for details.

The next competency in the survey was the initiative competency and this involves taking managerial actions now to create opportunities or to prevent problems in the future by acting quickly and convincingly. This competency includes a preference for taking action, doing things that no one has requested, which will improve or enhance job results and avoid problems or finding or creating new opportunities. The result of the variation of the skill level of the competency amongst the age groups shows that this was not statistically significant at $P \leq .24$. See Table 5 for details.

Developing others competency is exhibited through genuine intent by the manager to foster the learning or development of others with an appropriate level of need analysis. The focus is on developmental intent and effect of that on subordinates not that of formal role of training. The analysis of variance between the age groups is not statistically significant $P \leq .11$. The result is shown in Table 6 that follows.

The next competency cluster in the survey is Self confidence that is manifested by the exhibition of courage of personal convictions even in the presence of

pressures, uncertainty and ambiguity. It also includes a general confidence in one's and judgment. This includes the person's express confidence in dealing with increasing challenges, circumstances, in reaching decisions or forming opinions and in handling failures constructively. The AVOVA (analysis of variance between the age groups is not statistically significant $p \leq .13$. See the result in table 7 below.

Next in the survey is the interpersonal understanding competency which is one of the building blocks of the building relationship competencies. It is in the same cluster with teamwork and cooperation and developing others. It is generally manifested as the manager's ability to understand and respond to the feelings and concerns of others and for accurately assessing their strengths and limitations. The ANOVA result shows that the differences in the skill levels of the competency are statistically significant at $P \leq .001$. See result in table 8 below.

The competency variable was the directiveness/assertiveness competency which involves the use of legitimate power or authority to obtain subordinates' compliance with one's wishes which are in the best interests of the organization without any attempt to persuade or debate. It manifests by the manager's focus on performance and his/her willingness to fire non-performers. This competency leads to managers being assertive and required in maintenance of discipline, quality, customer focus, productivity and issuing instructions. This is one of the competencies managers need to manage the work of others both as individuals or group. The result shows that the variance between the age groups is statistically significant at $P \leq .001$. The result is shown in Table. 9 below

Managers generate and use different information and the variance in the use of information was found to be one of the highest discriminate variables between superior and average managers (Samuel, 2001). The information seeking competency is a competency manifested in the collection and use of information relevant to work-based problems, processes or opportunities by the manager. It also includes a propensity to source information from variety of sources to define or solve a problem. Information seeking is one of the competencies in decision making cluster which also include analytical thinking, conceptual thinking and the impact and influence. The ANOVA result shows that there is no statistically significant variation between the skill levels of the competency between the age groups in the use of information seeking competency at $P \leq .21$ The result of the ANOVA is presented in Table 10 below.

The next competency variable in the survey is conceptual thinking which enhances the manager's ability to identify

Table 2. Impact and influence Competency by Age Groups

Age group	M	SD	N
<30	19.19	4.05	21
31 – 35	20.75	4.90	66
36 – 40	20.05	4.46	77
41 – 45	21.32	3.60	67
46 – 50	22.57	4.04	47
>50	23.95	3.56	20

F = 3.51, significance .004

Table 3. Teamwork and Cooperation Competency by Age Groups

Age group	M	SD	N
<30	15.28	2.95	21
31 – 35	14.78	3.14	66
36 – 40	14.54	3.74	77
41 – 45	14.28	2.58	67
46 – 50	16.82	2.33	47
>50	17.75	1.9	20

F = 7.85 significance = 01

Table 4. Analytical Thinking Competency by Age Groups

Age group	M	SD	N
<30	9.23	2.09	21
31 – 35	9.33	2.55	66
36 – 40	9.58	2.83	77
41 – 45	9.64	2.36	67
46 – 50	10.27	2.26	47
>50	10.1	1.91	20

F = 1.72 significance .12

Table 5. Initiative Competency (source: Survey Study)

Age group	M	SD	N
<30	10.33	1.52	21
31 – 35	10.09	2.01	66
36 – 40	10.58	2.33	77
41 – 45	10.09	1.67	67
46 – 50	9.91	1.84	47
>50	9.55	1.43	20

F = 1.34 significance = .24

Table 6. Developing others competency.

Age group	M	SD	N
<30	17.61	4.47	21
31 – 35	17.30	4.46	66
36 – 40	18.42	3.88	77
41 – 45	17.74	3.06	67
46 – 50	17.91	3.33	47
>50	19.85	1.69	20

F = 1.77 significance = .11

Table 7. Self Confidence Competency.

Age group	M	SD	N
<30	17.28	3.06	21
31 - 35	17.5	3.73	66
36 - 40	18.06	3.57	77
41 - 45	17.80	2.75	67
46 - 50	17.29	2.99	47
>50	15	2.72	20

F = 2.96 significance = .13

Table 8. Interpersonal Understanding Competency.

Age group	M	SD	N
<30	6.85	1.15	21
31 – 35	6.34	2.31	66
36 – 40	7.09	1.72	77
41 – 45	6.14	2.09	67
46 – 50	6.59	1.56	47
>50	4.3	2.22	20

F = 7.19 significance = .001

Table 9. Directiveness/ Assertiveness Competency.

Age group	M	SD	N
<30	9.04	2.59	21
31 - 35	8.89	2.56	66
36 - 40	9.66	2.23	77
41 - 45	9.68	2.08	67
46 - 50	10.19	1.77	47
>50	11.25	1.58	20

F = 4.54 significance = .001

Table 10. Information Seeking Competency

Age group	M	SD	N
<30	20.14	4.31	21
31 – 35	20.48	4.12	66
36 – 40	20.15	3.79	77
41 – 45	19.73	3.50	67
46 – 50	20.65	5.09	47
>50	22.35	2.20	20

F = 1.44 significance = . 21

Table 11. Conceptual Thinking Competency

Age group	M	SD	N
<30	6.52	1.56	21
31 - 35	7.00	1.59	66
36 - 40	7.00	1.57	77
41 - 45	6.73	1.44	67
46 - 50	6.12	1.77	47
>50	5.50	1.98	20

F = 4.41 significance = .001

Table 12. Use of Technical Expertise

Age group	M	SD	N
<30	13.81	2.29	21
31 - 35	14.21	2.38	66
36 - 40	13.83	2.26	77
41 - 45	13.55	2.61	67
46 - 50	14.23	2.64	47
>50	15.75	1.86	20

F = 2.83 significance = .01

patterns or connections between situations that are not obviously related, and to identify key or underlying issues in complex situations. The skills include creative, conceptual and inductive reasoning. The ANOVA result is presented in table 11 above and shows that the variance between the age groups of this competency cluster is statistically significant at $P \leq .001$

The technical expertise is a threshold competency and may be defined as a baseline for the qualifications required to perform or hold a job however, it is the differentiation in the ways skills or expertise are applied that usually account for differences in results obtain by people with similar skills under the similar conditions. This competency therefore involves the manager's motivation to expand and use technical knowledge or distribute work-related knowledge to others. It also includes the degree to which a person applies technical skills to enhance the respect of subordinates and others

through coaching, delegation, problem analysis and problem solving. The ANOVA result shows that there is a statistical significance variation between the age groups at $P \leq .01$ as shown in table 12 above.

This is one of the key competencies in the driving for success cluster which are called action related competencies. They involve actions targeted towards competing against self to meet self directed objectives and goals to enhance overall organizational performance. In particular the achievement orientation competency is expressed by a high motivation to succeed by setting challenging but achievable goals and taking personal initiatives to improve performance. It is a concern for working well or for competing against a standard of excellence. It also involves the manager's motive to find faster and better ways to achieve results. The ANOVA result shows that there no significant variance in the manifestation of the competency between the age

Table 13. Achievement Orientation/Goal orientation Competency

Age group	M	SD	N
<30	30.33	4.55	21
31 - 35	31.27	6.06	66
36 - 40	31.57	6.64	77
41 - 45	30.22	3.93	67
46 - 50	31.46	5.76	47
>50	28.55	4.12	20

F = 1.34 significance = .24

groups as contained in table 13, $P \leq .24$